

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

INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE “ARCHIBALD REISS DAYS”
THEMATIC CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS OF INTERNATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

MEĐUNARODNI NAUČNI SKUP
INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE

„DANI ARČIBALDA RAJSA“
“ARCHIBALD REISS DAYS”

Beograd, 3-4. mart 2014.
Belgrade, 3-4 March 2014

TEMATSKI ZBORNIK RADOVA
MEĐUNARODNOG ZNAČAJA

THEMATIC CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS
OF INTERNATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

TOM II
VOLUME II

KRIMINALISTIČKO-POLICIJSKA AKADEMIJA
NEMAČKA FONDACIJA ZA MEĐUNARODNU PRAVNU SARADNJU (IRZ)
Beograd, 2014

ACADEMY OF CRIMINALISTIC AND POLICE STUDIES
GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL LEGAL COOPERATION (IRZ)
Belgrade, 2014

Publishers

ACADEMY OF CRIMINALISTIC AND POLICE STUDIES
196 Cara Dušana Street, Zemun, Belgrade
GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL LEGAL COOPERATION (IRZ)
Bonn, Germany

Editor-in-Chief

Associate Professor DRAGANA KOLARIĆ, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies

Editors

Full Professor SRĐAN MILAŠINOVIĆ, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Associate Professor DARKO SIMOVIĆ, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Associate Professor BILJANA SIMEUNOVIĆ-PATIĆ, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies

Reviewers

NORBERT LEITNER, PhD
Director of the Sicherheitsakademie, Austria
Vice-President of the Association of European Police Colleges
Associate Professor HONG WANG, PhD
National Police University of China, Liaoning
Associate Professor JOZEF METENKO, LL.D.
Academy of Police Force in Bratislava, Slovakia
Full Professor OLIVER BAČANOVIĆ, PhD
Faculty of Security, Skopje, University of St. Kliment Ohridski, Bitola, Macedonia
Full Professor GORAZD MEŠKO, PhD
Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, Ljubljana, University of Maribor, Slovenia

Computer Design

GORAN GRBIĆ

Impression

200 copies

Print

ArtGrbić Illustrated Studio, Belgrade

THE CONFERENCE AND THE PUBLISHING OF PROCEEDINGS WERE SUPPORTED
BY THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGICAL
DEVELOPMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA AND GERMAN FOUNDATION
FOR INTERNATIONAL LEGAL COOPERATION (IRZ)

© 2014 Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade
German Foundation for International Legal Cooperation (IRZ)

ISBN 978-86-7020-190-3

ISBN 978-86-7020-279-5

Izdavači
KRIMINALISTIČKO-POLICIJSKA AKADEMIJA
Cara Dušana 196, Zemun, Beograd
NEMAČKA FONDACIJA ZA MEĐUNARODNU PRAVNU SARADNJU (IRZ)
Bon, Nemačka

Glavni i odgovorni urednik
prof. dr DRAGANA KOLARIĆ
Kriminalističko-policijska akademija

Urednici
prof. dr SRĐAN MILAŠINOVIĆ
Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr DARKO SIMOVIĆ
Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr BILJANA SIMEUNOVIĆ-PATIĆ
Kriminalističko-policijska akademija

Recenzenti
prof. dr NORBERT LAJTNER
direktor Akademije za bezbednost, Austrija
potpredsednik Asocijacije evropskih policijskih koledža
prof. dr HONG VANG
Nacionalni policijski univerzitet Kine, Ljaoning
prof. dr JOZEF METENKO
Policijska akademija, Bratislava, Slovačka
prof. dr OLIVER BAČANOVIĆ
Fakultet bezbednosti, Skoplje, Univerzitet Sv. Kliment Ohridski, Bitolj, Makedonija
prof. dr GORAZD MEŠKO
Fakultet za krivično pravosuđe i bezbednost, Ljubljana, Univerzitet u Mariboru, Slovenija

Tehničko uređenje
GORAN GRBIĆ

Tiraž
200 primeraka

Štampa
ArtGrbić Illustrated Studio, Beograd

ODRŽAVANJE SKUPA I ŠTAMPANJE OVOG ZBORNIKA PODRŽALO JE
MINISTARSTVO PROSVETE, NAUKE I TEHNOLOŠKOG
RAZVOJA REPUBLIKE SRBIJE
I NEMAČKA FONDACIJA ZA MEĐUNARODNU PRAVNU SARADNJU (IRZ)

© 2014 Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd
Nemačka fondacija za međunarodnu pravnu saradnju (IRZ)

ISBN 978-86-7020-190-3
ISBN 978-86-7020-279-5

**INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE
“ARCHIBALD REISS DAYS”**

SCIENTIFIC PROGRAMME COMMITTEE

Full Professor Goran Milošević, PhD,
Dean of the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, **President**
Full Professor Miroslav Vesković, PhD, Rector of the University of Novi Sad
Full Professor Sima Avramović, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Law in Belgrade
Full Professor Zoran Stojanović, PhD, Faculty of Law in Belgrade
Full Professor Radomir Milašinović, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Security in Belgrade
Major-General Mladen Vuruna, PhD, Head of the Military Academy
Slobodan Nedeljković, Assistant to the Minister, Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia
Miloš Oparnica, Assistant to the Minister, Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia
Police General Branislav Mitrović, Deputy Police Director, Ministry of Interior
of the Republic of Serbia

International members

Dr. Stefan Pürner, Head of Section South-East Europe Middle, IRZ
Wang Shiquan, PhD, President of the China Criminal Police University
Mychaylo Cymbaluk, PhD, Rector of the Lviv State University of Internal Affairs, Ukraine
Ivan Toth, PhD, Dean of the University of Applied Sciences in Velika Gorica, Croatia
Gheorghe Popa, PhD, Rector of the Police Academy “Alexandru Ioan Cuza”, Romania
Vladimir V. Gordienko, PhD, Head of the Academy of Management
of the Interior Ministry of Russia
Vladimir Tretyakov, PhD, Chief of the Volgograd Academy
of the Russian Internal Affairs Ministry
Hasan Hüseyin Çevik, PhD, Deputy Rector of the Turkish National Police Academy
Piotr Bogdalski, PhD, Commandant-Rector of the Police Academy in Szczytno, Poland
Helene Martini, PhD, Director of the France’s National Police College,
President of the Association of European Police Colleges
Ladislav Šimák, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Special Engineering, University of Zilina, Slovakia
Peter Ruzsonyi, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Law Enforcement, Hungary
Oliver Bačanović, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Security, Macedonia
Dragan Radonjić, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Law, Podgorica, Montenegro
Štefan Kočan, PhD, Academy of Police Force, Bratislava, Slovakia
Vid Jakulin, PhD, Faculty of Law, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia
Darko Maver, PhD, Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Maribor, Slovenia
Nedžad Korajlić, PhD, Dean of the Faculty for Criminal Justice, Criminology
and Security Studies,
University of Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina
Mile Šikman, PhD, Mol of the Republic of Srpska
Tanja Tripović, Acting Dean of Police academy in Danilovgrad

ORGANIZING COMMITTEE

Associate Professor Dragana Kolarić, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic
and Police Studies, **President**
Milorad Todorović, Secretary of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia
Lazar Nešić, National Criminalistic-Technical Centre, Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia
Goran Amidžić, MA, Higher School of Internal Affairs, Republic of Srpska
Full Professor Srđan Milašinović, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Associate Professor Biljana Simeunović-Patić, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic
and Police Studies
Full Professor Ljiljana Mašković, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Full Professor Đorđe Đorđević, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Full Professor Milan Žarković, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Associate Professor Mladen Bajagić, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Associate Professor Dane Subošić, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies
Assistant Professor Nikola Milašinović, PhD, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies

**MEĐUNARODNI NAUČNI SKUP
“DANI ARČIBALDA RAJSA”**

NAUČNI PROGRAMSKI ODBOR

prof. dr Goran Milošević, dekan Kriminalističko-policijske akademije, **predsednik**
prof. dr Miroslav Vesković, rektor Univerziteta u Novom Sadu
prof. dr Sima Avramović, dekan Pravnog fakulteta u Beogradu
prof. dr Zoran Stojanović, Pravni fakultet u Beogradu
prof. dr Radomir Milašinović, Fakultet bezbednosti Univerziteta u Beogradu
general-major prof. dr Mladen Vuruna, načelnik Vojne akademije
Slobodan Nedeljković, pomoćnik ministra, MUP Republike Srbije
Miloš Oparnica, pomoćnik ministra, MUP Republike Srbije
general policije Branislav Mitrović, zamenik direktora policije MUP Republike Srbije

Članovi iz inostranstva

Dr. Stefan Pürner, šef Odseka za Jugoistočnu Evropu, IRZ
prof. dr Wang Shiquan, predsednik Kineskog kriminalističko-policijskog univerziteta
prof. dr Mychaylo Cymbaluk, rektor Državnog univerziteta unutrašnjih poslova u Lavovu, Ukrajina
Prof. dr Ivan Toth, dekan Veleučilišta u Velikoj Gorici, Hrvatska
prof. dr Gheorghe Popa, rektor Policijske akademije “Alexandru Ioan Cuza”, Rumunija
prof. dr Vladimir V. Gordienko, načelnik Akademije za menadžment
Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova Rusije
prof. dr Vladimir Tretjakov, načelnik Volgogradske akademije Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova Rusije
prof. dr Hasan Hüseyin Çevik, zamenik rektora Turske nacionalne policijske akademije
prof. dr Piotr Bogdalski, komandant-ректор Policijske akademije u Šitnu, Poljska
Helene Martini, direktorka Francuskog nacionalnog policijskog koledža,
predsednica Asocijacije evropskih policijskih koledža
prof. dr Ladislav Šimák, dekan Fakulteta za specijalno inženjerstvo, Univerzitet u Žilini, Slovačka
prof. dr Peter Ruzsonyi, dekan Fakulteta za sprovođenje zakona, Mađarska
prof. dr Oliver Bačanović, dekan Fakulteta bezbednosti, Skoplje, Makedonija
prof. dr Dragan Radonjić, dekan Fakulteta političkih nauka u Podgorici, Crna Gora
prof. dr Štefan Kočan, Policijska akademija, Slovačka
prof. dr Vid Jakulin, Pravni fakultet, Univerzitet u Ljubljani, Slovenija
prof. dr Darko Maver, Fakultet bezbednosnih studija, Univerzitet u Mariboru, Slovenija
prof. dr Nedžad Korajlić, dekan Fakultet za kriminalistiku, kriminologiju i sigurnosne studije,
Univerzitet u Sarajevu, BiH
dr Mile Šikman, Ministarstvo unutrašnjih poslova Republike Srpske
Tanja Tripović, v. d. direktora Policijske akademije u Danilovgradu, Crna Gora

ORGANIZACIONI ODBOR

prof. dr Dragana Kolarić, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, **predsednik**
Milorad Todorović, sekretar MUP Republike Srbije
Lazar Nešić, Nacionalni kriminalističko-tehnički centar, MUP Republike Srbije
dr Goran Amidžić, Visoka škola unutrašnjih poslova, Republika Srpska, BiH
prof. dr Srđan Milašinović, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr Biljana Simeunović-Patić, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr Ljiljana Mašković, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr Đorđe Đorđević, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr Milan Žarković, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr Mladen Bajagić, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
prof. dr Dane Subošić, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija
doc. dr Nikola Milašinović, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija

P R E F A C E

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 IRZ Foundation from Bonn, Germany, the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia, China Criminal Police University, 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 3 and 4 March 2014.

International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days” is organized for the fourth 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 130 papers written by eminent scholars in the field of law, security, criminalistics, police studies, forensics, medicine, as well as members of national security system participating in education of the police, army and other security services from Germany, Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, China, Poland, Slovakia, Moldova, Lithuania, Latvia, Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovenia, Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, Republic of Srpska and Serbia. Each paper has been 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 at the Conference, as well as to all those who contributed to or supported the Conference and publishing of this Collection, especially to the IRZ Foundation from Bonn, the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.

Belgrade, March 2014

Programme and Organizing Committees

A WORD FROM THE IRZ

What is IRZ and why does it support the International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days“ of the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies of the Republic of Serbia?

The abbreviation IRZ stands for the German Foundation for International Legal Cooperation, which was founded over 20 years ago, namely in 1992, on the initiative of the German Federal Ministry of Justice. The IRZ's task is to provide support to the partner countries in the establishment and strengthening of the rule of law. In this regard, it is very helpful that it has been organized as an association. The IRZ members are large organizations in the field of law in Germany, such as the Association of Judges, bar associations, chambers of notaries, specifically the existing Lawyers' Association and Chamber of Notaries, Women Lawyers Association and Association of Jurors, to name a few of them. Consequently, the IRZ, as the only active organization, authorized the German Federal Government, and specialized exclusively in the international counseling in the field of law, has direct access to expert knowledge and the experts from these organizations.

At first, the partner countries were exclusively from East and Southeast Europe, which have reformed their legal systems from socialism to a market democracy. Today, the IRZ also operates in North Africa and Asia. Within its work, the IRZ provides consulting services in legislative procedures and provides support in the areas of education and further training of legal practitioners, and is also the co-editor of legal publications. The IRZ is funded by the German tax funds from the budget of the Federal Ministry of Justice and the Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs, as well as from revenues generated through participation in the IPA and twinning projects.

The IRZ has been present in Serbia since 2000, as a part of the German contribution to the Stability Pact for South East Europe. Since then, in cooperation with numerous project partners, it has implemented a number of programmes - to highlight just a few - cooperation with the Constitutional Court of the Republic of Serbia, where the IRZ significantly contributed to the introduction of individual constitutional complaint in the Serbian legal system, as well as with the Judicial Academy.

Another focus of the work in the last few years was counseling in the field of the reform of the Code of Criminal Procedure. Within the activities related to the counseling, among other things, translation of the German Guidelines for Criminal Investigation and Administrative Fines Proceedings (RiStBV) was published, which governs the basic practical issues relating to the investigative procedure. In addition, a new edition of the translation of the German Code of Criminal Procedure, developed within the IRZ's project work in Bosnia and Herzegovina, was published, in order to allow Serbian lawyers who do not speak German language to independently read the relevant German regulations.

However, it must be emphasized that the counseling within the reform of the Serbian Criminal Procedure Code, from the IRZ's perspective, did not go without disappointments. German experts particularly considered that it was inadequate for a country located in the very heart of Europe to take over institutes from criminal proceedings of the United States of America. Moreover, mixing of continental European and Anglo-American legal institutions in a hybrid law faced general challenging from a technical standpoint. Regardless of that, the IRZ continues to support the reform of the Code of Criminal Procedure in the area where the current law in Serbia is similar to the German system - in the area of investigative procedure. This can be seen also as a contribution of Germany in crime suppression in Serbia. The very focusing on the new prosecutorial investigation, especially on the cooperation between the prosecution and the police, is the reason why the IRZ cooperates in this area with the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, through organization of joint events and seminars. For the same reason, the IRZ supports this scientific conference, since its goal is the strengthening of the capacities for crime prevention and investigation in criminal proceedings.

We especially greet the fact that the materials from this scientific conference will be published in printed form, which will make them available to a wider audience. An additional favorable fact is that this scientific conference pays tribute to Archibald Reiss, after whom the conference was named, as a Swiss man from German speaking region, who can also be considered as a symbol of cooperation between jurists from German speaking countries and their Serbian colleagues.

Finally, we wish to thank the many individuals and institutions, without which cooperation between the IRZ and the Academy would not be that successful and enjoyable. In the first place, we must point out the German Federal Ministry of Justice and Consumer Protection and the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which support and enable the IRZ's work in Serbia from the funds of German contribution to the Stability Pact for South East Europe. In addition, we would like to thank the German Ambassador Mr Heinz Wilhelm and his associates, who are closely following and constructively supporting the work of the IRZ. Finally, the IRZ would like to sincerely thank the Dean of the Academy, Mr Goran Milošević, PhD, and Vice Dean for Science and Research, Mrs Dragana Kolarić, LLD, for the efficient and always pleasant cooperation. We also thank to all those who strongly support the IRZ's counseling of Serbia in the field of investigative procedure - especially to retired Prosecutor-General Jürgen Dehn and Police Director Hans Dieter Hilken, who as an experienced team of practitioners have been sharing their rich experience in the field of prosecutorial investigation with their Serbian colleagues. We also thank Mr Dragan Simić, who has been following the activities of the aforementioned experts as a professional translator, as well as my colleague Ms Dragana Radosavljević, who as a project manager from Bonn is in charge for the IRZ's activities in Serbia.

Lawyer dr. Stefan Pürner
Head of Section South-East Europe Middle, IRZ

CONTENTS

TOPIC

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN POLICE

UPRAVLJANJE LJUDSKIM RESURSIMA U POLICIJI

Temelko Risteski, Emrah Mihtaroski, Vesna Sijic CONTROL OVER THE POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA	19
Dane Subošić, Željko Mojsilović THE CHANGE IN ATTITUDES OF TRAINEES OF THE POLICE NEGOTIATOR TRAINING	29
Simon Carp PERSONNEL POLICY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS	55
Meiying Geng RATIONAL ALLOCATION AND PROPER DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN POLICE.....	65
Zlate Dimovski, Ice Ilijevski, Kire Babanoski RESPONSIBILITY OF THE POLICE OFFICERS IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA - CRIMINAL LAW, MISDEMEANOR, MATERIAL AND DISCIPLINARY RESPONSIBILITY.....	71
Bojan Urdarević INTERNATIONAL LABOUR STANDARDS RELATED TO CIVIL SERVANTS.....	81
Dalibor Kekić, Obrad Stevanović, Marko Mihić KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT IN SERBIAN POLICE ORGANIZATION	89
Svetlana Ristović HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN THE POLICE - EVALUATION OF THE ACTIVITIES AND OPERATIONS MANAGERS IN THE POLICE -	99
Igors Trofimovs POSSIBILITY OF USING INTERPOL AND EUROPOL IN CRIME DETECTION IN LATVIA AND COOPERATION OF CRIMINAL POLICE WITH OTHER COUNTRIES	111
Danijela Spasić, Goran Vučković, Saša Milojević POLICE EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY POLICING: BETWEEN TRADITION AND INNOVATION	119
Radivoje Janković, Milivoj Dopsaj, Raša Dimitrijević DIFFERENCES OF METABOLICAL AND PHYSICAL REACTIONS TO SPECIFIC PHYSICAL STRESS WITHIN THE BODY OF THE ACADEMY OF CRIMINALISTIC AND POLICE STUDIES STUDENTS	129

Anna Timofeyeva, Nataliya Ryazantseva
THE RUSSIAN MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENTAL POLICY
REALIZATION IN PERSONNEL PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FIELD
(EXEMPLIFIED BY VOLGOGRAD ACADEMY OF THE MINISTRY
OF THE INTERIOR OF RUSSIA)137

Stefan Belecciu, Iuri Lari
CRITERIA FOR STANDARDIZATION OF POLICE PERSONNEL SYSTEM.....145

Nikola Dujovski
THE PROCESS OF SELECTION IN POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA....157

Marta Vujisić
ENDANGERMENT OF POLICE OFFICERS' SAFETY
– OCCUPATIONAL HAZARD.....165

Slobodan Spasić
HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT IN THE POLICE FORCE AND THE
IMPORTANCE OF CERTAIN AREAS TO REDUCE STRESS AT WORK.....175

TOPIC

SECURITY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS BEZBEDNOST U VANREDNIM SITUACIJAMA

Radoslav Gaćinović
RESPONSIBILITY OF A STATE IN BUILDING A CAPACITY
OF SECURITY SYSTEM189

Zoran Jevtović, Srđan Milašinović
STRATEGIES AND METHODS IN CRISIS
MANAGEMENT: INFORMATION AND EMERGENCY.....199

Neven Cvetičanin, Aleksandar Đokić
ORGANIZED CRIME AND TERRORISM AS PARA-POLITICAL FORMS.....207

Dragan Randelović, Miloš Randelović, Radomir Janjić
CRISIS IN SERBIA: SUBJECTS AND IT TO SOLVE THEM.....217

Mladen Bajagić, Marjan Marjanović
CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE PROTECTION - ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES.....229

Zoran Krstić
SECURITY AS A CONDITION OF DEMOCRATIZATION –
EXAMPLE OF SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA.....241

Vesna Nikolić, Mirjana Galjak
RAISING PUBLIC AWARENESS AND SAFETY CULTURE
AS A PREREQUISITE OF EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT251

Aleksandra Ljuština, Marija Mališ Sazdovska, Nevenka Knežević Lukić SAFETY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS CAUSED BY NATURAL DISASTERS.....	263
Miroslav Talijan, Mile Jelić CHARACTERISTICS OF SECURITY MANAGEMENT IN SPECIFIC SECURITY CONDITIONS AND CRISIS SITUATIONS.....	273
Boban Milojković, Dragan Mladan, Aleksandar Ilić POSSIBILITIES OF USING THE LOCATION BASED SERVICES IN EMERGENCY.....	287
Stevo Jaćimovski, Slobodan Miladinović, MICROCLIMATE CHANGES IN BASIN IN KOSTOLAC AS A CONSEQUENCE OF NEGATIVE INFLUENCE OF KOSTOLAC THERMAL POWER PLANTS.....	297
Dejan Bošković MEASURES TAKEN BY BUSINESS ENTITIES IN ORDER TO ELIMINATE OR REDUCE RISK OF ACCIDENTS, EXPLOSIONS AND FIRES INVOLVING HAZARDOUS MATERIALS.....	313
Marta Sjeničić, Dragan Miljuš PUBLIC-HEALTH THREAT AS THE EMERGENCY SITUATION.....	323
Dragan M. Cvetković, Marija D. Mićović LEGAL ASPECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND ENVIRONMENTAL CRIME	333
Momir Ostojić, Milan Milošević EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT IN THE SYSTEM OF CORPORATE SECURITY.....	345
Vladimir Todorović EMERGENCY SITUATIONS CAUSED BY TERRORIST ATTACK IN THE AIR TRAFFIC	355
Saše Gerasimoski PRIVATE SECURITY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS: COMPARATIVE EXPERIENCES.....	363
Vladimir Cvetković ANALYSIS OF GEOSPATIAL AND TEMPORAL DISTRIBUTION OF FLOODS AS NATURAL EMERGENCIES	371
Dragan Kulić, Marina Milošević, Dragana Marković NORMATIVE REGULATION OF FIRE PROTECTION IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA	389
Robert Vulić, Slaviša Vlačić SECURITY HELICOPTER RIDES IN EMERGENCIES	397

Ivan Ristov SECURITY ASSESSMENT OF SYRIAN CRISIS.....	405
Želimir Kešetović, Irena Cajner Mraović PRISON RIOTS AS AN EMERGENCY SITUATION IN COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION – CASE OF SERBIA	415
Marina Mitrevska, Marjan Gjurovski SITUATION AND PERSPECTIVES OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA: WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE POLICE.....	423
Zoran Aracki MEDIA AND SECURITY SECTOR AS A PART OF ENDLESS CORRUPTION CHAIN.....	433

TOPIC

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN POLICE

UPRAVLJANJE LJUDSKIM RESURSIMA U POLICIJI

CONTROL OVER THE POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Full Professor **Temelko Risteski**, PhD
Dean of the Faculty of Law, FON University, Skopje, Macedonia

Spec. **Emrah Mihtaroski**
Faculty of Law, FON University, Skopje, Macedonia

Vesna Sijic, BA
Faculty of Economy, University of Belgrade, Serbia

Abstract: Control over the police is an essential mechanism of society oversight over its operations which should not allow it to deviate from its trajectory of action, established by the Law on Internal Affairs and the Law on Police. This will ensure efficient and effective execution of its tasks in the protection of law and order in society.

Control over the police can be internal and external. Internal control is exercised by control mechanisms in the Ministry of Interior, in the framework of Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards and beyond.

Holders of foreign control are bodies of state's power: Parliament, Ombudsman, Government, judicial authorities and other bodies and institutions. In addition, a significant role in the control of police have citizens and their associations (political parties, NGOs, etc) and the media.

With the use of control mechanisms to detect, errors and abuses of police officers will be detected. Also guidelines for increasing their efficiency and effectiveness in performing official tasks will be established.

By diagnosing , preventing and sanctioning dysfunctional police practices, control instruments will give a strong impact in creating a professional, debureaucratized and service-oriented police.

Keywords: control, police, prevention, sanction.

INTRODUCTION

The control is an integral part of the life of any organization. It allows analysis of the situation in the organization in the conduct of its activities. Goal of the control is providing information on the situation in the organization, especially in terms of the execution of planned activities, in order to see if those activities are going according to plan and within the rules and principles laid down by laws and regulations. If by the control it is determined that there was inadmissible deviations of activity of the controlled system, the control system intervenes in order to lead activities within of the appropriate and to comply with the plan and program of their implementation. Any neglect of control and any untimely intervention to remove the deviations of activity of the controlled system leads to accumulation of deviations and to reduce the prospect the task to which they are directed to to be carried out as it is provided with plan and program. From the perspective of the organization as a system comprised of numerous subsystems, each neglecting control leads to a state of uncertainty which is characterized by insufficient knowledge of the situation in their own system and in terms of the systems in the environment. Insufficient knowledge of the situation often leads to destabilization of relations between subsystems within the organizational system and to destabilization of the relations between it and system in its surrounding. Destabilization can reach that degree to impede the normal function of other systems and cause a reaction from their side that comes down to taking intervention measures directed to elimination the deviations in the activities of the controlled system and its activities to be placed in the frameworks determined by rules, plans and programs for their realisation.

Police is a subsystem in the system of interior. The history of police begins with its emergence as a holder of power in the strictest sense of the word. It is the front exponent

of governing structures in society since the absolute monarchy to the present days in order to protect their political interests. But, by the democratization of societies, it gradually gets the service elements of the society, ie citizens in the struggle against threats the social values guaranteed by the Constitution and the laws. In modern democratic states the service role of the police is predominant in terms of its role of holder of power in the area of interiors.

Police as armed force of the society for protecting law and order established by normative regulation, with its discretionary powers such as the use of force in, by law prescribed terms and conditions: apprehension, detention, trial, etc. can become dangerous institution, if its behavior in society comes out of the framework established by the laws of its performance. From the service to the citizens to protect law and order in the society, it can easily be converted into bearer to pressures, intimidation and threats against them. It emphasizes the need for control over it.

In modern states, according laws that regulate policing, there are four types of control over the police. They are: Parliamentary control implemented by parliament directly through specific, established for that purpose, parliamentary bodies; ombudsman control; civil control that basically is implemented on the basis of complaints of citizens and control by the executive power - administrative control that is performed by the specialized bodies of state administration, mostly from the composition of the ministry responsible for activities in the area of internal affairs.

Thus, in Canada, England, Wales,¹ Ireland, Belgium and some states of Australia, control over the police is performed by parliamentary committees composed of specialists who are not members of parliament. This is done to avoid the transmission of political party's interest in police work as a service to citizens. In Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Lithuania, Estonia, Czech Republic and Slovakia control over the police is carried out by the Ombudsman. In some countries, such as Northern Ireland, South Australia, there is a special ombudsman for control over the police (Police Ombudsman).

In Sweden control over the police is performed by a special department of the Parliamentary Ombudsman. In addition of that, in the framework of the Ministry in charge of police, there is special Disciplinary Board in whose jurisdiction enters disciplinary prosecution of perpetrators of violations of police discipline .

In Belgium there are two standing committees for control over the police. They are: Standing Committee on Control of the Police Services and the Standing Committee on Control of Intelligence Services. Each of these two committees has its own investigative unit that investigates abuses of police powers.

In France control over the police is performed by the High Council for the Activity of the National Police and by the General Inspection of the National Police. This inspection is special typed police within the police which take measures in cases of exceedings police powers. In addition it has a task to act preventively and to reveal "careless and dangerous behaviors in the life of a police community that could quickly lead to a punishable practice."

In the Republic of Macedonia is established combined system of control over the police. According the Law on Internal Affairs (Article 37), the control is divided into internal and external control. Internal control (Article 38 of the Law) perform separate organizational unit of the Ministry of Interior in rank of sector. That's Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards .

External control over the work of the Ministry of Interior and thus, above the police, according the article 39 of the Law, is performed by the Parliament and the Ombudsman .

Police Law² (Articles 9 and 10) contains provisions that provided control competences of the Government and citizens and other legal entities.

¹ In England and Wales there are 43 police departments, eight in Scotland and Northern Ireland - one. Inspection on police services excluding police service of London (Metropolitan Police Force) is performed by inspectors who directly respond to the central government. The most important institution to supervise police is a special board for complaints against the police, established in 1984. According to the Police Law, since 1996 chairman of the board is appointed by the Queen, eight of its members and two vice presidents are appointed by Internal Affairs State Secretary. The jurisdiction of this board is automatically established when the police, by exceeding of its Powers, has caused death or serious bodily injury to some person. In Scotland, rather than the board, crimes of the police officers are investigated an independent prosecutor (Official website of the Internal Control of the Ministry of Interior of Serbia)

² "Official Gazette of the RM", No. 114/06, 6/09 145 / 12th.

LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF POLICE POWERS AND CONTROL OVER THE POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Legal framework of police powers is prescribed by the Law on Police of the Republic of Macedonia. Under Article 28 of this Law, Macedonian police officers have police powers following : checking and establishing the identity of persons and objects; collection of information; reference; arrest, apprehension, detention, search of persons and objects; covert police action; diversion, direction or limitation of movement of persons and vehicles in a certain area for necessary time, warning and orders; temporary seizure of objects; review or hearing certain buildings and premises of public authorities, institutions and public authorities and other entities and insight into certain their documentation; enter in someone's home and other indoor; braking, control i.e. searching of persons, baggage and vehicles; security, overview and insight on the place of an event; receiving reports and complaints, submission of reports and information; recognition; public announcement of awards; recording in public places; polygraph testing; collecting, processing, analyzing, using, evaluating, transmission, storage and deletion of data and the processing of personal data under the terms and conditions set out in this and other special law; application of special investigative measures and protection of persons covered by the regulations for the protection of witnesses .

As we can see, the police has available number of police powers. Often, the use of a police powers withdraws application and other police powers. This shows the complexity of the police function. In this connection should not be missed from sight the fact that certain police powers are prescribed by other laws, often called by other names which even further complicates their application. Such is the example of Law on Criminal Procedure.

Prescribing police powers the legislator did not enter in the prescribing cases in which they will be applied even from the names of most of them it can be seen. Certainly it is not possible to stipulate all the cases in which these powers can be implemented, because in everyday life it happens so many spontaneous, unusual and, very often, new events that, simply is not possible it to be legally regulated. Thus, police officers are given discretion to assess themselves in which case what tool to apply. That, this right, represents the most difficult requirement for police officers because of them remains properly assess each situation and then, based on professional knowledge, to determine the most appropriate application of tactics and power. Decision about it very rarely is an easy thing. In fact, very often the decision is made in the absence of time and in difficult circumstances, without opportunity for advance preparation or evaluation of the situation, when a police officer is in a state of psychological tension. There is also the inevitable danger of underestimation or overestimation of the situation which is the cause of frequent errors in assessing the conditions of proper use of police powers .

Police powers are legitimate opportunity for police officers prescribed by the Law on Police and other laws. They can take legal action, methods and means for the protection of public order, protection of property and security of citizens, prevent the perpetration of offenses, or detect and apprehend the perpetrators of criminal acts.

As we have seen, police powers are numerous. The application of most of them is less or greater restriction the rights and freedoms of man and citizen. That is the basic reason that they must be applied only in exceptional circumstances, in the performance of official duties and only where legal requirements are met. This means that they need to apply the legal way and the application must not be longer than the statutory period or longer than the duration of the official task of the police officer. In the exercise of police powers, police officers shall be guided by the principles of methodic and tact which, in each concrete case, led to the selection of the appropriate authorizing, easier asset and the true moment of its application, which quickly and with the least impact, official duty would be carried out.³

To ensure consistent implementation of the Law on Police and Law on Internal Affairs, almost for every police authority is prepared bylaw act,⁴ or at least, within the Ministry of

3 Zafirovski V. and Jankuloski Z. "Police powers and human rights in the Republic of Macedonia," National Library ". St. Kliment Ohridski "Skopje 1999 str.97.

4 For the implementation of the Law on Internal Affairs 18 bylaws are adopted, for the implementation of the Law on Police 20 bylaws are adopted: decrees, regulations, guidelines, and a separate Code of Police Ethics is adopted.

Interior are prepared guidelines or provided instructive telegrams relating to the application individual police powers. This is done in order to allow simplification, facilitation and clarification of how, in their use by police officers, misapplication of power with all consequences for it to be avoid.

Also, in the use of police powers, police officers must, each time, be human and to treat citizens with respect for the dignity, reputation and honor of them, and their application to be proportional to the need for which they are applied.

The application of police powers usually is done after a personal decision of police officers, as it is previously mentioned. Moreover, police officers, in the performance of police affairs, are obliged to apply police powers by written or oral order of the superior managerial officers, but only by a written order from another authority, usually public prosecutor or court. Police officers shall, in accordance with legal regulations, to apply police powers upon written requests from other authorities. Lately, they are usually bailiffs. But, police powers are applied in many other situations that require other entities for the ensuring sport, cultural religious and other events, political rallies and other public gatherings and, each time, in accordance with relevant laws.

In control over the police, special attention should be dedicated to the use of means of coercion, because in their applying human freedoms and rights are hardest threatened.

According to the Law on Police, the coercion means the use of legitimate, appropriate and proportionate physical or mechanical pressure directed against a person by a police officer, the applying force in a manner prescribed by law and only when the police work otherwise can not be carried out.⁵

According to the Law on Police, coercion means that are available to police officers are: physical force, rubber baton, means for handcuffing, assets for forcibly stopping the vehicle, police dogs, chemicals, firearms and special types of weapons and explosives.

Proportionality is common feature of all means of coercion. In its application general constitutional principle of inviolability of human life and guaranteed personal dignity of man can not be omitted. Proportionality is expressed through the use of minimum force necessary in the exercise police work in the shortest possible time.⁶

The use of these means of coercion, distinguishes police from other state institutions. The use of coercion means preventing certain behavior of individuals, or the imposition of the will of the state through the police. When the police officers are forced to use coercion, it should always strive to use the minimum required force and never to use force when the desired goal can be achieved by applying a non-violent means. This must always be imperative in dealing with the police use of coercion. The use of these means should be ceased when the illegal behavior of the individual will be stopped. In this context, in Anglo-Saxon law there is a term "reasonable strength." This term means the applying of asset of coercion extent to the intensity of the resistance, or the unlawful actions of the person against whom coercion is applied, no more.

The means of coercion, as police powers, are applied in two groups of cases. In first group of cases, which rarely comes up in the practice of policing, belong those cases where the means of coercion are applied by direct orders of the managing officer. Usually it happens when it need to restore order and peace in his distortion or when it implements a planned action by the police.

In second group belong those cases in which police officers themselves personally decide whether to apply coercion and what means will be applied, depending on the specific situation. In passing decision police officers must be guided by several principles:

- coercion to be used exclusively for overcoming the resistance of the person in performing police duties;
- in the applying the coercion to be applied only means provided by law;
- Coercion to be applied only when it have to overcome resistance to the person and the situation does not allow for delay;
- Coercion to apply only when legally prescribed conditions are filled;
- Coercion to last only as long as the reasons for it, because the further use would mean exceeding police powers.

It should be emphasized that the use of coercion and means of coercion is not and can not be a system or style of work, but indispensable necessity in some specific cases, as in any other way can not be resolved and they are of such a nature, that can not be delayed.

⁵ According to Article 80 paragraph 1 of the Law on Police.

⁶ About it see Miletich S, "Police Law," Police Academy, Belgrade, 2003, p. 236

All police officers are obliged to submit a report on the use of coercion immediately after use it. The report shall be submitted to the immediate superior police officer, where no consequences of their application or have minor consequences. In this case, directly managing police officer decides about legality of coercion. He, in each case, assesses the justification of the use of means of coercion. If firearms are used, it is obliged to inform the competent public prosecutor.

The justifications of the use of coercion, when it caused serious bodily injury, death of person or if the means of coercion are used against more persons, assess Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards of the Ministry of Interior. Authorized persons from Sector review circumstances under which the means of coercion are used and prepare report with an opinion on the merits and justification of its use. The report shall be submitted to the Minister of Interior

Police officers who commit misconduct in the use means of coercion, firstly will be suited disciplinary.⁷ Then, depending on the means of coercion and exceeding the scope of its application for authorization, they can be criminally prosecuted.

Finally, speaking about legal framework of police powers and control over the police, we have to emphasize that the experience shows that it should not exaggerate by the control. The excessive control reduces the initiative of subordinate officers. It has negative impact on their motivation to work and on interpersonal relationships. Because it comes to conflicts between superiors and subordinates police officers.⁸

INTERNAL CONTROL OVER THE POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Internal control is the final stage of the police function and its activities (administrative, criminal, misdemeanor, normative).⁹ In fact it is control over the police as a subsystem of the system of internal affairs by authorized powers and organizational units that are located within its ranks. In terms of systems theory, it is control over police from itself, or from specially authorized control subsystems in its ranks. Therefore, it is police self-control.

Internal control over the police in Macedonia is performed by managerial officers and Sector of Internal Control and Professional Standards in the Ministry of Interior.

Leading police officers control daily operations of their hierarchically subordinate police officers. In the basis of this control stand hierarchical control authority of managing police officer who performed the control. The authority to exercise this control means possessing formal authority and expertise of the managerial - superior officer. Efficiency of the control requires, over all, possession expertise of superior officer to perform police affairs. These skills should be based on theoretical knowledge the affairs and experience in practice and should always be greater than the knowledge of (hierarchically subordinates) controlled police officers. If he does not possess such knowledge, simply is not able to exercise control over the works of his subordinated officers. Superior officer should be respected as man who has formal authority and power over subordinates. He will be respected authority on them in the true sense of the word, if he knows more than them. The essence of this type of control is that the direct superior performs immediate, direct supervision over legality and, in relation to it, expertise over regularity in the performance of police affairs by police officers.

This control is done by submitting oral and written reports on the police work by subordinates and directly, on the terrain where subordinates carry out police affairs and, within them, apply their police powers.

In addition, management officers exercise control with inspects and reviews of equipment, weapons and documents that are compiled by their subordinates.

In the practice of policing in the Republic of Macedonia there are two ways of managing behavior of police officers during the control over their subordinates. They are authoritative way and collaboration way.

Authoritative way of behavior is characterized with holding away the subordinates by the

⁷ Sanctions in disciplinary proceedings, for the liability range from a written warning through the a fine up to cancellation of the employment contract

⁸ See more Jovanovich B, Introduction to the Theory of Military Leadership, Military Publishing Institute, Belgrade, 1984, p.221 and 226.

⁹ Miletich S, "Police Law," Police Academy, Belgrade 2003 p.368.

managing officer in the control. He is strict and no communicative. In control he records errors, warns and punish. He rarely gives compliments for performed quality work, or not gives them. Very often criticize. He knows to shout and insult. His subordinates tend to fear from him, do not want and avoid meetings with him. In the control they endeavor, at any cost, to hide procedures in work for which they have fear that he would not like it. This type of behavior apply managerial employees who are not confident in their expertise, and therefore need to hide behind the authority and the power that are given by the position of senior officers - "heads", which derives from formal regulations on their authority and power.

Collaborative way of behavior is the opposite of authoritarian. With it, superior in control seeks to demonstrate his expertise. He is sure of himself and does not need to hide behind the power of the position which he has and behind the regulations by which his management and control powers are regulated. He is friendly toward subordinates. He wants to contact with them, to give advice, to direct their work. He respects subordinates, and they respect him, primarily because of his expertise in knowing things. It helps in control by their advice and guidance. Because it, subordinates do not avoid meetings with him. They are opened to him; they openly tell him the dilemmas and problems at work, recognize the errors and omissions and, of course, expect from him that he will help them to avoid these mistakes and omissions in future.

No doubt that collaborative way of control is more acceptable and more recommended than authoritative way. But, it to be fully implemented in police affairs of Macedonian police, a high degree of mutual trust and respect between senior police officers and their subordinates is necessary.¹⁰ Mutual trust and respect between them there will be established if they are skilled to carry out police work. The expertise is checked and confirmed through cooperation. Cooperation in carrying out police work is the most effective way to control, because it allows police officers closely to learn from each other and easily perceived their errors and omissions. It is a natural way of self-control in systems frameworks, because if one subsystem works improperly, it will affect the actions of other subsystems within the system and those, on the principle of feedback, would react and would signalize for its incorrect work.

Cooperation in organizational systems that belongs police organization requires compatibility in expertise of individuals who compose them. No cooperation if no such compatibility. Notorious fact is that a police expert cannot collaborate with unprofessional police officer, regardless of the position in the hierarchy they are. Their communication during the execution of the works comes down to "a conversation of the deaf."

When we are in control over the police, Macedonian police faces major problems in establishing this method of control. After independence, the old way of basic training of police personnel in specialized secondary police school was abandoned and was substituted by their training through courses that do not provide the necessary funds and quality of knowledge about the proper, efficient and effective performance of police affairs. Moreover, after the war in 2001 and the conclusion of the Framework Agreement by which it was ended, in the police entered a number of ethnic communities personnel that, to achieve the required percentage of their representation on admission to the ranks of the police, they have been seeing "through the fingers" in terms of their expertise. In addition, on admission on the ranks of the police, have been having the appearance of favored individuals according to their party affiliation or political affiliation of their parents. The consequence was filling the police with insufficiently professional personnel whose work it is difficult to control by the application of the collaboration method of control. It remains that this way of control can be implemented in policing in future, certainly better times.

Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards is an organizational unit within the Ministry of Interior. It is responsible for setting up the illegal actions of the police officers in doing police work, of authorized officials in carrying out specific duties and powers, actions of others workers in the Ministry of Interior, in carrying out quality control of work of organizational units of the Ministry and police records of complaints filed by citizens against police officers.

¹⁰ The top management can be accomplished in the organization of colleagues who communicate well, who are also friends, and therefore cooperate. They have a mutual respect and trust, that have synergistic and symbiotic relationships When a decision is made in a climate of mutual trust and respect, people are turning to each other They face each other. (Adizes I.: Governance With Changes, Detra. Skopje, 1994, p. 162).

The Rules of Procedure of the Sector¹¹ defines unlawful conduct of ministerial employees. According to the Rules, under this term we understand abuse or misconduct that workers have, as when they perform their tasks, and so in the implementation of standard procedures and prescribed procedures in each segment of the work of the Ministry and police, which breaks corpus of human rights and their corrupt behavior and actions contrary to the provisions of the Code of Police Ethics, Guidelines for the Conduct and Relations of Police Officers in the Ministry of Interior and the Rules for the Conduct and Relations of Persons with Special Duties and Powers of the Ministry of Interior, and contrary to the provisions of law and regulations related to workers.¹²

The internal control, that Sector performs, includes taking actions by employees of the Sector in dealing with the application of oral or written complaint filed by a citizen or a legal entity in order to determine the veracity of the allegations made in it, and present a proposal for the initiation of proceedings to determine responsibility for breaking work order and discipline and determining material about professional, misdemeanor or criminal responsibility of employees of the Ministry of Interior in all cases of their unlawful actions .

The control competences of the Sector include professional standards of the use of police powers and especially the means of coercion. Thereby, special attention is paid to the use of firearms by police officers. Control of compliance with these standards by police officers under the Rules of Procedure of the Sector, is an assessment of the merits and justification of use of coercion and firearms by law enforcement officers or officials concerned in all cases where serious bodily injury is caused or person is killed or, when they are used against more persons; monitoring compliance of standards and procedures for treatment of workers with legal regulations and monitoring the quality of their work in terms of compliance and enforcement of established professional standards of police operation.

In the frameworks of the internal control, Sector shall control the quality of the work of the organizational units in the Ministry of Interior.

Control powers of the Sector are undertaken on the basis of:

- Data, information and knowledge that comes alone;
- Requests delivered directly or presented by the employees of the Ministry and the police;
- Complaints on unlawful and unprofessional conduct of workers and orders of the Minister of Interior.

The practice shows that the control authorization of the Sector in most cases aimed at the work of the police officers. This is due to the notorious fact that they are most numerous officials in the Ministry, that they have the most authority over the citizens and that they often come in touch with citizens.

If the Sector is aware of the illegal act committed by a police officer, it inspects justification of knowledge and, if it determines that is really such an act committed, provides the initiative for disciplinary proceedings and, in the most severe cases, proceedings of cancellation of the work contract.

If the Sector, by inspection, determines unlawful conduct by a police officer with the elements of a criminal offense, shall notify the competent public prosecutor and inform the Department for Analysis, Research and Documentation and Department of Criminal Affairs in the Bureau of Public Security.

In other cases of unlawful actions by police officer Head of the Sector shall notify the Director of the Public Security Bureau and the Director of the Administration for Security and Intelligence.

¹¹ The Rules of Procedure for the Operations of Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards of the Ministry of Interior.

¹² Law on Internal Affairs ("Official Gazette of the RM" No.92/2009, 35/10, 36/11, 158/11 and No. 114/12). Police Law (Official Gazette "No. 114/06, 6/09 and No. 145/12).

EXTERNAL CONTROL OVER THE POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

According to the Law on Interior (Article 39), competent control subjects over the police are the Parliament of the Republic of Macedonia and the Ombudsman. According to this law, the external control over the police can be parliamentary control and ombudsman's control.

Parliamentary control, that is regulated by the provisions of the Law on Interior concerns on the Administration of Security and Intelligence in the Ministry of Interior. Control is directly carried by special committee of Parliament. The main objective of this control is to prevent deviations, misconduct and abuses in the intelligence by the Administration that, if they come up, it can be harmful to the constitutional order and security of the state.

Ombudsman of the Republic of Macedonia exercise control over the police under the provisions of the Law on Ombudsman. According to the Law he takes control measures or initiates proceedings in relation to police, after a citizen complaint or on its own initiative, usually when he finds out that, in the policing, police powers are grossly exceeded.

During the procedure he might seek need explanations and additional information from citizens or from the Ministry of Interior about the allegations in the complaint, to have a direct insight into the duties of a police, to interview a managerial police officer and to seek an opinion of relevant professional institutions.¹³ These mandates allow the Ombudsman to make very complex insight into police work in terms of protecting the rights and freedoms of citizens by eventually exceeding police powers.

In organizational structure of the Ombudsman of the Republic of Macedonia has not a separate organizational unit for ombudsman's control over the police. In this state of things, we think that, among his deputies, should have to find individuals specialized on police work. They will thoroughly and comprehensively examine the factual situation in each case of violation of the constitutional and legal rights of citizens and, of course, they can take the most appropriate actions under the authority of the Ombudsman for achieving rapid and effective protection of citizen rights.

Law on Internal Affairs does not provide **governmental control** over the police, although there are no doubt that the police, as an integral part of the Ministry of Interior, which in turn, is the executive authority, which among other things, is competent for the police and its affairs. According to the Law on Government, the Ministry of Interior, as a matter of fact, as other ministries, for performing its duties is responsible to the Government within its authority to supervise the work of the administration.¹⁴

That has been missing by the Law on Internal Affairs in relation to the governmental control over the police, has not missed by the Law on Police. Under this law (Article 9), Minister of Interior, at least annually, submits a written report to the Government for performed police works. Such a report is submitted by the Minister to Parliament. Police Law obliges the Ministry of Interior to announce the written report in a way accessible to the public - on the website of the Ministry, through the media and so on. By it, this report becomes available to the general public or the citizens of the Republic.

The following types of external control are not prescribed by the Law on Internal Affairs and the Law on Police. They derive from the Constitution of the Republic and from the laws by which judicial procedures are prescribed.

Constitutional Court of the Republic of Macedonia exercise control over the police in accordance with its authorization contained in Article 110, item 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia to decide on the accordance of the regulations adopted by the Ministry of Interior with the Constitution and the laws. In addition, the Constitutional Court is competent to protect the freedoms and rights of citizens of the Republic relating to freedom of belief, conscience, thought and public expression of thought, political association and activity, and the prohibition of discrimination on the grounds of sex, race, religious, national, social or political affiliation (Article 110, item 3).

Public Prosecutor's Office, according to the Constitution (Article 106, paragraph 1) prosecute

¹³ See Article 19 of the Law on Ombudsman.

¹⁴ Under Article 30 of the Law on the Government, it supervises the work of the ministries and other administrative bodies and administrative organizations.

perpetrators of offences and others criminal acts and performs other duties prescribed by law in the protection of legality in the Republic. Performing these functions, Public Prosecutor exercise control over the police and, of course, in those cases where its members commit crimes or other illegal activities.

Judicial control over the police basically comes down to trial the police officers for crimes committed in service and in connection with the service in the procedure which is prescribed by the provisions of the Law on Criminal Procedure. In addition, the courts judge police officers in civil proceedings for damages to state property made in service and in connection with the service.

Civil proceedings for pecuniary responsibilities of police officers are initiated by lawsuits submitted by the **State Attorney's Office of Macedonia**. In this way this Attorney, despite the courts and public prosecutor, appears as a specific organ of judicial authority control over the police.

The mass media control the police by informing the public about abuse of police powers and outspoken critic to police for such phenomena. Through the media **citizens appears** by letters in press, with articles on internet portals, statements through radio and television with critical remarks about police work in terms of application her powers.

Citizens control the police immediately by submitting petitions to the competent authorities, criticizing their work through the media and working as members of political parties and civil associations (non-governmental organizations – NGOs).

CONCLUSION

The main function of the police is to protect the fundamental rights and freedoms of man and citizen guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, by laws and international agreements, protection of the legal order, prevention and detection of offenses, measures to prosecute offenders and maintenance of public order and peace in society.

The Police is the most prominent social institution in the front of protection law and order in society, or the safety and freedom of citizens. As the most prominent social institution, it is most responsible for the protection of these social values. As most responsible it must be effective in the activities of her competence. Responsibility and efficiency are in dialectical unity. Opposite the responsibility is the irresponsibility of the police as such irresponsible attitude towards affairs for which it is formed. Irresponsible attitude brings inefficiency in protecting law and order in the state. Inefficient protected law and order brings threat of social, i.e. civic values. With threat civic values actually creates a state of insecurity. Insecurity is a source of non-freedom as opposed to the freedom of citizens.

Responsible police is composed by responsible police officers. The responsibility of the individual officer means high expertise in the performing the activities of its competence, high degree of ethics or morality and a high degree of motivation to perform official duties. He should be able to find output and most adequate solution in any situation, be resolute, and intrepid self initiative, dedicated to his profession, serious, with a highly developed sense of duty and responsibility and the willingness by legal way to face the toughest tasks in the protection of law and order, which is the basic and ultimate goal of police work. Citizens will have trust in this police officer and cooperate with him. Such police officer may protect basic human values : life, property, dignity, peace, etc. which are the basis of the safety of the citizens within the law and order in society, and thus an essential condition for their freedom, understood as the absence of fear, worry and fear of endangering those values .

Responsible and professional police is the most efficient service to the citizens in the protection of basic human values. In police work, in order to exercise the right to liberty and security of the citizens, extremely important is principle of service orientation of police to citizens. This principle stems from the service placement of administration in terms of citizens in a democratic society. Service-oriented police protects the citizens and by protecting them, protects the state and its government. State reins the citizens. No state if not citizens. State power can be safe, secure and stable only if it provides peace and order in society which are guarantee for the safety of citizens. Peace and order in society can only provide a well organized, disciplined, stable, functional, and therefore, efficient police.

But sociologically speaking, the police as organization, composed by police officers is a social group. Every social group has its own social dynamics which is a consequence of external and internal influences. In the social dynamics, in terms of social interests and needs, there are positive and negative occurrences and trends.

The police, as an organized social group or institution of the state to protect law and order in the society, should eliminate from their ranks the negative, and to promote and support positive occurrences and trends.

Control, of course, if it is effective, enable timely diagnosis of negative phenomena and trends and taking measures by managerial structures in its ranks and in the Ministry of Interior, they to be eliminated on time.

The organizational structure of the system of control over the police in the Republic of Macedonia which was referred above, mainly down to the internal control and reports that police or the Ministry of Interior gives to the Parliament and the Government. But, no minister who would present his "dirty laundry" in ahead of another body, and especially not ahead a body that exerts control over his work, if it is not just forced to do it. Therefore, in this system of control over the police we cannot have complete confidence.

According to the Law on Interior, control over the police performs Ombudsman. But he has no organs and specialized organizational units for control over the police. Therefore, his control interventions to the police that he has taken on the occasion of complaints by citizens, or ex officio, are ineffective. They, to be effective, in him should form a separate organizational unit for control over the police. From an efficiency standpoint, perhaps, more acceptable solution is that of Northern Ireland, where, for control over the police, a special police ombudsman is formed. Certainly the most acceptable solution is the formation a special commission for control over the police which would be accountable to Parliament. It would not be composed by members of Parliament but by independent experts on police matters. The Commission, as an independent body will provide timely, unbiased and detailed diagnosis of negative phenomena in policing, and of course, will propose measures for their elimination and prevention. Only, by the control provided by the independent state body, it is possible to create a responsible, professional, service- oriented and, therefore, effective police.

REFERENCES

1. 1. Adizes I., Governance With Changes, Detra. Skopje, 1994 (Macedonian).
2. 2. Chokrevski T., Organizational Society, Student's Word, Skopje, 1995 (Macedonian).
3. 3. Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia ("Official Gazette", No 52/91).
4. 4. Jovanovic B., Introduction to the Theory of Military Leadership, Military Publishing Institute, Belgrade, 1984 (Serbian).
5. 5. Kroushou R., Human Rights and the Police, Ministry of Interior, Skopje, 2000 (Macedonian).
6. 6. Law on Internal Affairs ("Official Gazette of the RM" No.92/2009, 35/10, 36/11, 158/11 and No. 114/12).
7. 7. Law on Police (Official Gazette of the RM "No. 114/06, 6/09 and No. 145/12).
8. 8. Martin E., Oxford Dictionary of Law, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2003 (English).
9. 9. Miletich S., Police Law, Police Academy, Belgrade 2003 (Serbian).
10. 10. The Rules of Procedure for the Operations of Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards of the Ministry of Interior - Special edition, Ministry of Interior, Skopje, 2007 (Macedonian).
11. 11. Shuklev B. Drakulevski I., Management Lexicon, Institute for the Advancement of the Economy in Macedonia, Skopje, 1993 (Macedonian).
12. 12. Tomic Z., Administrative Law - Administrative Control on the Administration, Contemporary Administration, Belgrade, 1989 (Serbian).
13. 13. Wiener N., Cybernetics and Society, Nolit, Belgrade, 1973 (Serbian).
14. 14. Zafirovski V. and Jankuloski Z., "Police powers and human rights in the Republic of Macedonia," National Library ". St. Kliment Ohridski "Skopje 1999 (Macedonian).

THE CHANGE IN ATTITUDES OF TRAINEES OF THE POLICE NEGOTIATOR TRAINING

Full Professor **Dane Subošić**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Željko Mojsilović, PhD
Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, Belgrade

Abstract: The paper tackles the change in the police negotiation related attitudes of the trainees attending the basic training for police negotiators of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia (MUP RS). This change is the result of the contents of the basic training for police negotiators and of the way in which it has been presented. In addition, the change in attitudes has been studied on the population of 60 trainees attending a basic training for police negotiators of the MUP RS, grouped into five generations of 12 police officers each. The changes in attitudes were examined by surveying the trainees of the training in question, before and after the training, where they evaluated 18 offered attitudes of significance for the police negotiating process, according to the 5-point Likert Scale. The results that have been achieved show that not only a required level of trainees' competence has been attained by the basic training for the MUP RS police negotiators, but that their attitudes were generally transformed from predominantly unacceptable, at the beginning of the training, to mostly acceptable after the completion of the training. Such a transformation was not statistically significant in the event of a change of all the attitudes. Consequently, the paper gives certain recommendations for the future training practice for police negotiators.

Keywords: change, attitudes, trainees, training, police negotiators.

INTRODUCTION

The Police have been obliged to minimize the use of coercive measures.¹ This is being done in various ways, including the negotiating process which is of particular importance.² It is used in different situations, starting from hijacks, extortion, apprehension of dangerous criminals, and other cases.³

The lead body of the MUP RS is the Negotiating team of the Ministry of Interior (PTM), as an *ad hoc* police unit with special purposes.⁴ The team is also in charge of the training of all police negotiators at the MUP RS, but also of the police authorities in the region.⁵ The input for police negotiators at trainings is a certain number of police officers in the capacity of trainees. The output is also represented by a certain number of trainees who have successfully completed

¹ This paper is the result of the research on the following projects: "Development of Institutional Capacities, Standards and Procedures for Fighting Organized Crime and Terrorism in Climate of International Integrations", which is financed by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Serbia (No 179045), and carried out by the Academy of Criminal and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011-2014). The leader of the Project is Associate Professor Saša Mijalković, PhD and "Structure and functioning of the police organization - transition, condition and perspectives", which is financed by the Academy of Criminal and Police Studies.

Osnovni principi o upotrebi sile i vatrenog oružja od strane službenika zaduženih za primenu zakona, UN, Njujork, 1990/*Basic principles of the use of force and weapons by enforcement officers* (citirano po/cited from: Milosavljević, B: *Ljudska prava i policija, standardi ljudskih prava za policiju*, priručnik, Centar za antiratnu akciju, Beograd, 2004, str. 85-91).

² Subošić, D: *Policijsko pregovaranje kao metod zaštite i poštovanja ljudskih prava*. U: *Policija u funkciji zaštite ljudskih prava*, Tematski zbornik radova, oktobar, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2011, str. 115-133.

³ Mojsilović, Z. *Terorizam i pregovaranje*, Centar za krizni menadžment i pregovaranje, Beograd, 2009. i Subošić, D: *Organizacija i poslovi policije*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2013, str. 166.

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 96-97.

⁵ Mojsilović, Z. *Sistem obuke za policijske pregovarače*, U: *Bezbednost*, 6/06, MUP R. Srbije, Beograd, 2006, str. 969.

the training. The outcome is the competency⁶ of the trainees who have successfully accomplish the training.

The ability of negotiating in terms of grasping the competency of the police negotiator trainees who have successfully completed the training understands the legal and successful implementation of knowledge and skills acquired during the training, and also the change in attitudes, as an element of the organizational culture.⁷ The mentioned change in attitudes actually represents the change in the relationship towards the negotiating engagement, which is one of the desired outcomes of the training. In addition, one does not know whether this change is desirable and statistically significant.

Therefore, a general hypothesis has been formulated and reads as follows: „There is a desirable and statistically significant change in attitudes of the respondents concerning the negotiations, before and after the police negotiator training.“ In order to examine the hypothesis in question, it is necessary to verify additional hypotheses – 18 of them have been treated in this paper, each of them being intended for the examination of the change of one single attitude of significance for the negotiating process.

While the level of acceptance of knowledge and skills is the subject of the survey, the change in attitudes of the trainees of the basic training for police negotiators is the subject of scaling. Namely, scaling is used only as a method for data collection. Data are garnered using the responses of the trainees, before and after the training, which reflect their opinion on the same attitudes on a 5-point Likert Scale. Thus collected data are the subject of a paired t – test which is possible to implement. This is due to the fact that the distribution of differences in the results measured at the population of 60 respondents from five generations of trainees of the police negotiator training is deemed normal, as the number of respondents is $n > 30$.⁸ The mentioned test is realized using the *Microsoft Office Excel 2010*.

The justification of this study is reflected in the knowledge contained in the field of organizational culture of police negotiators, in the identification of new research issues and acquisition of methodological experiences in the design, organization and implementation of such studies. On the other hand, the professional contribution of this research is reflected in the areas of improvement of the police negotiators, especially in the domain of attitudes concerning relevant questions for police negotiations, the impact of the organizational culture on the organizational behaviour of police negotiators, improvement of the training process carried out by the PTM, greater competency of police negotiators and their more valid performance in the negotiations engagement.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The following data have been obtained using the paired t – test of data collected by scaling the mentioned sample of police officers, created through selection of police negotiator trainees.

The first individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the attitude of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „The commander of the police is usually an acceptable option for the selection of a negotiator“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

6 Competence (lat. *competentia*) jurisdiction, meritorness, capability (...); field of work (or: area) of a jurisdiction; what is left to the debtor to be able to sustain therefrom; the question of competency is the question of jurisdiction (of the court, administration, etc.) ... (Vujaklija, M: Leksikon stranih reči i izraza, Prosveta, Beograd, 1996/97, str. 429).

7 Djordjević, M: *Uticao organizacione kulture na organizaciono ponašanje u policiji*, specijalistički rad, Kriminološko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2013, str. 41-46.

8 Žižić, M; Lovrić, M & Tomić, M: *Metodi statističke analize*, Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu., Beograd, 1996, str. 131 i Coakes, J.S: *SPSS 20.0 za Windows: Analiza bez muke*, Kompjuter biblioteka, Beograd, 2013, str. 80.

Attitude	The commander of the police is usually an acceptable option for the selection of a negotiator	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 1	BEFORE	4,35	60	,860
	AFTER	3,62	60	1,059

Table 1. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the decrease in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 4,35 to 3,62 on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	The commander of the police is usually an acceptable option for the selection of a negotiator	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 1	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	-,092	,484

Table 2. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,484 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. Namely, the classification of correlation intensity has been accepted in this paper and includes low (0, to ± 0.30), medium (± 0.30 to ± 0.50) and high intensities (± 0.50 to ± 1.00).⁹ The next indicator of the statistical significance among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	The commander of the police is usually an acceptable option for the selection of a negotiator	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 1	BEFORE AND AFTER	,733	-3,987	59	,000

Table 3. Test of the paired samples

Data from the mentioned table indicate that the difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude is statistically significant before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(60-1=59) = -3,987 \leq 1,6707$ (approximation for $n = 60$), where $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it is has been verified by confirmation.

⁹ Cohen, J: *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (second ed.), Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, New Jersey, 1988, p. 82.

The second individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the attitude of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „The relatives, friends or priests should be allowed to talk to the hostage-taker“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	The relatives, friends or priests should be allowed to talk to the hostage-taker	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 2	BEFORE	3,17	60	1,122
	AFTER	2,82	60	1,097

Table 4. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the reduction in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 3,17 to 2,82 on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	The relatives, friends or priests should be allowed to talk to the hostage-taker	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 2	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,108	,412

Table 5. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,412 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance between the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	The relatives, friends or priests should be allowed to talk to the hostage-taker	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 2	BEFORE AND AFTER	,350	-1,829	59	,072

Table 6. Test of the paired samples

Data from the mentioned table indicate that the difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude before and after the police negotiator training, is statistically significant, yet unreliable, since $t(59) = -1,829 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it is has been verified by confirmation, with a slightly higher risk from making a type I error.

The third individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the attitude of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Hostage-takers must not be given other hostages or weapons“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	Hostage-takers must not be given other hostages or weapons	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 3	BEFORE	1,78	60	1,508
	AFTER	1,87	60	1,346

Table 7. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 1,78 to 1,87, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	Hostage-takers must not be given other hostages or weapons	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 3	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	-,140	,287

Table 8. Correlation of paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $0,287 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance between the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	Hostage-takers must not be given other hostages or weapons	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 3	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,083	,299	59	,766

Table 9. Test of the paired samples

Data from the mentioned table indicate that the difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude before and after the police negotiator training, is statistically significant, yet unreliable, since $t(59) = ,299 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it is has been confirmed, with a high risk from making a type I error.

The fourth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the attitude of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „It is acceptable to make the exchange wherein the policeman takes the place of the hostage“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	It is acceptable to make the exchange in which the policeman takes the place of the hostage	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 4	BEFORE	4,33	60	1,068
	AFTER	3,13	60	1,214

Table 10. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the reduction of the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 4,33 to 3,13, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	It is acceptable to make the exchange in which the policeman takes the place of the hostage	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 4	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,109	,407

Table 11. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,407 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	It is acceptable to make the exchange in which the policeman takes the place of the hostage	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 4	BEFORE AND AFTER	1,200	-6,087	59	,000

Table 12. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that the difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude before and after the police negotiator training, is statistically significant and reliable, since $t(59) = -6,087 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \leq \alpha$.

Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation.

The fifth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the attitude of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „With a good training provided, each policeman can become a competent negotiator“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	With a good training provided, each policeman can become a competent negotiator	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 5	BEFORE	2,73	60	1,233
	AFTER	3,13	60	1,033

Table 13. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 2,73 to 3,13, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	With a good training provided, each policeman can become a competent negotiator	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 5	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,241	,063

Table 14. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,063 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	With a good training provided, each policeman can become a competent negotiator	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 5	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,400	2,206	59	,031

Table 15. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 2,206 \geq 1,6707$, where such a result is reliable, as $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that there has been verified an alternative hypothesis to this one, which reads: „There is a desirable, but not statistically significant change in the ratio

of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „With a good training provided, each policeman can become a competent negotiator“.

The sixth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „In the event of a longer hostage crisis, many hostages start identifying themselves with the hostage-takers“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	In the event of a longer hostage crisis, many hostages start identifying themselves with the hostage-takers	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 6	BEFORE	2,20	60	,840
	AFTER	2,83	60	,942

Table 16. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 2,20 to 2,83, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	In the event of a longer hostage crisis, many hostages start identifying themselves with the hostage-takers	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 6	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,214	,100

Table 17. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,100 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	In the event of a longer hostage crisis, many hostages start identifying themselves with the hostage-takers	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 6	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,633	4,382	59	,000

Table 18. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 4,382 \geq 1,6707$, where such a result is reliable as $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that there has been verified an alternative hypothesis to this one, which reads: „There is a desirable, but not statistically significant change of the ratio of respondents before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „In the event of a longer hostage crisis, many hostages start identifying themselves with the hostage-takers“.

The seventh individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „It is very important for the negotiator to gain and maintain confidence of the hostage-taker“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	It is very important for the negotiator to gain and maintain confidence of the hostage-taker	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 7	BEFORE	1,20	60	,480
	AFTER	1,48	60	,624

Table 19. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 1,20 to 1,48, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	It is very important for the negotiator to gain and maintain confidence of the hostage-taker	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 7	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,464	,000

Table 20. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of medium intensity, which is significant, i.e. it can be considered as a rule, since $p = 0,000 \leq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is lower than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	It is very important for the negotiator to gain and maintain confidence of the hostage-taker	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	P
Pair 7	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,283	3,752	59	,000

Table 21. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 3,752 \geq 1,6707$, where such a result is reliable as $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that there has been verified an alternative hypothesis to this one, which reads: There is a desirable, but not statistically significant change of the ratio of respondents before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „It is very important for the negotiator to gain and maintain confidence of the hostage-taker“.

The eighth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Media reporters should not be granted access to the crisis scene“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	Media reporters should not be granted access to the crisis scene	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 8	BEFORE	1,93	60	1,233
	AFTER	1,97	60	,974

Table 22. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 1,93 to 1,97, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	Media reporters should not be granted access to the crisis scene	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 8	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	-,143	,276

Table 23. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,276 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	Media reporters should not be granted access to the crisis scene	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	P
Pair 8	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,033	,154	59	,878

Table 24. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant difference, an unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = ,154 \leq 1,6707$, where such a result is unreliable as $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with a high risk of making a type I error.

The ninth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „The most complicated cases involve politically motivated hostage-takers“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	The most complicated cases involve politically motivated hostage-takers	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 9	BEFORE	2,13	60	1,157
	AFTER	2,70	60	1,078

Table 25. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 2,13 to 2,70, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	The most complicated cases involve politically motivated hostage-takers	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 9	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,101	,445

Table 26. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,445 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	The most complicated cases involve politically motivated hostage-takers	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 9	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,567	2,926	59	,005

Table 27. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 2,926 \geq 1,6707$, where such a result is reliable as $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that an alternative hypothesis to this one has been verified, which reads: There is a desirable, but not statistically significant change of the ratio of respondents before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „The most complicated cases involve politically motivated hostage-takers“.

The tenth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „A sniper should be used in all cases when applicable“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	A sniper should be used in all cases when applicable	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 10	BEFORE	3,03	60	1,327
	AFTER	3,00	60	1,150

Table 28. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the slight increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 3,03 to 3,00, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	A sniper should be used in all cases when applicable	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 10	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	-,011	,933

Table 29. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,933 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	A sniper should be used in all cases when applicable	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 10	BEFORE AND AFTER	,03	-,146	59	,884

Table 30. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = -,146 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with a high probability of making the type I error.

The eleventh individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „All the information coming from the hostages must not be considered reliable“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	All the information coming from the hostages must not be considered reliable	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 11	BEFORE	1,85	60	,971
	AFTER	2,07	60	,918

Table 31. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 1,85 to 2,07, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	All the information coming from the hostages must not be considered reliable	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 11	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,011	,931

Table 32. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,931 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	All the information coming from the hostages must not be considered reliable	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 11	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,217	1,263	59	,212

Table 33. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 1,263 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with the higher risk of making the type I error.

The twelfth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Lingering increases the level of stress of hostage-takers“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	Lingering increases the level of stress of hostage-takers	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 12	BEFORE	2,42	60	1,225
	AFTER	2,13	60	,873

Table 34. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the decrease in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 2,42 to 2,13, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	Lingering increases the level of stress of hostage-takers	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 12	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,169	,197

Table 35. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,197 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	Lingering increases the level of stress of hostage-takers	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	P
Pair 12	BEFORE AND AFTER	,283	-1,592	59	,117

Table 36. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = -1,592 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with the higher risk from making a type I error.

The thirteenth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „There must not be more than one negotiator at the crisis scene“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	There must not be more than one negotiator at the crisis scene	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 13	BEFORE	4,30	60	,830
	AFTER	3,32	60	1,172

Table 37. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the decrease in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 4,30 to 3,32, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	There must not be more than one negotiator at the crisis scene	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 13	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,005	,968

Table 38. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,968 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	There must not be more than one negotiator at the crisis scene	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 13	BEFORE AND AFTER	,983	-5,319	59	,000

Table 39. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, reliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = -5,319 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation.

The fourteenth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Once the negotiations have started, the first negotiator must remain at this position until the end of negotiating process“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	Once the negotiations have started, the first negotiator must remain at this position until the end of negotiating process	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 14	BEFORE	3,85	60	1,162
	AFTER	2,55	60	1,199

Table 40. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the decrease in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 3,85 to 2,55, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	Once the negotiations have started, the first negotiator must remain at this position until the end of negotiating process	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 14	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,121	,357

Table 41. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,357 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	Once the negotiations have started, the first negotiator must remain at this position until the end of negotiating process	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 14	BEFORE AND AFTER	1,300	-6,432	59	,000

Table 42. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, reliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training,

since $t(59) = -6,432 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation.

The fifteenth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „An acceptable option would be to let the hostage-takers leave the crisis scene“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	An acceptable option would be to let the hostage-takers leave the crisis scene	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 15	BEFORE	3,58	60	1,139
	AFTER	3,13	60	,982

Table 43. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the decrease in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 3,58 to 3,13, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	An acceptable option would be to let the hostage-takers leave the crisis scene	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 15	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,156	,232

Table 44. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,232 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	An acceptable option would be to let the hostage-takers leave the crisis scene	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 15	BEFORE AND AFTER	,450	-2,520	59	,014

Table 45. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = -2,520 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with a higher likelihood of making the type I error.

The sixteenth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „An acceptable option would be an attack in case the hostage-takers have killed a hostage“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	An acceptable option would be an attack in case the hostage-takers have killed a hostage	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 16	BEFORE	2,78	60	1,166
	AFTER	2,57	60	1,079

Table 46. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the decrease in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 2,78 to 2,57, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	An acceptable option would be an attack in case the hostage-takers have killed a hostage	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 16	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,153	,243

Table 47. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,243 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	An acceptable option would be an attack in case the hostage-takers have killed a hostage	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 16	BEFORE AND AFTER	,217	-1,148	59	,256

Table 48. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = -1,148 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with the higher likelihood of making the type I error.

The seventeenth individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Terrorist hostage-takers are usually well organized and sophisticated“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	Terrorist hostage-takers are usually well organized and sophisticated	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 17	BEFORE	3,00	60	1,207
	AFTER	3,22	60	1,059

Table 49. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 3,00 to 3,22, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	Terrorist hostage-takers are usually well organized and sophisticated	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 17	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	-,013	,920

Table 50. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is not significant, i.e. it can be considered as accidental, since $p = 0,920 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	Terrorist hostage-takers are usually well organized and sophisticated	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 17	BEFORE AND AFTER	,217	1,038	59	,303

Table 51. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is a statistically significant, unreliable difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 1,038 \leq 1,6707$, and $p \geq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that it has been verified by confirmation, with the higher probability of making the type I error.

The eighteen individual hypothesis reads:

There is a desirable and statistically significant change in the ratio of respondents, before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Taking hostages is the most common method used by terrorists“. The indicators of this hypothesis are, among others, represented by the statistical results of the paired samples given in the following table.

Attitude	Taking hostages is the most common method used by terrorists	Arithmetic mean	Number of respondents	Standard deviation
Pair 18	BEFORE	2,38	60	1,166
	AFTER	2,90	60	1,053

Table 52. Statistics of the paired samples

The table above shows the increase in the arithmetic mean of respondents' answers, from 2,38 to 2,90, on the 5-point scale, followed by an acceptable standard deviation. Such a change in attitudes is desirable. The next indicator of the statistical significance of difference between the observed attitudes is the correlation of the paired samples, which is shown in the table below.

Attitude	Taking hostages is the most common method used by terrorists	Number of respondents	Correlation	Significance
Pair 18	BEFORE AND AFTER	60	,349	,006

Table 53. Correlation of the paired samples

It can be concluded from the table above that there is a correlation of low intensity, which is significant, i.e. it can be considered as a rule, since $p = 0,006 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, i.e. the value of p is higher than the confidence interval. The next indicator of the statistical significance of differences among the observed attitudes is the t statistics, whose values are given in the table below.

Attitude	Taking hostages is the most common method used by terrorists	Difference in arithmetic means	t	df	p
Pair 18	BEFORE AND AFTER	-,517	3,154	59	,003

Table 54. Test of the paired samples

Data from the table above indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in respondents' attitudes per discussed attitude, before and after the police negotiator training, since $t(59) = 3,154 \geq 1,6707$, where such a result is reliable as $p \leq \alpha$. Comparing this attitude with the attitude of the hypothesis set, we conclude that there has been verified an alternative hypothesis to this one, which reads: There is a desirable, but not statistically significant change of the ratio of respondents before and after the police negotiator training, with regard to the attitude: „Taking hostages is the most common method used by terrorists“.

DISCUSSION

Based on the previous analysis, a synthesis of obtained research results has been made and is shown in the table below. Conclusions from the verification of the statistically formulated hypotheses and recommendations for the further work of instructors dealing with the training for police negotiators of the MUP RS have been systematized in the table.

Ordinal number	Attitude	Is the change of attitude positive?	Is the change of attitude statistically significant (confirmed hypothesis?)	Isn't the change of attitude statistically significant (alternative hypothesis confirmed)?	Recommendation
	The commander of the police is usually an acceptable option for the selection of a negotiator	Yes	Yes	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far
	The relatives, friends or priests should be allowed to talk to the hostage-taker	Yes	Yes, with a bit higher probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	Hostage-takers must not be given other hostages or weapons	Yes	Yes, with a higher probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	It is acceptable to make the exchange in which the policeman takes the place of the hostage	Yes	Yes	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far

Ordinal number	Attitude	Is the change of attitude positive?	Is the change of attitude statistically significant (confirmed hypothesis?)	Isn't the change of attitude statistically significant (alternative hypothesis confirmed)?	Recommendation
	With a good training provided, each policeman can become a competent negotiator	Yes	No	Yes	Make the analysis and improve the related training
	In the event of a longer hostage crisis, many hostages start identifying themselves with the hostage-takers	Yes	No	Yes	Make the analysis and improve the related training
	It is very important for the negotiator to gain and maintain confidence of the hostage-taker	Yes	No	Yes	Make the analysis and improve the related training
	Media reporters should not be granted access to the crisis scene	Yes	Yes, with a higher probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents

Ordinal number	Attitude	Is the change of attitude positive?	Is the change of attitude statistically significant (confirmed hypothesis?)	Isn't the change of attitude statistically significant (alternative hypothesis confirmed)?	Recommendation
	The most complicated cases involve politically motivated hostage-takers	Yes	No	Yes	Make the analysis and improve the related training
	A sniper should be used in all cases when applicable	Yes	Yes, with a higher probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	All the information coming from the hostages must not be considered reliable	Yes	Yes, with a high probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	Lingering increases the level of stress of hostage-takers	Yes	Yes, with a high probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	There must not be more than one negotiator at the crisis scene	Yes	Yes	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far

Ordinal number	Attitude	Is the change of attitude positive?	Is the change of attitude statistically significant (confirmed hypothesis?)	Isn't the change of attitude statistically significant (alternative hypothesis confirmed)?	Recommendation
	Once the negotiations have started, the first negotiator must remain at this position until the end of negotiating process	Yes	Yes	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far
	An acceptable option would be to let the hostage-takers leave the crisis scene	Yes	Yes, with a high probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	An acceptable option would be an attack in case the hostage-takers have killed a hostage	Yes	Yes, with a high probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents
	Terrorist hostage-takers are usually well organized and sophisticated	Yes	Yes, with a high probability of making the type I error	No	Continue with the training practice implemented so far and increase the number of respondents

Ordinal number	Attitude	Is the change of attitude positive?	Is the change of attitude statistically significant (confirmed hypothesis?)	Isn't the change of attitude statistically significant (alternative hypothesis confirmed)?	Recommendation
	Taking hostages is the most common method used by terrorists	Yes	No	Yes	Make the analysis and improve the related training

Table 55. Results of the verification of hypotheses with recommendations concerning implementation of knowledge

A conclusion can be made from the previous table that a considerable progress has been made with regard to all the attitudes, which has resulted in a more valid organizational culture of future police negotiators after the completion of the training than before it. Furthermore, this also results in a more acceptable organizational behaviour of police negotiators. Such positive changes represent one of the preconditions of their better performance during the negotiation engagement. It means that the trend of changes in attitudes of future police negotiators is favourable.

This study has confirmed four out of 18 hypotheses. Nine hypotheses have been conditionally confirmed, while five hypotheses have been rejected in terms of the statistical significance of changes in attitudes relevant for the competency of police negotiators. Therefore, in terms of the attitudes to which the confirmed hypotheses relate, the training practice for police negotiators should be continued. On the other hand, hypotheses that have been conditionally confirmed (due to a low reliability of the obtained result) can be a consequence of a small sample. The size of this sample is consequently recommended, i.e. such researches should be continued in the future trainings thus contributing to the increased number of respondents. Finally, concerning the domain of attitudes that are contained in the rejected hypotheses, the contents that are relevant for their adoption and change in the desired direction, should be intensified at future trainings for police negotiators.

CONCLUSION

This study is dedicated to a general hypothesis the verification of which has not been confirmed. Therefore, an alternative hypothesis has been verified, which reads: „There is a desirable, but not statistically significant change in attitudes of respondents concerning the negotiations, before and after the training for police negotiators“. It means that it will be necessary to improve the work of instructors at the training for police negotiators that is conducted by the MUP RS, before all in terms of the following issues:

- Better selection of the trainees,
- Improvement of the methodical implementation of the training,
- Encouraging all that has been good in the training practice so far for trainings of future police negotiators,

Increase in the number of respondents in such and similar researches, in order to improve the level of reliability of obtained data

More intensified contents at future trainings for police negotiators that relate to the adoption of relevant attitudes and their implementation in the desired direction.

REFERENCES

1. Coakes, J.S: *SPSS 20.0 za Windows: Analiza bez muke*, Kompjuter biblioteka, Beograd, 2013.
2. Cohen, J: *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (second ed.), Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, New Jersey, 1988.
3. Djordjević, M: *Uticaj organizacione kulture na organizaciono ponašanje u policiji*, specijalistički rad, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2013.
4. Milosavljević, B: *Ljudska prava i policija, standardi ljudskih prava za policiju*, priručnik, Centar za antiratnu akciju, Beograd, 2004.
5. Mojsilović, Ž. *Terorizam i pregovaranje*, Centar za krizni menadžment i pregovaranje, Beograd, 2009.
6. Mojsilović, Ž. *Sistem obuke za policijske pregovarače*, U: *Bezbednost*, 6/06, MUP R. Srbije, Beograd, 2006.
7. Subošić, D: *Policijsko pregovaranje kao metod zaštite i poštovanja ljudskih prava*. U: *Policija u funkciji zaštite ljudskih prava*, Tematski zbornik radova, oktobar, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2011.
8. Subošić, D: *Organizacija i poslovi policije*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2013.
9. Vujaklija, M: *Leksikon stranih reči i izraza*, Prosveta, Beograd, 1996/97.
10. Žižić, M; Lovrić, M & Tomić, M: *Metodi statističke analize*, Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu., Beograd, 1996.

PERSONNEL POLICY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS

КАДРОВАЯ ПОЛИТИКА В СФЕРЕ ПОДГОТОВКИ КАДРОВ ДЛЯ ОРГАНОВ ПОЛИЦИИ

Assistant Professor **Simon Carp**, PhD, Rector, Police Colonel
Academy "Stefan cel Mare" of MIA of Republic of Moldova

полковник полиции Карп Семен Терентьевич, доктор права, доцент
Ректор Академии «Штефан Чел Маре» МВД, Республики Молдова

Abstract: Management of human resources in police organs is realized through the established personnel policies, which are based on a careful analysis of the organizational climate. Thus, the personnel policy represents the strategic direction of the behavior with the personnel which activates in police, which orient them to the realization of the strategic goals without endangering from the personal goals.

The main objective in exercising personnel policy is the employees from police, from their qualification and the level of professionalism depends the efficiency of the whole police activities. They are those who transpose in reality ideas and goals of the Internal Affairs of Moldova. They are those who promote the police mission and philosophy. Finally they are those who can destroy police or can amount it to a superior level of competitiveness.

Keywords: human resources, professionalism, qualification, Bologna process, police, policy, police reform, management.

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Сегодня остройшей проблемой для Республики Молдова становится разработка и внедрение в органах власти новой кадровой политики, сориентированной на организацию социального управления, приоритет социальных ценностей, социальной политики.

В соответствии с национальной кадровой политикой проводится и реформа кадровой политики, как в министерстве внутренних дел, так и в органах полиции. Конечной целью проводимых реформ является не имидж полиции, а безопасность народа в целом и каждого человека, в частности. Пока самым слабым местом проводимых реформ являются социальная политика и управление. И многое здесь упирается в кадры, в их профессиональную некомпетентность.

В настоящее время криминогенная обстановка на всей территории Республики Молдова остается сложной. Правоохранительные органы находятся в состоянии близком к критической отметке. Кадровая ситуация в органах внутренних дел уже давно преодолела кризисную черту. Текучесть кадров в основных службах и подразделениях органов внутренних дел, таких как служба участковых инспекторов, инспекторов уголовного розыска, патрульно-постовой службы полиции и следствия составляет в среднем по Молдове около 12-15% ежегодно. На данный момент остаются вакантными более 1500 должностей. Кадровая ситуация в данных службах непосредственно связанных с обеспечением правопорядка в стране (без учета руководства и вспомогательных служб) уже давно оставляет желать лучшего, около 50% в этих службах составляют сотрудники со стажем работы менее 3-х лет. Сотрудников со стажем работы более 5 лет в них уже осталось менее 20%. Помимо этого, некомплектация в основных службах остаётся высокой от штатной численности. Соответственно, при такой ситуации, ни о какой положительной динамике в борьбе с преступностью со стороны правоохранительных органов речь идти не может.

СТРАТЕГИЯ УПРАВЛЕНИЯ КАДРОВЫМ РЕЗЕРВОМ

Ни для кого не секрет, что служба в полиции не самая престижная, что делает непростой задачу комплектации квалифицированным персоналом. Усугубляет эту проблему и низкая заработная плата и практически нулевые социальные льготы.

Исходя из такой непростой ситуации, основу кадровой политики должна составлять единая стратегия управления человеческими ресурсами. Она представляет собой разработку перспективных ориентиров использования трудового потенциала, его обновления и совершенствования, развития мотивации. В связи с этим основные усилия в кадровой политике должны сосредотачиваться на создание хорошо подготовленного резерва кандидатов на должности руководителей новой формации, способных в сжатые сроки освоить новый участок работы и обеспечить эффективное решение стоящих перед ним задач. При этом упор делается на создание резерва не вообще подготовленных кадров, а на руководителей вполне определённого типа и уровня управления с учётом новых подходов к организации работы полиции.

Кадровый резерв – это потенциально активная и подготовленная часть персонала организации, способная замещать вышестоящие должности, а также часть персонала, проходящая планомерную подготовку для занятия рабочих мест более высокой квалификации. Наличие резерва кадров позволяет обеспечить замещение вакантных должностей в случае смерти, болезни, отпуска, командировки и увольнения работников. Формирование резерва кадров осуществляется на основе профессионального отбора кадров, результатов аттестации персонала, изучения личных дел сотрудников, штатного расписания, планов карьеры служащих¹. Со стороны персонала органы полиции ожидают позиции понимания этих интересов и всемирного сотрудничества с целью их осуществления.

Интересы кадровой политики, как правило, включают: привлечение и закрепление на рабочих местах наиболее ценных, компетентных высокопрофессиональных работников, глубоко продуманную и планомерно организованную мотивацию персонала с целью повышения производительности его труда, повышение экономической эффективности вложений в «человеческий капитал»².

Руководитель не может эффективно управлять коллективом и решать поставленные перед органами полиции задачи, не используя активно опыт, квалификацию, способности и желание работать своих сотрудников. Существующие ныне концепции человеческих ресурсов рассматривают наёмных работников, как ключевой ресурс органов внутренних дел, отказываясь от представлений о рабочей силе как даровом богатстве, освоение которого не требует денежных средств и организационных усилий со стороны нанимателя. Это существенно меняет и осложняет кадровую работу в направлении активизации поиска на рынке труда высококвалифицированных кадров, перехода к планированию человеческих ресурсов, определения их ценности и разработки новых подходов к закреплению наиболее ценных специалистов в полиции.

Практически в начальный период времени после найма ожидания работодателя от сотрудника и сотрудника от компании совпадают всего на 30%. По оценкам немецких специалистов, лишь при сближении ожиданий до 60% производительность труда работника сможет достигнуть 100%. Мостиком, соединяющим готовность человека к деятельности с непосредственным практическим проявлением этой готовности – успешной работой, является механизм мотивации персонала³.

Не бывает плохих работников: если человек работает плохо, значит, в существующих трудовых отношениях именно плохая работа оптимально удовлетворяет его потребности. Поведение человека всегда является для него оптимальным: действия и поступки всегда

1. Соломанидина Т. О., Соломанидин В. Г., Мотивация трудовой деятельности персонала, Учебно-практическое пособие, Москва, ООО «Журнал «Управление персоналом»», 2005, стр. 9-10.

2. Соломанидина Т. О., Соломанидин В. Г., Мотивация трудовой деятельности персонала, стр. 10.

3. Соломанидина Т. О., Соломанидин В. Г., Мотивация трудовой деятельности персонала, стр. 10., Соломанидина Т. О., Соломанидин В. Г., Управление мотивацией персонала, Учебно-практическое пособие, Москва, ООО «Журнал «Управление персоналом»», 2005, стр. 5., смотреть также, Щёкин Георгий, Организация и психология управления персоналом, Учебно - методическое пособие, Киев 2002, стр.528-537.

направлены на получение максимальной материальной и моральной выгоды, и он не сделает ничего не удовлетворяя, тем самым одну из своих важнейших потребностей. Искусство управления заключается в том, чтобы эту личную оптимальность поставить на службу организации, её миссии и целей. Для этого и существует мотивация⁴.

Это требует учета существенных структурных сдвигов криминогенной обстановки в стране и качественных перемен в рабочей силе на районном и государственном, уровнях.

ОБУЧЕНИЕ ПЕРСОНАЛА

Политика в сфере подготовки персонала для МВД и полиции предполагает взаимодействие этой сферы с инновационной, технологической, финансовой стратегиями и генеральными планами управления государства.

Обучение персонала является важнейшим средством достижения стратегических целей полиции. Успех на пути реализации важнейших стратегических целей полиции во многом зависит от того. В какой степени персонал осведомлён о содержании стратегических целей и насколько он подготовлен к работе по их достижению. Обучение всех категории служащих полиции призвано способствовать успешному достижению долгосрочных и краткосрочных организационных целей.

Обучение является важнейшим средством повышения ценности человеческих ресурсов. Рано или поздно. Руководству органов внутренних дел неизбежно придётся столкнуться с тем, что отдача от человеческих ресурсов полиции с каждым годом будет всё меньше. В промышленно развитых странах уже давно поняли, что обучение персонала является одним из основных факторов, позволяющий победить в жестокой конкурентной борьбе. Ежегодно крупные западные корпорации тратят от 2 до 5% своего бюджета на подготовку и развитие работников. Для США, например, затраты на обучение в целом составляют более 200 миллиардов долларов в год; а одна лишь IBM ещё 1990 году тратила в этой сфере более 1,5 миллиарда долларов⁵.

В последнее время из за недофинансирования государственного сектора всё меньше средств выделяется на образование, и подготовку персонала с высшим специальным образованием для органов внутренних дел. Это привело к тому, что Министерство внутренних дел вынуждено принимать на службу граждан из внешних учебных заведений с другим специальным образованием, что не соответствует требованиям и специфики работы в ОВД. В конечном итоге самая большая текучесть кадров и самую плохую адаптацию в полиции констатируется именно у этой категории персонала.

Но несмотря на все существующие трудности, ситуация не безнадежна. Пути вывода полиции из кризиса есть. Здесь не нужны слишком масштабные и глобальные реформы, требующие больших финансовых и людских ресурсов. Необходимо реформировать лишь саму систему работы полиции, а реформы доверить компетентным специалистам с опытом работу в органах общественной безопасности. Ставку необходимо делать на эффективность, мобильность и объективность в деятельности правоохранительных органов, а также на кадровую политику по отбору кандидатов на службу в органах внутренних дел и сохранении подготовки офицерского состава в специализированных ВУЗ-ах МВД.

Без работы по обучению персонала невозможно проведение организационных изменений. Деятельность, которую ведут органы внутренних дел в сфере борьбы с преступностью, невозможна без использования нового современного оборудования, без внедрения более эффективных технологий, приёмов работы и методов руководства. Технологические изменения и постановка новых организационных целей могут радикально менять содержание труда самых различных категорий служащих – от высшего руководства до рядового полицейского – а это требует дополнительных знаний, развития

4 Гамов Игорь, Патрашку Думитру, Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009, стр.104. Щёкин Георгий, Организация и психология управления персоналом, Учебно - методическое пособие, Киев 2002, стр.180, Кибанов А.Я., Основы управления персоналом, Учебник, Москва, ИНФРА-М, 2003, стр.186.

5 Гамов Игорь, Патрашку Думитру, Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009, стр.105.

необходимых навыков и пересмотра старых подходов к работе. В этих условиях обучение всех основных категорий полицейских становится совершенно необходимым.

Обучение персонала полиции требует поддержки и заинтересованного участия первых лиц министерства внутренних дел. Исключительно опасным для здоровья органов полиции является отношение к обучению персонала как к направлению работы, находящемуся вне сферы ответственности руководства высшего уровня министерства. Поддержка и сотрудничество со стороны высшего руководства за счёт понимания того, что обучение может дать для министерства внутренних дел, - это одна из приоритетных задач при организации обучения. Лучшим советом на нежелание некоторых руководителей заниматься обучением персонала из-за трудностей и издержек, связанных с учёбой, будет лозунг, который можно повесить у себя в кабинете: «Если Вы считаете, что образование обходится слишком дорого, то подумайте, какую цену Вам придётся заплатить за невежество своих работников»⁶.

Приоритетная должна стать работа по повышению качества профессиональной подготовки. Для этого в первую очередь необходимо сформировать перспективную модель специалиста органов внутренних дел. Это позволит определить направление развития и реформирования ведомственного образования в соответствии с государственной стратегией модернизации образования, объективными потребностями и интересами полиции в профессиональной подготовке и переподготовке кадров.

Из основных видов кадрового планирования мы хотим остановиться на Планирование обучения персонала. Оно призвано использовать собственные производственные ресурсы работающих без поиска новых высококвалифицированных кадров на внешнем рынке труда. Кроме того, такое планирование создает условия для мобильности и саморегуляции служащих в нашем случае полицейских, ускоряет процесс адаптации к изменяющимся условиям производства. Планирование обучения должно учитывать:

1. Требуемое количество учеников.
2. Количество существующих полицейских, нуждающихся в обучении или переобучении.
3. Новые курсы или расходы на существующие.

Это качественная составная часть кадрового планирования. Она включает в себя все усилия органов внутренних дел по сохранению соответствующего уровня знаний у трудового коллектива или же направленные на повышение квалификационного уровня путем дополнительной подготовки.

Планирование роста квалификации кадров имеет большое значение в процессе осуществления масштабных мероприятий, которые касаются персонала. С одной стороны, оно позволяет использовать собственные резервы рабочей силы при одновременно более высокой вероятности степени успеха, чем это смогли бы обеспечить поиски новых кадров; с другой - дает отдельному полицейскому оптимальный шанс для самореализации.

Требует особого внимания и интеллектуализация правоохранительной деятельности, для чего необходимо кардинальное совершенствование управления научными разработками, аналитическими исследованиями и стратегическими разработками на всех уровнях деятельности органов внутренних дел.

Многое в этой сфере уже сделано, присоединение Молдовы к европейской инициативе по гармонизации систем образования, начатой Болонской декларацией 1999г⁷., сделало основные аспекты данного процесса ключевыми не только в сфере сотрудничества между молдавскими и европейскими университетами, но и в сфере реформирования национальной системы образования. Задача интеграции Республики Молдова в мировое образовательное пространство обозначена как одна из главных целей в области развития образования в нашей стране в основных документах, определяющих образовательную политику.

В Болонской декларации указаны шесть основных задач, решение которых будет способствовать единению Европы в области образования. Это введение общепонятных,

⁶ Гамов Игорь, Патрашку Думитру, Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009, стр.105.

⁷ Совместное заявление европейских министров образования г. Болонья, 19 июня 1999 года http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/990719BOLOGNA_DECLARATION.PDF

сравнимых квалификаций в области высшего образования, переход на двухступенчатую систему высшего образования (лицензиат — магистратура), введение оценки трудоемкости (курсов, программ, нагрузки) в терминах зачетных единиц (кредитов) и отражение учебной программы в приложении к диплому, образец которого разработан в ЮНЕСКО, повышение мобильности студентов, преподавателей и административно-управленческого персонала, а также обеспечение необходимого качества высшего образования, взаимное признание квалификации соответствующих документов в области высшего образования, обеспечение автономности вузов. К настоящему времени, принято говорить о десяти задачах: к ранее сформулированным, добавляются введение аспирантуры в систему высшего образования (в качестве третьего уровня), придание «европейского измерения» высшему образованию (его ориентации на общеевропейские ценности), повышение конкурентоспособности европейского образования, реализация социальной роли высшего образования, развитие системы дополнительного образования.

Следует отметить, что Болонская декларация повторяет хорошо известные положения советской образовательной системы. Это, прежде всего прагматическая направленность образовательных программ, обеспечивающая выпускникам вузов возможность приступить к профессиональной деятельности без сколько-нибудь продолжительного адаптационного периода, благодаря узкой специализации на заключительном этапе освоения образовательной программы и длительной производственной практике.

УСОВЕРШЕНСТВОВАНИЕ КАДРОВОЙ ПОЛИТИКИ

Повышение эффективности кадрового потенциала, улучшение подготовки и использования специалистов и в первую очередь совершенствование кадровой политики следует рассматривать в качестве важнейшего направления работы с кадрами.

Хочу отметить, что Академия полиции республики Молдова неоднократно поднимало вопрос о качестве кадровой политики в полиции не только на заседании коллегии МВД, но это становилось темой международных научных конференций организованных академией на протяжении последних лет. На этих конференциях участники затрагивали такие проблемы как: Влияние управленческого кризиса над деятельностью министерства внутренних дел; Управленческие факторы, препятствующие подразделениям Министерства внутренних дел в борьбе с преступностью и обеспечению безопасности граждан; Виктимизация полиции от влияния факторов риска; Игнорирование подходов и решений, выявленных в научно-исследовательской деятельности – выражение плохого управления и отрицательного отношения к научным кругам; Системы подготовки полиции и реформа МВД; Непрерывное обучение – гарант минимизации рисков в деятельности полиции; Массовая отставка полиции, как следствие нарушения их профессиональных прав⁸.

Реальность сегодняшнего дня в процессе борьбы с преступностью, ставит перед органами полиции ряд принципиальных задач, важнейшей из которых является максимально эффективное использование кадрового потенциала. Для того чтобы этого достигнуть, нужна четко разработанная кадровая политика.

Под кадровой политикой правомерно принимать формирование стратегии кадровой работы, установления целей и задач, определение научных принципов подбора, расстановки и развития персонала, совершенствование форм и методов работы с персоналом в конкретных исторических условиях того или иного периода развития страны⁹.

Как бы там ни было, но долговременный успех любой организации, несомненно, зависит от наличия необходимых служащих в нужное время на правильно выбранных должностях. Организационные цели и стратегии достижения этих целей имеют значение лишь тогда, когда люди, обладающие требуемыми талантами и умением, занимаются их

⁸ Impactul crizei manageriale asupra activității Ministerului afacerilor interne (Materialele Conferinței științifico-practice naționale 28 iunie 2011), Chișinău, 2011. Probleme actuale privind protecția și securitatea persoanelor implicate în procesul penal, (Materialele conferinței științifico practice internaționale 21 martie 2013) Chișinău 2013.

⁹ Кибанов А. Я., Основы управления персоналом, учебник, Москва, ИНФРА-М 2007, стр.101/

достижением. При этом можно говорить о стратегическом (долгосрочном) планировании и о тактическом (ситуационном).

Стратегическое планирование потребности в персонале состоит в установлении потенциала специалистов, необходимых для стратегии развития и фактического состояния человеческих ресурсов полиции, а также в определении потребности в этих ресурсах в будущем.

Тактическое планирование предполагает анализ и удовлетворение конкретных потребностей полиции на планируемый период (квартал, полугодие). Оно основывается на плане действий органов внутренних дел в этот период, на прогнозировании карьерного роста и достижения пенсионного возраста, на показателях текучести кадров.

Недобросовестно выполненное, и, тем более, вовсе проигнорированное кадровое планирование способно спровоцировать серьезные проблемы уже в самое короткое время.

Вряд ли реально, выйдя на улицу, сразу найти человека, обладающего необходимыми характеристиками. С помощью же эффективного кадрового планирования можно «заполнить» вакантные позиции, а также уменьшить текучесть кадров, оценивая возможности карьеры специалистов в пределах компании.

Проведенное в США исследование выявило интересный факт: в 40% компаний, осуществляющих самые высокие затраты на подготовку кадрового резерва, наблюдалась наибольшая текучесть кадров. Главной причиной этого оказалась неправильная организация работы с данным резервом, что зачастую проявлялось в неправильной оценке кандидатов или должности, на которую их готовили, в недостаточной мотивации персонала и в отсутствии реальных карьерных перспектив у сотрудников или возможности в полной мере использовать свои знания и навыки¹⁰.

Считаем, что можно провести параллель между данным примером и ситуацией в сфере подготовки кадров для органов полиции. Но прежде чем говорить о принципах подготовки кадрового резерва полиции в западных странах, а также об их успешном опыте в данном направлении, необходимо уяснить некоторые различия между условиями, существующими в Республике Молдова и на Западе.

Во-первых, если в западных странах руководители органов полиции давно осознали необходимость создания кадрового резерва, то для молдавских руководителей правоохранительных органов его подготовка пока не стала прописной истиной.

Во-вторых, в отличие от западных менеджеров, уровень подготовки которых однороден и которым не требуется повышения первоначальных знаний об общественной безопасности, молдавские специалисты имеют неадекватную степень подготовки. Это усложняет процесс их профессионального развития и продвижения.

И, в-третьих, на Западе, в условиях стабильного карьерного роста полицейских, успешно функционирует долгосрочное планирование кадровой политики (на срок до 10 лет). В Республике Молдова же, вследствие отсутствия длительного опыта в продвижении по карьерной лестнице профессиональных полицейских и его непредсказуемости, долгосрочное планирование сегодня трудно осуществимо и связано с риском серьезных просчетов.

Кадровое планирование в органах полиции должно дать ответы на следующие вопросы:

Сколько работников, с каким уровнем квалификации, когда и где будут необходимы (планирование потребности в персонале)?

Каким образом можно привлечь необходимый и сократить излишний персонал, учитывая социальные аспекты (планирование привлечения или сокращения штатов)?

Каким образом можно использовать работников в соответствии с их способностями (планирование использования кадров)?

Каким образом можно целенаправленно содействовать повышению квалификации кадров и приспособлять их знания к меняющимся требованиям (планирование кадрового развития)?

Каких затрат потребуют планируемые кадровые мероприятия (расходы по содержанию персонала)?

¹⁰ Гамов Игорь, Патрашку Думитру, Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009, стр.40.

Основные задачи кадрового планирования могут быть сформулированы следующим образом:

- разработка процедуры кадрового планирования, согласованной с другими его видами;
- увязка кадрового планирования с планированием ОВД в целом;
- организация эффективного взаимодействия между плановой группой кадровой службы и плановым отделом ОВД;
- проведение в жизнь решений, способствующих успешному осуществлению стратегии ОВД;
- содействие ОВД в выявлении главных кадровых проблем и потребностей при стратегическом планировании;
- улучшение обмена информацией, касающейся персонала, между всеми подразделениями ОВД.

Кадровое планирование включает в себя:

1. Прогнозирование перспективных потребностей организации в персонале (по отдельным его категориям).
2. Изучение рынка труда (рынка квалифицированной рабочей силы) и программы мероприятий по его «освоению».
3. Анализ системы рабочих мест организации.
4. Разработку программ и мероприятий по обучению персонала.

Чтобы быть эффективным, любой план человеческого ресурса должен быть основан на долговременных планах ОВД. В сущности, успех кадрового планирования в значительной степени зависит от того, в какой мере отдел кадров в состоянии интегрировать эффективное планирование персонала с плановым процессом органа полиции. К сожалению, кадровое планирование подчас недостаточно адекватно связано с полным общим планированием.

Специалистами в области управления человеческими ресурсами¹¹ идентифицировали несколько главных препятствий на пути к успешному стратегическому планированию:

- а) отказ синхронизировать планирование персонала с циклом стратегического планирования;
- б) тенденция планирования в ответ на краткосрочные, текущие проблемы;
- в) неадекватная база данных для планирования.

Многие из описанных проблем являются следствием недостаточной координации между проведением плановых операций в отделе кадров и общим планированием.

Таким образом, напрашивается вывод, что стратегическое планирование должно отыскивать факторы, которые являются ключевыми для успеха органов внутренних дел.

Значит, процесс планирования в первую очередь должен обеспечивать определение цели организации и план действий в свете имеющихся ресурсов, включая обученный персонал.

Кадровое планирование способно оказать значительную поддержку стратегическому процессу планирования в части обеспечения средствами для достижения желаемых результатов.

Распространенная ошибка при кадровом планировании - сосредоточение на краткосрочных потребностях, отсутствие их координации с долговременными планами организации. Сосредоточенность на краткосрочных потребностях - естественное следствие неграмотного кадрового планирования в стратегическом планировании. Этот подход почти всегда ведет к неожиданностям, которые вынуждают отдел кадрового планирования концентрироваться на краткосрочных кризисах (замкнутый круг).

В кадровой политике нельзя добиться ощутимых результатов опираясь только на собственном опыте. Современный полицейский должен обладать высоким уровнем профессиональных знаний. Иностраный язык, нормы международного права, особенности национального законодательства других государств также должны составить фундамент его служебной подготовки. Важно и умение грамотно использовать информационные технологии, сочетать в себе высокий класс специализированной и обще-гуманитарной подготовки, иметь способности к «высокоточной» юридической

¹¹ Гамов Игорь, Патрашку Думитру, Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009, стр.40, Алешунас М. Р., Новые технологии управления персоналом, ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО «Речь», Санкт-Петербург, 2003

деятельности, а также обладать навыками обеспечения прав человека во время проведения оперативно-розыскных и других мероприятий¹².

На данном этапе развития страны после парафирования Соглашения об ассоциации с ЕС актуально стоит вопрос для нашего учебного заведения о сотрудничестве в области подготовки персонала полиции в соответствии с нормами и стандартами ЕС. Хочу сказать, что в этой области у нас давно ведётся сотрудничество со странами входящими в ЕС, с которыми подписаны договора о сотрудничестве, не забываем и традиционных партнёров, из стран СНГ, в этой области только с 2000-го года Академией подписано более 30 договоров о сотрудничестве на международном уровне. Между тем, кадровая политика и качество её проведения в органах внутренних дел важны не только для обеспечения безопасности внутри государства. Стабильность страны во внешнеполитической сфере также зависит от крепкого ядра в правоохранительной системе. А её взаимодействие с иностранными коллегами позволяет выставить надёжный кордон в противодействии транснациональной преступности.

ПСИХОЛОГИЧЕСКИЙ УРОВЕНЬ КАДРОВОЙ ПОЛИТИКИ

Социологи, психологи, специалисты по теории управления ориентируют на то, что человека необходимо рассматривать целостно, а не одномерно, не как носителя функции, а как личность, исполняющую функцию управления. В настоящее время все большее распространение получают идеи о том, что человек осознаётся в качестве субъекта и объекта общественного прогресса, что роль человека в социальной сфере постоянно возрастает, что никакая сторона социального управления не может получить должного развития только на базе технократического, экономического мышления. Отсюда возрастание роли и значения работы с персоналом, с кадрами.

Большую работу нужно провести по созданию привлекательного социального статуса сотрудника полиции, не смотря на сложившийся в стране кризис. Эта тема должна оставаться в зоне внимания Министерства внутренних дел.

Масштабы и сложность стоящих перед Министерством задач требуют кардинального улучшения кадровой политики. Их решение напрямую зависит от профессионализма, квалификации и морально-психологического состояния сотрудников органов внутренних дел.

Много говорится и пишется в последнее десятилетие о профессионализме сотрудников полиции, не замечая порой о таком важном аспекте в жизни полицейского как морально-психологическое состояние полицейского. Психологический аспект человеческого фактора включает внутренние силы поведения, побуждающие людей к высокой активности, приводящие в движение их творческие потенциалы. Управление человеческим фактором требует согласования управленческих воздействий с психологическими закономерностями поведения людей.

Психологический уровень кадровой политики имеет отношение к таким компонентам человеческого фактора, как личность, рабочая группа, трудовой коллектив. В данном случае рассматривается психологический уровень управления. Руководитель находится в психологической реальности трудового коллектива и управляет персоналом с учётом психологических закономерностей поведения людей. Пренебрежение указанными закономерностями, приводит к возникновению психологических конфликтов, вызывающих текучесть кадров, нарушение трудовой дисциплины, снижение производительности труда.

Управление коллективом на психологическом уровне даёт руководителю мощные рычаги побуждения людей к активной трудовой деятельности, позволяет ему полнее использовать скрытые резервы коллектива¹³.

12 5 декабря 2013 На повестке дня – нравственное воспитание и кадровая политика МВД <http://mvd.gov.by/main.aspx?guid=48763>, Кодекс этики и деонтологии полицейского Постановление Правительства Республики Молдова N 481 от 10.05.2006 Мониторул Официал N 75-78/527 от 19.05.2006

13 Травин В. В., Дятлов В. А., Основы кадрового менеджмента, Академия народного хозяйства при Правительстве Российской Федерации, Москва, Издательство «Дело», 1997, стр.285, Егоршин А.П. Управление персоналом. — Н. Новгород: НИИМБ, 2001. С. 259-263

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

Мы считаем, что в любом обществе широко признается, что значимость администрации заключается, не столько в имеющихся материальных или финансовых средствах, собственно, как человеческий потенциал, так и государственный орган, используя специальную управленческую деятельность, проявляет заботу о проблемах жизни людей, мы уверены, и в достижении самых высоких уровней производительности труда полиции. Государство не может нормально развиваться, если нет продуманной и сбалансированной кадровой политики в сфере государственного управления в целом и деятельности полиции в частности.

Персонал обслуживает сложные механизмы общественных отношений и является необходимым и обязательным элементом всякой системы социального управления. Это в полной мере относится к системе органов внутренних дел, где успех функционирования служб и подразделений в значительной мере зависит от организации работы с кадрами.

ИСПОЛЬЗОВАННАЯ ЛИТЕРАТУРА

1. Impactul crizei manageriale asupra activității Ministerului afacerilor interne (Materialele Conferinței științifico-practice naționale 28 iunie 2011), Chișinău, 2011.
2. Probleme actuale privind protecția și securitatea persoanelor implicate în procesul penal, (Materialele conferinței științifico practice internaționale 21 martie 2013) Chișinău 2013.
3. Алешунас М. Р., Новые технологии управления персоналом, ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО «Речь», Санкт-Петербург, 2003
4. Балабанов Л. В., Сардак О.В., Управління персоналом, а также интернет ресурсы от 27.01.2014 <http://www.webarhimed.ru/page-146.html>, <http://bibliofond.ru/view.aspx?id=90922>
5. Гамов И., Гаманджи А., Гарштя С., Managementul personalului, Chișinău: Evrica 2004
6. Гамов Игорь, Патрашку Думитру, Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009
7. Егоршин А.П. Управление персоналом. — Н. Новгород: НИИМБ, 2001
8. Жуплев А.В. Эффект горизонта. — М.: Московский рабочий, 1989
9. Закон Республики Молдова 320/27.12.2012 Закон о деятельности полиции и статусе полицейского //Мониторул Официал 42-47/145, 01.03.2013
10. Кибанов А. Я., Основы управления персоналом, Учебник, Москва ИНФРА-М, 2007
11. Кодекса этики и деонтологии полицейского Постановление Правительства Республики Молдова N 481 от 10.05.2006 Мониторул Официал N 75-78/527 от 19.05.2006
12. На повестке дня – нравственное воспитание и кадровая политика МВД <http://mvd.gov.by/main.aspx?guid=48763>
13. Постановление Правительства Nr. 1109 от 06.12.2010 об утверждении Концепции реформирования Министерства внутренних дел и его подведомственных и десконцентрированных подразделений Опубликован: 17.12.2010 в Monitorul Oficial Nr. 247-251 статья № : 1233
14. Совместное заявление европейских министров образования г. Болонья, 19 июня 1999 года http://www.bologna-bergen2005.no/Docs/00-Main_doc/990719BOLOGNA_DECLARATION.PDF
15. Соломанидина Т. О., Соломанидин В. Г., Мотивация трудовой деятельности персонала, Учебно-практическое пособие, Москва, ООО «Журнал «Управление персоналом»», 2005
16. Соломанидина Т. О., Соломанидин В. Г., Управление мотивацией персонала,

- Учебно-практическое пособие, Москва, ООО «Журнал «Управление персоналом»», 2005
17. Травин В. В., Дятлов В. А., Основы кадрового менеджмента, Академия народного хозяйства при Правительстве Российской Федерации, Москва, Издательство «Дело», 1997
 18. Щёкин Георгий, Организация и психология управления персоналом, Учебно-методическое пособие, Киев 2002

RATIONAL ALLOCATION AND PROPER DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN POLICE

Associate Professor **Meiying Geng**, MA
National Police University of China, Shenyang, China

Abstract: Since the police takes on the responsibility of maintaining social order and social stability, the rational allocation of human resources and the proper development of the police are prerequisites for strengthening the cohesion of police team and improving the combating effectiveness of the police. The rational allocation of human resources in police is the effective method to improve the police quality and maximize the potential of the police resources. The aim is to achieve reasonable allocation among regions, departments and different kinds of policing tasks. The proper development of police human resources includes three main aspects: more opportunities for police personal development (training and promotion), job analysis and assessment (incentive and punishment), and career design for the police. These measures are conducive to enhance the enthusiasm, initiative and the quality of the police, so as to further improve the efficiency and effectiveness of police work. The research on police human resources will help us find problems, adjust the police management and improve the overall quality of police.

Keywords: police human resources, rational allocation, proper development, police quality.

INTRODUCTION

China is in the process of economic transformation and development. The escort tasks are increasing for the public security agencies to ensure the smooth development. The efforts for social security management, crime fighting and criminal investigation also grow exponentially. This puts forward higher request for the public security agencies. Facing the new situation and new challenges, the prominent problem for public security is to improve the efficiency of police resources. The police ratio of Chinese police force is relatively lower compared with other developed countries. The modernization of China requires that we put more resources and funds into economic development and fewer resources into the construction of police force. Meanwhile the present situation calls for a stronger police force to maintain the social stability. Therefore, the rational allocation and effective development of police human resources are conducive to the better and fuller function of the police agencies.

Police resource is a comprehensive category including police manpower, material and financial resources. The police manpower is one of the key elements of the police resources. The police resources can be divided into police agencies, law enforcement, operation procedures, intelligence information, logistics, equipments, investigation expenses and police officers with certain quantity and quality. Police human resources consist of both police officers employed and those potential personnel to be employed.¹

Police human resources refer to the general factors of personnel in policing activities. The prerequisite of strengthening the team cohesion and improving combat effectiveness of the police force is to study, develop and allocate police human resources. To fully embody the concept of human resources, police human resources quality and efficiency should be strengthened, and therefore the law enforcement function of public security agencies could be fully developed. In that case a variety of difficulties could be overcome in police routine work.²

¹ Zhang Huiwen. Course of Police Human Resources Management. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2008. PP.7-8

² Wang Tieling. Study on Human Resources Management of Public Security in the New Era. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2008. PP.77-79

THE STATUS QUO OF THE POLICE HUMAN RESOURCES IN CHINA

Ratio of police officers to population

With respect to data on law enforcement personnel and the rational ratio of police officers to population, it is still under discussion. Methods differ across countries in terms of the approach used to count the size of the workforce (for example, in some countries actual persons are counted while in other countries it is the number of budget posts that is important) and to assess which institutions are included in the count.³ There is no standard for the ratio in the world at present. Many experts and scholars have studied the relationship between municipal police officers and crimes and have come to a consensus that the number of police officers has little to do with the reduction of crimes.⁴ Since the reform and opening up, the number of police personnel in most public security agencies has greatly increased and the scale of police team has expanded significantly. The number of police officers in China was about 1,800,000 by the end of 2007. The ratio of police officers to 100,000 people was 138. The absolute number of police officers in China is the largest. However, the ratio of police to population is still relatively low.⁵

The relationship between police personnel and the resident population is inseparable and in a fixed area, the relationship is proportional. However, it is too simple to attribute the number of police officers to the population. There are some distinctions of police system and operation jurisdictions in different countries. The residents' quality and the social security situation are also quite different. Other factors such as police qualities and police equipments will affect the allocation of human resources. Therefore, the research of allocation of police resources should be conducted through comprehensive study in order to get more objective and accurate conclusion.⁶

The number of police personnel in a country or region is restricted by many factors, and it could not reduce crimes fundamentally. Therefore, in addition to the scientific and rational allocation of police resources available, the maximum efficiency of policing plays a key role in realizing the goal of current police works.⁷

On the other hand, although the number of police staffing is on a gradual growth, the crime quantity is still showing a rising trend year by year. The number of police is not enough to cope with the needs of police work. It is not feasible to increase the current police personnel in the actual operation. The only solution to the problem is to make full use of the greatest efficiency in police force and have a scientific allocation of the current resources.

Personnel structure of current police human resources

Presently there exist some problems not only in the quantity of police officers but also in terms of the police qualities.

The rapid development of science and technology and the boom of economic situation bring about more changes in people's living standards. But the salary and other material conditions in the public security agencies are relatively not high enough to attract more professional and technical higher talents in such expertise as DNA technology, trace examination, cyber crime prevention, financial crimes, and criminal investigations. On one hand more professional talents are needed, on the other hand, it is common for some police officers to acquire some irrelevant knowledge of policing.

Chinese Health and Sports Association had a physical checkup survey of 15887 police officers in Beijing and Liaoning Province in 1999. The result of the survey shows the sickness rate of the police officers is 86%. The officers under the age of 45 suffer from poor health and

3 Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. Salvador, Brazil, 12-19 April 2010

4 Zeng Zhongshu. *Studies on Hot Issues in American Policing*. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2005. P. 115

5 Huang Xinchun. *Research on Police Resources Management in Public Security Agencies*. Zhengzhou University. 2009. PP 2-5

6 Cheng Lin, Zhang Huiwen. *Theory and Practice of the Development and Management of Human Resources in Police*. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2002. PP.160-161

7 Huang Xinchun. *On Scientific Allocation and Use of Police Resources*. *Public Security Research*. 2009(2)

the physical conditions decrease year by year.⁸ The causes of this situation include overload of work, mental pressure, staying up late, high nervousness and long-term fatigue, resulting in malfunction of body mechanisms, disorder of the body nervous system, and misalignment. The economy of these two areas is more developed and the living standards of police officers are relatively high. The physical conditions of police in other regions are worsen and worrying. Some people regard the police career as a high risk occupation.

Traditional personnel management mode

The traditional public security personnel management system is rigid and regards the personnel management as the routine administrative affairs. It mainly focuses on staff recruitment, employment training, records, files, salaries, labor relations, and so on. It lacks the enthusiasm to develop the potential and innovation ability of the police resources. It tries to supervise and control the employed officers using strict system and powerful authority. In the human resources development activities such as promotion, rewards and punishment, and training, the supervisors have arbitrary standards. Consequently some officers have less workload and better welfare while others have overload of work but lower rank.

The traditional public security personnel management neglects personal needs and characteristics and ignores the appropriate allocation of personnel and tasks. The superiors think more of the commands from the higher administrators than the reality of the lower rank officers. They rarely concern about the various difficulties the officers meet in their job or family life. The traditional management seldom invest to develop the potential of the officers.

ALLOCATION OF POLICE HUMAN RESOURCES

The allocation of human resources is an effective and beneficial means to realize the combination of manpower, material resources, and financial resources. Through various means and ways, the aims of human resources allocation include integrating the distribution and structure in different regions, all walks of life and different departments; forming a balanced cycle mechanism of supply and demand in human resources; optimizing internal structure and achieving high efficiency in the operation system; giving full play to all levels of staff's energy and creativity.⁹ The police human resources allocation refers to the series of activities to plan, implement and adjust the human resources in accordance with the organizational objectives, functions and job specification requirements, and using market mechanisms or administrative means. To realize the rational allocation of police human resources plays a significant role in the overall function of effective human resources team and individuals.

Due to the different education background, professional types, family background, environment and outlook of life, people have different views and requirements for their occupation. Some people value the social status, others regard economic benefits as the important factors, and still others prefer to engage in a comfortable and relaxing occupation. The police agency is the organ of dictatorship with armed nature. It is an important part of the state machine and performs the duties pursuant to the law. However, as a paramilitary troop, the police agency has strict restriction to the recruitment of employees. The optimal allocation of human resources can only be realized under the control of the state. Therefore, the police career option must be combined with organizational needs.

The allocation of police human resources includes area configuration, police departments or sectors allocation and group configuration. In addition to the development of the inner system, the factors affecting the allocation of human resources comprise the status of position and staffing, and other potential human resources.

Scientific, unified and standard police staffing ensures the rational allocation of police human resources. In recent years, China's public security agencies at all levels try to optimize the allocation of existing police force. This has greatly improved the quality of policing work. As the armed force and law enforcement force, the nature of the police agencies determines

⁸ Jiang Bo, Ren Yading. Analysis of Police Resources Allocation. Journal of Beijing People's Police College. 2009(5). PP.34-36

⁹ Zhang Huiwen. Course of Police Human Resources Management. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2008. P.132

that is should have unified and standardized method to allocate the police force. The allocation principles and minimum number of front-line officers should be set. At present, China tries to increase the ratio of police to the population to 200 per 100,000.

There is a big distinction among the area configuration. In China the allocation of police human resources is determined either by the density of population or by the regional development situation. So far, there are no uniform national standards for allocation. In terms of the personnel level, there are also differences. Officers with higher degrees or education backgrounds mostly choose to work in economically developed southeast coastal areas or municipal cities like Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Shenzhen. Fewer police staff would go to the western areas which are relatively underdeveloped. Because of the economic backwardness and lack of funds in the western areas, the police officers are also not adequate. To promote the coordination and balanced development between different regions, various factors should be considered.

The current police organization structures have been presented in the state of “big head, thick waist and thin legs”. That means more management personnel and less field operation officers. The Ministry of Public Security has put forward the requirements of condensed administrative organs and enlarged basic divisions and the police force for basic duties should account for over 85% of total police. It is to reach the police pyramid of more officers doing routine jobs.¹⁰

The rational structure of police human resources allocation is an important part of the implementation of human resources management. The function of police human resources allocation is to seek the link between police and tasks, between police and organizations, and to integrate the police resources, and to motivate the passion of all police personnel, and finally to promote the balanced development of the public security work.

To realize the effective combination of police and materials means to make full use of human’s physical strength, intelligence, creativity and skills, so that a common task and target could be achieved. In the police departments, compared with the material resources, human resources take a large proportion. The police human resources could initiate other resources to play a full role in policing and help to maximize the overall efficiency.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF POLICE HUMAN RESOURCES

The development of police human resources is to take the police personnel as the first resource and accept the “people-oriented” concept. The development is based on the system of full exploration, effective incentive, reasonable configuration, and training and performance management, in order to benefit the biggest value of police manpower, and achieve the organization goal.¹¹

The development of police human resources is the important method to improve the police quality and enhance the combat effectiveness. In the current situation, the research on police individual and community should focus on the human resources development, efforts to enhance the quality and passion of police force, so as to further improve the efficiency and effectiveness of police work. The development of police human resources mainly includes the following:

Police education and training

Education and training is the strategic measure to develop police human resources. It is the basic way to develop police intelligence and skills, and the effective method to improve police quality and potentials. Training and education is the source of high value police resources and the priority among the approaches to develop police human resources. Training includes regular trainings for all officers and promotion training for those who apply for higher ranks.

The police must update their knowledge structure to adapt to the new requirements of police work. The training needs to be unified planning, rational layout, and a complete set of training system. The police officers could have a set of new system to of training and education.

The course contents will not just stay on the theoretical teaching and the teachers should combine the training with classical cases in practice to lecture. The trainees could have more

¹⁰ Edited by Political Department of the Ministry of Public Security. *Theory and Practice of Regularization of Police Team in New Era*. Chinese People’s Public Security University Press, 2006

¹¹ Wang Shuna, Zhang Hang. On Police Human Resources Development. *Journal of Public Security Education*. 2007(8). PP. 10-13

drills to learn how to deal with practical work. The selection of training should give priority to practical work and solve problem in public security practice. The training should also target at the actual situation and actual needs of police officers, avoiding the exhaustive and superficial training. The training should be classified according to the police job, age, position, knowledge level and so on.

Training materials should highlight the practicality, pertinence, and novelty. The selection of teaching materials should be flexible, not too much emphasis on the unity of specific training materials. The training materials should change according to different types of police, different levels of trainees and different aims of training.

The training contents should match the individuals' needs and must be refined, practical and innovative. "Refined" refers to the conciseness of the training. Owing to the limited training time and heavy training task, the teachers should sum up the topics and have a clear, rigorous and logic teaching to give the trainees actual effectiveness. "Practical" means practical feature of the training. The principle of the training is to combat the actual work based on the officers' needs. So the training is targeted teaching combined with police work. "Innovative" implies the presence of new ideas and new perspectives to solve the practical problems in actual work. The teachers may put forward new ideas and enlighten the trainees.

Establishment of an effective incentive mechanism

To develop and improve the police human resources, a scientific incentive system must be set. These incentives include both material rewards and spirit awards. The material rewards consist of salary, bonus, promotion and resources (funds, equipment and so on) configuration. The spirit awards mean the spiritual needs of success, such as sense of achievement in work, satisfaction and enhanced attention from the superiors. Spiritual encouragement and material rewards are equally important, because the spirit award can enhance the sense of pride and sense of responsibility. Based on the rewards system, more members of the police division are encouraged to learn from the model. More people are inspired to have better performance. The goal of human resources development is achieved. At the same time, the reward system may also give an invisible pressure to those with lower efficiency or poor performance. They may suffer from tension and a sense of crisis. This will motivate officers and the incentive mechanism is produced.

The positive incentive theory believes that recognition and rewards of some kind of individual behavior will increase the frequency of this behavior, while the model incentive is the concrete application of this theory. Under the present situation, an exemplary motivation must follow the two points. The first one is the establishment of a fair performance appraisal system. The system is a set of scientific standards to evaluate the staff performance. It links the work performance and evaluation in order to inspire the staff to make more efforts. The second point is to establish a reasonable salary management system. The final results of the police performance will be put into salaries or rewards. When people's performance differs, the distribution of rewards should reflect the corresponding difference and thus awards can play a role in the incentive mechanism.

Police career planning

Design of personal career is one of the innovative methods of human resources management and development. The aim is to help members to truly understand themselves and their own advantages and limitations, and evaluate the internal and external environment, so as to design a feasible career development plan. For the organization, the career planning of individuals is not only their own business, but also one important part of the organization management.

The police career plan is beneficial to both the police themselves and the police agencies. When the choice of the police career conforms to the officers' ability, personality, temperament, interests and personal qualities, they are more likely to use their knowledge and skills, perform better, and get a sense of satisfaction and work hard to promote the development of police service. On the contrary, it could have a negative impact on the individual's life quality, personal future career development and even on the police benefit.¹² Police career plan can help the

¹² Cheng Lin, Zhang Huiwen. Theory and Practice of the Development and Management of Human Resources in Police. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2002. PP.247-248

police agencies to better understand the individual's interest, desire, and dream, so that the human resources department can assign reasonable tasks for the individuals, and guide the police into the fields they desire. In this way the personal goals and organizational goals can better unified.

The police career design generally consists of the following steps: the first step is to carefully analyze personal conditions, such as individual quality, character, professional skills, expertise and external environmental conditions. With the analysis, the officer may determine the choice of police work, what division to serve, and what position is suitable. The second step is to establish scientific and reasonable career target. The target must meet the individual quality, practical and occupation requirement. It is based on personal values, interests, and desired way of life. The third step is to have feasible career strategy. To realize the career goal, there must be available operation plan or scheme; both short-term and long-term plan can help the police to achieve the goal step by step. The fourth step is to assess the career plan activities regularly or irregularly. In the process of the career plan, various obstacles may be encountered. Therefore, the career plan and goal need to be constantly reflected and revised to adapt to the changes in environmental conditions and personal changes.

CONCLUSION

Under the new historical conditions, the police agencies should continue to adhere to the principle of "establishing police for the public, and enforcing law for the people" to further improve the police work efficiency and further solve the contradiction between the limited police force and unlimited task force. In the current situation, the research on police individuals and community should focus on rational allocation and effective development of police human resources. More efforts should be made to enhance the police quality and initiative of work so as to raise the efficiency and effectiveness of police work. Rational allocation and effective development of police resources will give full scope to the talents and make the role of human resources into full play.

REFERENCES

1. Cheng Lin, Zhang Huiwen. Theory and Practice of the Development and Management of Human Resources in Police. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2002.
2. Edited by Political Department of the Ministry of Public Security. Theory and Practice of Regularization of Police Team in New Era. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2006
3. Huang Xinchun. Research on Police Resources Management in Public Security Agencies. Zhengzhou University. 2009. PP 2-5
4. Huang Xinchun. On Scientific Allocation and Use of Police Resources. Public Security Research. 2009(2)
5. Jiang Bo, Ren Yading. Analysis of Police Resources Allocation. Journal of Beijing People's Police College. 2009(5). PP.34-36
6. Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. Salvador, Brazil, 12-19 April 2010
7. Wang Shuna, Zhang Hang. On Police Human Resources Development. Journal of Public Security Education. 2007(8). PP. 10-13
8. Wang Tieling. Study on Human Resources Management of Public Security in the New Era. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2008. PP.77-79
9. Zeng Zhongshu. Studies on Hot Issues in American Policing. Chinese People's Public Security University Press. 2005. P. 115
10. Zhang Huiwen. Course of Police Human Resources Management. Chinese People's Public Security University Press.

**RESPONSIBILITY OF THE POLICE OFFICERS IN THE
REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA - CRIMINAL LAW, MISDEMEANOR,
MATERIAL AND DISCIPLINARY RESPONSIBILITY**

Associate professor **Zlate Dimovski**, PhD
Faculty of Security, Skopje, University "St. Kliment Ohridski", Bitola

Assistant and PhD candidate **Ice Iljevski**, MSc
Faculty of Security, Skopje, University "St. Kliment Ohridski", Bitola

PhD candidate **Kire Babanoski**, MSc
Faculty of Security, Skopje, University "St. Kliment Ohridski", Bitola

Abstract: The main subject of the paper is the responsibility of the police officers in the Republic of Macedonia. The subject in this paper is developed through specific segments, such as criminal law responsibility, the misdemeanor responsibility, material and disciplinary responsibility. The criminal law responsibility will be analyzed through review of offenses criminalized in the Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia that can be committed by the police officers. Misdemeanor responsibility will be analyzed by determining the term of offenses, types of offenses, the procedure for determining offenses and sanctions that can be given to the police officers who committed some offence. Material responsibility will be reviewed by the Law on Internal Affairs and Collective Agreement of Ministry of Interior which specifically describes the procedure and conditions for the determination of material responsibility and compensation for damage. Disciplinary responsibility will be reviewed by the notion of disciplinary responsibility, types of measures for disciplinary responsibility, and the procedure for determining this responsibility. The purpose of this paper is to give an overview of the types of responsibility for the police officers in the Republic of Macedonia as a part of a system of responsibility and normative legal regulation in the relevant acts.

Keywords: responsibility, police officers, criminal law responsibility, misdemeanor responsibility, material responsibility, disciplinary responsibility

INTRODUCTION

The notion of responsibility has lately become one of the basic fundamental ethical concepts. Everyone with their work in any organization acquires certain rights while undertaking certain obligations and responsibilities to implement its business activities. In accordance with the law and regulations of the organization, it determines the rights, obligations and responsibilities of each member of the organization, including responsibility for their behaviour in accordance with social and organizational practices and ethical norms. Responsibility reviewed from the point of view of the social relationship may constitute a lawful, proper, professional, conscious, quality, and timely perform its obligations.

Accountability is a complex category that theory and practice can appear as:¹
status (mandatory, hierarchical, formal, functional)
expert (professional)
moral (ethical)
political
legal (disciplinary offense, criminal, material)
objective (institutional, command)
subjective (personal, individual)
collective (shared)
internal
external

¹ Stevanovic, O., Rukovodjenje u policiji, Policiska Akademija, Beograd, 2003, pp. 117

For the purposes of this paper, legal responsibility concerning responsibility for performance of labor duties, work discipline, the volume and quality of work done, the treatment of entrusted property and behavior at work or in connection with the work that a person performs will be further developed and elaborated. This responsibility is prescribed by law or with regulations and may be a disciplinary offense, criminal or material.

In recent years the number of charges filed against police officers has dramatically increased. This trend may be due to: increased number of police officers who conduct their duties in an unethical, unprofessional and irresponsible manner, obligations and duties, or on the other hand, strengthened awareness of citizens to exercise their civic rights and freedoms, in cases where they are violated by the police officers. To prevent unscrupulous behaviour of police officers in the future, it is necessary for the state to strengthen the mechanisms for determining all types of responsibility and the imposition of appropriate sanctions.

In order to develop relationships between the police and the public, it is necessary to promote accountability mechanisms, based on communication and mutual understanding between police officers and the public. Police officers are responsible for their actions to citizens and law.²

Every member of the police force, who is authorized by law to apply force directly and infringements on the human rights, must bear a certain personal responsibility for their actions during the performance of official duties and activities. Having such responsibility, the employee must be especially mindful when making their decisions. The success or failure of any matter depends on the competence and ability of the police officer. During each treatment, police officers must have in regard the criteria of legality, proportionality and non-discrimination. It is necessary so that responsibility of the member of the police for their negligence or exceeding its powers in any police intervention will make possible to be revealed.

Police officers must treat all persons equally regardless on any ground. All must receive the same treatment and the same respect. Any person who sees the reaction of the police officer in a given situation forms an opinion about the officer and the service in general. The actions of a police officer if excessive or unfair may initiate one's own responsibility.

Personal responsibility with police officers primarily depends on his personality traits (self-control), and the knowledge gained during the training and constant upgrading and learning about proper execution of official activities. Although the police officer should act quickly and make the right decision, they should be aware of the personal responsibility they carry.

CRIMINAL AND LEGAL RESPONSIBILITY

The principles of justice and fairness are the main tasks of the employees in the Ministry of Interior Affairs. Police officers have to enforce the law, regardless of the identity of the perpetrator. They cannot distinguish certain groups and must be guided by the principles of equality, equity and not discrimination on any ground. Police officers should not use their official authority to receive certain benefits in the society for private purposes. Police officers guard the Constitution and the laws and should not go out of its frame, which means they always have to respect the standards of professional performance.

Members of MI in relation to their actions in performing official duties distinguish between disciplinary, misdemeanour and criminal responsibility. MI employees should be familiar with measures against them which would be taken in case of unprofessional or improper execution of tasks, thus increasing the commitment by the employees themselves.

Criminal responsibility can be distinguished when we have a police officer who commits acts that are prohibited by law and provided i.e. incriminated as crimes – criminal acts (CA). In order to initiate criminal responsibility, the doer of the act must be accountable and the act has to be done intentionally or negligently. Otherwise, as for other citizens and police officers, this procedure is initiated by the public prosecutor in front of the competent court. At this stage SICPSU has a big role in that in pre-trial proceedings it shall take the necessary measures to prevent concealment of the offense.

The Criminal Law (CL) of the Republic of Macedonia provides more CA that can be carried out by people through misconduct of their powers.

² Code of Police Ethics, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 72 of 11.06.2007, Article 62

By the CA executed by a police officer, the civilian may suffer other consequences. He has the right to seek compensation for damages, which must be paid by the state, such as damage caused by a member of the state who applied police powers. Citizens in this situation have the right to directly request the police officer for compensation. The court decides about the existence and amount of damages to be compensated.

CRIMES AGAINST THE PROFESSIONAL DUTY

The Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia since 1996 with its codification made several forms of CA against duty, but with amendments, this group of CA is enriched with a few more, and that is so because of the needs that indicate the practice or reorganization of our security system. The manifestations of these CA will be looked into according to the legal classification provided in a separate chapter where they will be systematized, which is Act XXX of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia³. These include the following offenses:

- Abuse of power and authority - Art. 353
- Misdemeanour in keeping the state border - Art. 353 - a
- Not conducting orders - Art. 353 - b
- Reckless operation in service - art. 353 - c
- Embezzlement - Art. 354
- Fraud in office - Art. 355
- Serving in office - Art. 356
- Receiving a bribe - Art. 357
- Giving bribes - Art. 358
- Giving Award for unlawful influence - Art. 358 - a
- Receiving an award for against the law mediation - Art. 359
- Illegal acquisition and concealment properties - Art. 359 - a
- Concealing the origin of the acquired assets disproportionate - Art. 359 - b
- Paying an official secret - Art. 360
- Misuse of state, military or official secret - Art. 360 - a
- Falsifying official documents - art. 361
- Unlawful collection and payment - Art. 362
- Prosecution for offenses against official duty - Art. 362 - a
- Mandatory sentencing and prohibition of professional activity or duty - Art. 362 - b

MISDEMEANOR RESPONSIBILITY

The misdemeanour responsibility, although it is a smaller form of unlawful conduct in relation to criminal legal responsibility, however, should not mean that such responsibility is negligible. The severity of such responsibility arises from the frequency, the disturbance and the lifestyle. In the Republic of Macedonia offenses are provided solely by law, which means that no other act, but the law can determine the offense or misdemeanour. The offenses, given here, are provided with more laws.

According to the Law on Misdemeanours⁴ offense is an unlawful act which the law defines as an offense whose characteristics are determined by the law and that entails a sanction.

The official is held responsible, if the offense is committed within their official powers or for the performance of official authorities they have trespassed their official authority.

For misdemeanour offenses, the responsible perpetrators the following sanctions can be imposed with:

³ Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia, Official Gazette of the RM no. 37/96, 80/99, 04/02, 43/03, 19/04, 81/05, 60/06, 73/06, 07/08, 139/08, 114/09, 51/11 – two changes and additions, 135/11, 185/11, 142/12, 166/12, 55/13, 82/13 and Decisions of Constitutional Court of RM no. 220/2000, 210/2001, 206/2003, 228/2005

⁴ Law on Misdemeanours, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 62/06, 69/06, 51/11

- 1) Fine;
 - 2) Warning;
 - 3) Termination of the license;
 - 4) Prohibition of driving;
 - 5) Prohibition on performing a profession, activity or duty;
 - 6) Expulsion from the country and
 - 7) Compulsory treatment of alcoholics and drug addicts (people with addictions).
- The misdemeanour procedure is a set of procedural steps to detect and punish the offender, taken by the competent authorities.⁵

MATERIAL RESPONSIBILITY

Material responsibility of police officers in the Republic of Macedonia is determined in a separate chapter 7, titled "Responsibility or claim for damages, the Law on Internal Affairs."⁶ With that, the norms are being standardized separately: the duty to timely and quality execution of activities and tasks related to the job, the workers' responsibility for any damage, responsibility for damage caused by several workers committees to determine the responsibility, reporting damage, initiation of proceedings compensation for damages, procedure for compensation of damages and relief from paying compensation.

Article 130 indicates that the worker shall timely and qualitatively perform his tasks and duties related to his job, respect the rules and regulations and will strive to build-up technical and professional responsibility to keep the equipment and responsibly handle and use them. In all situations where the employee of the MI will cause damage, it is necessary to compensate. Within the MI there a special commission, established by the Minister, consisting of a president, two members and their alternates, and its task is to determine the financial responsibility of workers in MI. Article 136 states that the divergence of determining the responsibility of the employee in the Ministry of Interior Affairs is made in accordance with the Collective Agreement made by the MI. The process for determining compensation of damages is provided for in Article 184 to Article 187 of the Collective Agreement of the MI. Moreover, there is a prescribed fee and compensation for damage to the employee, where there is a work-related or the one which is caused by the violation of labour rights, and the Ministry is obligated to reimburse the employee with property damage, according to the general principles for compensation.

DISCIPLINARY RESPONSIBILITY

For disturbing the work order and discipline or not fulfilling their duties, the employee in the MI is being grounded with disciplinary measures.

Employees in the MI are on the account for disciplinary measures for smaller and more severe cases of violation of the work order and discipline or not fulfilling their duties.

According to the collective agreement of the Ministry of Interior Affairs, for a more minimal case of breaking the work order and discipline or not fulfilling their duties which are set forth by law are being considered if:⁷ 1) one does not comply with the work order and discipline, 2) fails to perform or negligently or untimely finishes his work obligations; 3) does not comply with the regulations that apply for performing the job, 4) does not comply with the fixed working hours, schedules and use of working time, 5) does not request leave or time in writing nor notifies the Minister or the head of the organizational unit or other responsible employee for taking absence from work, 6) due to illness or justifiable reasons, he is absent from work and within 48 hours does not inform in written or in oral manner the Minister or the head of the organizational unit or other responsible officer; 7) with the funds for work does not act diligently and in accordance with the technical operating instructions, 8) in cases of incurred damage, malfunction or loss,

⁵ Davitkovski, B., Pavlovska-Daneva, A., Grizo, G., Gelevski, S., Administrative Law, Faculty of Law "Justinian I" Skopje, Skopje, 2008, p. 547

⁶ Law on Internal Affairs, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 92/09, 118/09, 35/10

⁷ Collective Agreement MI, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 126/10, art. 206

and it fails to inform the minister or the head of the organizational unit or other responsible officers; 9) does not maintain the funds and equipment for occupational safety regulations in accordance with the safety work regulations 10) causes a mess and acts as a bully during the operation, 11) illegally or unauthorized uses of funds MI; 12) does not provide data or provides incorrect data according to the rules provided to the competent authorities or citizens; 13) does not indicate legal and other assistance within its powers to a party in exercising their legal rights and legal interests and 14) avoids training.

In other cases, where the violating of the working order and discipline or failure of labor obligations determined by law is more severe, when the following happens:⁸ 1) unexcused absent from work for three consecutive working days or five working days during the year, 2) has abused sick leave, 3) does not comply with the regulations for health protection, occupational safety, fire, explosion, harmful action poisons and other dangerous substances and violating regulations on environment protection 4) smuggles in, uses or is under the influence of alcohol and drugs, 5) does theft or work-related purpose or with gross negligence causes damage to the MI, 6) gives out classified information; 7) makes misuse of personal data, 8) acts contrary to the rules and regulations of the Ministry of Interior, 9) misuses or exceeds a given power; 10) avoids a medical examination to determine the operational capacity; 11) Indecent treat parties; 12) unlawfully obtains personal benefits in connection with performing the duties and tasks; 13) performs misuse or facilitates misuse of another person's money or other things of value that the employee entrusted in the performance of duties and tasks, 14) performs specified tasks, independent or additional or professional activities in a manner and under conditions contrary to the Law on Internal Affairs and the Law on Police 15) performs an act which constitutes a crime or commits an act which constitutes an offense against public order and 16) basis, manages, represents a political party, a member of the Party established by its charter, party representatives and expresses opinions and beliefs in the performance of duties and tasks, wears a party symbols on the premises or in official vehicles of MI and organize or act in MI with political background.

TYPES OF DISCIPLINARY MEASURES FOR ACCOUNTABILITY

Depending on the degree of responsibility of the employee, the conditions under which the violation of the duties of the previous work and conduct of the employee, the severity of the violation and its consequences, the employees may be pronounced one of the following disciplinary measures:⁹

- 1) A written warning;
- 2) A fine which may not exceed 15% of the last monthly net salary paid to the employee for a period of one to six months;
- 3) Deployment of a vacancy in accordance with the hierarchy of jobs specified in the act of systematization of jobs in MI which would be up to two degrees lower than the job from which the employee is deployed;
- 4) A conditional waiver of the employment contract and
- 5) Cancellation of the employment contract.

These penalties are listed in the Labour Law, Article 81 and 84, and confirmed in Article 208 of the Collective Agreement which regulates the employment relationship between the MI and employees.

PROCEDURE FOR DETERMINING DISCIPLINARY RESPONSIBILITY

The procedure for determining disciplinary responsibility in the cases determined by law, the Minister shall establish committees for disciplinary. Committees are composed of a Chairman and two members and their alternates, whose term is four years, renewable, and secretary - clerk without the right to vote. The work of the committee comprises representatives from the Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards Unit (SICPSU) which has the right to vote.

⁸ Collective Agreement MI, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 126/10, art. 207

⁹ Collective Agreement MI, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 126/10, Art. 208

In case it is found that the employee with its performance breaks the work order and discipline or is not fulfilling their duties, a proposal is being submitted for the initiation of proceedings for disciplinary responsibility.

In case when the SICPSU, according to a special regulation submits initiative to start proceedings for disciplinary proceedings against a particular employee of the Ministry, an authorized proposer to whom the initiative is submitted, submits a proposal for the initiation of proceedings for disciplinary proceedings according to the collective agreement and it is he who informs the SICPSU.

We need to follow the example of the developed EU countries where there are different types of disciplinary commissions or tribunals depending on: a) the seriousness of the allegations against the police officer and b) the penalty that may be imposed. Usually, there are two levels of the Disciplinary Committee, including: regional - level of Secretariat for Internal Affairs and central - at the Interior Ministry. Regional Disciplinary Committee will only work with those police officers whose disciplinary offenses, if they are found guilty, will only result in a maximum reduction of salary, while the central disciplinary committee will act on the most serious cases, where the police officer may, because of the seriousness of the allegations the work to be fired. While regional disciplinary committees are composed of senior regional or sectional police personnel, central disciplinary committee will be headed by someone who is at a higher position, and will help other appropriate senior officers - in this case highlights the importance of handling the toughest allegations¹⁰.

According to the Committee for the Prevention of Torture (CPT) it is clear that no matter how effective and impartial the investigation is, it will be useless if sanctions imposed for improper actions by the police officers are inadequate, and the position of the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) is that establishing a practice of tolerating violations by police officers can lead to systematic violations of fundamental human rights and freedoms. Consequently, imposing symbolic penalties in cases of police abuse will generate a climate of impunity for police officers and their elevation above the existing positive legal regulations. It should in no way appear to doubt the state's efforts to prevent and take action against police abuse.¹¹

It is always necessary to be present in the minds of everyone, whether it is a police officer, another civil servant or citizen, the notion that the exercise of rights and fulfilment of obligations one shall respect and comply with all applicable legal norms otherwise the negative behaviour could be faced with a sanction.

Table Proposed measures by SICPSU by type and year¹²

years	Total acted cases	Criminal charges	Requests for proposals for initiating misdemeanour proceedings	Requests for proposals for initiation of disciplinary proceedings	Proposals for reduction of wages	Proposals for written warnings	Proposals for reassignment to another job	Procedure for compensation of damages	Proposals for Moving away from the workplace	Cancellation of the job contract without conducting disciplinary proceedings
2004	784	50	/	117	63	36	85	/	12	/
2005	677	38	/	75	42	45	36	/	27	/
2006	691	37	8	102	93	102	57	3	12	/
2007	974	106	12	179	145	149	43	3	84	/
2008	1148	75	6	173	96	122	53	32	39	/
2009	1355	50	1	201	160	193	13	91	28	66
2010	1261	29	/	219	/	161	/	85	9	14
2011	1250	30	/	228	/	230	/	62	9	29
2012	1644	23	/	347	/	244	/	11	11	6
TOTAL	9784	438	27	1641	599	1282	287	287	231	115

¹⁰ Avziu, K., The role of internal control and professional standards in the suppression of police abuses, Doctoral dissertation, Faculty of Security - Skopje, 2010, p. 209

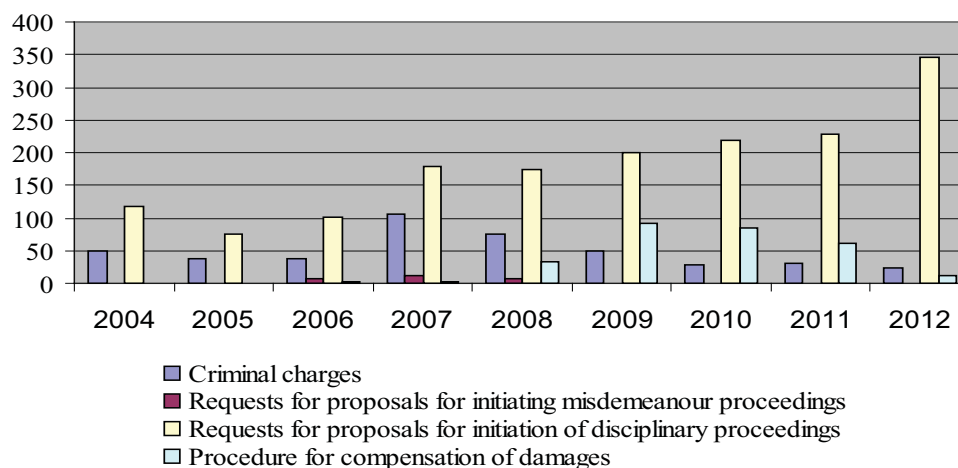
¹¹ Project Support for human rights, Annual Report 2007, Coalition "All for Fair Trials", Skopje, 2007, p. 27

¹² Source: Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards, Annual Reports, Retrieved from:

<http://www.mvr.gov.mk/DesktopDefault.aspx?tabindex=0&tabid=130> [Accessed 30/06/2013]

The table shows the proposed measures by the SICPSU by type for the period 2004 - 2012. In total, in this nine-year period after 9784 acted cases, which means an average annual acted upon items in 1087. From 2005 onwards, the number is constantly increasing, which means more people complain to the SICPSU and it has clearly demonstrated so, which means that the confidence of citizens in this control mechanism is reinforced. As for criminal legal responsibility, SICPSU filed 438 criminal charges against certified officials. Submissions of criminal charges by the SICPSU after 2007 were on a steady decline. Requests for proposals for initiating misdemeanour proceedings are recorded only in 2006 and 2009, a total of 27. Out of all of the proposed measures by the SICPSU, the biggest number of submitted proposal requests for initiation of disciplinary proceedings, is a total of 1641, which means that an average annual is 182 requests of this kind. Unlike criminal and legal responsibility responsibilities, requirements for establishing disciplinary responsibility has seen a steady growth, with the majority of them were filed in 2012, a total of 347. However, it must be noted that SICPSU just takes the initiative, i.e. submits a proposal that seeks to initiate disciplinary proceedings against police officers before a special disciplinary committee established by the Minister and in accordance with the Law on Internal Affairs. The SICPSU can impose administrative sanctions only for the conduct as a result of their investigations. From the imposed measures, the most numerous are the written warnings, including such measures in 1282, and the annual average amounts to 142. The measure reduction of wages was imposed to a total of 599 officers. Equal number of measures reassignment to another job and procedure for compensation of damages filed in this period and in 287, an average of 32 each year after. Moving away from the workplace, as a measure was imposed in 231 cases, and cancellation of the job contract without conducting disciplinary proceedings was being brought upon in 115 cases. These administrative sanctions, cannot be self-imposed by the SICPSU, because some of them need a decision reached by the disciplinary committee.

Graph. Comparative overview of the proposals for initiation of the criminal-legal, misdemeanour, disciplinary and material responsibility



From the graph (derived from the previous table) comparatively can be seen the number of submitted proposals for initiation of criminal justice, misdemeanour, disciplinary and material responsibility in the analysed nine-year period (2004 to 2012). It confirms the above mentioned statement that the requirements for initiating disciplinary proceedings are most numerous in relation to other species.

CONCLUSION

Police officers are responsible for keeping the public peace and order, protection of human rights and the prevention and detection of various forms of criminality. For the protection of these functions and duties, police officers must work in accordance with the rights, duties and powers established by the Constitution, laws and bylaws. However, in their daily work, they can make some irregularities, i.e. non-compliant behaviour, thereby initiate their responsibility. MI has established appropriate mechanisms for monitoring and supervision of their professional conduct in the performance of police work. The good functioning of these mechanisms can provide a strengthening of the democracy and transparency of police.

The term responsibility associated with the term competence, responsibility for obliging the execution of tasks that need to perform certain subjects in their work. Moreover, it means that the entities must have their own sense of responsibility, i.e. ability to support their activities. From the above mentioned text it is stipulated that police officers as authorized officials of the Interior Ministry are subject to several types of responsibility: criminal justice, a misdemeanour, financial and disciplinary responsibility. All these types of responsibility constitute legal (statutory) responsibility, because they are based on violations of law and regulation that prescribes a particular sanction.

To reduce the number of unprofessional conduct of police officers, there is a need to undertake certain preventive measures right from the beginning stage of recruiting police officers. In this regard, it should be taken into account the integrity of persons who enter the service of the Ministry, through specific checks and stage selection. During their training, it is important in particular to take account of the training of the professional conduct, according to national law. In the course of their work should be conducted special seminars and additional training for continuous professional development of police actions. In the end, every police officer must possess a good knowledge of the Code of Police Ethics, and to consistently comply with its provisions, and to take care of his personal dignity and professional conduct.

The existence of a supervisory control mechanism to check the work of police officers will result in significantly better terms of transparency and openness to citizens and state institutions.

REFERENCES

1. Avziu, K., The role of internal control and professional standards in the suppression of police abuses, Doctoral dissertation, Faculty of Security - Skopje, 2010 / Авзиу, К., Улогата на внатрешната контрола и професионални стандарди во сузбивање на полициските злоупотреби, Одбранета докторска дисертација на Факултет за безбедност – Скопје, 2010
2. Sector for Internal Control and Professional Standards, Annual Reports, Retrieved from:
3. <http://www.mvr.gov.mk/DesktopDefault.aspx?tabindex=0&tabid=130> [Accessed 30/06/2013]
4. Davitkovski, B., Pavlovska-Daneva, A., Grizo, G., Gelevski, S., Administrative Law, Faculty of Law "Justinian I" Skopje, Skopje, 2008 / Давитковски, Б., Павловска-Данева, А., Гризо, Г., Гелевски, С., Управно право, Правен факултет „Јустинијан I“ Скопје, Скопје, 2008
5. Law on Internal Affairs, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 92/09, 118/09, 35/10
6. Law on Misdemeanours, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 62/06, 69/06, 51/11
7. Code of Police Ethics, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 72 of 11.06.2007
8. Collective Agreement MI, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 126/10
9. Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia, Official Gazette of the RM no. 37/96, 80/99, 04/02, 43/03, 19/04, 81/05, 60/06, 73/06, 07/08, 139/08, 114/09, 51/11 – two

-
- changes and additions, 135/11, 185/11, 142/12, 166/12, 55/13, 82/13 and Decisions of Constitutional Court of RM no. 220/2000, 210/2001, 206/2003, 228/2005
10. Project Support for human rights, Annual Report 2007, Coalition "All for Fair Trials", Skopje, 2007 / Проект за поддршка на човековите права, Годишен извештај 2007, Коалиција „Сите за правично судење“, Скопје, 2007
 11. Stevanovic, O., Rukovodjenje u policiji, Policiska Akademija, Beograd, 2003

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR STANDARDS RELATED TO CIVIL SERVANTS

Assistant Professor **Bojan Urdarević**, PhD
Faculty of Law, University in Kragujevac

Abstract: After nearly a century of existence of the International Labour Organisation, its regulatory framework remains controversial. In the midst of another great wave of economic globalisation, especially encroachment of the investment flows across borders, the need for reliable social dimension in the process of economic integration has never been greater. In order to establish an effective social system in the global economy and improve the constructive rather than destructive competition, international labour standards must be vigorously applied everywhere.

Dogmatism of neoliberal economics continues to create a very negative attitude towards international labour standards. Supporters of this theoretical direction still argue that labour conditions are the product of economic development, and that only the free market is able to produce the optimum labour conditions as well as sustainable international labour standards. This deterministic attitude and its “non-sensitivity” to the history and institutions are not in line with the philosophy behind international labour standards, which refers to the observation that although economic growth improves labour conditions, it alone is not enough to permanently improve them.

The international labour standards in the area of civil service were discussed at the EU level as well. The paper subsequently provides an interesting scale of these standards, which is reported in the literature concerning the civil service law.

The final section of the paper points to the all going harmonization of both administrative, as well as civil service law, with the international labour standards.

Keywords: international labour standards, the principles of civil service law, compliance and harmonization.

THE ROLE OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION

The development of international labour standards did not occur in a linear, continuous fashion and it has always been influenced by political and economic cycles. Its fate has been closely connected to the circumstances that prevailed in the International Labour Organization (ILO).

A conclusion was reached based on the experience in the aftermath of World War I that international peace cannot be achieved without social justice.¹ The International Labour Organization was founded many years ago in 1919, with the aim of establishing labour standards in the world by becoming the main international development agency for labour and the leading scientific institution. Since the very beginning, the primary aim of the International Labour Organization has been to promote equal working conditions and to regulate competition among states so as to allow trade to occur without jeopardizing living standards. Therefore, it represents a great potential for the regulation of international competition.²

The demand for International Labour Law to regulate international competition appeared shortly before World War II during the first great wave of international economic integration. Back then, each state could easily trade with any other one. Customs duties were low and the gold

¹ This idea eventually led to “the famous crowning moment of courage and adventure” as Albert Thomas referred to the establishment of the International Labour Organization.

² Valticos, Nicolas. “Fifty years of standard-setting activities by the International Labour Organization.” *International Labour Review* 3 (1969): 201-208.

standards facilitated trade and investment financing. Ever since it was founded, the International Labour Organization assumed that unregulated international trade and the free flow of capital would worsen working conditions and create difficulties for workers. The cure for what was initially termed “social dumping” or what nowadays is referred to as “the race to the bottom”³ would be an international commitment to establishing universally acknowledged minimum labour standards.⁴ For this to become effective, any potential participants in the market should follow the same norms and standards. Full compliance with the law should prevent those who do not abide by it from gaining unjust competitive advantage. The application of international labour standards should correspond to the size of the labour force, the amount of goods and capital markets. In this context, the ILO Constitution explicitly states that fair and humane working conditions should be adopted equally in all countries and that “the failure of any nation to adopt humane working conditions is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries”.⁵ However, in practice, this only had relevance in the industry of goods and services and had little impact on the regulation of competition between developed and undeveloped countries.

During the first forty years of its existence, the International Labour Organization was undisputedly “an organization with European visions on the regulation of working relations” and it has never lost its orientation.⁶ From the beginning, all major countries accepted its authority because they believed it was a way to assist and guide the development of the working class, to establish labour standards and prevent socialist protests in Europe at the same time.⁷ The Cold War, which lasted until 1991 and caused a rivalry of its own among political systems, also seemed to provide a motivation for social politics and the development of international labour standards, since a belief was held that every treaty should ensure the loyalty of their satellite nations and gain support from many Third World countries.⁸

NORMATIVE ACTS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION

The International Labour Organization has adopted up to 188 conventions until now and even more recommendations, which all became part of what is known as the International Labour Codex. Until January 2010, the total number of ratified conventions by 174 ILO member states rose up to 8,145 and the number of ratified fundamental conventions reached 1,278.⁹

However, while observing the number of conventions and recommendations as fundamental normative acts adopted by the International Labour Organization during the first few decades of its existence, after 1980 we can notice a huge difference.¹⁰ This is not only about the number as

³ Race to the bottom is a socio-economic concept which describes the situation when countries compete with each other in a race that determines which country will be the first one to weaken its legislation and to what extent with the aim of attracting foreign investors. Sovereign states are destabilized as such and international labour standards become inapplicable.

⁴ Sengenberger, Werner. *International Labour Standards in the Globalized Economy: Obstacles and Opportunities for Achieving Progress*, in *Globalization and The Future of labor law*, eds. John Craig and Michael Lynk, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2006.

⁵ Sunderić Borivoje. *Pravo Međunarodne organizacije rada*, Belgrade, 2001.

⁶ Standing, Guy. “The ILO: An Agency for Globalization”, *Development and Change*, 3 (2008): 356, accessed March 27, 2010, doi: 10.1111/j.1467.

⁷ The United States of America didn't become a member of the ILO until 1934.

⁸ The end of the Cold War weakened joint international efforts and it “reminded” the workers, the employers and the Governments of capitalist states of their opposed interests and roles once again. This resulted in a sharp division between labour rights in capitalists and former socialist countries.

⁹ International Labour Office, *Ratification and Promotion of Fundamental ILO Conventions*, last modified, April 11, 2009, http://www.ilo.org/public/libdoc/ilo/GB/303/GB.303_LILS_5_engl.pdf

¹⁰ The most important instruments of the ILO were passed between 1948 and 1964, such as: Convention No. 87- Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948; Convention No. 98- Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949; Convention No.100- Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951; Convention No. 102- The ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952; Convention No. 105- Abolition of Forced Labor Convention, 1957; Convention No. 111- Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958; Convention No. 122- Employment Policy Convention, 1964; and many others.

a quantity of adopted conventions, but the overall number of ratifications by the ILO member states which is lower now than ever before.¹¹ It is justifiable to question why this happened and what changes occurred within the International Labour Organization to cause such a turn of events. Does this mean that the International Labour Organization has lost the authority that it had been gaining for so long in the last decades of the 20th century?

The key moment in history which has greatly altered the position of the International Labour Organization, and thereby affected the further development of international labour standards, happened in 1970 when the United States of America decided to stop financing the organization and officially ceased being a member state five years later.¹² Until then, the United States financed one quarter of the overall budget of the ILO. The reasons for the termination of membership from the International Labour Organization were solely of a political nature, but one should not disregard that the United States had a negative attitude towards the International Labour Organization since the beginning. It was initially manifested in the statements of the U.S. administration declaring that the normative acts of the ILO are of no interest to them, and for this reason they did not ratify them. Furthermore, the idea of tripartism, on which the entire concept of the ILO is based, was completely opposite to the policy of open markets and weak union representation in the United States. The withdrawal of the United States as the main funder of the organization resulted in a permanent damage from which the ILO has never recovered, and it further changed the course of the development of international labour standards.¹³ Namely, the ILO was forced to seek additional resources for financing their projects (soft money) and “help arrived” from various international financial institutions. All of them that offered financial aid advocated for unregulated national legislations, the policy of open markets and also a reduced security level. This tendency was in direct conflict with the primary aims of the International Labour Organization. However, the ILO increasingly began supporting and promoting the global market so as to continue using the resources of these organizations.

Therefore, the International Labour Organization found itself torn between its primary goals (to promote labour standards as part of human rights) and attracting investments from wealthy international financial organizations in the 1970's and 1980's. The reduced activity of passing conventions and recommendations in that period resulted precisely for this reason, which as a consequence resulted in the loss of the International Labour Organization's credibility among its member states.¹⁴

Another significant historic event occurred in the early 1980's when a discussion regarding a flexible labour market was held, which coincided with the return of the United States to the International Labour Organization, only taking on a different role this time. The main point of the discussion was the claim that Western Europe suffers from “Eurosclerosis” with which increased unemployment and declining competitiveness of these countries was justified, and that this was a direct consequence of the European social model which was based on protective legislation.¹⁵ This became the strongest assault on the *raison d'être* of the International Labour Organization until then. The leaders of the International Labour Organization hoped that this was just a passing phase and for some time this organization failed to adequately react to the increasing pressures

11 The 1950's and 1960's were the “Golden years of capitalism” and “the culminating point of social corporatism”, during which unions reached their highest number and employers were most willing to cooperate due to the ever-present shortage of labour. Public revenues were abundant, which enabled more funds to be earmarked for social spending and social security costs.

12 Symbolically, the United States stopped giving financial aid to the International Labour Organization just after it received a Nobel peace prize in 1969.

13 It is important to emphasize that, since 1970, global economic conditions have worsened. Thus, for instance, GDP growth rates in the previous century fell from an average 5.3% in the 1960's to 3.5% in the 1970's, and from 3.1% in the 1980s to 2.3% in the 1990's. Also, the global per capita production increased only by 33% in comparison to the 83% increase over the last four decades. Long-term economic growth decreased everywhere except in some parts of Asia. The unemployment rate in most countries increased from an average 3% in the 1960's to 7.4% in the 1990's, with a higher rate of increase in the EU member states. The global unemployment rate reached a record 180 million including the inadequately employed. One-third of the global labour force is either unemployed or inadequately employed.

14 The International Labour Organization failed to react even when the social security system fell to such a low level that the average life expectancy dropped from 64 to 58 years of age in former Soviet Union countries.

15 Alston, Philip. “Core Labour Standards and the Transformation of the Labour Rights Regime”, European Journal of International Law 15 (2004): 255, accessed May 23, 2008, doi: 10.1093/ejil/15.3.457.

for a flexible labour market. During that time with the full support of the United States, the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund and other international financial organizations have been working intensively on the promotion of new flexible forms of employment and the deregulation of national labour markets that would attract all foreign investors. The final product was a global social framework in which conventions and recommendations of the International Labour Organization and the international labour standards could not come into force.¹⁶

NORMATIVE ACTS OF INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION RELATED TO CIVIL SERVANTS RIGHTS

According to the Constitution of the International Labour Organization (ILO), one of the main directions of the activities of the organization is a normative activity, i.e. passing international labour standards through adoption of conventions and recommendations.

Although the procedure of adopting conventions and recommendations is identical, their legal power and the method of application vary. In case of ratification of a convention, the state is obliged to pass legislative and other articles for its practical implementation and to sporadically deliver reports to ILO on the measures taken to effectively implement ratified convention. Recommendations, on the other hand, do not require ratification because they are not international contracts, but this does not mean they do not have certain legal power. Namely, they are instructions in the form of standards which specify, define and sometimes supplement the provisions of a convention, which makes their content more complete and more flexible.

With the aim of international regulation of civil service relations, in 1978 ILO adopted the Labour Relation (Public Service) Convention number 151. It indicated substantial expansion of the public service activities in lots of states, as well as the need to establish working relations between public authorities and organization of public officials. This Convention applies to all persons employed by public authorities, to the extent that more favourable provisions in other international labour Conventions are not applicable to them. The extent to which the guarantees provided for in this Convention shall apply to high-level employees whose functions are normally considered as policy-making or managerial, or to employees whose duties are of a highly confidential nature, shall be determined by national laws or regulation.

The issue of protecting the right to organize trade unions and to guarantee independence from public authorities is very important. According to the provisions of this convention, public officials must be guaranteed adequate protection against all acts of discrimination in the field of employment which are harmful to trade unions freedom. Trade unions of public officials must be completely independent from public authority and must be provided with adequate protection from any acts of public authority interference into their organization and functioning. Finally, public officials should use all civil and political rights essential for undisturbed execution of trade unions freedom. The settlement of disputes arising in connection with the determination of terms and conditions of employment shall be sought, as may be appropriate to national conditions, through negotiation between the parties or through independent and impartial machinery, such as mediation, conciliation and arbitration, established in such a manner as to ensure the confidence of the parties involved. On the other hand, Labour Relations (Public Service) Recommendation number 159 provides specific guidance in terms of establishing trade unions of public officials by insisting that establishment of new trade unions must not be discouraged in any way.

In 1998, the International Labour Organization finally adopted one of the most important normative acts - the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, to uphold the "fundamental principles at work" or the "basic rights at work" which include: the freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining, the elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour, effective abolition of child labour and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation. The Declaration was unanimously

¹⁶ Convention No. 177- Home Work Convention from 1996 which has been ratified by only four states until now is a more than obvious example.

adopted and had significant impact on civil servants as well, but the question of whether this proves to be the beginning or the end of labour standards arises. It is also debatable whether the Declaration has any positive effects on work and labour standards, except that millions of dollars were poured into the International Labour Organization by the United States to work on its support. Two basic problems with the Declaration seem to be put forth. Firstly, the preamble to the Declaration on Human Rights adopted by the United Nations in 1948 declares that all human beings are born with equal and inalienable rights and therefore the mere division and classification into fundamental or essential standards implies that standards which are "less fundamental" or "less essential" also exist. What is the logic behind the claim that the elimination of discrimination is more important than the right for: social insurance, safe working conditions, maternity leave, etc.? What does the guarantee of the freedom of association represent without a range of socio-economic rights to put this freedom into practice? Secondly, the Declaration on the fundamental principles and rights at work completely neglects the workers' economic and social rights and it mainly deals with the negative aspects of some rights. For instance, individuals, groups and states are requested to "prohibit" discrimination, "abolish" forced labour and "eliminate" child labour. The situation is further complicated when one considers that the Court of Justice of the European Union did not accept the Declaration as part of European Law and that the European Court of Human Rights established the right of non-association, as the negative aspect of the union association freedom.¹⁷

The issue is brought to the foreground as to why it was necessary for the International Labour Organization to adopt such a Declaration considering its very limited scope of ability. If the goal had been to force states to take on its obligations without the act of ratification and prove that universality is still its characteristic, it failed to accomplish this. It is well known that the mere act of ratification does not necessarily mean the application of provisions of the convention. In fact, recent studies have indicated little evidence of statistical relationship between the ratified conventions of the ILO and actual working conditions.¹⁸ Massive violations of the International Labour Organization's norms also refer to the act of non-abiding by the basic principles and fundamental conventions, which are nowadays considered basic rights at work. By accepting the organization's Constitution all ILO member states have obliged themselves to respect, promote and realize in good faith the conventions independently of their ratification. In a large number of cases, the fundamental provisions are violated and this mostly refers to the non-recognition of union rights which includes discrimination, harassment, persecution and political campaigns against union members, existence of forced labour and extensive use of child labour. The thesis that social standards are not met is supported by the high number of unemployed and inadequately employed workers, low or unpaid wages, the minimum social security of the population as a whole, the high percentage of injuries in the workplace, occupational diseases and other deficiencies that the International Labour Organization calls a "decent job".¹⁹

SOCIAL CLAUSES AS A WAY TO IMPROVE WORKING CONDITIONS

The International Labor Organization believes that their normative instruments are universally valid and enforceable. Considering that it is a voluntary organization, its ability to exercise its normative instruments in the member states is very limited. Its main assets are moral persuasion and technical assistance in promoting the adoption and implementation of the international labor standards. As a result, the entire concept of universality of international labor standards "collapses" when one takes into account the numerous attempts which ultimately failed to introduce the social clause to the World Trade Organization and the General Agreement

¹⁷ This viewpoint of European courts is justifiable if one considers that the concept of the general principles of Community Law necessarily involve a corpus of fundamental social rights and gradually the conviction that the citizens' fundamental social rights are a constituent part of the European Union grew stronger.

¹⁸ Flanagan Robert. "Labour standards and international competitive advantage", last modified February 05, 2008, www.iza.org/iza/en/papers/transatlantic/1_flanagan.pdf.

¹⁹ International Labour Organization, Reducing the decent work deficit: A global challenge, last modified January 23, 2010, http://www.ilo.org/public/english/employment/recon/eiip/download/dw_deficit.pdf.

on Trade and Tariffs, which would award those countries that comply to a favorable economic status and impose sanctions on those countries which do not adhere to them with the trade sanction exclusion.²⁰ The social clause aims at improving the working conditions in exporting countries by imposing sanctions on the exporters who do not comply with the minimum labor standards. The typical social clause in international trade agreements restrict or suspend imports or preferential imports from countries, industries or companies where the working conditions are not below the specified minimum standards.²¹ The manufacturers who do not meet the minimum standards are required to opt for the application of working conditions or take on the risk by facing increased trade barriers in their export markets.

The incorporation of the social clause into trade agreements did not take place without limitations and dilemmas. Firstly, the question whether the social clause is an adequate means of achieving the desired social changes is raised. Secondly, should compliance with the social clause be monitored by international financial organizations, the International Labor organization or some separate body. Thirdly, should this clause be based on existing provisions of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade or the instruments of the International Labor Organization.

The debate on the introduction of the social clause heated up during the Uruguay Round with proposals for the inclusion of the clause in the World Trade Organization's deed of foundation. This would contribute to the sanctioning of non-compliance with the international labor standards and as such would represent a social development factor. Those who have criticized it claimed that it was an inadequate instrument since working conditions are connected to the economic and social development of a country and as such the social clause would operate by offering protection to the most developed countries which could with its aid nullify the competitive advantage which the poorest countries have in terms of cheap labor. The developing countries did not support the introduction of the social clause for precisely this reason, claiming that it would encourage wealthier countries to stop importing goods produced in poorer countries which are unable to ensure compliance with the international labor standards.

The liberal critique of social clauses assumes that if the mechanism of free trade is enabled to function without hindrance, costs would be leveled and therefore the increase of productivity in developing countries would bring about the general improvement of living conditions and with that social improvement and the improvement of working conditions. The economic analyses deny this claim and they show that social clause can function only when equal conditions exist at the very beginning, otherwise there is a risk of damaging the poorest countries which cannot afford the high costs imposed by the clause. Finally, it can function only if all interested parties accept it as fair and if it brings a complete liberalization of the market accompanied by the improvement of working conditions to trade agreements.

CONCLUSION

After almost a century of the International Labour Organization's existence, its normative framework remains controversial. During the second great wave of economic globalization, and especially the flow of investments across borders, the demand for reliable social dimensions in the process of economic integration has never been greater. To establish an efficient social system in the global economy and advance constructive instead of destructive competition, international labour standards must be vigorously applied everywhere.

The dogma of the neoliberal economy and the neopolitical labour program still generates a very negative relation towards international labour standards. The supporters of this approach still assert that labour conditions are a product of economic development, and that only a free market can produce optimal working conditions, accompanied by sustainable international labour standards. This determinist attitude and its "insensitivity" to history and the institutions, are conflicted with the philosophy behind international labour standards which claims that,

²⁰ Craig, John, and Michael Lynk, *Globalization and the Future of Labour Law*, ILR Review, 61 (2008): 332, accessed January 15, 2010, <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1350>

²¹ Van Liemt, Gijsbert, *Minimum Labour Standards and international trade: Would a Social Clause Work?* *International Labour Review*, 128 (1989): 445.

although economic growth influences better working conditions, it alone is insufficient to advance them permanently.

Finally, we can only state that the International Labour Organization has reached its limit and has failed to give a proper response to the challenges of a flexible labour market and the rise in inequality as a consequence of globalization. Its concept, presented as a system of relations between an employer and an employee founded on an indefinite employment contract, cannot keep up the pace. The area of employment relations, especially in the public sector, in the 21st century is much different from that of the 20th century, and the International Labour Organization has not adapted to it. The approach to labour that they use was developed in the middle of the previous century, differentiating between labour and merchandise, while simultaneously seeking sources of finance from international financial organizations which request a certain counterfavor for the money they have invested. The main obstacles for complete adherence to international labour standards are in close connection with the process of economic globalization. Therefore, it is beginning to appear that labour in the first decade of the 21st century is becoming a merchandise, and the International Labour Organization still fails to oppose it.

REFERENCES

1. Alston, Philip. "Core Labour Standards and the Transformation of the Labour Rights Regime", *European Journal of International Law* 15 (2004): 255, accessed May 23, 2008, doi: 10.1093/ejil/15.3.457.
2. Craig, John, and Michael Lynk, *Globalization and the Future of Labour Law*, *ILR Review*, 61 (2008): 332, accessed January 15, 2010, <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1350>
3. Flanagan Robert. "Labour standards and international competitive advantage", last modified February 05, 2008, www.iza.org/iza/en/papers/transatlantic/l_flanagan.pdf.
4. Sengenberger, Werner. *International Labour Standards in the Globalized Economy: Obstacles and Opportunities for Achieving Progress*, in *Globalization and The Future of labor law*, eds. John Craig and Michael Lynk, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2006.
5. Šunderić Borivoje. *Pravo Međunarodne organizacije rada*, Belgrade, 2001.
6. Valticos, Nicolas. "Fifty years of standard-setting activities by the International Labour Organization." *International Labour Review* 3 (1969): 201-208.
7. Van Liemt, Gijsbert, *Minimum Labour Standards and international trade: Would a Social Clause Work?* *International Labour Review*, 128 (1989): 445.

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT IN SERBIAN POLICE ORGANIZATION

Assistant Professor **Dalibor Kekić**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Associate Professor **Obrad Stevanović**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Assistant Professor **Marko Mihić**, PhD
Faculty of Organizational Sciences, University in Belgrade

Abstract: To the acceleration of change in the organizational environment, which occurred in the last decades of the previous century, especially influenced the rapid development of information technology. Such changes, primarily technological in nature, caused the need for rapid adjustment of the organization to new conditions. Organizations that are not on time realized the need for change and that the changes are not adjust, they were doomed to extinction. Survived and are now developing a “learning organizations”, ie organizations that manage meaningful knowledge. With the need to develop their capacity to implement the autonomous informacionh technology, beginning of this millennium, the police organization in Serbia, there was a need for a change people, and in their knowledge, and thus for an organized, efficient and effective management of knowledge. In order to be competitive in modern conditions the “security market”, to be able to respond quickly to the needs of citizens to fulfill their expectations and earn their trust, and police organizations in the Republic of Serbia must acquire, maintain and develop their own status “learning organization”. Proceeding from this, the paper presents the results of research aimed at identifying the problems, content, and process of knowledge management in modern police organization in the Republic of Serbia.

Keywords: knowledge management, police organization, information, knowledge

INTRODUCTION

End of the last and beginning of this millennium will be remembered as a period of rapid change in the organizational environment that occurred primarily influenced by the rapid development of information technology. At the same time, it was time to open a new chapter in the development of specialized management disciplines such as strategic management and the management of human and material resources. According to these management disciplines, sustainability, growth and development of any society is largely dependent on the application and alignment of resources, including natural resources, geographical location, and above all the ability and skills of people as organizational intellectual capital.¹ As part of society, organizations of public administration are very important, but also complex. They affect most aspects of society, while their approach to the organization of the state is reflected in: social culture, quality of life, success and sustainability of the society.²

Thus, an important role in modern conditions of the public administration can not be achieved without knowledge that is increasingly recognized as a key strategic organizational element. The paradigm that knowledge is power has long been a well-known in business and public life, in professional and academic circles. Most of the employees in the organization complies with all the frequent opinion of the scholars according to which, essentially, every organization make qualitative knowledge and skills. Nonetheless, the notion of knowledge as power yet changed significantly, especially from the perspective of the organization. Saying “knowledge

¹ The concept of intellectual capital is used to mark personal tacit (tacit, internal) and explicit knowledge, as well as structural intellectual capital, whether it is explicit, built-in technology, or in other forms.

² Karl M. Wiig (2000). Application of Knowledge Management in Public Administration. Paper Prepared for Public Administrators of the City of Taipei, Taiwan, ROC; Knowledge Research Institute, Inc. Arlington, Texas; p. 1.

is power” shall not be contested, but it adds to the view according to which knowledge must be shared in order to develop the organization and knowledge increased. The organization that shares knowledge among its employees, particularly among members of the management team becomes stronger and more competitive in the market. In short, according to this view, the essence of knowledge makes knowledge sharing.³

As in other organizations as well as public sector organizations knowledge becomes the most important resource. Of course, still, especially in countries in transition, public sector organizations operate so that in relation to private sector organizations, are losing the race in terms of hiring quality staff and sharing knowledge. Such a situation is not in accordance with the view of the representatives of the European Institute of Public Administration, who believe that ”public administration is an organization in which knowledge processes have great potential and whose officials are «knowledge staff par excellence»...”⁴ In addition to these, there are many other reasons for the introduction of the idea, or the application of the concept of knowledge management in public sector organizations including the police in Serbia. In this regard, in paper there is analyzed basic elements of knowledge, importance and process of knowledge management, and problem and challenges of knowledge management in the police organization in the Republic of Serbia.

DEFINITION OF KNOWLEDGE

It is well-known in the organizational theory the indisputable fact that people - human resources, in addition to financial resources, structures and regulations are key element of any organization. Acceleration of changes in the organizational environment, primarily caused by the development of information technologies and the need for rapid acquisition and application of new knowledge, without which the organization in modern conditions are not able to, for a long time, ensure its development, and some of them of their own survival. Because of this, more and more talk about that the key organizational elements are not people, but human knowledge, which essentially represents the intellectual capital that is now considered in many organizations more important than the financial and other organizational resources. It becomes increasingly clear that the strategic objectives of the organization can be defined and exercised without knowledge, and thus of no knowledge management.

Knowledge can be viewed as a product of the information, and the process of knowledge creation as a process of converting information into knowledge. This process is very complex and is based on the collection, processing, delivering (exchange, transfer), storage and use of data and information. In this sense, data is the objective (uncontested) representation of an event, or a set of objective facts about an event. More specifically, it is a number, word or letter without context (eg, 5 or 100). Without reference to time or space, information (word, letter or number) are not sufficiently specific point in space and time. Out of spatial, temporal, situational and other context, the data do not have a meaningful connection to anything else.⁵ On the other hand, information is data which the creator (user) added significance and importance. Data comes to the level of information as soon as it is added to the value and meaning when used in certain intellectual act (categorization correction). Adding value to a file can be done in several ways, such as: 1) contextual - we know for what purpose the data were collected, 2) calculation - data can be analyzed mathematically and statistically, 3) accuracy - are removed from the data errors and 4) summarize - the information is clear and concise. Information is data in the form of documents, audible or visible communication. In order that post have a power as message it needs that information has an impact on the recipient. In addition, the recipient determines that a message received by a force of information, ie. Does it inform about new and important facts in relation to which a decision is expected or anticipated actions.

Knowledge is compound and the sum of shaped experience, values, related information and expert opinions, which provides a framework for the evaluation and acceptance of new

3 Filemon A. Uriarte, Jr. (2008). Introduction to Knowledge Management. ASEAN Foundation, Jakarta; pp. 1-4.

4 Shirley Ann Hazlett, Rodney Mc Adam and Victor Beggs (2008). An exploratory study of knowledge flows: A case study of Public Sector Procurement. Total Quality Management; Vol. 19, Nos. 1-2, January-February 2008; pp. 57-66.

5 Compare: Filemon A. Uriarte, Jr. (2008). Introduction to Knowledge Management, p. 6.

experiences and information. Knowledge can be estimated according to the method and the results of the use of, or the decisions and processes that this knowledge allows.⁶ The value of a knowledge can be determined on the basis of key components: experience, truth, judgment and general. Vrednost određenog znanja se može utvrditi na osnovu ključnih komponenti: iskustvo, istina, rasuđivanje i opšta pravila. The value of a knowledge can be determined on the basis of key components: experience, truth, judgment and general. Values and beliefs are an integral part of the knowledge and mostly are formed what connoisseur notes and concluded from their review. Any individual or collective organize their knowledge in accordance with their values and beliefs. In organizations knowledge is grounded in the documents, databases, organizational routines, processes, skills and norms. Integral part of knowledge in organizations and the inner knowledge of each individual.

Knowledge can be classified according to different criterias. It can be both practical and theoretical, explicit and implicit (tacit, silent), individual and organizational knowledge. Explicitly codified and systematized, clear and accessible, schematized and can be easily transferred to others. Typical examples of this type of knowledge as books, documents, databases and archives. Implicit knowledge is acquired through experience and individuals have it. It is informal, unsystematized, undocumented, hard to access (hidden) and complex to convey to others. It consists of: the skills, ideas, judgment, intuition and metaphor. It can be: cognitive (forms, modes of thought) and technical (competencies). Individual knowledge is a part of the organizational knowledge that exists in memory and skills of individuals. In addition to the sum of knowledge, organizational knowledge is deposited in organizationim procedures, rules, routines and shared norms. It is crucial in helping to solve organizational problems.

With the concept of organizational knowledge are closely related concept of organizational learning and the concept of learning organizations. Organizational learning is a continuous process of building core organizational knowledge and competence of human resources for the maintenance and improvement of business processes. As a process that takes place in a range of practices,⁷ ono je pre svega usmereno na it is primarily focused on the development of work processes, decision support, standard operating procedure, practice,⁸ community, mentoring, help associates, multi-functional teams, working connection, etc.⁹ Organizational learning is the only permanent source of competitive advantage in the market interest of the organization. It provides a change in cognitive structure and behavior of members of an organization that increases the organization's ability to adapt to its internal and external environment. In this way, by organizational learning it is generating desired behavior of the members and the organization as a whole in the development and implementation of new policies and procedures in the organization.

In order to survive and evolve, modern organizations must transform into "learning organizations". The basic characteristic of these organizations is continually conscious learning and generating new knowledge at all levels. The process of such learning takes place in three stages, namely: 1) a cognitive stage (employees are exposed to new knowledge and the need to think differently), 2) the stage of behavior change (employees accept new knowledge and changing behavior), and 3) the effective phase (noticed the positive changes in the area of performance). In this way, the organization acquires and develops the ability of continuous learning and changing - adapting to change.

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Knowledge management is certainly a part of a specialized management discipline of human resource management. It consists of a series of interrelated management activities of the strategic

⁶ Edwards, J. (2011). A Process View of Knowledge Management: It Ain't What you do, it's the way That you do it. *The Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*; Volume 9 Issue 4, pp. 297-306, available online at www.ejkm.com.

⁷ King W.R. (ed.) (2009). Knowledge Management and Organizational Learning. 3 *Annals of Information Systems* 4, Springer Science+Business Media, LLC; pp. 8-11.

⁸ „Neformalna grupa ljudi koji dele zajednička interesovanja u specifičnim oblastima znanja ili kompetencija, koji su voljni da rade i uče zajedno tokom određenog vremenskog perioda, razvijajući i deleći to znanje.“ (Hustad, 2007)

⁹ Firestone, J. and McElroy, M. (2004). Viewpoint: Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management: the Relationship. *The Learning Organization*, Vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 177-184.

and operational levels of the organization, focused on the development of knowledge, skills and competencies of employees in general. It is realized through different types of education staff, including education, vocational training and education, then the strategy, organizational culture, organizational learning and information systems and technologies, which acquire and develop their job skills and other professional values. It is a continuous process of managing all kinds of skills to meet current and future business needs, identify, develop and use of knowledge and create new opportunities.¹⁰ Employees of organizations manage their knowledge so that it is constantly adopting and mutual exchange and are ready to apply it when making decisions or perform tasks within their scope.

In the opinion of Subošić: "The choice of organizational learning and knowledge management requires good organizational approach. In addition to adaptive, it is possible generative approach to organizational learning. Generative approach, which is considered more valid,¹¹ includes:

Systematic thinking (system access, system analysis, the organization as entity of environment, function and structure, etc.),

Personal skills (the continuity of their specialization etc.),

Mental models (knowledge and deposited on them, the subconscious plays based on features, processes and events),

Participating in the creation of a vision (shared vision, engaging employees in creating a mission). For example the police with s (r) Edisto in Munich when creating the image guiding their own organizations involved 8,000 volunteers from around 36000 employees,¹² and

Team learning (encouraging dialogue, reject prejudice, opposing opinions, a change of mental models and generate original solutions).¹³⁺¹⁴

The purpose of knowledge management is to increase the ability for creating value of the effective and efficient use of knowledge. The tasks of the knowledge management are: the formulation and implementation of a strategy of acquiring, developing and applying knowledge, improving business process knowledge development, monitoring and evaluation of benefits insured with application knowledge, monitoring and evaluation of management activities in relation to the development and application of knowledge. The objectives of knowledge management in organizations are: transmission and dissemination of knowledge throughout the entire organization, acquire knowledge necessary for making good decisions and smooth functioning of business processes, encourage and support the adoption of new knowledge and developing skills for their successful application, providing access to knowledge for all members organizations also are know where and how knowledge can be obtained from the organization or network of organizations. The mission of knowledge management can be defined as the maximization of organizational activities that generate knowledge through organizational goals.

The process of knowledge management, it is necessary to continuously monitor, encourage and improve and develop by infrastructure knowledge, creative ideas, renewing, organizing and effective distribution and use of organizational knowledge.

The concept of knowledge management, according to the Mason and Pauleen can be classified into the following phases:

- The creation of new knowledge (through learning in the organization, with the aim of acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes);
- Conquering of knowledge (thoughts and experiences of experts - implicit knowledge);
- Keeping skills (structuring, categorizing and continuous updating);
- Division (distribution) of knowledge with other employees in the organization (organizational culture in business knowledge needs to be oriented smooth distribution of knowledge among employees);

¹⁰ Sikavica P, Bahtijarević-Šiber F. (2001). Leksikon menedžmenta. Zagreb: Masmedia; p. 458.

¹¹ See: Petković, M. (2008). Organizaciono ponašanje, sa menadžmentom ljudskih resursa. Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, Beograd.

¹² Rukovođenje u demokratskim organizacijama, material from the seminar which was organized in cooperation of Ministry of Interior of Republic of Serbia and Hanns Seidel Foundation, Sremska Kamenica, 2010.

¹³ See: Petković, M. (2008). Organizaciono ponašanje, sa menadžmentom ljudskih resursa. Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, Beograd.

¹⁴ Subošić, D. (2010). Organizacija i poslovi policije. KPA, Beograd, p. 118.

- The application of knowledge (objective of knowledge management).¹⁵

On the other hand, Hazlett, McAdam and Beggs expand the list of activities related to the process of knowledge management. Then within those activities allegations instruments and techniques for the construction, disposal and use of knowledge:¹⁶

Creation of knowledge (techniques of creativity and innovation, collect data and text, scanning the environment, surveys, pilot studies, business simulations, content analysis);

Identifying knowledge (review of information, knowledge mapping,¹⁷ knowledge directories, Search documents) Conquering of knowledge (interviewing, observation, use of artificial intelligence, search, download)

Organizing and storing knowledge (thesaurus, tree of knowledge, the tools for organizing metadata, content management, storage and databases);

Share knowledge with other employees (best practices, document management, knowledge centers, portals, etc..)

Learning (postaction reports, project audit, the external forum, experiences, the daily decision-making);

Application of knowledge (decision support, application process, action based on previous events and cases);

Evaluation (evaluation of knowledge management, intellectual capital measurement, benchmarking);¹⁸

Exploitation (external portals, production of intellectual capital).

Knowledge management in organizations began collecting data in internal and external organizational environment. Comparing different data typically observed discrepancy between beliefs and reality, and using different rules, tools, methods, techniques and procedures to create relevant information important to the smooth running of the business processes of the organization. The information is then within the organization, through dialogue, shared among employees and used in the work and decision-making, creating a theoretical and experiential knowledge, and thus the system of knowledge and knowledge management. Thus, systematic knowledge is used for the adoption of goals, objectives and strategies of the organization, and to adopt the values and principles that the organization is in achieving the general objectives. In this way creates business wisdom and builds mission and vision of the organization. At the same time, embodying the principles of business wisdom, insight, moral and archetype.¹⁹

Organizations that successfully develop a knowledge management system can achieve significant gains, such as: 1) reducing the loss of knowledge as intellectual capital due to the departure of staff from the organization, or increase the level of retention of employees in the organization, 2) reducing costs, reducing repeat the operations in solving them or similar problems, and reducing redundant work activities founded on knowledge, 3) to achieve the level of cost-effectiveness in the collection and use of information from the environment and increase productivity on the basis of faster and easier access to knowledge, and 4) increasing employee satisfaction with the possibility of personal development and career advancement.²⁰

It is, among other things, can be achieved by: 1) the integration of organizational knowledge, improvement, absorption and utilization of knowledge from external sources, 2) improvement, identification and protection of strategic organizational knowledge, 3) encouraging and accepting creative and innovative thinking, 4) improving and promoting the transfer or sharing knowledge with clients and / or partners in strategic alliances or consortia, 5) improving staff training to achieve the strategic goals of the organization and 6) facilitating collaboration between projects or teams that are each physically remote.²¹

¹⁵Mason, D., & Pauleen, D.J. (2005). Perceptions of knowledge management: a qualitative analysis. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 7(4), 38–48.

¹⁶Hazlett S. A, McAdam R. & Beggs V. (2008). An Exploratory Study of Knowledge Flows: A Case Study of Public Sector Procurement. pp. 57- 66.

¹⁷Mapiranje znanja je proceskojim organizacije identifikuju i kategorizuju znanja u organizacionim procesima, sadrzaju, tehnologiji i ljudima.

¹⁸Metoda sistematskog poređenja performansi svoje organizacije u odnosu na druge i primena iskustva i veština najboljih u cilju ostvarenja ciljnih poboljšanja vlastitih performansi.

¹⁹Bellinger, G. (2004). Knowledge Management-Emerging Perspectives. Dostupno na: <http://www.systems-thinking.org/kmgmt/kmgmt.htm#dac>.

²⁰Uporedite: Stamatović M. Upravljanje znanjem – IT. Univerzitet Union, Beograd, ce.

²¹Uporedite: Jakob Edler (2002). German Pilot Study – Key Results and Bullet Points for Discussion within OECD Group.OECD Survey on Knowledge Management. March 2002.

IMPELEMANTATION OF THE CONCEPT OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT IN THE POLICE ORGANIZATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

It seems that it is not disputed that, primarily in senior management levels in the public sector organizations, as well as in the police organization, there is a high level of awareness of the importance of knowledge sharing between employees and management knowledge for achieving organizational goals. Awareness, based on personal experience, of course there is on the operative organizational levels of the police organization. These facts can be considered as the first prerequisite for development organizaconih capacity to establish an optimal system of knowledge management in the police organization. The process of knowledge management in the police organization essentially means the establishment, maintenance and development of systems for the acquisition and transfer of explicit and implicit knowledge among employees in the formal and informal communication.

Transfer of knowledge in the police organization is realized in different ways. Transfer predominantly theoretical knowledge to future police officers, starting in nihovog education within the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Sciencies, and within other educational institutions they attend on their way to the police profession. Particularly important role in the process of organizing the transfer of knowledge and knowledge management in the police organization certainly belongs to the Directorate for Education, Training, Development and Science. The organizational unit of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia was formed for the training of police officers, which is implemented in the Basic Police Training. In addition, the Department also organizes seminars, courses, professional conferences and other professional development of police officers, during njigovog work in polileicjskoj organization. In addition to the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Sciencies and the Directorate for Education, Training, Development and Science in the framework of the organizational units of the Directorate of Police were formed and took organizational units whose domain consists of the activities of professional training of police officers.

A special type of very significant transfer of knowledge within the police organization is working with the students during the internship, the interns during the internship and employees with no or little experience in the police profession. Despite the indisputable efforts, it seems that way to accept and work with these categories of police is still not satisfactory. During professional career, police officers gained expand, acquire and share knowledge through a variety of innovative forms of continuous learning, including learning through a variety of projects that implement a specific type of training in their own organization or the organization of specialized national and even international organizations.

As one of the most important outcomes of knowledge management in the police organization can indicate the facts related to the fact that the Serbian police organization recently introduced more innovations in terms of technical and technological systems, and in terms of the establishment of new organizational units. Both are the result of major changes in the environment, especially in developing information, and other technologies, which also allowed for the emergence of new forms of crime, as well as new features and tools for the detection and criminal investigation, as well as to make informed decisions that enable the effective achievement of objectives through the efficient use of resources of the police organization. As examples of the use of innovative technologies and the transfer of innovative knowledge for their use in police practice may be given a new IT tools: 1) the detection of crimes involving misuse of information technology, 2) the identification of persons and prevention of terrorism and organized crime, 3) mapping of offenses and 4) the issuance and use of personal documents. Some of these tools, such as geographic information system mapping crime makes analyzing and improving knowledge of the possible fluctuations, are not yet fully developed and implemented in the work of the police organization. Some of them are still far from routine use in police practice, but it is still now used as a pretext to promote awareness of the need for knowledge management.

New quality in the work of the entire police organization, based on the need for change and the acquisition of new knowledge, certainly, and organizational units of the police in the

past did not exist. One of them is the Department for combating cyber crime. This department, which is expected to grow into an independent organization within the police - the service, there is a special database and emphasized cooperation with other organizational units within the Ministry of Interior, as well as other ministries, as well as private entities and agencies in the region and the world. Due to the nature of their work, to the department often has the need to share knowledge and information with other police units, and sometimes with foreign or international security organizations. Similarly, it is expected from potential new services within the respective Ministry - Service for Counter Terrorism and Service for Narcotics. The need for such innovations in the police organization reinforces the necessity to access new knowledge needed to solve the problems faced by the police. It is clear that the police leadership consistently observed and noted that the creation of new departments and units of the innovation needed to solve these problems.²²

Knowledge management system and make sure the collected and stored data and information. They are at all organizational levels collected from various sources, with the help of collaborative, user and the home environment, using a variety of methods and techniques. A particularly useful type of knowledge that is shared among employees in the police organization are formed on the basis of information on best practice in the work of police officers or police organizational units. Police officers in this way using knowledge and experience in their work and pass it on to other colleagues, mostly younger. Therefore, the acquisition of organizational knowledge, particularly considered important practice *policijskih* officers in their work, in the form of reports, records or information documenting characteristic examples of good practice in treatment.

Based on this information and using the technique of archiving and storing of documents and information, especially the use of modern information systems, create the database, which in a future work may serve police officers to successfully perform their job. In this sense, the organizational knowledge that is based on good practice are very important documents, databases, plans and programs, strategies, policies, procedures and routines in which organizational knowledge accumulated. Documented for use in practice prepared accumulated knowledge, eventually becomes traditional and organizational value based on which builds and corresponding specific organizational culture of the police organization and the professional culture of police officers. These cultures can be a collaborative, but also opposed with respect to the character transfer, and knowledge management. Such knowledge transfer in the police organization, police officers acquire the ability to use, but also for the creation of new knowledge, including through intuition, expertise, as well as improvisation.

Transfer of knowledge to employees in the police realized during everyday police work through various forms of formal and informal communication (the working sessions, during remission shift of police officers in the service, when they accept his return from service in the preparation of police officers in the execution of the task and in the analysis of the completed task. Thereby, particularly important form of knowledge transfer refers to the cooperation of police managers and organizational units of the police and other law enforcement organizations in the region, but also with the Serbian military, customs, prosecution, courts, organizations in the private security sector and citizens

In this way, knowledge management, police organizations acquire and develop the ability of continuous learning and changing - adapting to change. In order to be competitive in modern conditions the "security market", in order to develop and be able to respond quickly to the needs of citizens to fulfill their expectations and earn their trust, and police organizations in the Republic of Serbia must acquire, maintain and develop their own status of a "learning organization". In order to gain this status, it is necessary that it encourages and accepts the application of new and innovative technical and technological achievements, to support the culture of adapting to changes in the environment that encourages creativity and *inicijativost* employees and their willingness to accept the necessary changes in the organization. All of this is possible without the establishment of an appropriate system of knowledge transfer and knowledge management, which implies that the fluctuations of knowledge in the organization is smooth and constant. Only in this way can stimulate organizational learning, provide a

²² Pendleton, M. and Chavez, D. (2002). *Creating An Innovation-Centric Police Department: Guidelines for Knowledge Management in Policing*. New York: The Free Press.

mechanism for the continuous development of organizational knowledge and empower potential and uses the knowledge base, appropriate to the needs of the police organization. Posted in focus organizational attention, knowledge, more than any other organizational elements, has development potential, which is for any organization is of great importance. It seems that the power of knowledge often recognize private sector organizations, and their example should be followed by public sector organizations including the police.

Well placed system of knowledge management in the police organization can eliminate many problems, among which the most important are: illegality and irregularity of work, low reputation of the police in public, poor selection of candidates and employees in the process of admission to work and career, redundancies in specific organizational units, low level employee motivation for continuous learning, politicized and centralization of decision-making about work related issues of employees, etc. Some of these weaknesses can be easily solved: licensing and verification of technical knowledge and experience, an independent procedure of selection of candidates and employees based on poroverivom level of knowledge, the mechanisms of protection of professional values and professional integrity of policing and police officers, and the like. In doing so, it certainly has to take into account the type and level of knowledge is assumed for certain jobs, including in particular: 1) conceptual, informational, professional and technical knowledge, 2) the knowledge acquired in the police organization and police educational institutions and knowledge acquired under other civil educational institutions, and 2) knowledge of memory, knowledge, understanding and knowledge of ethical application of knowledge.

However, for an efficient and effective system for the transfer of knowledge and knowledge management, there are a number of limitations and obstacles that are usually the result of internal organizational characteristics. They are usually associated with problems and questions: 1) leadership, communication, organizational culture and organizational behavior, motivation, evaluation and reward success, 2) (not) understanding of the strategic need for the acquisition and transfer of knowledge and knowledge management, 3) limited financial , time, space and other resources, 4) resistance to change. 5) The structure and contradictions between different policing principles (principles of transparency and secrecy), as well as 6) the institutionalization of good practices, traditions and organizational attitudes and values. Barriers of this kind, Sayed-Ihsan and Rowland added ii element, the so-called "policy directives".²³ In addition to these, we often emphasize the value and limitations of two characters: the value of professional and intellectual capacity and the value of existing knowledge management systems in the police organization.

These and other limitations often conditional entropy of the organization and the gap between its actual and expected performance and results. Some of the established indicators of poor knowledge management systems, be sure to include: 1) a high level of staff turnover in the police organization, 2) increasing the number of founded complaints and complaints of citizens on the conduct of police officers, 3) increasing trend of illegal and improper use of police resources compulsion 4) extension of time waiting in lines and the citizens of deadlines for issuing identity documents, 5) lagging behind neighboring countries in terms of the application of innovative technological and tactical decisions in the exercise of certain police tasks, etc.

CONCLUSION

A key element of knowledge management system in any organization, including the police, the people (attitudes, sharing, innovation, motivation, teamwork, etc.) and they are 70% importance of the system. The second element of the system is learning (knowledge maps, integration, standards, business intelligence), which accounts for about 20% of its importance, and technology (databases, tools for decision support, internet, etc.) his third element with 10% significance. From this it can be concluded that the police organization in Serbia, the most important to invest in the people who make up the organization and to create, improve and develop, but also destroy the system of knowledge management. Proceeding from this, it is considered that the construction of high-quality knowledge management system, it is necessary:

²³ Syed-Ikhsan, S., & Rowland, F. (2004). Benchmarking knowledge management in a public organisation in Malaysia. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 11(3), 238–266.

- raise the awareness of employees in the police organization of the necessity of knowledge management,
- build internal environment characterized by trust and the expected distribution of knowledge,
- work on the development of such leaders - leaders who will by example to encourage the sharing of knowledge,
- to establish a formal system of recognition and reward for knowledge sharing for motivating of employees
- to develop and foster community knowledge.

In this way, employees can be motivated and encouraged to share their knowledge and skills division or made available to others in the organization. A key condition for establishing a quality system of knowledge management is that knowledge and performance based on knowledge are the main criteria of selection of each candidate and police officers in the police organization. The establishment of such a unique and integrated knowledge management system in the police organization necessary to implement within a particular project, with a view to its implementation raise the level of knowledge, and thus the level of performance, and the level of citizen satisfaction with police work, reducing the total cost of its operation. In building such a system, it is necessary close cooperation between the Bureau of Strategic Planning within the Office of the Minister of Human Resources and the Department for managing projects financed from EU funds, the Department of Education, Professional Development and Science, Department of Analytics, telecommunications and information technology and the Police Academy. The project could be included, and other higher education institutions in the country and the EU countries, as well as police and international organizations.

Besides the fact that such an established system of knowledge management solved many above-mentioned problems, the police organization to the “security market” could become an essential leader, or “service people” as citizens of the state expect. In any case, the knowledge management system would have to be an integral part of the management of human resources in the Ministry of Interior. It would certainly include a system of talent management in the police organization. All this is important because of the fact that the police in private security and the police Institutes neighboring countries given the competition, from which, according to the expectations of the citizens must be better and more effective and efficient, which in practice is not easy to achieve. In this sense, it is clear that there is a need for empirical studies of the needs and opportunities of building a unified system for knowledge management in the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia, and the Police Directorate of the Ministry.

REFERENCES

1. Bellinger, G. (2004). Knowledge Management-Emerging Perspectives. Dostupno na: <http://www.systems-thinking.org/kmgmt/kmgmt.htm#dac>.
2. Edler, J. (2002). German Pilot Study – Key Results and Bullet Points for Discussion within OECD Group. OECD Survey on Knowledge Management. March 2002.
3. Edwards, J. (2011). A Process View of Knowledge Management: It Ain't What you do, it's the way That you do it. *The Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*; Volume 9 Issue 4, pp. 297-306, available online at www.ejkm.com.
4. Firestone, J. and McElroy, M. (2004). Viewpoint: Organizational Learning and Knowledge Management: the Relationship. *The Learning Organization*, Vol. 11, no. 2.
5. Hazlett, S. A, Rodney, Mc A. and Beggs, V. (2008). An exploratory study of knowledge flows: A case study of Public Sector Procurement. *Total Quality Management*; Vol. 19, Nos. 1–2, January–February 2008.
6. King, W.R. (ed.) (2009). Knowledge Management and Organizational Learning. 3 *Annals of Information Systems* 4, Springer Science+Business Media, LLC.
7. Mason, D., & Pauleen, D.J. (2005). Perceptions of knowledge management: a qualitative analysis. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 7(4), 38–48.

8. Pendleton, M. and Chavez, D. (2002). *Creating An Innovation-Centric Police Department: Guidelines for Knowledge Management in Policing*. New York: The Free Press.
9. Petković, M. (2008). *Organizaciono ponašanje, sa menadžmentom ljudskih resursa*. Ekonomski fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu, Beograd.
10. *Rukovođenje u demokratskim organizacijama, materijal sa seminara koji je realizovan u saradnji MUP RS i Fondacije Hans Zajdel, Sremska Kamenica, 2010.*
11. Sikavica P, Bahtijarević-Šiber F. (2001). *Leksikon menadžementa*. Zagreb: Mas-media.
12. Stamatović M. *Upravljanje znanjem – IT*. Univerzitet Union, Beograd, s.a.
13. Subošić, D. (2010). *Organizacija i poslovi policije*. KPA, Beograd.
14. Syed-Ikhsan, S., & Rowland, F. (2004). Benchmarking knowledge management in a public organisation in Malaysia. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 11(3), 238–266.
15. Uriarte, F. A. Jr. (2008). *Introduction to Knowledge Management*. ASEAN Foundation, Jakarta.
16. Wiig, K. M. (2000). *Application of Knowledge Management in Public Administration*. Paper Prepared for Public Administrators of the City of Taipei, Taiwan, ROC; Knowledge Research Institute, Inc. Arlington, Texas.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN THE POLICE - EVALUATION OF THE ACTIVITIES AND OPERATIONS MANAGERS IN THE POLICE -

Lecturer **Svetlana Ristović**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: The author of this paper conducted an empirical study that was aimed at finding content, method and quality of the implementation manager's job in the police, particularly in relation to human resource management.

The paper will first explain the research problem and the way to solve it, and then display the sample and research methods that were used for analysis and problem solving research. The following is a presentation of research results, discussion and conclusions which can quantify and evaluate the findings from an empirical study, especially those that point to / 1 / the importance of establishing and achieving human resource management in the police force, as well as new business philosophy, new management features and new teaching scientific discipline in establishing and / 2 / realization of human resources in the police, particularly the activities and operations managers in the police.¹

Keywords: police management, human resource management in police, activities and operations manager of the police in relation to human resource management.

INTRODUCTION

It is a notorious fact that people are the most important resource of any organization and that people make and solve practically all problems, and that they (the people) the key to success and failure, including the management of the police. Inadequate choice of people to associate and set them wrong and inappropriate workplace causes great difficulties in the work of each organization, including the police.²

Achieving the mission, vision and mandate of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia depends on its human resources. Precisely because of this, one of the key tasks of the actual reform of the Ministry of Interior is to establish the functions of human resource management for the successful performance of police duties. This is recognized in the valid Strategy for the Development of the Ministry of Interior,³ which emphasizes that human resource management is a new concept of the management employees in the organization, and includes the reform of personnel department of the old type, a modern service that will be able to meet the challenges of the 21st century. Individual sees the police their existence, challenges and opportunities for personal development and professional fulfillment, expecting of organization respect, appreciation for the results achieved and equal opportunities for development and advancement. To achieve this requires a developed system of human resource management based on modern standards, criteria and procedures for admission, selection, training and promotion of his professional career. This system of competition will enable the police personnel based on competence and merit and whose end result a high degree of professionalism, job satisfaction and legal safety of employees.

Subjected to says that the current migration of personnel functions in human resource management in the police much needs to be changed. Organization and operation of human resource management and in this institution, basically, should be characterized by "1/ the

¹ This work is the result of carrying out the research project funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of Republic of Serbia (no. 179045) and implemented by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011-2014), titled Development of institutional capacity, standards and procedures for countering organized crime and terrorism in terms of international integration , and research project of Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade, as the structure and functioning of police organizations - tradition, status and prospects .

² The importance and objectives of human resource management, see: Kulić, Ž., Milošević, G., (2012), *Upravljanje ljudskim i materijalnim resursima*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, pp. 45-50.

³ http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/strategije.h, 20.12.2013.

division of roles between managers and human resources experts;⁴ / 2 / structuring activities in the service of human resources, and /3/ reliance on the information system for human resources.”⁵

Realization of the above characteristics imply that managers in the police must know the substance and content of the management of human resources, especially the principle of achieving “their” part of the irreplaceable role.

Do managers in the police possess the knowledge and skills tested within of the research “Human Resources Management in the police and the development and promotion of partnership between the police and citizens,” that is, in the 2010th and 2011th year, conducted by the author of this work.⁶

The purpose of an empirical research can be described as the selection and compression of a large number of attributes of a modern police management in a small number of attributes, the common factors, according to certain criteria. By analyzing the structure of some groups of attributes sought to identify and evaluate the expectations of internal users of the quality of police management, in accordance with their requirements, and the social context within which.

The research methodology was applied to real data obtained by the survey on a sample of police officers who perform management functions and/or the workplace that has a management role in the police - Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia. The corresponding statistical package was used for data processing.

Key areas in which they induce the essential attributes of police management in this research were:

- Modern management in general, applied to the police, focusing on achievement of the requirements for the lawful and efficient performance job, while respecting human rights and freedoms.
- Human resource management in the police.
- Relations between the police and the local community, including the public and public relations.

The aim of the research is to identify the attitudes of police management in relation to the quality, effectiveness and efficiency of the management system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, and the realization of the process, methods and practices of management in the police organization. Attitudes were measured through the perception of police managers, in terms of legislation, education and training in the area of police management, followed by the quality and intensity of direct, horizontal communication between citizens - police / officers, as well as on the intensity and quality of human resources management.

Group of survey questions which examines the practice of exercising human resource management in the police force was the largest entity issues in this empirical research. The same is pursued knowledge significance, content and process of achieving human resource management in the police in terms of police management. The whole has had two sets of (battery, group) issues. The first set of questions focused on finding /1/ the importance of human resource management in the police force of the Republic of Serbia, and /2/ valuation of certain contents of human resource management and the role of managers in the police in these activities. Second set of questions has been recognized /3/ cycle - the process of human resources management in the police force of the Republic of Serbia and performed / 4 / evaluation of its activities by the interviewed managers in the police.

4 Accurate and complete segregation of duties between managers and human resources experts is nearly impossible, because their competence partially complementary, and in some cases even overlap. However, certain jobs are, by nature, are destined for managers. Under their jurisdiction, activities related to human resource management. Key decisions in this regard are made by those, not human resources experts. Experts tested, analyze, evaluate, inform, suggest and recommend, and managers to initiate, monitor, direct, coordinate, control and decision-makers. – Kulić, Ž., Talić, M. M., (2010), *Upravljanje ljudskim resursima*, Fakultet za bezbjednost i zaštitu, Banja Luka, p. 332.

5 More info about the organization of the functions of human resource management: *Ibid.*, pp. 331-338.

6 The research was conducted for the purpose of a doctoral dissertation titled “Specifics of leadership in the police”, by the approval of the General Police Director of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, (no. 99/1 of 19.01.2007., and 99/1 of 24.11.2009.

For the purposes of this study, especially to be diagnosed and aggregate perceptions of respondents - police managers, according to the following assumption: Human Resource Management in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia has not been developed because the early stages of migration of personnel functions to human resource management.⁷ Managers in police activities and operations of human resource management performed mainly based on intuition, experience and general knowledge of the management and police management, a lack specialized knowledge in the field of human resource management.

Consequently, after exposure of the sample and research methods, present the only part of the results of empirical research on human resources in the police, providing information on: /1/ the importance of the establishment and the realization of human resource management in the police and /2/ recognition activities of human resource management and participation of police managers in performing the same.⁸

SAMPLE AND METHODS

The research project was carried out in full by direct interview. This allows greater certainty includes the planned sample, reduced the possibility of a questionnaire filled person is not relevant to the above areas. Reduced the possibility of misinterpretation of some questions.

In accordance with the objectives of the research, prepared a questionnaire with a total of 48 questions, mostly closed, grouped in several sets:

- Information on the subject - the independent variables (gender, age, experience - years of employment service, management - level position and the number of years spent on it, residence, level of education)
- The perception and evaluation of the efficiency and effectiveness of the role and function of police managers and the preparedness themselves police officers
- The perception and evaluation of human resource management
- The perception and evaluation of the process of building and promoting partnerships with citizens and other stakeholders of the local community.

The research was a survey participated collection - police managers police organizational units throughout the Republic of Serbia, on the level of sector leader/team/group, up to the head of administration. Managers are represented by a representative sample, which included 427 respondents from the territory of the Republic of Serbia, selected randomly, stratified in the first phase, with taking into account the regional distribution (directorate for this opportunity treated as a separate "region"), experience (years of service), age group and level of management (low, medium, high).

Criteria for the selection of the sample with respect to size is determined by total number of employees of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, and according to the estimated number of police managers. In the first step, the sample was stratified by region, due to the proportion of the number of managers in the police office, or headquarters. Thus, the representativeness of the sample for the regional distribution of police services in the Republic of Serbia. In the next step the sample was determined according to the experience of police managers (years of service), given the number of managers a certain seniority in each set of employees in each region. The same procedure was repeated for the age group and level of management (the position which belongs to the lower, middle or higher management).

The data source was the database of human resources, which contains information on the

⁷ Human resources management system was preceded by a concept of personnel functions. Although they also have some similarities, the fact that the differences between them are very large. The similarities stem from activities that management and staff functions and exercise confirms. And in one and in the other case they are mostly the same activities that are directed toward employees and their resources, to achieve the set goals. There are significant differences, as follows: /1/ objectives to be achieved; /2/ manner of management and human activities and their orientation to the present, or the future; /3/ level of responsibility; /4/ way of treating employees in the organization; /5/ position management and personnel functions in the organization. - Kulić, Z., Talić, M. M., (2010), *op. cit.*, pp. 32-35.

⁸ Wider exposure to research results relating to the procedure for the exercise of human resource management in the police and the evaluation of the participation of police managers in achieving them does not make the contents of this paper.

number of employees in the the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia and details of each of them, and the said aggregate statistics by organizational units (age groups, groups of seniority, group by type of work places, etc.).

Operationalization of the objectives of the research led to the design of two tasks and the implementation of activities in two phases:

The first phase included a qualitative research method of in-depth interviews. The qualitative research method is used in-depth interviews confirmed the basic tenets of research, with prior notice to the attitudes and opinions that respects basic topics, based on which the correction is made certain questions before the start of the fieldwork.

The second phase of the research included a comprehensive quantitative survey research method. The main tasks of the research related to human resource management in the police force were:

- Identify the attitudes of police managers to the efficiency and effectiveness of the existing system of human resource management from the aspect of management.
- Identify the thoughts, opinions and suggestions of police managers about the possibilities of improving the management of human resources in the police organization.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Knowledge about the importance of establishing and realizing human resource management in the police

Human resources management system, from the standpoint of management functions, “has tremendous importance for the organization and its performance. Everyday management activities to achieve multiple effects. Access is via the exercise of strategic and operational roles of human resource management.”⁹

Human resource management in the police force of the Republic of Serbia is directed towards the most important, internal factor of the police and its management - the people.

In order to simultaneously validate the competence of the respondents for the analysis of human resource management in the police force, as well as working knowledge of their specific potential for the realization of human resource management, respondents three questions put to it to carry out self-evaluation of their factual knowledge of human resource management, then the form and manner their acquisition, and of vocational subjects in it. With one issue is seen through the answers of respondents, the necessity to include content from human resource management in the education system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia.

After that, in order to assess the actual importance of achieving human resource management in the police following questions on the basis of which is perceived practice of exercising human resource management in the police force, and the whole process.

Specifically, regarding the case of self-evaluation of those surveyed were asked to respond to questions is: *How do you rate your knowledge of human resource management? How have you acquired knowledge of human resource management? How much knowledge in this field provide vocational subjects during the regular school?*

Most of the respondents, 57.85% of them responded that knows human resource management.

Not however the surprising fact, but it is worrying that one in five respondents did not know enough human resource management, and it is a very important activity and jobs, which (should) realize daily (Figure 1).

Also, it is noted that a more detailed analysis of the structural determinants of respondents indicating that one-sixth of respondents high level management does not know enough human resources management.

⁹ More info on these roles of human resource management: Mathis, R., Jackson, J., (1997), *Human Resource Management*, 8 th edition, West Publishing Company, New York, quoted by: Kulić, Z., Talijan, M. M., (2010), *op. cit.*, pp. 24-27.

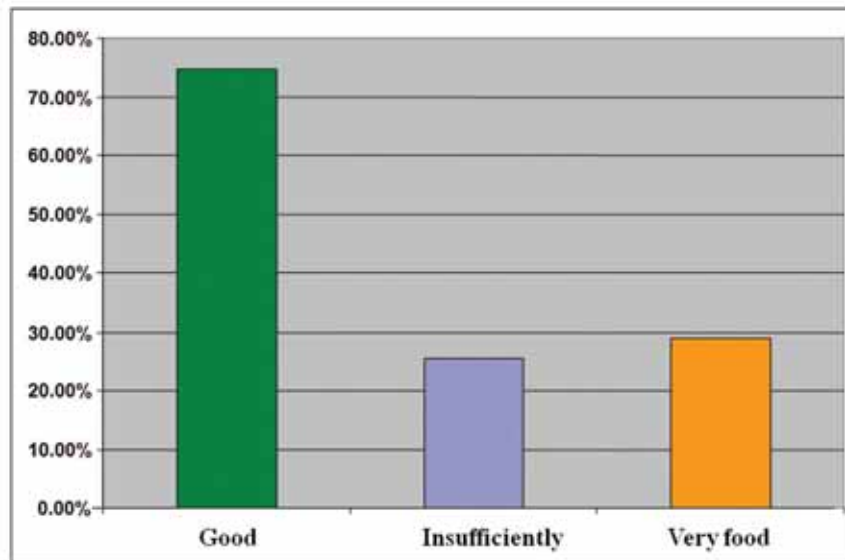


Figure 1 – Assessment knowledge of human resources management

As the most important source of information on human resource management is given faculty (Figure 2). However, the condition should be far better. Voices for ranking sources of knowledge about the human resource management of a large number of respondents, even 19.53 % of the total number of votes went to his own experience as a source (second place), and another 13.73 % of the votes went to the learning of their older colleagues (the fifth).

It can therefore be concluded that a third of votes (33.26 %) of the total went to the option of out-institutional and non-systematic forms of acquiring knowledge and skills in human resource management.¹⁰

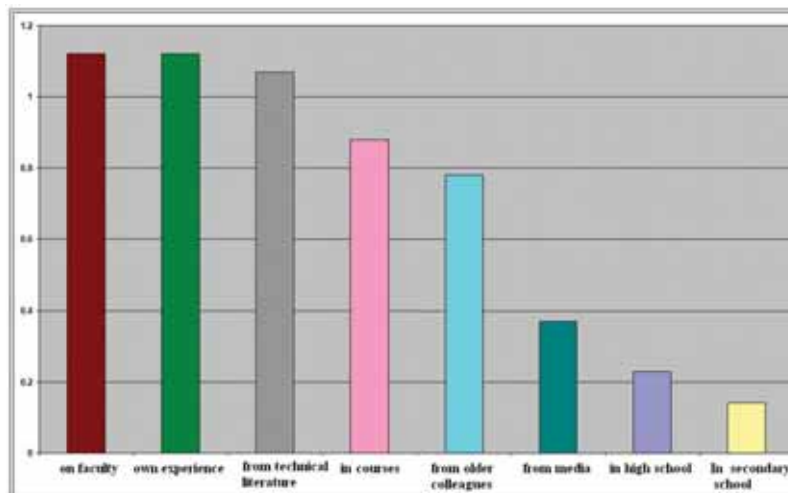


Figure 2 - Way of acquiring knowledge about the human resource management

¹⁰ About learning from experience, see: Torrington, D., Hall, L., Taylor, S., (2004), *Menadžment ljudskih resursa*, Data Status, Beograd, pp. 423-425.

Female respondents showed a significant difference from the expected value, so that they rank as the most important way of acquiring knowledge literature, and then courses and their own experience (and then college).

Respondents with residence in the city in the first place is our own experience, as a way of acquiring knowledge, while respondents with more than 46 years, or 21 or more years of service in the first place own experience, then professional literature, and learning from older colleagues. Management of a high level in the first place puts their own experience, in other literature, a third faculty as a way of gaining knowledge about the management of human resources. It remains to be subsequently investigated the variation in estimates of the respondents.

Further analysis of the data revealed that 51.49% of respondents ranked faculty as an important source of knowledge about the human resource management of all patients who have a higher education.

Top-ranked faculty of the respondents who graduated in it is Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, with the comment that this is a small sample of respondents (5.84%). This is followed by the Faculty of Security, Police and Military Academy, the Faculty of Law.

Further review of the data showed that 43.37 % of respondents rated high school as an important source of knowledge about the human resource management of all respondents who have more education. Top-ranked schools by the respondents is The College of Internal Affairs.

The emphasis in the training and development of managers in the police should be on developing conceptual skills, human resource management, organizational design, organizational behavior and organizational culture, relationships, acquisition and use of safety facts, to the extent of achieving the so-called science of solving problems in security institutions.¹¹

The next question was devoted to assess the knowledge that provide vocational subjects during the regular school. More than two-thirds of the respondents (70.73%) believe that the knowledge gained during their regular education insufficient, and 7.26% of respondents even expressed the view that not learned anything about human resource management in regular education (Figure 3).

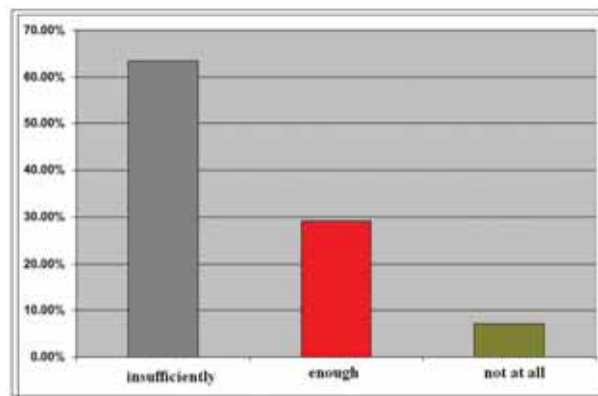


Figure 3 - The knowledge that provides vocational subjects during the regular school

Deeper analysis of the data on the structural determinants and a significant difference in the value response was determined that younger respondents, aged up to 28 years, and those with 10 years of service, express somewhat lower representation of responses that are insufficiently learned in regular education (48%). In contrast, respondents who have over 46 years of age are considered in 75% of cases that are insufficiently learned in regular education on human resources management.

¹¹ The so called scientific problem solving and its major steps, and its similarities and differences with respect to the scientific method: Wren, D., Voich, D., (2001), *Menadžment, Proces, struktura i ponašanje*, Grmeč, Beograd, pp. 88–92.

In order to assess the necessity of inclusion of content on human resource management in the education system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, respondents were required to answer the question, which is: *Do you think it needs to be in the education system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, i.e. forms of education and training activities implemented for acquiring knowledge in the field of human resource management?*

More than three-quarters of the respondents (78.22%) believe that it is necessary to be in the education system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, i.e. forms of professional training and development, implement educational contents for acquiring knowledge from the field of human resource management, while only 1.64 % of respondents believe that it is unnecessary, 20.14 % of the respondents is uncertain at this point (Figure 4).

Analysis of the data by structural determinants finds that respondents older than 50 years or those with 31 or more years of service, to a large extent expressed uncertainty/lack of knowledge about the necessity of including the contents of the management of human resources in the education system of the the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia (answer "I'm not sure" gave as much as 33 % of respondents).

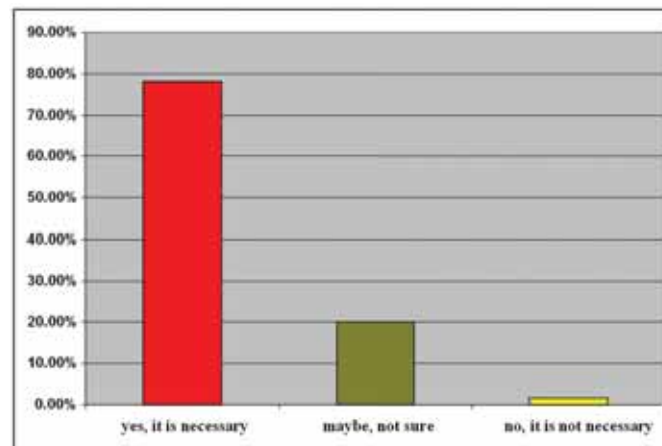


Figure 4 - The necessity of including of content on human resource management in the educational system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia

In addition, there is still underdeveloped theoretical thinking and training of human resources, it is noted that the reported results is certainly affected by the fact that the human resource management recently established as an independent teaching scientific subjects in science management. Its applications in the field of police and policing issues is just starting.¹²

In order to assess the importance of achieving human resource management in the police (and the conditions for it) of the respondents demanding the answer to three questions are as follows: *In your opinion, what is the importance for successful policing with human resources compared to other resources (financial, technical, financial...) which the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia has? Is the achievement of the management of human resources by legal regulations? Did the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia needed experts and managers of human resources that would be designers, strategists and visionaries who propose, suggest, demand and mobilize human resources?*

In the opinion of the surveyed managers of police human resources have a noticeable impact for successful policing. These claims 95.55% of the respondents, of which two-thirds assess the impact of decisive (66.98 %)! Therefore, we can conclude that the impact of human resources on policing in relation to other resources, the most important (Figure 5).

¹² About examples and research findings specificity of human resources in the field of security more info: Kulić, Ž., Talić, M. M., (2010), op.cit.

Apparently obtained the real and expected response, which, commits to invest in development of human resources, the long-term planning and perceive and solve issues of importance for the realization of human resources management in the police force of the Republic of Serbia.

This response indicates that respondents understand the great importance of “human capital”,¹³ which is directly linked to the organization’s performance and its ability. Successful management of these “capital” can contribute to improving the performance of organizations. However, if it is not managed in a qualitative way, you get the opposite effect, especially when viewed in the long term.¹⁴

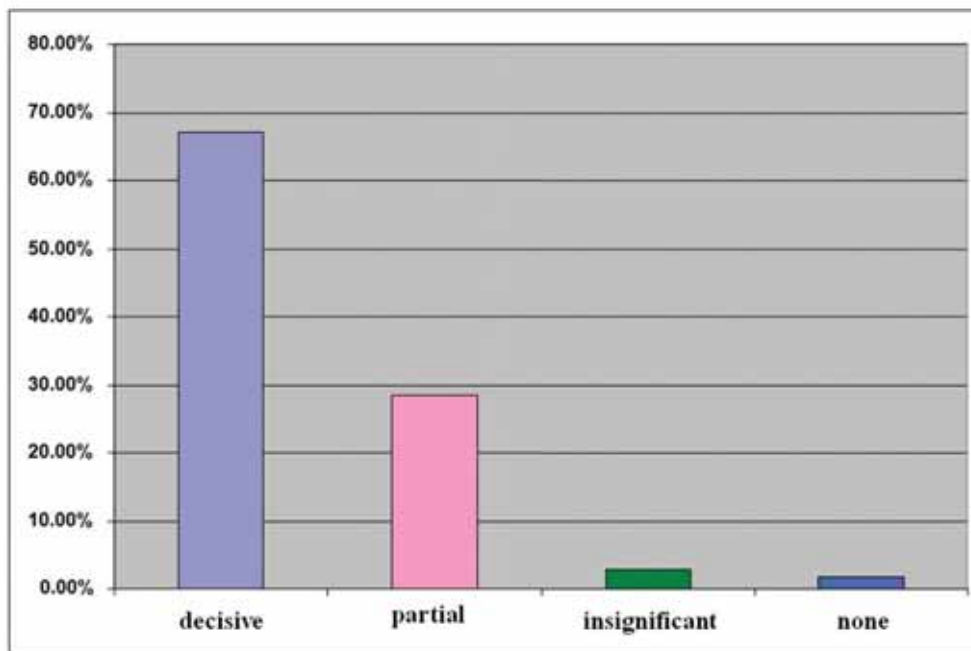


Figure 5 - The importance of human resources for policing

In young respondents, 22 to 28 years of age, deciding the importance of human resources for policing in a higher degree than the average - 79%, while among respondents who have a high school lower than average (38%). That the significance of a partial considers 50% of respondents with secondary education and 52% of respondents who are over 10 years old are present in the workplace.

However, the realization of human resource management is not entirely regulated by legal regulations (Figure 6). This view was expressed by 63.70% respondents, while 13.35% of respondents believe that the area only slightly regulated. Even 10.30% respondents did not know enough to even estimate the area of legislation in the field of human resource management. Less than one-tenth of respondents (8.90%) believes that the legally defined area of human resource management.¹⁵

Further analysis of the data showed that in terms of grades level of the legal regulations of human resources management were not significant differences in the structural determinants of respondents.

¹³ Under human resources means employees and their knowledge, abilities, skills, personality traits, experiences and other resources, while the “human capital” means the total value of human resources in an organization.

¹⁴ Kulić, Z., Talijan, M. M., (2010), *op.cit.*, p. 22.

¹⁵ Human resource management and the complex legal environment, see: Williams, C., (2011), *Principi menadžmenta*, Data status, Beograd, pp. 191-195.

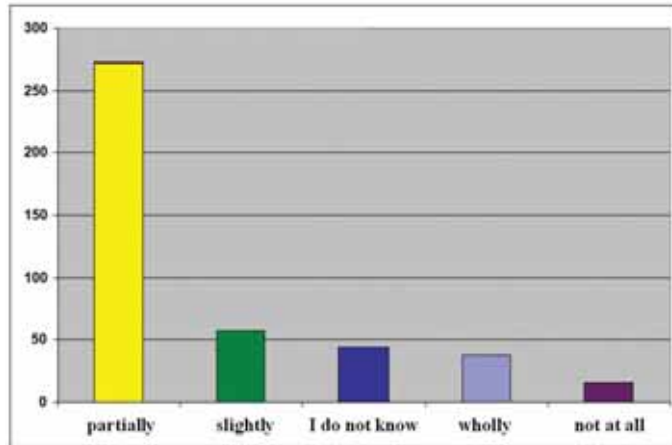


Figure 6 - The degree of legal regulation of human resource management

Asked whether the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia should have the experts and human resource managers more than two-thirds respondents said yes, and expressed the view that it is necessary (Figure 7).

On the other hand, only one-sixth of respondents (16.16%) believe that it can work every manager in the police. It should be noted that once again, we find a significant number of respondents from 12.41% who have no opinion, or sufficient knowledge to evaluate the issues of human resource management.

Analysis of significant difference from the expected value of the structural determinants of the respondents indicated that the high management level in 50% of cases for the introduction of human resources managers in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, 33% do not have a specific attitude and 17% against introduction of human resources experts. Are these opinions reflect resistance to the modern way of managing human resources, this level of management, or is it the other causes, should be investigated.

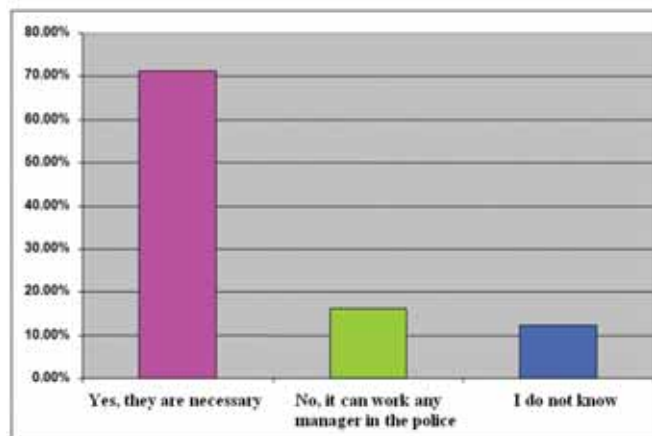


Figure 7 - Necessity of having experts and human resources managers in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia

Identifying the activities of human resource management and participation police managers in the performance of the same

Human resources management process consists of the following core activities: /1/ job analysis; /2/ human resource planning, /3/ recruiting human resources, /4/ selection of human resources, /5/ socialization, /6/ training and upgrading, /7/ estimation performance, /8/ improving motivation, /9/ promotions, transfers, downgrading and dismissal and /10/ the safety and protection of employees.

The above activities of human resource management can be grouped under the following sections: /1/ planning and employment of human resources, then /2/ human resource development, /3/ reward and motivate employees, and at the end of /4/ safety and protection of employees.¹⁶

The realization of the planning and employment of human resources can be classified analysis of police operations, human resource planning, then recruiting potential candidates to fill vacancies and selection of candidates.

Stage of development of human resources in the police force of the Republic of Serbia are activities socialization and orientation of new employees, including their training and upgrading.

Phase reward and motivate employees in the Police of the Republic of Serbia comprises the activities of performance assessment and improvement, transfers, downgrading and dismissal.

The process of human resource management includes a phase related to the safety and protection of employees.

To review the activities of human resource management and the participation of managers in the police in these activities respondents answered two questions: Please rank in order of importance for the development and improvement of the human resources in the police activities of human resource management? In which activities of human resource management you have the most participation and/or make a decisions?

The respondents as the most important activity of the management of human resources for the development and improvement of human resources in the police emphasized planning, followed by selection and recruitment (Figure 8).

As something less significant respondents ranked training and upgrading, socialization and safety and protection of employees, who are so far seems to have been relatively neglected as a process activity. The least important for the development and improvement of human resources in the police ranked performance evaluations and promotions, transfers, downgrading and dismissal, which the traditional model have been highlighted as activities of high importance.

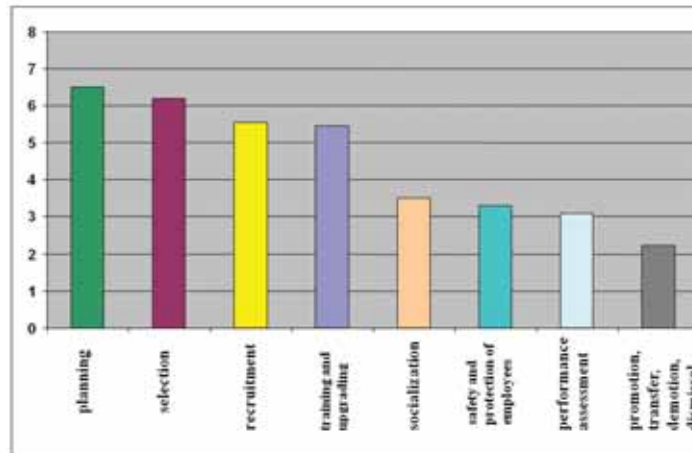


Figure 8 - Ranking of activities the management of human resources of importance for the development and improvement of the human potential in the police

¹⁶ Some authors set these activities and their groups extend yet and on the improvement of organizational behavior, as well as solving and conflict management. However, in foreign literature, and our literature relying on it, these issues, along with issues of stress, are studied and within organizational behavior. – Talijan, M., Talijan, M. M., Ristović, S., (2013), Upravljanje ljudskim resursima u institucijama bezbednosti, Institut za kriminološka i sociološka istraživanja, Beograd, p. 51.

Female respondents expressed a somewhat different view than average, so the first planning, the second selection, a third training. Respondents on high level of management are expressed also slightly different opinion than the average - the first is selection, the second recruitment, a third planning!

When asked in which activities the management of human resources are the most participation and/or decision-making respondents gave the answer: planning, training and upgrading and performance assessment.¹⁷

For complete results it is evident that the respondents - police managers at least invited to take part in the promotion, transfer, degradation, dismissal and socialization, pointing to deficiencies in the modeling of these processes (Figure 9).

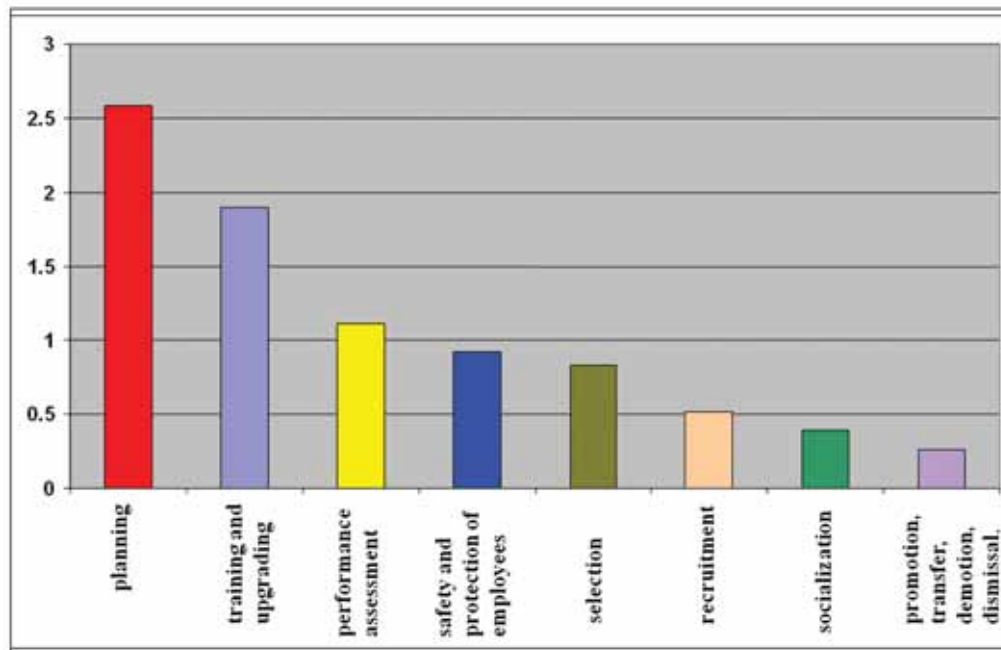


Figure 9 - Ranking of activities the management of human resources in which police managers are taking the most participation and / or decision-making

High level management showed a significant difference in this regard, and have stated that the most participation and/or influence the decision-makers have in the planning process, followed by selection and training and upgrading.¹⁸

It is interesting to note that the selection and recruitment assessed in the previous question as a very important activity for the development of human potential, evaluated in this matter as activities that do not involve the most and do not make decisions police managers (respondents). When it comes to the safety and protection of employees is evident progress in relation to this process activity, which in earlier studies has pointed to as being neglected, and is now rated as the sixth ranked by importance in relation to the development of human potential, and the fourth the rank of the involvement of managers in it.

¹⁷ More on the criteria for assessing the performance seen in: Roberg, R., Kuykendall, J., (1997), *Police Management*, Second Edition, Roxbury Publishing Company, Los Angeles, pp. 176-178.

¹⁸ The role of top management and the key tasks of immediate manager in human resources management, see more: Vujić, D., (2011), *Upravljanje ljudskim resursima, Izvor poslovne uspešnosti*, Fakultet za pravne i poslovne studije, Prometej, Novi Sad, pp. 231-242.

CONCLUSIONS

At the end of this paper briefly presents the results in relation to the presented problem research.

As the most important results of the research can be exposed as the ascertainment that managers in the police generally understand the importance of establishing and achieving human resource management in the police. However, the state of the practice of human resource management in the police force of the Republic of Serbia, especially in terms of achieving the activities and chores managers in the police, is not satisfactory. This is probably because the results of empirical studies show that knowledge of the current managers in the police in terms of human resource management are not on level. All this leads to the conclusion that a lot of difficult and slow exercise to begin the process of migrating the personnel function in the human resources management in the police in Republic of Serbia.

The results indicate the need for /1/ to in the school system of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, not only in the educational process at Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, but in all forms of education and training, particularly of police management, the establishment of contents on human resources of the police, and /2/ to be within in the police in Republic of Serbia finally establish and positioning appropriate service for Human resources (and its highly sophisticated support!).

Strengthening the competence of managers in the police and within them particularly important for understanding the importance of establishing and achieving human resource management in the police force, and adequate logistical support indispensable for the exercise of their rights, duties and responsibilities regarding the management of human resources, will create optimal working conditions for employees, and themselves "optimize" - make them able and willing to organize and provide effective, lawful and appropriate performing police activities.

The exhibition emphasizes that, just started establishment of theoretical concepts of human resource management in the police force of the Republic of Serbia enrich what can be achieved by various and serious empirical research and creative thinking possibilities of applying of scientific findings on police management, the opportunities that this the paper testifies.

Finally, research has confirmed the need to expand existing knowledge of police managers to human resource management, and the need for specialization of specific managers and experts (and thus organizational units) for human resource management.

REFERENCES

1. Archbold, C., (2004), *Police Accountability, Risk Management, and Legal Advising*, LFB Scholarly Publishing LLC, New York.
2. Vujić, D., (2011), *Upravljanje ljudskim resursima, Izvor poslovne uspešnosti*, Fakultet za pravne i poslovne studije, Prometej, Novi Sad.
3. Kulić, Ž., Milošević, G., (2012), *Upravljanje ljudskim i materijalnim resursima*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd.
4. Kulić, Ž., Talijan, M. M., (2010), *Upravljanje ljudskim resursima*, Fakultet za bezbednost i zaštitu, Banja Luka.
5. Mathis, R., Jackson, J., (1997), *Human Resource Management*, 8 th edition, West Publishing Company, New York.
6. Roberg, R., Kuykendall, J., (1997), *Police Management*, Second Edition, Roxbury Publishing Company, Los Angeles.
7. Talijan, M., Talijan, M. M., Ristović, S., (2013), *Upravljanje ljudskim resursima u institucijama bezbednosti*, Institut za kriminološka i sociološka istraživanja, Beograd.
8. Torrington, D., Hall, L., Taylor, S., (2004), *Menadžment ljudskih resursa*, Data status, Beograd.
9. Williams, C., (2011), *Principi menadžmenta*, Data status, Beograd.
10. Wren, D., Voich, D., (2001), *Menadžment, proces, struktura i ponašanje*, Grmeč, Beograd.
11. http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/strategije.h, 20.12.2013.

**POSSIBILITY OF USING INTERPOL AND EUROPOL
IN CRIME DETECTION IN LATVIA AND COOPERATION
OF CRIMINAL POLICE
WITH OTHER COUNTRIES**

Lecturer **Igors Trofimovs**, LL.M.
State Police College, Riga, Latvia
Chief of Rezekne Police station, Rezekne, Latvia

Abstract: Nowadays safety hazards cover bigger and bigger scale and have more difficult level of complexity. Manifestations of organized crime, cyber-crime, drug crime, money laundering, human trafficking and other security threats have got a long cross-border nature. The role and capacity of Interpol and the European Police Office (Europol) is strengthened in the fight against serious and organized crime, mechanisms provided in the Schengen Convention are developed; series of programs that focus on global crime threat prevention have been developed in the European Union. Tools for information sharing are developed. These tools can be also used in the joint investigations to facilitate the operations. The International Criminal Police Organization Interpol General Secretariat maintains a database and provides a variety of electronic services that successfully help to combat the widest range of crimes. Legal instruments of the European Union are created that promote operational cooperation between Member States, such as the establishment of joint investigation teams, joint operations and close cooperation to ensure the security of international events. In addition to a number of compensatory mechanisms for border controls, the Schengen Information System (hereinafter - SIS) was implemented in Latvia. Its ideology is a direct and wide accessibility to the laws officials: both those who work on the border and those who take control of people and objects within countries. SIS is already used by more than 2 million users.

Keywords: Interpol, Europol, criminal, police, Information System, weapons, vehicles.

INTRODUCTION

One of the country's highest priorities is to ensure the safety of citizens; that's why the emphasis is placed on strengthening internal security and development.

The law enforcement agencies are working in the environment which rapidly changes around the world. These changes not only refer to the criminal environment and the ability of police to combat it. It also refers to the formation of a new understanding of the police role in society and the principles which this cooperation has to be based on. At present, the police has got a big challenge ahead. The model of police work not only has to correspond to the public interest and be able to create a safe living environment. That's why not only strengthening of the material and technical capacity of the police is essential, but it is also important to develop a new operating framework and form effective model of police management.

From the beginning of mankind there are individuals who desire to take possession of another person's property. Roman law regulations explicit social attitudes towards this problem, "Juris praecepta sunt haec: honeste vivere, alterum non ledere, suum cuique tribuere" – „The regulation states: live honestly, don't accuse the others, everybody gets according to his merit." The concept of the crime "crimen" is also determined - it is an offense for which a criminal penalty is anticipated. The concept of the theft "furtum" was also defined at that time and it includes all types of misappropriation and devastation, as well as taking other person's things without knowledge and consent of the owner.

Illegal business based on crimes connected with endangerment of a vehicle, has become so profitable that it can be equated to the trade of drugs and weapons. Over the past five years, the criminals stole more than 32 million¹ vehicles². Every year car thieves involved in this

¹ [http://www.interpol.com/Annual Report 2012 EN i databases](http://www.interpol.com/Annual%20Report%202012_EN_i%20databases)

² [http://www.interpol.com/VEHICLE CRIME Database statistics](http://www.interpol.com/VEHICLE%20CRIME%20Database%20statistics)

criminal business “earn” tens of billions of dollars. Losses caused by this type of crime, exceed the total income of Volkswagen and DaimlerChrysler. For example, in 2012 they produced approximately five million vehicles, but 7 250 909³ vehicles were stolen in the same year. Clear that often it’s linked to organized crime and terrorism. Vehicles are robbed, stolen and swindled out not only for thief’s own private purposes, but sometimes they are sold to finance other crimes (corruption, money laundering). They can also be used by terrorists as carrier of the explosives or can be used in other crimes (robbery, murder). Changes in the political structure, the removal of “iron curtain”, independence of the Baltic States and the further expansion of the European market area, caused the decrease of border control between the European Union countries and the number of crimes, where the threat object is a vehicle, rapidly increased.

For example, it is possible to travel through Western Europe from Portugal to Russia through Spain, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Poland, Lithuania and Latvia with virtually no border controls now.

This situation led to an increase in demand for illegal cars in Eastern Europe, Africa and Asia, and it is used in criminal networks which deal with theft, fraud, transportation, disposal and legalization of vehicles.

Taking into consideration the fact that approximately 7.2 million vehicles were stolen in 2012 and keeping in mind that the estimated average income of a vehicle is 10 000 EUR, the estimated criminal proceeds are approximately 72 billion EUR respectively. The Europeans Union evaluates criminal proceeds from 665, 793 vehicles which were stolen as approximately 6.6 billion EUR per year.

This type of crime is mainly very well organized, particularly in cases involving illegal international trade of vehicles. Criminal groups are as organized as big international companies. They have a very complex structure, for example, one group specializes in theft, abduction, fraud of vehicles and / or documents, the other - performing skilled alteration of vehicle identification (engine, chassis number (vehicle identification number - VIN), registration numbers, etc.).

In addition, there are the transporters (physical or even juridical persons) who deliver the vehicle from one country to another. Finally, at the end of the chain, the person sells the vehicle to a conscientious buyer. This kind of organization is composed of different ethnicities and nationalities and includes different countries, forming a chain.

Analysing the above findings, it can be concluded how vital is the detection and identification of theft.

Latvian judicial authorities have the right and duty to use Interpol, Europol, possibilities of acceding countries of the Schengen Convention, FRONTEX and law enforcement capabilities of agencies in other countries for identification and fighting against this type of crime.

POSSIBILITIES OF INTERPOL

General Secretariat of Interpol maintains a database and provides a variety of electronic services that successfully help to combat the widest range of crimes, including the fight against crimes related to vehicle threats. The accessibility of this database and service for national law enforcement agencies is provided through the closed to public viewing Interpol communication system I-24/7 or the closed to public viewing Interpol website section called INSYST. Currently the only place in Latvia connected to I-24/7 is the State Police Central Criminal Police Department of International Cooperation Office in duty.

Interpol created and constantly is updating a database search of stolen vehicles - Automated Search Facility-Stolen Motor Vehicle (hereinafter - ASF-SMV). Currently, the database of search is used in 154 countries around the world and 129 countries submit annual national report on stolen vehicles. 77 million queries were made in 2012 and as a result 92 000 vehicles⁴ were found.

Latvian Interpol database (ASF-SMV) and the Schengen Information System integrated into a national database - the Integrated Information System (hereinafter - IIIS), which allows law enforcement agencies to search the data simultaneously in three databases.

IIIS contains information about Interpol, throughout the territory of the Member States

³ [http://www.interpol.com/Annual Report 2012 EN i](http://www.interpol.com/Annual%20Report%202012_EN_i) (sk.25.11.2013.)

⁴ [http://www.interpol.com/Annual Report 2012_EN_i](http://www.interpol.com/Annual%20Report%202012_EN_i) databases STOLEN MOTOR VEHICLES

of Schengen Convention and Latvia about wanted people / objects and the fact that IIS is available for virtually every Latvian law-enforcement official, which makes IIS an important and effective instrument in international and national search for wanted people / object.

In addition, it is possible for the Latvian law enforcement agencies to exchange data with the Interpol about the DNA and carry out DNA tests on-line, but unfortunately, it has to be noted that the state has no mechanism and certain procedures are not set in cases when it would be in the interests of our investigators to include DNA profiles in the database. As there is no system – investigators send the DNA profiles to examine or include it in storage of Interpol database very rarely. The same applies to usage of the Interpol's fingerprint database.

In order to improve crime detection Latvian law enforcement agencies are required to participate in the following activities organized by Interpol:

FORMATRAIN project helps investigators to work with the information relating to the identification and documentation to develop investigative strategies and techniques. During the project an investigator is trained to use the tools, databases, legal assistance. The aim of the project is to develop a standardized training program to facilitate the investigation of vehicle crime internationally, as well as to share experience;

SMV Task Force is the support in operations. Interpol regularly provides technical, organizational and human resource support to Member States to help organize joint operations in a search of stolen vehicles. Since 2006, Interpol backed more than 20 operations in Europe (the Balkans, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland and Spain), Africa and the Americas. INTERPOL SMV working group composed of police and private investigators - all experts in the field of vehicle crime investigation come from different Member States.

INVEX project works with the car industry. The aim of this Project is open up more opportunities for the detection of stolen vehicles and to improve the quality of ASF SMV database information entered in cooperation with car manufacturers. Project INVEX currently covers five states and the German car makers - Volkswagen (including Skoda, Seat and Bentley), Audi (including Lamborghini) and Porsche, which all regularly exchange data with Interpol⁵.

POSSIBILITIES OF EUROPOL

The aim of Europol is to support and strengthen the running and cooperation of the Member States in preventing and combating organized crime, terrorism and other forms of serious crime affecting two or more Member States⁶.

To achieve these objectives, Europol establishes and maintains the information system (hereinafter - the EIS), analytical work files ((hereinafter - AWF) formed in different periods, for different purposes of analysis and includes general information), the index system (containing details of (AWF)) and also offers the following support:

- gathering, storage, processing, analysis and exchanging of information and intelligence;
- assisting to the Member States in the investigation, in particular by forwarding all relevant information to the Member States, as well as carrying out inspections of Europol databases;
- intelligence and analytical support to the Member States in connection with large-scale, international or even threatening events;
- threat assessments, strategic analyses and general situation reports, including organized crime threat assessments;
- sending the proposal to the competent authorities to initiate, conduct or coordinate investigations in specific cases and to set up joint investigation teams;
- rapid exchange of information and coordination between the Member States at any time through Europol's operational control center.

The main purpose of the EIS is to assist Europol and the Member States to detect international organized crime. On this purpose, the EIS summarizes information from the Europol Member States about the characterizing objects of the organized crime (a crime, the person's identity document, criminal organization, organization, means of communication, means of payment, means of transport, weapons, currency, equipment, chemicals, multimedia attachments) and the connection to a person or a crime object.

⁵ <http://www.interpol.int/Public/Vehicle/Default.asp> Interpol Working Groups

⁶ Council Decision (April 6, 2009), establishing a European Police Office (Europol) (2009/371/JHA) Art. 3

The main task of EIS is to make a checkup on the information provided by the Member States on the data compatibility of certain pieces of information (a person, means of communication, means of transport and criminal organization). This checkup is carried out automatically once a day, ensuring a continuous and regular processing of the information entered by the Member States. It differs to the usual practice where the specific information in information systems is tested only once when the request is received.

The information relating to the following can be entered and verified by EIS:

- people who are suspected of committing the crime or participation in, or who have been convicted of such offenses;
- people for whom there are reasonable grounds for believing that he will commit a criminal offense.

For the above-mentioned people EIS can store and request the following data:

- the name, the date of birth and the place of birth, the gender, the ethnicity and other characteristics likely to assist in identification of the person;

Further data about:

- the time, the place and the offense that the person is suspected in;
- the resources which were used or may be used to commit the crime (means of payment, transport, communication, chemicals, drugs, weapons, special equipment, identification documents, organizations, criminal organizations);
- the authorities responsible for investigating the case filing references;
- convictions if they relate to criminal offenses.

Only Europol national office staff and Latvian Europol liaison officer can enter the data / search for the information in online mode at the national level. Latvian law enforcement agencies which have the information required by Europol, can enter it / check it with the help of the Europol National Office.

POSSIBILITIES OF SCHENGEN MEMBER STATES

It became possible to Latvian nationals to exercise the right of free movement of persons and goods within the Schengen Member States (29 countries) area without border control after the Schengen Convention was signed. Law-enforcement powers also have expanded. The cooperation between the police and judicial became possible providing assistance for the prevention and investigation of criminal offenses⁷.

As a result it has the right to:

- identify the owner and the driver of the vehicle;
- request information about a driver's license;
- identification of the approximate location and residence;
- identification of the phone subscribers if such information is available to public;
- obtaining information from the persons on a voluntary basis;
- transferring information from police databases, to the extent consistent with the law on data protection;
- determining the origin of goods, particularly weapons and vehicles;
- examination of evidence.

According to Article 40 of the Schengen Convention, police authorities which act within their powers can continue their surveillance operations which were launched in their country also in another Schengen country. The Convention provides for two cases:

“ usual” observation, which is carried out after authorization by sending a request for assistance;

“ emergency “ surveillance, which allows to continue cross-border surveillance without prior authorization.

In addition, in accordance with Article 41 of the Schengen Convention the police officers who

⁷ The Schengen Convention implementing Schengen Agreement between the Benelux Economic Union, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany and the French Republic on 14 June, 1985 on the gradual abolition of checks at their common borders, Art. 39

pursued a person can continue doing it in another Schengen country with which their country shares a land border⁸.

Each of the Member State of the Schengen Convention establishes and maintains a national section of the SIS, in our case - the Latvian national SIS database. This database is set up identically to all the databases of the Parties of Schengen Convention. Its ideology is a direct and wide availability to all law enforcement officials. Nevertheless, it is impossible to perform a search in the database of other Parties of the Schengen Convention.

According to the Schengen Convention, the aim of the SIS is to maintain public order and security, including national security.

Application of conditions of the Schengen Convention on the movement of people is applied in parties using the information available in this system⁹. SIS maintains data on:

- extradition of wanted persons - Article 95 of the Schengen Convention;
- foreign citizens who are denied entry into the Schengen area - Article 96 of the Schengen Convention;
- missing persons or persons who have to be protected for some time in order to prevent threats - Article 97 of the Schengen Convention;
- witnesses or persons who are subpoenaed to appear before the judicial authorities - Article 98 of the Schengen Convention;
- persons or vehicles to provide discreet surveillance of passenger of the vehicle; the vehicle in use; transportable items; the circumstances under which a person or a vehicle was found. The specific checks can be performed on persons, vehicles and objects in accordance with national law - Article 99 of the Schengen Convention;
- items which are searched for with the intention of confiscation or with the intention of using them as evidence in a criminal case - Article 100 of the Schengen Convention.

THE COOPERATION WITH OTHER AGENCIES

Talking about international agencies which participate in the clearance of the crimes, the Frontex agency has to be mentioned. Frontex supports an efficient, united and high level of border control of the European Union Member States. It coordinates the activities and measures of the EU to jointly respond to emergencies at the EU's external borders, develops skills as combined tool to combat illegal migration, organized crime and terrorism at the EU's external borders. The main functions and tasks of Frontex:

- it coordinates operational cross-border security cooperation between the EU Member States;
- it carries out risk analysis;
- it supports Member States in the preparation, coordination of joint operations;
- it helps the EU Member States on training of border guards;
- it provides technical and operational assistance to Member States in the implementation of joint operations;
- is to establish a joint border guard units, including rapid response teams;
- it provides assistance for the development and operation of the European Border Surveillance System.

23,095 illegal border crossings were suspended in 2012 during joint operations. In these cases 5 757 illegal migrants were identified, 640 suspects were detained and 382 of them for drug trafficking and more than 46 tons of drugs with a value of 72.6 million EUR were seized. 38 cases of cigarettes / tobacco smuggling were open with a total amount of 2.4 million EUR.

In terms of cooperation with third countries outside the European Union, the Latvian State Police departments have developed sufficiently active cooperation with law enforcement bodies of the Russian Federation, fighting with organized crime and investigation of serious and very serious crimes (drugs, psychotropic substances and smuggling of excisable goods in the

⁸ The law "On the Latvian Government and the Lithuanian Government agreement on cooperation against organized crime and other criminal offenses and joint operations in border areas" Art.11 Part 4

⁹ The Schengen Convention implementing the Benelux Economic Union, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany and the French Republic of 14 June 1985 Schengen Agreement on the gradual abolition of checks at their common borders, IV volume

field of economic offenses, robbery, fraud, etc.) and also the exchanging the operational and investigational information.

There is also a regular cooperation with the competent authorities of the Russian Federation in criminal matters. In spite of the fact that the number of executable requests is not very large (27 requests were received in the first half of 2012 and 25 requests were sent for the execution of the Russian Federation). The requests often are a part of voluminous and complex investigations.

The Agreement between Government of Latvian Republic and Government of the Russian Federation has become effective since 15 July 2011. It is the Agreement on cooperation in the fight against crime, especially in its organized forms. It provides for the competent national agencies to cooperate and implement the Agreement.

The cooperation with criminal militia of the Republic of Belarus (in the border area), fighting with organized crime and the investigation of serious and very serious crimes began since 2013.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The author found challenges that address the need of improving the detection of crimes related to the vehicle crimes in Latvia after studying and analyzing both the legal framework of vehicle crime in Latvia and the legal framework of Interpol, Europol, the Schengen Convention and the European Agency Frontex.

1. The criminal groups which are engaged in this kind of criminal business worldwide use Latvia as a transit country to deliver (under its own power, on the car platform, in container, on the railway platform or as smuggling) the vehicle to the West. Here the author sees two issues:

1.1. the vehicle is exported from the EU to the third countries in accordance with the provisions of the TIR Convention application in a sealed container, on a car or railway platform. So the officer of the border inspection post doesn't compare the numberplate of the vehicle and has to rely on the integrity of customs officers who sealed the cargo. As it is known to the author, only Customs Criminal Department has the right to use SIS database. Statistics of the number of vehicles which have been exported from the EU via Latvian- Russian- Belarusian border control points last year using the form of a TIR Carnet is not yet available to the author, but such information has been requested from the State Joint Stock Company Latvian Railway and the State Border Guard. After studying the analysis of statistical data and regulation, the author gives advice to make an operation with the support of Interpol, Europol or Frontex to close down all the opportunities of organized groups to export from the EU territory illegally acquired vehicles.

1.2. There were 47 attempts to smuggle out the vehicles with VIN counterfeiting features through Grebneva and Terehova border posts in 2013. Whereby 47 criminal cases were initiated. It was managed to find the original VIN only in 7 of them. The original VIN wasn't found in the other cases because the officers do not have expertise in the field of vehicle identification. Such knowledge can be obtained only by attending special courses under the projects of Interpol called FORMATRAIN and INVEX or with the help of Frontex training program.

2. The fact that many states, including Latvia, provide insufficient amount of information is the biggest imperfection of EIS at the moment. The other states such as Belgium, Germany and France are more active. Some Member States use automated system of loading information from national system into EIS. There is a lack of common approach in terms of input and sharing of the information between the Member States. It would be a grand step forward if each Member State did it systematically and duly, because then every operational employee could successfully use EIS, especially in the early stage of the operative case when all possible information about the persons of interest is being gathered. Statistics for December 2012 shows that EIS stored information on 186,896 objects, 48,023 suspected and / or convicted criminals. 34% of all the information in EIS was related to drugs, 14% was regarding counterfeiting, 12% in connection with the burglaries, 10% was connected to illegal immigration, 7% in relation to the different types of fraud.

3. Europol's Analysis Work Files store all the information exchanged between the Member States such as persons, objects, phone numbers etc.. The information stored in AWF is used

for constant analysis. If the information provided by one of the Member States matches with the information provided by Latvia within last three years - our country will be immediately informed.

4. Possibilities which appeared after signing of the Schengen Convention are not fully used. If an ordinary surveillance is carried out (as required in Article 40 of the Schengen Convention) in case of need, then a discreet surveillance and special control is almost never carried out (as required in Article 99 of the Schengen Convention). If the information was placed in the SIS (according to Article 99 of the Schengen Convention), it would be quite simple and helpful, for example, to receive the information from the German police about the person who uses the vehicle which we are interested in.

5. It's impossible to make full use of the information of the various EU agencies and other international organizations, the opportunities offered regarding the staff training and development of their skills because of the lack of English language skills.

Due to insufficient funding, the staff is unable to study English. Learning English depends on staff itself, but the author wishes to point out that English language can be learnt if one takes part in a variety of lifelong learning projects.

REFERENCES

1. The Schengen Convention implementing Schengen Agreement between the Benelux Economic Union, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany and the French Republic on June 14, 1985 on the gradual abolition of checks at their common borders. (13.06.1990.)
2. The Criminal Law (04.08.1998.).
3. Convention on the Road Traffic (19.10.1993.)
4. Customs Convention on the international transport of goods under the TIR carnet (19.10.1993.)
5. The Council Decision (April 6, 2009), establishing a European Police Office (Europol) (2009/371/JHA)
6. The law "On the Latvian Government and the Lithuanian Government agreement on cooperation against organized crime and other criminal offenses and joint operations in border areas" (01.11.2006.)
7. http://www.interpol.com/Annual Report 2012 EN_i Databases
8. <http://www.interpol.com/VEHICLE CRIME Database statistics>
9. <http://www.interpol.int/Public/Vehicle/Default.asp> Interpol Working Groups
10. <http://www.europol.europa.eu/>
11. <http://frontex.europa.eu/>

POLICE EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY POLICING: BETWEEN TRADITION AND INNOVATION¹

Teaching Assistant **Danijela Spasić**, MSc
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Associate Professor **Goran Vučković**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Associate Professor **Saša Milojević**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: Between police education and the concept of police work in the community there is a connection that combines tradition and innovation. Police work in the local community has long ceased to be just a new philosophy of organization and the police in the local environment. This is a completely innovative police strategy of preventive and problem-oriented response to challenges and characteristics of local communities. Theorists of community policing base their observations on the necessity of reforms in police education and training that will enable the adjustment of police organizations and their human resources strategies and new demands of the local security environment.

Keywords: *police, community policing, education, training*

INTRODUCTION

The concept of police work in the community (community policing) as a new philosophy and the police strategy implies fundamental and strategic changes in all aspect of the police work. A new approach to community policing demands from all police officers (both those with many years of work experience and trainee police officers) knowledge of etiological an phenomenological characteristics of local problems in the community and the most efficient ways of reacting to crime, drug addiction, fear of crime, urban degradation and other issues of local security environment. Fundamental changes in the way and approach to completing police work in the community is impossible to complete without an adequate police education, first of all, practice and training aimed at specialising police officers to apply problem oriented approach in solving local security problems, but also to develop partner relationship with citizens. One of issues imposed is related to discussing relationships, i.e. influence of education to implement the concept of community policing is related to programme, structure and the level of education and training that the police officers should complete.

Certain theorists point to the importance and values of a quality police training and education system citing that ...“the police training and education represent a significant segment of a successful implementation of problem oriented police activities..”². ...“In order to be successful, the concept of community policing should become a part of culture of local police departments, but also an operative philosophy that should lead and direct the delivery of police services in the

¹ This paper is the result of carrying out scientific and research project entitled *Development of institutional capacity, standards and procedures for combating organized crime and terrorism in terms of international integration*. The project is funded by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Serbia (no. 179045), and implemented by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011–2014). The project manager is Saša Mijalković, PhD.

This paper is also the result of internal scientific and research project entitled *Violence in Serbia – Causes, forms, consequences, and social reaction*. The project is implemented by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2012-2014). The project manager is docent Biljana Simeunović-Patić, PhD.

² Zhao, Z., Thurman, Q. & Lovrich, N. (1995). Community-oriented policing across the US: facilitators and impediments to implementation. *American Journal of Police*, 14, p. 1.

community..³ In relation with these demands, Webber observed the following...“We do not teach young officers techniques for analysing problems, we do not teach them how to organize their own neighbourhood to recognize and solve a problem, but we have made a training programme that shall teach them everything, but nothing in particular...”⁴

In relation with the said remarks from the field of police staff education, primarily for the need of community policing strategy application, the theory of police science imposes several questions:

- 1) What is the essential difference between police education and police training?
- 2) Which institutions (police vocational schools, colleges, and academies, police universities, and the rest) are the most appropriate for realization of the process of the police education and the police training?
- 3) What is the importance of higher police education for implementation of community policing concept?
- 4) Which methods of educations are the most efficient for police education and training? What structure of the curriculum should there be?
- 5) Examining national police systems, which areas of police education and training should be improved and changed?

POLICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING: TERMINOLOGICAL DETERMINATION AND INSTITUTIONAL EXPERIENCES

Following the comparative systems and national experiences, police educational and professional practice, it is possible to identify key indicators that point to the relationship and perception of certain police systems towards police education and training for the needs of *community policing* strategy implementation.

Training and education of police staff represents the main methods of theoretical and practical preparation of staff for the police service. This process takes place before entering the service, at the beginning of the service, and throughout it. It also implies the development of work habits, attitudes and qualities necessary for the police work.⁵ However, terms training and education of the police staff are partially the same by their contents. The primary aim of education is acquiring of theoretical knowledge, as well as practical skills. Training of the police staff is aimed at learning skills necessary for the police work, but it also encompasses certain theoretical contents.

If we take into account comparative police systems of education and training in the world, we can follow the process of their transition, notice institutional transformation and new modalities of the curriculum.

The Scottish Institute of Police Research – SIPR, in cooperation with the Scottish police college, has started the postgraduate certificate / diploma studies for acquiring the title of MSc in Policing Studies, with the possibility of international studies.⁶

In England, as a part of national review of the structure and efficiency of community policing, recommendations have been adopted to direct a remarkable part of responsibility for education and training of police staff towards colleges and universities and thus provide interdisciplinary approach to the process of their expert and professional training.⁷

The European Police College – CEPOL continues to develop curricula and promote

³ Perez, M.B. (1993). IACP offers training in community-oriented policing. *The Police Chief*, May, pp. 39-40.

⁴ Webber, A. (1991). Crime and management: an interview with New York City police commissioner Lee P. Brown, *Harvard Business Review*, May-June.

⁵ Milosavljević, B. (1997). Nauka o policiji. Beograd: Policijska akademija.

⁶ SIPR. (2011). *The SIPR postgraduate diploma/MSc in policing studies*.

Taken from: http://www.sipr.ac.uk/courses/postgraduate_diploma.php, 03.01.2014.

⁷ Neyroud, P. (2011). *Review of police leadership and training*. London: Home Office. Taken from:

<http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/publications/consultations/rev-police-leadership-training/report?view=Binary>, 03.01.2014.

syllabi with different important topics, such as fight against terrorism, family violence and civil crisis management.⁸

The Police Sector Council of the Canadian Government, having implemented audit of the police leadership development programme and having considered the curriculum of primary and specialist police training, has ordered to establish the consistency of curricula and perform standardization of programmes of specialist training for the police staff.⁹

Interpol Department for Police Development Programme has started online edition of International Police Training Journal.¹⁰ The Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies – CALEA for accreditation of training programmes for police colleges and academies, in concluding opinion has given recommendations for these institution to focus more to the design of educational systems, training curricula, on the basis of estimation of needs and evaluation of the realized courses.¹¹

In international framework, in comparative police systems, police training is used as improvement of technical police skills, but also as a means of development of community policing, rule of law, democratization and development of transitional and post-communistic police systems (for example, in ex-USSR states). Nowadays, at the beginning of the twenty-first century, the development of police education and training system is presently influenced by two most powerful factors: globalization and actual economic crisis. Not long ago, the police were local and national security institution, due to which systems of police education and training used to follow local and national security trends and problems. At present, however, international organisations such as Interpol, Europol, the US International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program – ICITAP, International Association of Chiefs of Police – IACP, have adjusted their programmes of international trainings to specificities of global security challenges, such as trans-national organized crime. In regional framework, for example, Brazil and Columbia organize police training in other countries of Central and South America, while South Africa, with its system of training and practice provides training of the police staff on its continent.

HIGHER POLICE EDUCATION AND COMMUNITY POLICING

Scientific and expert discussion on whether higher education for police officers is desirable or even necessary has been going on for more than a hundred years. In connection with this issue, as early as in 1936, the American police scientist Vollmer recognized the demands for the 20th century police officer set by the society. According to Vollmer, a police officer is expected to have *Solomon's wisdom, David's courage, Samson's strength, Job's patience, Moses' leadership, kindness of a Good Samaritan, Alexander's the Great strategy, Daniel's faith, Lincoln's diplomacy, tolerance of the carpenter from Nazareth, and, at last, a solid knowledge of each branch of natural, biological, and social studies*. However, regarding the defined obligations and responsibilities of a police officer, Vollmer has also presented the objective condition of the society in which such a police officer should do his job, listing problems and obstacles set before him by the society. Vollmer points out: "A member of the police force is gossiped by the public, he is laughed at in films, criticized in papers, and supported by neither prosecutors nor judges, he is avoided by those who fear him, hated by the criminals, lied by everybody, and kicked around as a ball by stupid and treacherous politicians. He is exposed to numerous temptations and dangers, judged when he applies regulations, and fired if he fails to do so. It is thought that he needs to possess education of a soldier, physician, lawyer, diplomat and a teacher for a salary lower than the one of a day labourer."¹² Understanding the importance of high education

8 CEPOL. (2011). *Training and learning: Common curricula*. Bramshill, UK. Taken from:

<http://www.cepol.europa.eu/index.php?id=common-curricula>, 03.01.2014.

9 Police Sector Council. (2011). *Policing competency framework*. Ottawa, Canada. Taken from:

<http://www.policouncil.ca/pages/hr2.html>, 03.01.2014.

10 Interpol. (2011). *International Police Training Journal*. Taken from:

<http://www.interpol.int/Public/ICPO/corefunctions/Ejournal.asp>, 03.01.2014.

11 Cordner, G. & Shain, C. (2011). The changing landscape of police education and training. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 12(4), 281-285.

12 Vollmer, A. (1936). *The Police and Modern Society: Plain Talk Based on Practical Experience*. Berkley: University of California Press.

for the police professionalism, Vollmer (the chief of the police at that time) thought that his police officers should attend lectures at Berkley University to improve and perfect their formal education, and designed a number of police courses for such needs, thus providing an open support to higher police education.¹³

In present time, with increasingly complex role of the police in the society and the transfer to community policing strategy, issues of education, expert knowledge, professionalism and the position of the police in a society have become more important than ever before. Secondary school certificate, degree, level, comprehensiveness and quality of education it confirms, can no longer follow the contemporary trends of the development of the society, security problems and challenges. Globalization and trans-national character of criminal activities, complexity of human rights and freedom that should be protected, expectation of the society and development of new strategies of community policing, demand from the police officer *comprehensive knowledge about each branch of natural, biological and social studies*, exactly the way Vollmer noticed more than a half a century ago. Interdisciplinary educational process, high level of expert knowledge and competence of a wide range of practical skills can only be provided by a planned, strategically designed, complex process of higher education, but also permanent improvement through practice, trainings, seminars and continuous education.

However, up to the 50s of the previous century in police systems in the world there was a resistance to higher education, and highly educated police officers were accepted with suspicion in their work environments in which secondary school police education was dominant. However, the raise of crime in many counties at the beginning of the 60s, riots in minor communities in the USA, and also the necessity of preventive work application and strengthening legislative framework in protection of public order and fighting against crime have conditioned the necessity of introduction of four-year educational curricula at universities and police colleges. Simultaneously with this trend, there was a process of gradual women engagement in police education and their training for doing police work.¹⁴

In contribution to necessity and importance of introducing higher police education, especially for community policing strategy implementation, findings of certain research studies are cited. There are proofs which point to the fact that police officers with university education are more aware of social, cultural and ethnic problems in their community, but that they also have a higher degree of tolerance towards minorities, more professional attitude and ethic approach in their behaviour.^{15,16,17} Besides, police officers with university education have more understanding for human behaviour, are more sensitive to human relations in the community and respect high standards in providing "social services" in the community.^{18,19} On the basis of these findings, researchers and theorists have concluded that college educated police officers are more qualified and trained for successful application of community policing, giving them the epithet of "humanized police officer", bearing in mind their ability for compassion and communication with citizens, which is one of key conditions for the success of this strategy.²⁰

In contribution to these findings, Goldstein claimed that a successful implementation of the concept (strategy) of community policing through the application of problem-oriented approach means decentralization of commanding, innovative problem solving, improved working environment for educated officers that posses abilities for taking initiative, flexibility

13 Carte, G.E. (1973). August Vollmer and the origins of police professionalism. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 1, 274-281.

14 Spasić, D. (2008). Žene u sistemu police obrazovanja. *Temida*, 11(3), 41-61. DOI:10.2298/TEM0803041S

15 Weiner, N.L. (1976). The educated policeman. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 4, 450-457.

16 Miller, J. & Fry, L. (1978). Some evidence on the impact of higher education for law enforcement personnel. *The Police Chief*, 45, 30-33.

17 Tyre, M. & Braunstein, S. (1992). Higher education and ethical policing. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, June, 6-10.

18 Miller, J. & Fry, L. (1976). Reexamining assumptions about education and professionalism in law enforcement. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 4, 187-196.

19 Regoli, R.M. (1976). The effects of college education on the maintenance of police cynicism. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, Vol. 4, 340-345.

20 Meese, E. (1993). Community policing and the police officer. *Perspectives on Policing*, 15. Boston, MA: National Institute of Justice, Washington, DC and Harvard University.

and creativity in solving problems.²¹ However, although these findings point to the connection of higher police education, preventive and problem-oriented approach towards solving problem in the community, certain studies conducted in Serbia and ex-Yugoslav republics point to a specific relationship of police officers towards new community policing strategy.

EXPERIENCE OF SERBIA AND EX-YUGOSLAV REPUBLICS

In a research conducted in Serbia in 2011²² police officers with secondary education, unlike police officers with academic degree, hold the attitude that a more traditional way of doing police activities is more successful than a new concept of community policing. In this regard, they think that a repressive way of reacting to crime is more successful than preventive activities, but also that motorized patrols are more efficient in performing everyday police activities in security section than foot patrols. In other words, they do not show readiness for accepting strategic, operative-tactical and organizational changes implied by a new policing strategy.

Explanations and reasons for such views of middle management and police officers of the lowest rank should also be sought in a structure, form and quality of educational process, i.e. practice and training for performing police activities. Unlike police officers with academic degree, who had the opportunity to attend lectures of the curriculum related to community policing, crime prevention, management and police management, organization and tactics during their four years of studying, police officers with secondary school diploma and/or finished police course did not have enough course contents from the mentioned fields in their programme of education and training, or perhaps, not enough lessons to learn or check them in their practice. Some of them, during their working hours, were sent to additional training, practice, specialist courses in order to acquire or expand their knowledge about certain aspect of work (for example, community policing concept implementation) that they do, or specific and contemporary social phenomena (for example, family violence and the like). One of the first studies the results of which confirm findings of the research about the influence of the level of education (educational attainment) to the relationship towards the concept of community policing was conducted by The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers in the USA in 1978. Based on a poll and two-year-long monitoring and documenting problems in police education, the Commission made a report, which was exceptionally critical towards the contemporary achievements of education and training of police officers, recommending remarkable changes in almost all phases of higher police education, involving higher education institutions and curricula.²³ These recommendations opened a serious debate about whether police organisations, in their procedure of selecting and employing staff of different levels of education, should emphasize “recruiting educated staff” or “education of the recruited”. During the following three decades, similar question was not asked in Serbia, due to which the system of police organisation is mostly comprised of staff with secondary school education or managers of middle managing level, with their attitude stated in this research.

Importance and influence of a quality police training, training system and higher education on accepting and implementing this concept have been checked and confirmed by numerous theoreticians and practitioners from the western countries. In Serbia, there are no relevant studies related to the influence of the quality of police education on the effectiveness of implementing community-policing concept. Therefore, a theoretical basis is sought in the foreign research experiences once more.

Cordner and Shain discussed issues related to differences between police education and the police training; they demanded identification of institutions (police schools, state and private universities) which could provide the best police education and training; they tried to determine which educational methods were the most effective for police education and training

²¹ Hickman, M.J. & Reaves, B.A. (2003). *Sheriffs' Offices 2000*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.

²² Spasić, D., Djurić, S., Kesetović, Ž. (2013). Community Policing and Local Self-Government: A Case Study of Serbia. *Lex Localis - Journal of Local Self-Government*, 11(3), 293-309. DOI 10.4335/11.3.293-309(2013).

²³ Sherman, L.W. & The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers (1978). *The Quality of Police Education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

realization, but also in which fields of police education and training it is necessary to make quality improvements nowadays.²⁴ Some other theorists have determined, through longitudinal studies, that traditional forms of police education and training are rigid and strictly adapted to the law, policies and procedures, while implementation of a new concept of policing demands flexible educational and specialized programmes, adapted to everyday changes and demands of local communities.^{25,26} Rydberg and Terrill have accordingly suggested that the police practice and training become a part of academic programme at universities, because their quality and values are what behaviour of police officers depends upon.²⁷

Relationship towards traditional and new way of policing can be discussed in the light of remarks relating to negative heritage and traditions from the 90s of the 20th century. Repressive activities and traditional forms of motorized patrols, alienation from citizens and ignorance regarding specificities of local community, fear and distrust as values were adopted by police officers who worked in the police in the 1990s, and built them into the police culture of their working environment without possibility to be influenced.²⁸ This conclusion has been confirmed by studies on experiences about concept implementation in the ex-Yugoslav countries that, like Serbia, at the beginning of 2000 started implementation of community policing concept as a contemporary strategy of policing. In a study from 2003 on police integrity and relationship towards reforms of the police after the Dayton Agreement, conducted in Sarajevo canton (Bosnia and Herzegovina), with participation of 451 police officer from four cantonal police stations, with the average work experience of 15 years, with finished secondary school or police course, Kutnjak-Ivković and Shelley determined that the most common phenomena in the police work are corruption and the use of excessive force (repression).²⁹

In a study from 2008, Kutnjak-Ivković dealt with the analysis of police organizations functioning in 20 county areas in Croatia, taking into account the relationship of police officers towards law regulations on application of licence, discipline, crime and application of community policing as a new strategy introduced at the beginning of 2003. The research was conducted on a representative sample of 927 police officers representing all police stations and all lines of work. However, the sample was dominated by police officers and patrolling police officers, detectives and police officers who have immediately participated in the community policing concept implementation (secondary school educational level). About 15% of the sample was women. Findings of the study showed that, unlike the previous study from 1995³⁰, police officers understood the essence and importance of a new strategy of policing, new relationships with the community, knowledge and respect of law regulations on force application and control of the police work.³¹

POLICE TRAINING FOR APPLICATION OF COMMUNITY POLICING CONCEPT – contents of the curriculum

In the historical analysis of the structure and contents of police officers' training and practice for community policing concept application in the initial phase of its implementation in the

24 Cordner, G.W. & Shain, C. (2011). The changing landscape of police education and training. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 12(4), 281-285.

25 Zhao, J., Lovrich, N., Thurman, Q. (1999). The status of community policing in American cities: Facilitators and impediments revisited. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 22(1), 74-92.

26 McLaughlin, V. & Donahue, M.E. (1995). Training for Community Oriented Policing. In Kratcoski, P. and Dukes, D (eds.) *Community Policing* (125-138). Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing.

27 Rydberg, J. & Terrill, W. (2010). The Effect of Higher Education on Police Behavior. *Police Quarterly*, 13, 92-120.

28 Kešetović, Ž. (2003). Reforma MUP-a Republike Srbije – od policije poretka ka servisu građana. *Politička revija*, 2 (1), 209-228.

29 Kutnjak-Ivković, S. & O'Connor Shelley, T. (2005). The Bosnian Police and Police Integrity: A Continuing Story. *European Journal of Criminology*, 2(4), 428-464: 1477-3708, DOI: 101177/1477370805056057

30 Kutnjak-Ivković, S. & Klockars, C.B. (2004). Police integrity in Croatia. In: Klockars, C.B., Kutnjak Ivković, S. and Haberfeld, M.R. (Eds). *The Contours of Police Integrity* (pp. 56-74). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

31 Kutnjak-Ivković, S. (2009). The Croatian police, police integrity, and transition toward democratic policing. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 32 (3), 459-488.

USA and other countries, Radelet noticed that, as early as in the 30s of the last century, training programmes contained certain topics that would substantially determine the effectiveness of this strategy of policing 30-40 years later.³² These early programmes of police training had the following characteristics:

- (1) They were focused on racial, religious and ethnical clashes;
- (2) They directed police officers to causes of sociological phenomena and their relationship with criminal activities;
- (3) They should encourage police offices to think about prevention of crime and social disorders;
- (4) Specially trained police officers were engaged as instructors;
- (5) They neglected fundamental determinants of social relations in the community and did not include community leaders and ordinary citizens in the partnership with the police.

In the 90s of the last century, Goldstein pointed to implications that might have contents and programme of training for implementing problem-oriented police work. He determined that, for effective law enforcement, training programme should envisage not only knowledge on legal regulations and legal procedures for their enforcement, but also acquiring certain skills related to collecting evidence, fingerprints, conducting investigations and defence techniques. In this regard, he concluded that the current program of education and training did not take into account the applicability of the acquired skills to solve specific problems, which is why it is considered that police officers do not acquire competence for performing problem-oriented community policing.³³

Contemporary phase of development of community police concept demands that police training should encompass all aspects of philosophical dimension of this concept. Its theorists³⁴ suggest, for example, a curriculum that shall contain the following syllabi and units:

Police philosophy (partnership with the community, community confidence in policing, respect for democratic values, police work focused on the needs of citizens);

Organisational structure of the police (organizational structure overview, internal communication channels, evolution of organizational changes in implementation of the concept, importance of organizational communication with the community);

Socioeconomic structure of a community (demographic profile of a community, social structure of a community, quality of life, political structure of a community, victimization of certain groups in a community);

Cultural specificity of a community;

Police history of the world and certain countries;

Police operations (police patrol activity, investigation activity, communication, police-community relations);

Police mission (values, mission, goals and professional orientation);

Police culture (understanding police culture, understanding police cynicism, understanding police myths, police culture development);

Discretion in decision making;

Police misconduct (definition of police misconduct, perjury, verbal and sexual harassment, use of alcohol / drugs, corruption, excessive use of force, criminal offenses committed by police officers);

Police ethics;

Problem-oriented policing (broken windows theory, definition of problem-oriented policing, use of POP and SARA models, identification of resources);

Crime prevention (definition of crime prevention, environmental design and defensible space theory, crime prevention programmes, situational crime prevention);

Police work focused on the needs of a community.

Such a curriculum, designed for training, courses and education of police officers shall provide, according to its proposers, a complete and quality preparation for the effective implementation of the concept of community policing.

³² Radelet, L.A. (1986). *The Police and the Community*. New York, NY: Macmillan. p.16.

³³ Goldstein, H. (1990). *Problem Oriented Policing*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. p. 168.

³⁴ Palmiotto, M.J., Birzer, M.L. & Unnithan, N.B. (2000). Training in community policing: A suggested curriculum. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 23(1), 8-21.

CONCLUSION

Police education, training and practice also imply financial expenditures and costs. In recent years, investments into police education system have been reduced, which led to postponing police training in many countries. In Great Britain, having conducted process of reviewing the national police system, the burden of responsibility for the system of training and education was transferred to colleges and universities, that is, to individuals and not the government. This trend is also present in the USA, where a large number of individuals pay for education at police academies, and after that they start looking for job as police officers on their own. At the Southern Police Institute, a university institution with 60-year-long tradition specialized for the police management and executive management, police supervisors and chiefs find themselves more and more often in a situation that they have to pay tuition by themselves and attend longer or shorter courses and trainings that might improve their chances to be promoted to a higher rank or make them more competitive in police criminal investigations.

In the world of today, there is a demand for a possibility to continue police education and training via distance learning, especially through video and online courses. In this respect, it can be expected that in the future police training will be submitted to more rigorous *cost-benefit* analysis than it used to be in the past in order to eliminate unnecessary trainings, and make education as effective as possible. These trends point to constant innovations in the world of police education and training, but also considerable challenges related to demands that police organisations use payable operational and administrative methods due to which the whole system of police education and training shall inevitably be supervised in a large number of countries.

Bearing in mind the fact that, within police systems, a great emphasis was placed on a structure and contents of education and training, but also on their projected costs, it is advisable that police managers and researches pay a special attention to the development of police sciences, which shall, using their proofs, point at needs and demands of the contemporary development of police departments and their staff and professional structure. To support this, there are data that, in the past 30 years, far more effort and financial means were spent on development improvement and perfection of operative police methods, than to administrative methods, including police training.

REFERENCES

1. Carte, G.E. (1973). August Vollmer and the origins of police professionalism. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 1, 274-281.
2. CEPOL. (2011). *Training and learning: Common curricula*. Bramshill, UK. Taken from:
3. <http://www.cepola.europa.eu/index.php?id=common-curricula>, 03.01.2014.
4. Cordner, G. & Shain, C. (2011). The changing landscape of police education and training. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 12(4), 281-285.
5. Goldstein, H. (1990). *Problem Oriented Policing*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
6. Hickman, M.J. & Reaves, B.A. (2003). *Sheriffs' Offices 2000*. Washington, DC: Bureau of Justice Statistics.
7. Kešetović, Ž. (2003). Reforma MUP-a Republike Srbije – od policije poretka ka servisu građana. *Politička revija*, 2(1), 209-228.
8. Kutnjak-Ivković, S. & O'Connor Shelley, T. (2005). The Bosnian Police and Police Integrity: A Continuing Story. *European Journal of Criminology*, 2(4), 428-464:1477-3708, DOI: 10.1177/1477370805056057
9. Kutnjak-Ivković, S. & Klockars, C.B. (2004). Police integrity in Croatia. In: Klockars, C.B., Kutnjak Ivković, S. and Haberfeld, M.R. (Eds). *The Contours of Police Integrity* (pp. 56-74). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
10. Kutnjak-Ivković, S. (2009). The Croatian police, police integrity, and transition toward democratic policing. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 32 (3), 459-488.

11. McLaughlin, V. & Donahue, M.E. (1995). Training for Community Oriented Policing. In Kratcoski, P. and Dukes, D (eds.) *Community Policing* (125-138). Cincinnati: Anderson Publishing.
12. Meese, E. (1993). Community policing and the police officer. *Perspectives on Policing*, 15. Boston, MA: National Institute of Justice, Washington, DC and Harvard University.
13. Miller, J. & Fry, L. (1978). Some evidence on the impact of higher education for law enforcement personnel. *The Police Chief*, 45, 30-33.
14. Milosavljević, B. (1997). *Nauka o policiji*. Beograd: Policijska akademija.
15. Neyroud, P. (2011). *Review of police leadership and training*. London: Home Office. Taken from:
16. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/publications/consultations/rev-police-leadership-training/report?view=Binary>, 03.01.2014.
17. Palmiotto, M.J., Birzer, M.L. & Unnithan, N.B. (2000). Training in community policing: A suggested curriculum. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 23(1), 8-21.
18. Perez, M.B. (1993). IACP offers training in community-oriented policing. *The Police Chief*, May.
19. Police Sector Council. (2011). *Policing competency framework*. Ottawa, Canada. Preuzeto sa: <http://www.policecouncil.ca/pages/hr2.html>, 03.01.2014.
20. Pope, C.E. (1987). Criminal justice education: academic and professional orientations. In Muraskin, R. (Ed.). *The Future of Criminal Justice Education*. Brookeville, NY: Long Island University.
21. Radelet, L.A. (1986). *The Police and the Community*. New York, NY: Macmillan.
22. Rydberg, J. & Terrill, W. (2010). The Effect of Higher Education on Police Behavior. *Police Quarterly*, 13, 92-120.
23. Sherman, L.W. & The National Advisory Commission on Higher Education for Police Officers (1978). *The Quality of Police Education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
24. SIPR. (2011). *The SIPR postgraduate diploma/MSc in policing studies*.
25. Preuzeto sa: http://www.sipr.ac.uk/courses/postgraduate_diploma.php, 03.01.2014
26. Spasić, D. (2008). Žene u sistemu policijskog obrazovanja. *Temida*, 11(3), 41-61. DOI:10.2298/TEM0803041S
27. Spasić, D., Djurić, S., Kesetović, Ž. (2013). Community Policing and Local Self-Government: A Case Study of Serbia. *Lex Localis - Journal of Local Self-Government*, 11(3), 293-309. DOI 10.4335/11.3.293-309(2013).
28. Tyre, M. & Braunstein, S. (1992). Higher education and ethical policing. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, June, 6-10.
29. Vollmer, A. (1936). *The Police and Modern Society: Plain Talk Based on Practical Experience*. Berkley: University of California Press.
30. Webber, A. (1991). Crime and management: an interview with New York City police commissioner Lee P. Brown', *Harvard Business Review*, May-June.
31. Weiner, N.L. (1976). The educated policeman. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 4, 450-457.
32. Zhao, Z., Thurman, Q. & Lovrich, N. (1995). Community-oriented policing across the US: facilitators and impediments to implementation. *American Journal of Police*, 14.
33. Zhao, J., Lovrich, N., Thurman, Q. (1999). The status of community policing in American cities: Facilitators and impediments revisited. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 22(1), 74-92.

**DIFFERENCES OF METABOLICAL AND PHYSICAL REACTIONS
TO SPECIFIC PHYSICAL STRESS WITHIN THE BODY OF THE
ACADEMY OF CRIMINALISTIC AND POLICE STUDIES
STUDENTS¹**

Teaching Assistant **Radivoje Janković**, MSc
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Associate Professor **Milivoj Dopsaj**, PhD
Faculty of Sports and Physical Education, University in Belgrade

Raša Dimitrijević
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: The subject of this paper is identifying the differences between reactions, both metabolic and physical, within the bodies of male and female The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies (ACPS) students when undertaking the training ground test which can be used for assessing specific skills of police officers (Pol_SSP1). A total of 56 ACPS third year undergraduate students participated in this research, 33 male and 23 female. Variables which were assessed were: time needed to complete Pol_SSP1, as an indicator of completion of the training ground test; metabolic and physical indicators of achieved physical exertion levels – heart rate value immediately after the test (HR_{max}), as a value of physical exertion of the cardiovascular system and lactates concentration in capillary blood within the fifth minute of recovery (La_5), as a value of metabolic acidosis. Results have shown that the average time needed for completing Pol_SSP1 was 97.69 ± 9.61 seconds for male and 110.74 ± 12.11 for female students. Maximal heart rate after the completion of the training ground test for men was $HR_{max} = 187.15 \pm 6.87$ beats/min, with lactate concentration of $La_5 = 12.12 \pm 2.47$ mmol/L. With female participants the heart rate frequency was $HR_{max} = 185.78 \pm 7.85$ beats/min, with lactate concentration of $La_5 = 11.29 \pm 2.49$ mmol/L. T-test results have shown that there is a statistically significant difference between sexes for the time needed to complete Pol_SSP1 ($p = 0.000$). Men were completing the test 13.05 seconds faster, meaning their results were 11.79% better than the women results. With the maximal heart rate frequency and lactate concentration tests no statistically significant difference has been measured. On the base of these results it is possible to conclude that Pol_SSP1 has equal influence onto metabolic and physical reaction within the bodies of students of both sexes, without the difference in time needed to complete the test.

Keywords: special physical education, police, lactates, heart rate frequency, training ground test.

INTRODUCTION

Technology development and industrialization of the production process, improvement of working conditions and increased production efficiency in most professions have caused minimal use of physical abilities. However, the specificity of the professional duties of police officers and legal regulations require that officers use force in situations of increased mental and physical workload where they may compromise their personal integrity, the integrity of other police officers or persons against whom the means of restraint are used. Therefore, compared to the average citizen population, law enforcement agents must have above-average level of development of general and specific physical abilities that would allow their efficiency in the execution of certain-

¹The paper is part of the project "Effects of applied physical activity on locomotion, metabolic, psycho-social and educational status of the population in Republic of Serbia" number III47015, as a part of subproject "Effects of applied physical activity on locomotion, metabolic, psycho-social and educational status of the population in Republic of Serbia" funded by Ministry of Education and Science Republic Serbia – the cycle of research projects from 2011 to 2014.

professional tasks (Sörensen et al., 2000; Blagojević et al., 2006; Boyce et al., 2008; Strating et al., 2010; Vučković et al., 2011). Due to the above, police officers are required to, with professional help, individual maintain an adequate level of physical ability which verification is defined in the Republic of Serbia Ministry of Internal Affairs (RS MIA) program of professional training for police officers (Janković & Dimitrijević, 2012).

The quality of police work is conditioned by the permanent development of the education system and the way of training of future police officers. Considering that the skills, knowledge and professional motivation represent the priority resource in police organization, it is necessary to develop a career plan for each employee in accordance with the professional resources and strategic goals of the police. In Republic of Serbia, for training and education of police officers, there are two institutions: Basic Police Training Center (BPTC) in Sremska Kamenica and The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies (ACPS) in Belgrade (Obradović, 2011; Klisarić & Waldo, 2011; Janković & Dimitrijević, 2012; Dopsaj & Dimitrijević, 2013). Entry of Serbia in the transition process after the democratic changes in 2000s, led to the necessity of reform of police education and training, with the aim of mass hiring of women in the police, particularly in the uniformed staff, to achieve a quota of 30% of the total number of police officers. The preparation of strategy for the development of police education was started from the recommendations and evaluations of the OSCE and the Council of Europe, the Vision Document for the reform of the Serbian RS MIA, documents that define the Bologna process and scientific manuscripts that describe the directions of changes in the European police education. Police Education in Serbia was founded with establishment of Archibald Rice police school in 1921, but until the opening of The Advanced School for Police Officers in Zemun in 1972, there was no possibility of female staff training. Police Academy was founded in 1993 as an institution engaged in educational and scientific activities of importance to the security and police affairs, however, enrolment of women in this institution was provided only in the 2002/2003. school year (Spasić, 2008).

Level of development of physical abilities is checked in the selection of candidates of both sexes which apply for education that enables work in the police force with the aim to select a representative population of individuals with the high quality physical basis for the purposes of education and later professional competence (Dopsaj et al., 2007). On the representative of the selected candidates in the course Special Physical Education (SPE) is implemented an educational process in order to establish and maintain adequate general and specific preparation which enables the basis for high quality performance of police work (Milosevic et al., 1995). On the ACPS within the subject of SPE curriculum verification of basic motor abilities (BMA) is planned, and an assessment of the level of success of specific motor abilities in general, directional and situational level is performed (Vučković et al., 2011). The level of development assessment of BMA at ACPS is adapted to the specifics of gender, while the BMA assessment in RS MIA is adapted to the specific gender and age of respondents. The BMA tests analysis in terms of metabolic and functional response of the organism, and in terms of time and intensity of the work have shown that the tests can be divided into three groups (Janković & Dimitrijević, 2012):

Anaerobic-alactate tests for the assessment of maximum isometric muscle force for strength and speed, which have maximum intensity and perform in a short period of time up to 5 seconds,

Combined anaerobic-alactate and anaerobic-lactate tests for the assessment of repetitive-muscle strength, which have submaximal intensity in duration of 10 to 30 seconds,

Aerobic tests for the assessment of overall aerobic abilities of the organism with duration of 12 minutes.

Assessing the level of SPE techniques adoption is done by experts who observe participants during the implementation of the required tasks and give a numerical score based on predetermined criteria (Milosevic et al., 1995; Blagojević et al., 2006; Vučković et al., 2011). All tests that assess the level of SPE techniques adoption are carried out under controlled conditions in which there is no fatigue and no stress. In previous studies it was found that in most cases there is no fatigue before and during the use of force, which includes SPE techniques, lasts for 60 to 120 seconds (Lord, 1998; Anderson, 2001; Strating et al., 2010). In order to successfully control the skill level, tests of specific abilities include individual maximum attempts performing exercises that cover the most important areas of motor and working space in terms of professional preparedness of the police officers. It is therefore necessary to adapt techniques and tests to the

conditions in which SPE techniques are used, and they should be as much as possible connected with the demands of the actual activities that can happen in the field (Bonneau & Brown, 1995; Anderson, 2001; Vučković 2002; Vučković et al., 2011). The method by which specific skills can be assessed, in terms of an integrative, under conditions that simulate specific motor structure in a specific mode of stress for professional police situation, is called the method of polygons. In the world's leading police forces, such as the Police of North America, Australia and Western Europe in the process of selection and controlling of police officers motor abilities polygon tests are used and their goal is assessment of specific skills at sub maximal and maximal intensity, and the anaerobic lactate-mode (Bonneau & Brown, 1995; Anderson, 2001; Vučković, 2002; Lonsway, 2003; Mendes, 2010; Vučković et al., 2011).

The subject of this research is to examine the differences between male and female ACPS students when performing polygon for assessing police officers specific skills in terms of the time required for its implementation and the influence it has on the metabolic and functional response of the organism. The aim of the manuscript is to define the difference of efficiency in implementation of the applied test and metabolic and functional response of the organism between male students and female when performing a test that can be used to assess specific skills of police officers in the anaerobic lactate-mode. The task of research, on the basis of the results, is to influence the improvement of technological processes in the system of basic and specific physical abilities development controls at the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia members, which in the current system is not present.

METHOD

Carried research belongs to applied research in which for the needs of the new knowledge method of experiment was used with inductive reasoning. The experiment was carried out using the methods of field-testing (Ristanović & Dacic, 1999).

The sample of respondents

The study included 56 ACPS in Belgrade students (33 male students and 23 female students of the third year of undergraduate studies: crime, police and security directions). All respondents were familiar with the purpose of measurement and research, selected randomly on a voluntary basis. The study was realized in accordance with the terms of "Declaration of Helsinki for recommendations guiding physicians in biomedical research involving human subjects" (<http://www.cirp.org/library/ethics/helsinki/>), and with the permission of the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Sports and Physical Education, University of Belgrade.

Measurement methods

Polygon for the assessment of specific police skills (Pol_SSP1) in the anaerobic lactate-mode was realized on the 25x15 meters area dimensions and consisted of the following tasks (Figure 1):

- A. Start with the beep alert,
- B. Maximum speed straight line running (20 m),
- C. Stopping and taking a safe position behind 110cm cover height, where below the shelter perform extraction of official handgun from its holster,
- D. With weapon in hand, after safety situation verification, circumvent the shelter to the left and continue moving with evading shuttle from the outside and passes below the rope set at a height of 55cm on the marked places. The distance between the shuttle is 250cm,
- E. Stopping and hiding behind 110cm cover height, changing the frame and restoring official weapons in the holster below the line of cover,
- F. Alternately jumping (height 110 cm) and F' broaching (height 55cm) over the three obstacles. The distance between obstacles is 250cm,
- G. Approaching to the focuser (which holds an assistant) and implementation of four hand punches and two footkicks with maximum speed and power,

H. Climbing on the beam across the 70 cm platform height and across the beam (120 cm high, 500 cm long and 10 cm width), walking quickly or running,

I. Jumping down from the beam to the mat and perform fall for ward,

J. Approaching to the sack, the extraction and use of batons, realization of four hits with maximum efficiency and restoring baton on the belt,

K. Arrival on the mat, the defence of a pre-determined attack, overcoming the attacker by using techniques from the SPE area, realization of control and bringing the attacker in a position to bind with use of means of restraint,

L. Running at maximum speed with an exchange of direction, a distance of about 15 m to the place where the doll (bag) to carry is set, weighing 50 kg,

M. Approaching to the doll (sack) and lifting (men) or preparing to pull (girls),

N. Carrying a doll (sack) or pulling (girls) at a distance of 10 m from the beginning line of this task to the marked places,

O. Safe doll (sack) landing,

P. Passing the finish line.

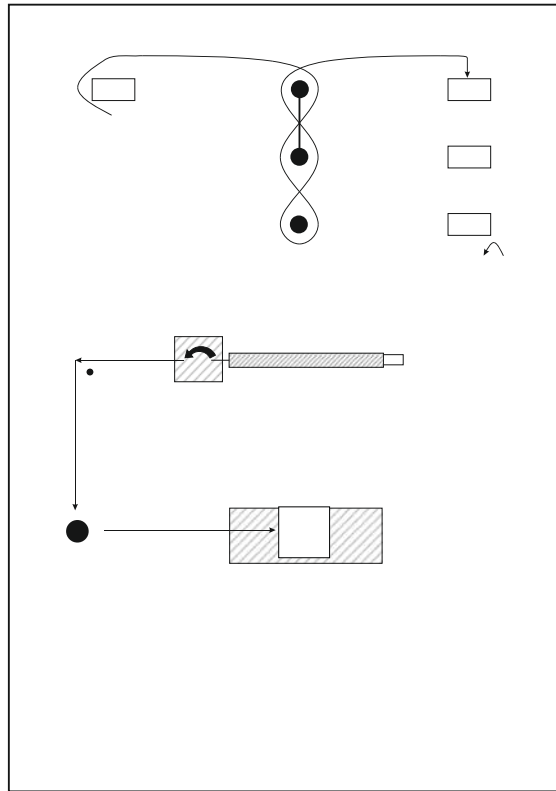


Figure .1 Display of Polygon for assessing specific skills of police officers in the anaerobic lactate-mode

The time required to ground realization is measured by physical abilities computer system PAT (Physical Ability Test 01), which consists of measuring - acquisition device, necessary cables set, software application and running sensors. With passing through the first sensor respondent activates the chronometer, and passing through the sensor at the end of the polygon excludes time. The result can be read in seconds and is shown with two decimal places.

Measurement of metabolic and functional parameters

For the purposes of this study two basic parameters for the assessment of metabolic and functional indicators of the reached physiologic level were used:

1. concentration of lactate in capillary blood measured in the fifth minute after completion of the work, as a measure of metabolic acidosis,
2. the value of the heart frequency after completion of Pol_SSP1, as a measure of the functional cardiovascular systems load (Astrand, et al., 2003).

Measurement of concentration of lactate in the blood was performed using sampling 0.7 µl capillary blood from the finger, in the third and fifth minutes of recovery. Blood sampling was performed using a lancet disposable Unistik3 Comfort (Owen Mumford, Ltd., UK), while the concentration of lactate was determined by using a portable lactate analyzer (Hart et al., 2013) of the latest generation - The Lactate Plus (Nova Biomedical, USA).

Heart rate was measured using a heart rate monitor SIGMAPC 15 (Sigma Elektro GmbH, Germany).

Statistical methods

Results were analysed using basic descriptive statistical procedures for calculating measures of central tendency (Mean and SD). For determination of the differences between the obtained results of the first and second measurement t-test was used. For all statistical analyses the software program SPSS Statistics 17.0. was used (Hair et al., 1998).

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the results of average values, standard deviations, minimum and maximum results of observed variables among students of both genders: the time required for the implementation of Pol_SSP1, maximum reached heart rate measured immediately after completion of the polygon and the measured value of lactate concentration in the fifth minute after the completion of Pol_SSP1.

Variable	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Time (sec.)	M	97.96	9.61	85.8	125.6
HR _{max} (Hb/min)		187.15	6.87	169	199
La ₅ (mmol/L)		12.12	2.47	7.9	16.8
Time (sec.)	FM	110.74	12.11	94	141.5
HR _{max} (Hb/min)		185.78	7.84	172	199
La ₅ (mmol/L)		11.29	2.49	8.2	17

Table 1. Results of descriptive statistics [M, male (N = 33); FM, female (N = 23)]

The results of t-test showed that there is a statistically significant difference between gender groups for variable Time required for the realization of Pol_SSP1 ($p = 0.000$). For maximal heart rate measured immediately after polygon realisation and lactate measured five minutes after the completion of Pol_SSP1 no significant difference were found ($p = 0.492$) ($p = 0.832$), respectively.

DISCUSSION

Despite technological progress and modern technology in police support, the technical means have failed to eliminate the human factor in solving and handling the most complex tasks within the area of MIA work. The human factor is still dominant in the police profession, which means that a high level of development of physical abilities and motor skills is a prerequisite for adequate professional competence of police officers (Vučković, 2002).

Polygon of specific police skills (Pol_SSP1) is structured on the basis of motor tasks that simulate hypothetical situations and tasks that police officers must be practically trained. In this way, with polygon realization each individual comes to growing physical fatigue stressful situations by performing properly all technical and tactical concrete actions.

The results showed that the average time required for Pol_SSP1 implementation was 97.69 ± 9.61 seconds for males and 110.74 ± 12.11 seconds for females. The maximum heart rate achieved after completion of the polygon in males was $HR_{max} = 187.15 \pm 18.15$ Hb/min, and the measured values of concentration of lactate were $La_5 = 12.12 \pm 2.47$ mmol/L. In females the heart rate was $HR_{max} = 185.78 \pm 18.78$ Hb/min, while the concentration of lactate was $La_5 = 11.29 \pm 2.49$ mmol/L. The results of t-test showed that between gender groups there is statistically significant difference in the time required for the realization of Pol_SSP1 ($p = 0.000$). Males performed the polygon in average 13:05 seconds faster, achieved 11.79% better time than females. For maximal heart rate and lactate concentration no statistically significant difference were found.

In previous studies conducted by Dopsaj et al. (2010) in a population of young, healthy and trained persons, consisting of 1223 men and 356 women aged between 18 and 24 years, the model that represents the current status difference of basic anthropometric characteristics and BMA between the genders were defined. The results showed that on average the tested population of women has lower body height than men for 11:38 cm (6.69%), have lower body mass by 17:06 kg (27.53%), and less body mass index for 2:56 kg/m² (11.96%). In average, observed population of women achieved lower results of maximal isometric force of the tested muscle groups: 61.3% of back extensors, 75.07% of leg extensors, 72.98% of left hand flexors and 65.3% of the right hand flexors. According to speed strength of the leg muscle, evaluated by standing long jump and vertical jump tests, men have achieved a better result for 26.99% and 52.79%, respectively. Compared to the average of the results of tests for the assessment of trunk flexors repetitive power, hand flexors and extensors men have achieved better results by 15.76%, 189.25% and 77.1%, respectively. Velocity of running at 20 meters with flying start is better for men to 6:56%, while the overall endurance performance evaluated by Cooper test and maximal oxygen consumption in men are higher for 23.61% and 12:53%, respectively.

Birzer and Craig (Birzer & Craig, 1996) analysed longitudinally in the period from 1985 to 1993, the effectiveness of the physical fitness official test on a sample of 841 police officers (743 men and 98 women). It has been found that the overall efficiency of test passing is on the level of 85%, however, there was a statistically significant difference between passing efficiency of men and women ($\chi^2 = 287.9$, $p = 0.01$). Specifically, for men the efficiency was at the level of 93% (only 7% failed), while for women the passing success was at the level of only 28% i.e. 72% has not passed.

Pol_SSP1 is designed as a motoric pattern that assesses the quality and speed of solving a variety of, too, officers, specific motor functions that include the dimensions of the latent and overt motoric space. It can be assumed that gender differences in morphological characteristics and motor abilities are the reason why men achieved statistically better result in Pol_SSP1.

In a study conducted in the USA the problem of physical abilities testing in the selection of female candidates was investigated and it was found that the participation of women in the police is 12.7%. Out of 62 agencies analysed, great majority used tests for the assessment of physical abilities as a selection criterion. It was found that there is no common criterion in the way of testing and standards, so that 47.3% of agencies use some type of polygons, while others use a different battery of tests to measure and evaluate physical abilities. Less than one-third of agencies have gender and age results standardization. Based on the results, it was found that the system of physical abilities evaluation in USA police has negative or discriminatory effect on women, especially when it comes to these selection criteria, which are not adapted to the specifics of gender. It was also found that there was no unique position in terms of the physical abilities of police officers and the way of their testing, and also, there are no defined specific physical abilities required for high quality performance of police work (Lonsway, 2003).

Also, in the study that was made in order to standardize the test for assessing the physical abilities of the Dutch police, in which PPCT (Police Physical Competency Test) was used, it was found that women on average have a significantly lower score than men (26 seconds). Based on these results, it was concluded that gender significantly affects physical ability manifestation and that it is necessary in the selection process and in process of physical abilities development control to take care about this fact as the tests would not be discriminatory. At the tested groups was found the link between the displayed results of the tests for the assessment of physical abilities, body mass index, and the weekly time that respondents allocated for training (Strating et al., 2010).

In interpreting results of this research, it is necessary to take into consideration gender differences in order to avoid discriminatory impact and systematize normative criteria, so it could be in terms of the time required for the implementation of Pol_SSP1 based on gender differences.

A characteristic of the anaerobically-lactate type of physical strain is such that the capacity of the body is in a state of high physiological stress, and heart frequency is consequently extremely high and over than 180 Hb/min. The results showed that the average exceeded maximal value of heart frequency measured immediately after completion of the polygon is 187.15 ± 6.87 Hb/min in male and 185.78 ± 7.85 Hb/min in female, indicating that the polygon realization is at level of almost absolute maximum intensity (Faff et al. 2007). Also, the measured concentrations of lactate, which in male was 12.12 ± 2.47 mmol/L, and for female 11.29 ± 2.49 mmol/L, proof that the physical effort required for Pol_SSP1 implementation caused a high degree of acidosis levels among students of both genders, and that labor intensity, structure of tasks and the time required for its implementation causing the creation of energy for workout dominantly from the process of anaerobic glycolysis (Astrand et al., 2003).

Based on the obtained results it can be concluded that Pol_SSP1 have similar impact on the metabolic and functional response of the organism among students of both genders, regardless of the difference in time required for its implementation.

CONCLUSION

In a study conducted on 56 ACPS students (33 males and 23 females) of the third year of undergraduate studies differences were identified in the efficiency of implementation of the polygon test which can be used to assess specific skills of police officers (Pol_SSP1) and metabolic and functional response of the organism among male and female students. The observed variables were: time required to pass Pol_SSP1, as an indicator of the polygon realization success and metabolic and functional indicators of the achieved physiological load level (1. heart frequency value immediately after exercise (HR max), as a measure of functional cardiovascular system load and 2. lactate concentration in capillary blood in the fifth minute of recovery (La5), as a measure of metabolic acidosis). Based on these results, it was concluded that Pol_SSP1 as an instrument for assessing the specific load has an equal effect on metabolic and functional response of the organism among students of both genders, regardless of the difference in time required for its implementation. The difference in the time required for its implementation is due to gender differences of morphological characteristics and motoric abilities.

REFERENCES

1. Anderson, G. (2001). Police officer physical ability testing: *An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 24(1): 8–31.
2. Astrand, P-O., Rodahl, K., Dahl, A. H., Strömme, B. S. (2003). *Textbook of work physiology – Physiological bases of exercise (Fourth Ed.)*. Champaign, IL: Human.
3. Birzer, M., Craig, D. (1996). Gender differences in police physical ability test performance. *American Journal of Police*, 15(2), 93-108.
4. Blagojević, M., Dopsaj, M., Vučković, G. (2006). *Specijalno fizičko obrazovanje I*. Beograd: Policijska akademija.
5. Bonneau, J., Brown, J. (1995). Physical ability, fitness and police work. *Journal of Clinical Forensic Medicine*, 2: 157–164.

6. Boyce, R., Ciulla, S., Jones, G., Boone, E., Elliott, S., Combs, C. (2008). Muscular Strength and Body Composition Comparison Between the Charlotte-Mecklenburg Fire and Police Departments. *International Journal of Exercise Science*, 1(3): 125–135.
7. Dopsaj, M., Blagojević, M., Marinković, B., Miljuš, D., Vučković, G., Koropanovski, N., Ivanović, J., Atansov, D., Janković, R. (2010). *Modelne karakteristike antropometrijski-hpokazatelja ibazično-motoričkih sposobnosti (BMS) zdravih i treniranih mladih osoba – bapola – populacioni pokazatelji Republike Srbije*. Bajina Bašta: Forma.
8. Dopsaj M., Blagojević M., Vučković G. (2007). Normativno-selekcioni kriterijum za procenu bazično-motoričkog statusa kandidata za prijem na studije Kriminalističko-policijske akademije u Beogradu. *Bezbednost, Beograd*, 49(4), 166-183.
9. Dopsaj, M., Dimitrijević, R. (2013). Model imorfološkog statusa studentkinja Kriminalističko-policijske akademije definisan metodom multikanalne bioelektrične impedance. *Nauka, bezbednost, policija*, 18(1), 39-56.
10. Faff, J., Sitkowski, D., Ladyga, M., Klusiewicz, A., Borkowski, L., Straczewska-Czapowska, J. (2007). Maximal heart rate in athletes. *Biology of Sport*, 24(2), 129-142.
11. Hair, J., Anderson, R., Tatham, R., Black, W. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis* (5th ed.). New Jersey, USA: Prentice-Hall. Inc.
12. Hart, S., Drevets, K., Alford, M., Salacinski, A., Hunt, E. B. (2013). A method comparison study regarding the validity and reliability of the Lactate Plus analyzer. *BMJ Open* 3:e001899. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2012-001899.
13. Janković, R., Dimitrijević, R. (2012). Stanje i mogućnosti unapređenja načina procene motoričkih sposobnosti u sistemu Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova Republike Srbije. *Kulturapolisa*, 9(1), 419-435.
14. Klisarić, M., Valdete, O. (2011). Holandski model obrazovanja i obuke policije. *Bezbednost, Beograd*, 53(2), 254-273.
15. Lonsway, K. (2003). Tearing down the wall: Problems with consistency, validity, and adverse impact of physical agility testing in police selection. *Police Quarterly* 6 (3): 237–277.
16. Lord, V. (1998). Swedish police selection and training: issues from a comparative perspective. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 21 (2): 280–292.
17. Mendeš, M. (2010). Poligon zapreka. *Policijaisigurnost, Zagreb*, 19(3): 380–384.
18. Milošević, M., Stojičić, R., Blagojević, M., Arlov, D., Jovanović, S., Dopsaj, M., Čirković, Z. (1995). Određivanje krive efekata edukacije kod milicionara pripravnika. *Zbornik radova prvog savetovanja iz Specijalne fizičkog obrazovanja, Policijska akademija, Beograd*: 43–48.
19. Obradović, S. (2011). Planiranje, regrutovanje i selekcija kadra u Ministarstvu unutrašnjih poslova RS. *Nauka, bezbednost, policija*, 16(1), 135-156.
20. Ristanović, D., Dačić, M. (1999). *Osnovne metodologije naučnoistraživačkog rada u medicini*. Biblioteka „Udžbenici”, Knjiga 7, Beograd: Velarta.
21. Sörensen, L., Smolander, J., Louhevaara, V., Korhonene, O., Oja, P. (2000). Physical activity, fitness and body composition of Finnish police officers: a 15-year follow-up study. *Occupational Medicine*, 50 (1): 3–10.
22. Spasić, D. (2008). Žene u sistemu policijskog obrazovanja, stanje i perspektive važenskih ljudskih prava. *TEMIDA*, 11(3), 41-61.
23. Strating, M., Bakker R., Dijkstra G., Lemmink, K., Groothoff, J. W. (2010). A job-related fitness test for the Dutch police. *Occupational Medicine*, 60: 255–260.
24. Vučković, G. (2002). *Uticaj motoričkih sposobnosti na efikasnost savladavanja situacionog pištoljskog poligona kod studenata Policijske akademije*. Magistarska teza, Fakultet sporta i fizičkog vaspitanja Univerziteta u Beogradu: Beograd.
25. Vučković, G., Blagojević, M., Dopsaj, M. (2011). *Specijalno fizičko obrazovanje 2*. Beograd: Kriminalističko-policijska akademija.
26. www.cirp.org/library/ethics/helsinki/

**THE RUSSIAN MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENTAL
POLICY REALIZATION IN PERSONNEL PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING FIELD (EXEMPLIFIED
BY VOLGOGRAD ACADEMY OF THE MINISTRY OF THE
INTERIOR OF RUSSIA)**

**«РЕАЛИЗАЦИЯ ВЕДОМСТВЕННОЙ ПОЛИТИКИ МВД РОССИИ
В ОБЛАСТИ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЙ ПОДГОТОВКИ КАДРОВ»
(НА ПРИМЕРЕ ВОЛГОГРАДСКОЙ АКАДЕМИИ МВД РОССИИ)**

Anna Timofeyeva, Chief of the Educational Department
Volgograd Academy of the Russian Internal Affairs Ministry
Nataliya Ryazantseva
Volgograd Academy of the Russian Internal Affairs Ministry

Анна Тимофеева
Волгоградская академия МВД России
Наталья Рязанцева
Волгоградская академия МВД России

Abstract. Education is among the key state priorities determining socio-economic dynamics of the society, its labour and development capacity. Publicly relevant weal exercised for the individual benefit alongside the benefit of the family and society in general is an integral complex purposeful process. Principally new current educational policy representing a system of means and methods of modernizing and improving the mechanism of educational activities is a key state activity priority and professional training of top-qualified personnel for internal affairs agencies is a priority task for departmental educational institutions of the Ministry of the Interior of Russia. The higher educational institutions where faculty members demonstrate exceptional professional qualities, where advanced methods of academic process organization are applied, where there are up-to-date facilities and perfect feedback from the customer possess the required set of tools for providing high-level education.

Keywords: education, HR policy, police officer, faculty members.

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Современный этап развития российской государственности можно охарактеризовать как время реформирования большинства институтов власти в целях безусловного обеспечения и защиты конституционных прав и свобод граждан. Трансформации в области профессиональной подготовки кадров находятся в завершающей стадии формирования системы взглядов, целей, задач и методов работы в новых условиях. Этот процесс обусловлен, в первую очередь, принципиально новой образовательной политикой государства и имеющейся системой комплексных средств и методов совершенствования образовательных технологий.

Деятельность образовательных организаций органично встроена в общую стратегию решения приоритетных государственных задач, определяющих социально-экономический прогресс общества, его конкурентоспособность и саморазвитие. Не являются исключением и вузы системы МВД России, деятельность которых в условиях продолжающегося ведомственного реформирования направлена на кардинальные качественные преобразования и эффективную подготовку кадров для комплекующих органов.

Для решения стратегических задач в условиях повышающейся конкуренции на рынке образовательных услуг, интеллектуализации правоохранительной деятельности, боль-

шинство образовательных организаций, в целях обеспечения планомерного и долгосрочного развития, определили концептуальную систему стандартов качественного образования, средства следования ведомственному направлению в области кадровой политики и профессиональной подготовки кадров.

Концепция развития Волгоградской академии МВД России разработана на пятилетний период, с 2013 года до 2018 года, и уже сегодня в ее образовательной деятельности можно констатировать существенные положительные изменения. Академия, следуя реалиям времени, работает по системе, объединяющей образовательные и научные программы МВД России в единую цепь поэтапной подготовки кадров – от первоначальной до повышения квалификации.

ПРАКТИЧЕСКАЯ ОРИЕНТИРОВАННОСТЬ ОБУЧЕНИЯ

Интенсивно развивающаяся многоуровневая практико-ориентированная система непрерывного профессионального образования позволяет в полной мере готовить квалифицированных специалистов в условиях динамично изменяющихся потребностей комплекствующих органов.

Для этого у нас накоплен определенный опыт. Проводится профориентационная работа с молодежью, в том числе, с курсантами суворовских военных училищ и кадетских корпусов МВД России. Разработана дифференцированная (конкурсная) система целевого отбора кандидатов на обучение, определены критерии и системы оценки качества отбора кандидатов на обучение. В стадии завершения разработка оценочной процедуры готовности и социализации (адаптации) курсантов академии - выпускников суворовских военных училищ и кадетских корпусов, к освоению программ профессионального образования, подготовке к службе в органах внутренних дел Российской Федерации.

Компетентностный подход к обучению – основной методологический прием в подготовке кадров, реализующийся не только через систему формирования общекультурных и профессионально-специализированных компетенций в рамках федеральных государственных образовательных стандартов, но и через систему успешно развивающегося профильного и практико-ориентированного обучения.

Применяемые в академии новые образовательные сочетания «абитуриент-обучающийся-ученый и практик», как неразрывные составляющие отечественного образования, демонстрируют практико-ориентированный компетентностный подход к подготовке высококвалифицированных кадров, отвечающий мировым стандартам качества высшего профессионального образования.

С 2012 года на академию возложены функции федерального ведомственного учебно-научного центра по двум направлениям служебной деятельности: предварительное следствие в органах внутренних дел и деятельность экспертно-криминалистических подразделений. Коллектив академии осуществляет разработку основной учебно-программной документации, учебно-методических материалов и выводит на новый уровень организацию взаимодействия с подразделениями органов внутренних дел и вузов по вопросам подготовки кадров.

Академия стала экспериментальной площадкой для осуществления инновационной образовательной деятельности, формирования авторских коллективов и творческих групп, обеспечения практико-ориентированной направленности в обучении курсантов и слушателей. Благодаря этому открылись дополнительные возможности для реализации научного потенциала молодых ученых и научных школ. Академия выступает экспертом научной продукции, автором научно-исследовательских работ по актуальным проблемам деятельности следственных и экспертно-криминалистических подразделений органов внутренних дел.

В рамках реализации профильного образования в академии ведется активная работа по проведению научных исследований. В академии созданы и функционируют такие структурные подразделения как научно-экспериментальная лаборатория новых информационных технологий, научно-образовательный центр, опытно-экспериментальная лаборатория криминалистических исследований.

Материально-техническая база академии полностью отвечает задачам практико-ориентированного обучения. В распоряжении педагогов и обучаемых 13 криминалистических полигонов, 19 учебных лабораторий, 18 специализированных компьютерных классов, электронный читальный зал с выходом в Интернет; фонды академической библиотеки, насчитывающей свыше 617 тысяч экземпляров изданий, в том числе около 300 тысяч учебных и учебно-методических экземпляров. В настоящее время парк компьютерной техники академии составляет 971 единицы, в том числе в составе локальных вычислительных сетей – 583.

Наш опыт свидетельствует еще об одном важном результате этого процесса – формировании преемственности поколений в профессии. Учебные занятия, проводимые лучшими специалистами-практиками, становятся удачной формой передачи профессиональных знаний и опыта, формирования и закрепления интереса к избранной профессии.

Хорошей традицией стало проведение совместных научно-тематических круглых столов, конференций по насущным проблемам деятельности органов внутренних дел, в том числе – подготовки кадров в системе вузов МВД России.

Ежегодно в образовательный процесс вовлекаются свыше 200 практических работников различных правоохранительных и правоприменительных органов, а также слушателей, прибывающих из других регионов России в академию на повышение квалификации. Ценность таких занятий заключается в возможности приобретения более широкого спектра профессиональных знаний, поддержания профессионального интереса к выбранной специальности.

К участию в проведении Итоговой государственной аттестации в качестве членов предметных комиссий привлекаются представители Главного Управления МВД России по Волгоградской области. Например, в 2012/2013 учебном году на экзаменах присутствовало 17 руководителей отделов и подразделений главного заказчика кадров области.

Важно подчеркнуть одну деталь. Академия ежемесячно, для использования в образовательном процессе, получает статистическую отчетность о выявленных и раскрытых преступлениях, обзоры о характерных ошибках, допускаемых при расследовании уголовных дел, видеозаписи следственных и иных процессуальных действий, копии уголовных дел и процессуальных решений, бывшие вещественные доказательства по уголовным делам, материалы по раскрытию и расследованию преступлений экстремистской, экономической и коррупционной направленности. Полученные материалы используются в образовательном процессе и позволяют корректировать его в зависимости от потребностей практики.

Практическая ориентированность обучения в академии находит и иные формы реализации. Установлены долгосрочные партнерские связи с региональными органами внутренних дел. Сотрудники академии выезжают в комплектующие органы для изучения опыта их работы, получения бывших вещественных доказательств по законченным уголовным делам, материалов по раскрытию и расследованию преступлений экстремистской, экономической и коррупционной направленности для использования их в учебном процессе. Обучающиеся привлекаются к несению службы по охране общественного порядка и обеспечению общественной безопасности на территории г. Волгограда, что также позволяет проводить оценку полученным компетенциям и вырабатывать рекомендации по корректировке учебного процесса.

В академии функционирует внештатная юридическая клиника, юридическая помощь в которой оказывается обучающимися старших курсов и их педагогическими наставниками на безвозмездной основе в виде правового консультирования в устной и письменной форме, составления заявлений, жалоб, ходатайств и других документов правового характера. Внештатная юридическая клиника специализируется в области уголовного права, уголовного процесса, административного права, гражданского права, трудового права, права социального обеспечения и других отраслей российского права. Только в 2013 году зафиксировано 79 личных обращений и 4 обращения по электронной почте. Специалистами юридической клиники подготовлено более 15 проектов жалоб, исковых заявлений и заключений, по всем обращениям проведено консультирование.

Роль внештатной юридической клиники академии, как части негосударственной системы бесплатной юридической помощи, в создания условий для реализации, установленно-

го Конституцией Российской Федерации, права граждан на получение квалифицированной юридической помощи; условий для осуществления прав и свобод граждан, защиты их законных интересов, повышения уровня социальной защищенности; пропаганды правовых знаний и правового просвещения населения Российской Федерации - значительна. Немаловажно ее значение и в формировании у обучающихся навыков оказания квалифицированной юридической помощи и развития практического мастерства и нравственного формирования будущего юриста, как социально активной личности.

ПЕРВОНАЧАЛЬНАЯ ПОДГОТОВКА И ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЕ ОБУЧЕНИЕ

Не остается без внимания совершенствование системы первоначальной подготовки рядового и младшего начальствующего состава, впервые принимаемого на службу в органы внутренних дел, позволяющей осуществлять качественную подготовку кадров по профессии «полицейский».

Разработаны и реализуются образовательные программы нового поколения для профессионального обучения рядового и младшего начальствующего состава органов внутренних дел, образовательные программы профессиональной переподготовки лиц, поступающих на службу в органы внутренних дел из числа имеющих высшее неюридическое образование, профильные образовательные программы повышения квалификации лиц, поступающих на службу в органы внутренних дел из числа выпускников юридических факультетов гражданских вузов. В стадии разработки комплексное научное и методическое обеспечение федеральных государственных образовательных стандартов по «полицейским» специальностям, практико-ориентированные образовательные программы, обеспечивающие качественную прикладную профильную подготовку.

Одним из стержневых элементов реализации ведомственной политики в области профессиональной подготовки кадров является организация профессионального обучения.

В 2013 году в состав академии был передан Центр профессиональной подготовки. Для оптимизации деятельности Центра были проведены необходимые мероприятия по совершенствованию его работы, качественному обновлению организационной и штатной структуры. На базе Центра образован факультет профессионального обучения и создана кафедра административной деятельности и охраны общественного порядка. Уже сегодня на базе нового факультета проведена подготовка специального сводного отряда сотрудников полиции к решению особых государственных задач – обеспечению общественной безопасности проведения Олимпийских игр в г. Сочи.

Следуя требованиям международного стандарта ИСО 9001:2008, положениям «Руководства по качеству» и других документов действующей системы качества академии, не остаются без должного внимания мнение и запросы заказчика кадров, что является эффективным инструментом управления образовательным процессом, обеспечивающим мониторинг удовлетворенности потребителя.

В связи с этими требованиями сформирована и продолжает развиваться система оценки соответствия профессионального образования, включающая в себя мониторинг качества образования, эффективность и успешность профессиональной деятельности выпускников академии. Через разработанные сотрудниками вуза анкеты проводится опрос руководителей подразделений работодателя на предмет оценки профессиональных навыков, общекультурных и личностных качеств выпускников. Из поступающих анкет-отзывов видно, что выпускники академии в основном обладают достаточным уровнем владения основными видами профессиональной деятельности.

Как подчеркнул Министр внутренних дел Российской Федерации генерал-полковник полиции Владимир Александрович Колокольцев, перед выпускниками ведомственных вузов стоят задачи повышения престижа профессии, эффективного применения в практической деятельности полученных знаний и опыта, работы на опережение, понимания психологии преступника, проявления профессиональной наблюдательности, самоотверженности и готовности защитить граждан. Это – главные составляющие подготовки компетентных специалистов для органов внутренних дел.

В этой связи, определяющую роль в подготовке профессиональных полицейских играет высококвалифицированный педагогический состав академии и развитая материально-техническая база.

СЛУЖЕБНАЯ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТЬ ПЕДАГОГИЧЕСКИХ РАБОТНИКОВ

Академия гордится своими педагогическими работниками, которые последовательно и на постоянной основе повышают свою научную квалификацию. Сформированный квалифицированный научно-педагогический коллектив обладает достаточным потенциалом и способен на высоком уровне решать современные задачи качественной подготовки специалистов для органов внутренних дел, выполнять научные исследования. Учебный процесс на кафедрах осуществляется педагогическими работниками, в числе которых около 70 % преподавателей имеющих ученую степень и звание.

При этом, неизменно важным остается вопрос усовершенствованной педагогической подготовки молодых преподавателей в самой академии. Это обусловлено сложившимися условиями меняющихся общественных идеалов, когда педагогический работник представляется конструктором модели навыков и умений, нравственных, общекультурных и деловых качеств у обучающихся. Для Волгоградской академии МВД России достижение качественно нового состояния современного педагога – главная цель.

Очевидно, что далеко не каждый человек, даже обладающим бесценным опытом практической работы в органах внутренних дел, способен сразу стать квалифицированным педагогом. Эта профессия требует выраженной социально-психологической predispositionности, мастерства и характерных качеств.

Оказание помощи молодым преподавателям в овладении основами педагогики, теории образовательной деятельности, возрастной психологии, новыми технологиями осуществляется через передачу опыта от зрелых, состоявшихся педагогов начинающим. Профессиональные навыки и педагогическую компетентность молодые педагогические работники получают через трехгодичное обучение в школе педагогического мастерства преподавателей. Программа школы предусматривает овладение интерактивными методами и средствами обучения

Занятия в школе педагогического мастерства преподавателей проводят лучшие педагоги академии и приглашенные лекторы из других авторитетных вузов. На первом году обучения молодых преподавателей особое внимание уделяется изучению ими теоретических основ вузовской педагогики, рассмотрению вопросов общей дидактики, профессиональной педагогической этики и культуры речи преподавателя, психологии коллектива и научной организации труда преподавателя, воспитательным компонентам обучения, формам и методам индивидуальной работы с курсантами. На втором курсе обучения молодые педагоги рассматривают проблемы подготовки и проведения отдельных видов учебных занятий, особенности научного руководства, технологию контроля качества остаточных знаний у обучающихся, изучают современные методы и формы практико-ориентированного обучения. Заключительный этап обучения в школе педагогического мастерства посвящен методической и научно-исследовательской работе преподавателя, изучению роли преподавателя в укреплении дисциплины и законности в образовательной организации.

Для преподавателей уже имеющих педагогический опыт работает кабинет педагогического мастерства, в котором собран «золотой» фонд видео-лекций ведущих лекторов и мастеров российского педагогического мира, имеется большой выбор новинок в образовательной среде, методических материалов, локальных и внешних изданий, учебной и учебно-методической литературы, научно-методических журналов и пособий. В настоящее время в фонде кабинета размещается 41 лучшая методическая разработка учебно-методических материалов – победителей и призеров конкурса «На лучшую разработку учебно-методических материалов».

Кабинет педагогического мастерства академии – это технологическая модель, оснащенная отдельным рабочим местом с доступом к образовательным ресурсам и всемирной компьютерной сети Интернет.

Доброй традицией поддержания среди педагогических работников стимула к самосовершенствованию, следования цели выявления прогрессивных методик преподавания, повышения педагогического мастерства и профессиональной компетентности, и, своеобразным измерительным эффектом компетенции стало проведение конкурса на лучшего преподавателя, по итогам которого все призеры и первые в номинациях «Лучший лектор», «Творческий подход к организации и проведению занятий в интерактивной форме» поощряются.

Общепризнанно, что продолжающееся реформирование полицейского блока уже на сегодняшний день привело к новой ведомственной формации, в которой служат профессиональные полицейские с высоким уровнем образованности, воспитанности и обученности.

Как отметил начальник Департамента государственной службы и кадров МВД России генерал-лейтенант внутренней службы Владимир Леонидович Кубышко: «Полицейский должен быть профессионалом своего дела, кристально чистым и высоконравственным человеком, патриотом и защитником людей. Новую полицию нужно строить. Этой большой, тяжкий и кропотливый труд».

В этой связи, немалую толику в процесс профессионального совершенствования действующих сотрудников полиции привнес педагогический коллектив Волгоградской академии МВД России.

Распространяя идею «полицейского» образования ведущие специалисты-педагоги вуза для действующих сотрудников органов внутренних дел проводят мастер-классы, читают лекции по наиболее актуальным вопросам оперативно-служебной деятельности. Осуществляется научное обеспечение и методическая поддержка служебной деятельности органов внутренних дел, педагогические работники академии принимают участие в экспертизе научной продукции, разработанной для профильных подразделений органов внутренних дел, и ее апробации.

В 2013 году на базе академии проведено 107 научно-представительских мероприятий, ученые академии самостоятельно выполнили 99 научно-исследовательских работ. Инициировано 495 внедрений научных разработок в практическую деятельность органов внутренних дел и учебный процесс. Победителями различных конкурсно-оценочных мероприятий стали 35 сотрудников из числа профессорско-преподавательского состава академии. В рамках проведения Всероссийского конкурса на лучшую научную книгу среди преподавателей высших учебных заведений в числе победителей названо 9 работ преподавателей и авторских коллективов академии. Одно из них представлено к награде Золотой медалью «Европейское качество».

Включение курсантов (слушателей) в различные формы научной работы прививает им стремление к достижению высоких результатов в образовательном процессе, раскрывает их способности к интеллектуальному, культурному, нравственному и физическому развитию. 603 обучающихся академии приняли участие в международных, всероссийских и региональных конференциях, шесть из них стали лауреатами Премии Президента Российской Федерации и премии Министра внутренних дел Российской Федерации. Начал работу Клуб изобретателей, результатом деятельности которого стало получение 35 свидетельств на программный продукт.

В академии осуществляют свою деятельность семь научных школ:

Под руководством доктора юридических наук, профессора, генерал-майора полиции В. И. Третьякова — «Исследование проблем повышения эффективности деятельности ОВД в применении уголовно-правовых норм и криминологических мер противодействия преступности».

Под руководством доктора юридических наук, профессора Б.П. Смагоринского — «Исследование организационных, тактических и технико-криминалистических приемов, средств и методов предупреждения, раскрытия и расследования преступлений».

Под руководством доктора юридических наук, профессора П. В. Анисимова — «Исследование проблем обеспечения прав человека в правовой политике, деятельности органов внутренних дел».

Под руководством доктора юридических наук, профессора, полковника полиции В. А.

Ручкина — «Исследования теоретических, методологических и организационных проблем экспертно-криминалистической деятельности органов внутренних дел».

под руководством доктора юридических наук, профессора, полковника полиции Е. А. Зайцевой — «Использование специальных познаний в уголовном судопроизводстве».

Под руководством доктора юридических наук, доцента Г. А. Печникова — «Проблемы доказывания в уголовном процессе».

Под руководством доктора юридических наук, профессора М. А. Шматова — «Исследование оперативно-разыскного сопровождения предварительного расследования».

В академии издаются два периодических издания: научно-методический журнал «Вестник Волгоградской академии МВД России» и журнал «Судебная экспертиза», которые включены в Перечень ведущих рецензируемых научных журналов и изданий. Журналы размещены в системе Российского индекса научного цитирования. Аннотация статей и пристрастные библиографические списки помещены на сайте Научной электронной библиотеки (www.elibrary.ru).

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

За годы своего существования в Волгоградской академии прошли обучение или повысили квалификацию свыше 71 тысячи человек из нашей страны, 51 страны дальнего и 16 стран ближнего зарубежья. Сегодня выпускники академии работают во всех регионах России, за рубежом. Многие стали руководителями в краевых и областных управлениях органов внутренних дел, аппарате МВД России, посвятили свою жизнь юридической науке, более 40 из них получили специальное звание высшего начальствующего состава – генерал. Среди выпускников академии 2 Героя России. Волгоградская академия МВД России готовит специалистов для более 60 комплектуемых органов.

Это все было бы невозможно без:

- высокой конкурентоспособности вуза на внутреннем и внешних рынках образовательных услуг и научной продукции в традиционных для академии областях образовательной, научной и инновационной деятельности за счет высокого качества подготовки специалистов;

- устойчивых взаимовыгодных связей со всеми заинтересованными в образовательной деятельности сторонами, изучение и прогнозирование их требований, и реализацию этих требований в образовательном процессе;

- вовлечения преподавателей, сотрудников и обучающихся в деятельность по улучшению качества образования посредством непрерывного повышения их компетентности, мотивации, поддержки творческой инициативы, развития корпоративной культуры;

- проведения регулярной самооценки и изучения опыта ведущих образовательных учреждений, как инструментов совершенствования деятельности академии;

- постоянного улучшения учебно-методического и материально-технического обеспечения образовательного процесса, условий работы и учебы персонала и обучающихся.

Эти и многие другие направления деятельности Волгоградской академии МВД России нашли свое отражение в локальной Политике в области качества.

Обобщая вышеизложенное, следует сказать о том, что ведомственная кадровая политика МВД России требует постоянного обновления и совершенствования всех элементов системы профессионального образования на базе профильных вузов. Пример Волгоградской академии МВД России свидетельствует о необходимости формирования устойчивых взаимосвязей со всеми заинтересованными в образовательной деятельности сторонами, изучения и прогнозирования их требований и реализацию этих требований в качестве основных критериев качества образовательной деятельности.

СПИСОК ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ

В тексте настоящей статьи не использовалась дополнительная литература, текст составлен исключительно в соответствии с имеющимся примером служебной деятельности Волгоградской академии МВД России.

CRITERIA FOR STANDARDIZATION OF POLICE PERSONNEL SYSTEM

ЦЕЛИ И ЗАДАЧИ КАДРОВОЙ ПОЛИТИКИ В ОРГАНАХ ПОЛИЦИИ

Assistant Professor **Stefan Belecciu**, LL.D, Police Lieutenant-Colonel
Chief of the Police Science and Social-Humanistic Chair,
Academy “Stefan cel Mare” of MIA of Republic of Moldova
Assistant Professor **Iuri Lari**, PhD, Police Colonel
Director of the Scientific Research Department
Academy “Stefan cel Mare” of MIA of Republic of Moldova

Штефан Белекчиу, начальник кафедры полицейского права
и социо-гуманитарных наук, доктор права, доцент, подполковник полиции
Академии «Штефан чел Маре» МВД РМ
Юрий Ларий, начальник департамента
научных исследований,
доктор права, доцент, полковник полиции
Академии «Штефан чел Маре» МВД РМ

Abstract: The finality of the human resources management activity consists firstly in “doing the employees as the organization desires, and doing the organization as employees desire, thus the organization could achieve its goals”. As it is seen there is a major difference between what means human resources management which has the role to model peoples and their activity so that obtaining maximal performance and that means the specific activities to an office staff that has the role to count data about employees, clocking working hours, issue certificates and calculate salaries. A rigorous human resource management supposes efficacy.

Keywords: human resources, management, goals, tasks, activities, police border, criteria, policy, professional, skills, experience, law, police status, competition.

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Согласно Постановлению Правительства Республики Молдова № 1109 от 06.12.2010 г. об утверждении Концепции реформирования Министерства внутренних дел и его подведомственных и децентрализованных подразделений, систему подготовки кадров МВД (полицейских, карабинеров, офицеров уголовного преследования и других работников)¹ необходимо модернизировать с тем, чтобы она обеспечивала не только обучение традиционным техническим навыкам и умениям согласно критериям профессиональной деятельности. Данная система будет включать более широкий набор умений и навыков, таких как: коммуникабельность, завоевание и поддержание доверия, урегулирование конфликтов, развитие творческого подхода к решению проблем сообщества, управление действиями по решению проблем и сбору информации, применение предоставленных полномочий в рамках адекватных действий, информирование вышестоящего руководства и других заинтересованных лиц о вопросах, волнующих сообщество.

¹Постановление Правительства Nr. 1109 от 06.12.2010 об утверждении Концепции реформирования Министерства внутренних дел и его подведомственных и децентрализованных подразделений Опубликовано: 17.12.2010 в Monitorul Oficial Nr. 247-251 статья № : 1233

КАДРОВАЯ ПОЛИТИКА И РЕФОРМА ПОЛИЦИИ

Кадровая политика² в полиции осуществляется в строгом соответствии с этическими - нравственными и профессиональными критериями оценки³, распределения и продвижения по службе сотрудников. Кадровая политика органов внутренних дел является унитарным для всех подразделений полиции.

Концепция кадровой политики, во - первых относится к принципам и правилам, при которых заключаются, выполняются, изменяются или прекращаются трудовые отношения, права и обязанности сотрудников. Во - вторых термин кадровой политики означает обучение, набор, продвижение и совершенствование навыков сотрудников⁴.

Исходя из данных критериев кадровая политика органов внутренних дел ставит перед собой ряд целей, достигнув которых, полиция должна соответствовать требованиям данной концепции. Кадровая политика за последние годы претерпела серьезные изменения. Дефицит квалифицированной рабочей силы, способной работать в новых условиях, вызвал отказ от понимания работы с кадрами как только административной. Возникла необходимость более широкого учета мотивационных процессов. Формируется комплексное понимание кадровой политики как единства таких мероприятий:

- своевременное обеспечение органов полиции персоналом требуемого качества и необходимого количества;
- мотивация и стимулирование персонала;
- рациональное использование кадрового потенциала;
- формирование и поддержка эффективной работы трудового коллектива.
- профессиональное развитие полицейских;
- совершенствование организации и стимулирование труда.

НАБОР ПЕРСОНАЛА

Своевременное обеспечение органов полиции персоналом требуемого качества и необходимого количества

Цели и задачи реформы полиции должны сопровождаться с четко определенной кадровой политикой. При анализе ситуации, во многих странах в области принятия на службу, можно заметить, что некоторые из принципов провоцируют ряд обсуждений. Первый из этих принципов, который поднимает самые большие дискуссии о найме полицейских чиновников на руководящие должности сразу или вскоре после завершения обучения в учебных заведениях. Закрепился взгляд на объективность конкурсных экзаменов отражающие желание, чтобы выбрать государственных служащих из самых талантливых людей в каждой категории возраста.

Серьезные обсуждения имеются вокруг другого принципа, суть которого является в том, что сотрудникам полиции представляется работа на всю жизнь, за исключением случаев скандального поведения.

Третий принцип, который приводится часто в дискуссиях, является то, что слушатели были использованы для общих категорий, но не для определенных должностей или определенных направлений деятельности полиции. Как известно, существует множество категорий функций с их собственной структурой карьеры, с довольно жестким разделением между ними. Некоторые из них горизонтальные разделительные линии, такие как категория служащих, которые делятся на исполнителей и управленцев. Другие вертикального обозначения с отличительными категориями, такие как полицейские уголовного преследования, судебно-медицинские эксперты, оперативные сотрудники, участковые и т.д. Будучи назначенным в пределах одной категории, трудно акклиматизировать себя в другой категории, хотя это относительно легко быть переведенным в инспекторат или из одной местности в другую. Мы считаем, что эти ключевые принципы, были и продолжают быть основными в кадровой политике.

2 Кибанов А. Я., Основы управления персоналом, Учебник, Москва ИНФРА-М, 2007, ст 95; а также, Гамов И., Гаманджи А., Гарштя С., Managementul personalului, Chi:inău: Evrica 2004

3 Кодекса этики и деонтологии полицейского Постановление Правительства Республики Молдова N 481 от 10.05.2006 Мониторул Официал N 75-78/527 от 19.05.2006

4 Ibidem

Кадровая политика полиции должна быть разработана как в узком, так и в широком смысле. Рациональная кадровая политика также требует мер постепенных изменений. Именно постепенно, так, как принятие радикальных мер, что часто встречается в молдавской полиции, ведет к дестабилизации и текучести кадров, соответственно, недоверие служащих к полиции. Та, кадровая политика хороша, что обеспечивает относительную непрерывность, стабильность тех, кто работает в полиции.

Политическая и правовая суть этого сложного процесса отражается во многих положениях настоящей Конституции, также в Законе о полиции и статусе полицейского⁵, который направлен на организацию и функционирование полиции, как на центральном так и на местном уровнях. Мы надеемся, что на этой правовой базе будут созданы новые институты демократического правительства, характерные для современного общества, связаны во всей ее полноте, чтобы было верховенство права, основанного на разделении властей. Кадровая политика в полиции должна осуществляться в соответствии со следующими принципами :

- а) соблюдение стойких нравственных, этических и профессиональных критериев оценки , распределения и продвижения по службе,
- б) соответствие организации для всех уровней полиции;
- в) рациональность.

Политики и практики министерства, ведомственных подразделений подчиненные кадровому обеспечению более правильны, справедливы и понятны сотрудникам, если они развиваются планомерно, в письменной форме и предоставлены сотрудникам. Одним из первых и наиболее важных шагов в создании программы управления персоналом, на наш взгляд, может стать принятие нормативно-правовой базы сотрудников полиции, которая доведет до сведения полицейских с правилами кадровой политики. Желательно, чтобы в органах полиции преимущественным был принцип индивидуального подхода к сотрудникам. В самом деле, в каждом инспекторате полиции, полицейском участке, должны быть политики кадрового обеспечения. Кадровая политика, практики, правила и инструкции должны обеспечить полицейских, что все их назначения, продвижения по службе, заработная плата будут на основе принципа учета заслуг.

Принцип учёта заслуг предполагает преимущества благодаря личным навыкам сотрудника. Важно, чтобы каждый полицейский чувствовал себя в безопасности, что кадровая политика является справедливой, беспристрастной и последовательной. Для этого необходимо учитывать некоторые условия на различных этапах набора на работу в полицию. Так как этот набор представляет собой процесс интеграции, включения работника в государственный орган. Хороший набор в полицию является результатом взаимодействия многих факторов, помимо тех, которые относятся к преимуществам службы, зарплаты, стабильности работы, возможностям продвижения по карьерной лестнице, связь с обществом, реагирование на представленные предложения. Для выполнения работ по набору полицейских нужно иметь постоянную общую информацию обо всех сотрудниках, которые проявляют выдающиеся способности, добивающиеся очевидных успехов в своей работе. Другими словами, мы должны создать условия, чтобы их работа была оценена, сравнивая их показатели нагрузки с результатами коллектива в котором они работают. Это не просто, но необходимо, ибо только так можно исключить из отбора персонала эмоциональную оценку, мы можем избавиться от набора в полицию по принципу «наш человек», «удобный кандидат», который, к сожалению, в наше время очень распространен.

Качество органа полиции определяется методом отбора и продвижения кадров. Ни одна государственная политика не может быть выдвинута без выбора персонала и постоянной работы с ними. Отсюда огромная теоретическая, политическая и практическая значимость организационной деятельности работы руководящих органов, особенно тех, кто призван заниматься кадровой политикой. Хорошо известны недостатки, которые у нас есть, ошибки которые мы сегодня совершаем в этом отношении, и их серьезные последствия⁶.

⁵ Закон Республики Молдова 320/27.12.2012 Закон о деятельности полиции и статусе полицейского //Мониторул Официал 42-47/145, 01.03.2013

⁶ В этом смысле смотреть: Гамов И., Патрашкэ Д., Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009; Burloiu P., managementul resurselor umane, Bucureşti, Ed. Humanitas, 1998; Robert Mathis – “Managementul Resurselor Umane” – Editura Economica, 1997

Чтобы быть объективным, надо тщательно и компетентно изучать людей, способных выполнять полицейскую службу, работу, требующая хорошей профессиональной подготовки.

Набор персонала осуществляется после набора кандидатов и является решающим фактором в формировании объективного и эффективного полицейского коллектива. Казалось бы, что это хорошо известно и давно подтверждается практикой жизни, но не совсем так.

Искусство организационной работы определена многосторонними знаниями о служащих, их положительные качества и недостатки, чтобы проследить их рост, назначая людей так, чтобы каждый чувствовал себя на своём месте и, чтобы показать общую приверженность личных качеств. Жесткий отбор происходит в несколько этапов, постепенно уменьшая количество выбранных кандидатов, выбираем лучших, наиболее подходящих для этой вакансии. Очень важно, чтобы процесс отбора проводился на демократической основе, при соблюдении принципов прозрачности и законности⁷.

Основу любого органа внутренних дел составляют люди, но не любые, а подходящие к той функции, которая необходима для данной службы, для данного органа полиции. И насколько верно подобран персонал для задач и целей органа полиции, настолько успешно будет его функционирование и развитие. Именно в этом заключается различие между органами полиции. Известно, что наличие отличных специалистов — еще не успех органа полиции в целом. Необходимо подобрать специалистов таким образом, чтобы они составили творческий и работоспособный коллектив, отвечающий задачам и целям органа полиции на каждом этапе его развития. Орган полиции, который хочет быть передовым в своей области, не стоит на месте. Так же, как развивается полиция, происходит развитие и изменение требований к персоналу. Нет «вечных» сотрудников, есть сотрудники, которые подходят в большей степени к тому или иному состоянию органа полиции. С другой стороны, именно сотрудники могут привести орган полиции к определенному состоянию. Поэтому подбор, оценка и функционирование персонала — главная задача любого успешного органа полиции⁸.

ПЛАНИРОВАНИЕ ПЕРСОНАЛА

Прием на работу и отбор персонала являются составляющими более масштабного процесса. Однако эти этапы тоже процессы, состоящие из определенных шагов. Прежде чем осуществлять выбор кандидатов, необходимо решить, какие специалисты нужны, что, в свою очередь, зависит от понимания, какую работу они должны выполнять. Важную роль играет составление адекватных должностных инструкций и требований, предъявляемых к кандидату. В основе этих документов лежат потребности органа полиции и методы планирования персонала. Выбор нужного полицейского также зависит от наличия среди претендентов людей, удовлетворяющих предъявляемым требованиям, так что деятельность, связанная с поиском подходящих претендентов на рынке рабочей силы, также является важной частью всего процесса.

Планирование персонала призвано обеспечить долгосрочное выполнение задач органа полиции и в то же время не допустить переизбытка служащих. Поэтому целесообразно осуществлять планирование персонала одновременно с планированием каждого вида деятельности органа полиции. При этом устанавливается четкая связь между задачами структурных подразделений и задачами отдельных полицейских, ответственностью каждого полицейского за результат его личной деятельности и в то же время за общий результат⁹.

Планирование персонала включает в себя пять этапов:

Определение потребности организации в человеческих ресурсах.

Оценка имеющихся человеческих ресурсов.

⁷Manolescu Aurel – “Managementul Resurselor Umane” – Editura Economica, 2001- Deaconu Alexandrina – “Comportamentul Organizational Si Gestiunea Resurselor Umane” – Editura Ase, 2002

⁸ Chisu Viorica Ana – “Manualul specialistului în Resurse Umane” – Editura Irexon, 2002- Burlioiu Petre – “Managementul Resurselor Umane” – Editura Lumina Lex, 2001

⁹ Стратан Г. Н., Смирнов. А. Ю., Гудимов В. В., Подхватилин Н. В., Алешунас М. Р., Новые технологии управления персоналом, ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО «Речь», Санкт-Петербург, 2003, стр.15.

Выявление дефицита человеческих ресурсов.

Планирование мероприятий по удовлетворению потребностей организации в человеческих ресурсах.

Планирование контроля соответствия человеческих ресурсов удовлетворению потребностей организации.

Эффективная работа персонала, особенно управляющего, является необходимым условием успешной деятельности любого органа полиции. Подбор новых сотрудников на вакантные должности начинается с разработки комплекса требований к кандидату, включая профессиональные, личностные, медицинские и другие требования, которые формируются уже исходя из должностных обязанностей и описания рабочего места.

Система поиска, отбора и найма персонала характеризуется комплексным подходом к качеству человеческих ресурсов. Конечная цель реализации данной системы — максимальное совпадение ожиданий нового сотрудника и руководства. Мировая практика показывает, что даже в лучших фирмах они совпадают не более чем в 30 % случаев¹⁰.

Большое значение при наборе персонала является рациональная репрезентативность в органах полиции. Одна из основных проблем в продвижении является система оценки персонала.

При наборе в различных органах полиции, как на центральном, так и на местном уровнях, должно приниматься во внимание, пропорциональность к структуре населения страны, сотрудников полиции, из национальных меньшинств.

На практике часто наблюдается, что психологический акцент ставится в процессе пополнения вакантных должностей на людей «из других отраслей», пренебрегая собственными резервами, хотя более перспективно было бы не ориентация не к «привлечению» из вне, а воспитание собственных лидеров. Полицейский, выдвинутый от своего подразделения полиции, лучше знает коллектив, задачи и его возможности. Важно, что и коллектив хорошо знает его. Абсолютно естественно, что каждый из собственных кандидатов ожидает, и по праву ожидает быть предложенным на одну из доступных должностей.

Принятие кандидата на работу является очень важным моментом для органов, отвечающих за набор кадров, как и для работника. Для него этот период часто является стрессовым.

Согласно статьям 39 и 38 Закона о деятельности полиции и статусе полицейского¹¹, на службу в полицию может быть зачислен кандидат, имеющий гражданство Республики Молдова и место жительства на территории страны, который помимо установленных настоящим законом условий соответствует следующим специальным требованиям: имеющий образование соответственно предусмотренным должностной инструкцией требованиям и отвечающие связанным с трудоустройством требованиям законодательства. Прием в учебные заведения Министерства внутренних дел, а также зачисление на службу осуществляются на основе конкурса, проводимого согласно процедуре, установленной министром внутренних дел. Процедура конкурса не применяется к лицам, принимаемым на службу по переводу. К конкурсу для поступления в учебные заведения Министерства внутренних дел, а также к конкурсу для зачисления на службу допускается любое лицо независимо от расы, национальности, пола, вероисповедания, размера имущества или социального происхождения, отвечающее специальным требованиям, предусмотренным статьей 39 № 320 от 27.12.2012 Закон о деятельности полиции и статусе полицейского. Споры, связанные с проведением конкурса, разрешаются в соответствии с действующим законодательством.

Конкурс позволяет расширить круг выбора и набор на полицейские должности путём открытой и справедливой конкуренции кандидатов. Это подразумевает существование достаточного числа квалифицированных кандидатов. Метод конкурса является разновидностью выборности, но имеет ряд особенностей: например, обязательного официального объявления о предстоящем конкурсе, конкурсная комиссия формируется для оценки кандидатов, которые подали заявки, публикация списка кандидатов,

¹⁰ Idem 24

¹¹ Закон Республики Молдова 320/27.12.2012 Закон о деятельности полиции и статусе полицейского //Мониторул Офичиал 42-47/145, 01.03.2013

допускается возможность тестирования кандидатов и т.д. Право участвовать в конкурсе имеют все желающие, которые имеют специальную подготовку и опыт в сфере деятельности полиции. Решение о выборе кандидатов принималось после рассмотрения документов, представленных в конкурсную комиссию, а также на основе собеседования и тестирования кандидатов.

Согласно условиям конкурса (но не в тех случаях, когда он проводится неофициально), появляется возможность более тщательно изучить кандидатов, обеспечивая более объективные оценки. Тщательное и беспристрастное сравнение основных характеристик позволяют заявителям сделать выбор в пользу наиболее подготовленных, из них лучший в плане знаний и опыта в области полицейской деятельности, организационных возможностей, которые необходимы для полицейского. Хотя выгоды от заполнения вакантных должностей методом конкурса очевидны в практике отношении к нему остаётся безразличным. Система отбора в органы полиции на конкурсной основе только начинает набирать массовость, но становятся ощутимыми преимущества, вытекающие из компетентности набранных специалистов. Люди, которые сами решили стать сотрудниками полиции и прошедшие конкурс, как правило, отличаются высоким чувством ответственности.

Для поиска работника на конкретное рабочее место используют в первую очередь внутренние источники, и лишь затем внешние. Внешние источники существуют на рынке труда. Они позволяют найти кандидатов на вакансию вне организации, тогда как внутренние источники дают возможность совершать перемещения работников организации, связанных юридическими и психологическими контрактами с организацией, более или менее знакомых с внутренним миром организации. При относительно длительном стаже работы в организации сотрудники также являются носителями организационной культуры.

РАЦИОНАЛЬНОЕ ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ КАДРОВОГО ПОТЕНЦИАЛА

При управлении персоналом органов полиции важно учитывать, что процесс социализации непосредственно связан с профориентацией и трудовой адаптацией полицейского к социальной среде органа внутренних дел, вхождением его в ту или иную социальную группу, ролевую структуру коллектива органа полиции.

Социальная структура коллектива включает следующие показатели: пол, возраст, стаж работы, образование, социальное положение, национальность, семейное положение, вид мотивации, уровень прогрессивности, уровень жизни, отношение к собственности¹².

Ролевая структура коллектива определяет состав и распределение творческих, коммуникационных и поведенческих ролей между отдельными служащими и является важным инструментом в системе работы с персоналом. Творческие роли свойственны энтузиастам, изобретателям и организаторам и характеризуют активную позицию в решении проблемных ситуаций, поиске альтернативных решений и вариативности мышления. Коммуникационные роли определяют содержание и уровень участия в информационном процессе, взаимодействие в обмене информацией в процессе принятия решений. Поведенческие роли характеризуют типовые модели поведения людей на производстве, и быту, на отдыхе, в работе, в конфликтных ситуациях и играют важную роль в коллективе.

Конечно, каждому человеку приходится исполнять в той или иной степени все три вида ролей, и можно говорить лишь о степени проявления его личности в творческой, коммуникационной и поведенческой роли. Поведение человека имеет разнонаправленные тенденции как к лучшему, так и к худшему и зависит от внешней среды. Основными методами для определения ролевой структуры являются социально-психологические методы, тестирование, наблюдение, анализ биографических и кадровых данных, материалы аттестации персонала, результаты проведения деловых игр¹³.

¹² использованы материалы из книг: Жуплев А.В. Эффект горизонта. — М.: Московский рабочий, 1989. С. 155—157; Егоршин А.П. Управление персоналом. — Н. Новгород: НИИМБ, 2001. С. 259-263

¹³ Кибанов А. Я., Основы управления персоналом, Учебник, Москва ИНФРА-М, 2007, ст.201.

ФОРМИРОВАНИЕ И ПОДДЕРЖКА ЭФФЕКТИВНОЙ РАБОТЫ ТРУДОВОГО КОЛЛЕКТИВА¹⁴

Процесс создания трудового коллектива полицейских представляет собой последовательную смену действий руководителей высшего и среднего звена, направленных на формирование персонала полиции.

Процесс создания трудового коллектива состоит из следующих этапов:

- 1 Установка конкретных целей
- 2 Сложения графика работ
- 3 Согласование различных видов работ (проведение эксперимента)
- 4 Организационная работа по распределению полномочий
- 5 Обсуждение проблем, проведение дискуссий¹⁵
- 6 Анализ хода и результатов работы
- 7 Обеспечение обратной связи

Для успешного создания трудового коллектива необходимо обеспечить следующие условия:

- все члены коллектива должны четко представлять себе цели совместной работы;
- умение каждого человека известны руководителю и другим работникам (согласно этому распределены функции);
- организационное построение коллектива должна соответствовать задачам, стоящим перед ним;
- в коллективе анализируют методы работы и пытаются их совершенствовать;
- развитая самодисциплина, позволяющая хорошо использовать время и ресурсы;
- коллектив поддерживает своих членов и создает тесные взаимоотношения;
- отношения в коллективе являются открытыми

Для создания эффективного трудового коллектива его руководитель должен отвечать следующим требованиям:

- наличие навыков руководства;
- последовательность;
- умение по правильному подбору работников;
- забота о членах коллектива;
- способности к созданию благоприятного морально-психологического климата;
- поддержка личного развития работников, поощрения их творческого потенциала;
- умение рационально использовать рабочее время;
- высокие требования к работникам;
- стремление к обратной связи

Навыки руководителя по формированию трудового коллектива особенно важны в случаях, когда нужно объединить вместе большое количество людей и научить их эффективно работать на общую цель.

ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЕ РАЗВИТИЕ ПОЛИЦЕЙСКИХ

Теперь, на пороге третьего тысячелетия, существенно увеличились общие требования к менеджерам государственных органов, в том числе и полиции. Руководитель органа полиции должен обладать рядом профессиональных и организационных качеств, чтобы быть архитектором социальных процессов, которые формируют культуру полиции, её профессионализм и т.д. Руководитель органа полиции может считаться хорошим, если он держит в своём обзоре не только решение текущих вопросов, но и о будущие аспекты¹⁶.

Было время, когда условия позволяли формирование главы полицейского управления путём самосовершенствования, практического применения опыта, накопленного путем проб и ошибок. Многие из них, обладающие исключительными навыками, остроумием, проницательностью постепенно становились руководителями органов полиции. Сейчас

¹⁴ Балабанов Л. В., Сардак О.В., Управління персоналом, а также интернет ресурсы от 27.01.2014, <http://www.webarhimed.ru/page-146.html>, <http://bibliofond.ru/view.aspx?id=90922>

¹⁵ Orlov M., Beleciciu Șt., Drept administrativ, Chișinău 2005, ст.210

¹⁶ Смотреть Травин В. В., Дятлов В. А., Основы кадрового менеджмента, Москва, Издательство «Дело», 1997.

ситуация в отношении сотрудников полиции и их руководителей во многом изменилась. Со всем этим, однако, сравнительно недавно нас начала терзать серьезная озабоченность, как удалить одну абсурдность, которая состоит в том, что в отличие от других органов власти, руководители многих органов полиции не всегда имеют профессиональное образование.

В литературе и на практике можно встретить различные виды интерпретаций смысла этих тезисов. Некоторые считают, что полицейский должен обладать техническими и экономическими знаниями, другие выступают за организационные навыки. Мы считаем, что в нынешних условиях следует рассматривать иначе, роль, сущность и значение работы руководителя в полиции.

На первый план должна быть выведена компетентность в управлении, профессионализм в базовых направлениях деятельности. Если лидер обладает этими качествами, он будет проявлять инициативу, предпринимательский дух, творческое мышление, решение принимать рациональные риски, способность моделировать требуемую ситуацию. Остается явным, что специальное образование и профессиональная подготовка, являются первостепенными условиями в назначение на исполнительные и руководящие должности в полиции. Это качество формируется в базовой подготовке, а затем и во время совершенствования и переподготовки.

Каждый руководитель на основе своего опыта может убедиться, что для эффективной деятельности, он нуждается в постоянном обучении и подготовке. Эти императивы времени, определяют обязательное и непрерывное ознакомление высшего руководства со всеми новостями, предоставленные наукой и практикой, то есть их последипломное обучение, которое в нынешних условиях борьбы с преступностью по-прежнему должны превращаться в постоянное базовое образование. Выражаясь мудростью народа, обозначаемая и в поговорке: «Человек учится, сколько он живет». Полицейская служба и непрерывное обучение - взаимосвязанные условия¹⁷.

МОТИВАЦИЯ И СТИМУЛИРОВАНИЕ ПЕРСОНАЛА

Вопросы мотивации издревле интересовали тех, кто задумывался над проблемой организации труда других людей для получения нужного результата. Выражение «метод кнута и пряника» известно с библейских времен. Уже тогда управляющие большими массами людей знали, что можно использовать отрицательные и положительные мотиваторы, а еще лучше — их эффективное сочетание¹⁸.

Современные исследования, проведенные в странах с развитой экономикой, показали, что при эффективной организации работы сотрудников акцент смещается на использование положительных мотиваторов.

Однако этот эффект был известен и в древности, ведь на сегодняшний день специалисты-египтологи уверяют, что крупнейшие пирамиды были созданы не «из-под палки», а на основе добровольного желания жителей Древнего Египта.

Между тем мотивация персонала в любом обществе и экономической системе носит сущностный характер и в значительной степени определяет развитие экономики в обществе и уровень его благосостояния.

Вся деятельность человека обусловлена реально существующими потребностями. Мотивированная деятельность — это направленные на достижение целей действия человека, обусловленные внутренними побуждениями.

Таким образом, под мотивацией труда мы подразумеваем то, что обуславливает стремление работника удовлетворить потребности (получить определенные блага) посредством трудовой деятельности. В структуру мотива труда входят: потребность, которую хочет удовлетворить работник; блага, способное удовлетворить эту потребность; трудовое действие, необходимое для получения блага; цена — издержки материального и морального характера, связанные с осуществлением трудового действия¹⁹.

¹⁷ Смотреть Гамов И., Патрашку Д., Управление человеческими ресурсами, Кишинэу, 2009, ст.99 и следующие.

¹⁸ Стратан Г. Н., Смирнов. А. Ю., Гудимов В. В., Подхвятилин Н. В., Алешунас М. Р., Новые технологии управления персоналом, ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО «Речь», Санкт-Петербург, 2003, стр.109

¹⁹ Abrudan, Denisa Motivarea, evaluarea performanțelor și recompensarea resurselor umane, Timișoara, Editura Solne ss, 2007, ст 67.

Мотивы труда формируются²⁰, если;
 в распоряжении общества (или субъекта управления) имеется необходимый набор благ, соответствующий социально обусловленным потребностям человека;
 для получения благ необходимы личные трудовые усилия работника;
 трудовая деятельность позволяет работнику получить блага с меньшими материальными и моральными издержками, чем любые другие виды деятельности.

Большое значение для формирования мотивов труда имеет оценка достижимости целей. Если получение искомого блага не требует особых усилий либо это благо очень трудно получить, то есть требуются сверхусилия, то мотив труда чаще всего не формируется. И в том и в другом случае работник пассивен. При частом повторении таких ситуаций появляется так называемый феномен выученной беспомощности, исключающий трудовую активность²¹.

Мотив труда формируется только в том случае, когда трудовая деятельность является если не единственным, то основным условием получения блага. Если же критерием в распределительных отношениях служат статусные различия (должность, квалификационные разряды, степени, звания и т. п.), стаж работы, принадлежность к определенной социальной группе (ветеран, инвалид, участник войны, мать-одиночка и др.), то формируются мотивы служебного продвижения, получения разряда, степени или звания, закрепления за рабочим местом и т. д., которые не обязательно предполагают трудовую активность работника, так как могут достигаться при помощи других видов деятельности.

Мотивация труда — важнейший фактор результативности работы. Более того, низкомотивированный работник обходится обществу очень дорого. Он малопродуктивен, воспроизводит неразвито социально работника, невосприимчивого к возможности зарабатывать больше путем роста производительности труда, убивает инициативу.

Очевидно, что результаты труда зависят от природных способностей и приобретенных навыков, но именно мотивация — источник трудовой деятельности личности.

Основной принцип мотивации гласит, что человек лучше всего мотивируется в поле своих ценностных установок и норм. С позиций концепции организационной культуры можно сказать, что наиболее грамотная последовательность действий — выяснение ценностей, присущих группе, и разработка шкалы мотиваций на основе полученных данных. Поощряя или наказывая членов группы в рамках этих ценностей, мы достигаем максимального эффекта²².

В целом же научные исследования и практика позволили выработать следующие правила мотивации, соблюдение которых дает возможность повысить эффективность мотивационных мероприятий.

— Похвала эффективнее порицания и неконструктивной критики.

Поощрение должно быть осязаемым и желательно незамедлительным (минимизация разрыва между результатом труда и его поощрением).

Непредсказуемые и нерегулярные поощрения мотивируют больше, чем ожидаемые и прогнозируемые.

Постоянное внимание к работнику и членам его семьи — важнейший мотиватор.

Людям нравятся победы, поэтому чаще давайте людям чувствовать себя победителями.

Поощряйте за достижение не только основной цели, но и промежуточных.

Дайте работникам чувство свободы действия, возможность контролировать ситуацию.

Не ущемляйте самоуважение других, предоставляйте им возможность «сохранить лицо».

Большие и редко кому достающиеся награды обычно вызывают зависть, небольшие и частые — удовлетворяют большинство.

При любой попытке повысить производительность и результативность, решающую роль играет «человеческий фактор» (коммуникации, сотрудничество, координация, участие, приверженность делу).

20 Abrudan, Denisa Motivarea, evaluarea performanțelor și recompensarea resurselor umane, Timișoara, Editura Solness, 2007, ст. 67.

21 Ibidem; Кибанов А. Я., Основы управления персоналом, Учебник, Москва ИНФРА-М, 2007, ст. 337

22 Стратан Г. Н., Смирнов. А. Ю., Гудимов В. В., Подхватилин Н. В., Алешунас М. Р., Новые технологии управления персоналом, ИЗДАТЕЛЬСТВО «Речь», Санкт-Петербург, 2003, стр. 109

Важность понимания вопросов мотивации обусловлена тем, что человеческое поведение — это тот фактор, который сдерживает действенное применение других мер повышения результативности²³.

Инструментом, который направлен на стимулирование полицейских является продвижение, отношение, с целью повышения эффективности его работы - это награда за усилия, преданность и понятие той роли, которую он несёт в полицейской службе.

ПРОДВИЖЕНИЕ ПО ПОЛИЦЕЙСКОЙ СЛУЖБЕ

Продвижение по полицейской службе представляет собой назначение полицейского на другую должность с другим организационно-правовым статусом должности. Таким образом, полицейский назначается на другую должность с более высоким денежным содержанием без изменения должностного наименования, т.е. в рамках одной категории органов полиции.

Это в основном два способа продвижения:

Продвижение по иерархической служебной лестнице. Эта продвижение на вакантную должность служащего, работающего в той же административной единице, и осуществляется с учетом возраста и стажа, компетентности и уровня профессиональной квалификации. Такое продвижение имеет свои преимущества и недостатки. Преимущество - это принимать во внимание опыт полицейского в течение многих лет работы в этой области, его авторитетность и вклад в улучшение состояния дел в данном секторе. Недостатком - абсолютизация роли опыта, а это означает, что со временем преимущества служащего увеличиваются, факт который вызывает напряжение и недовольство в коллективе особенно среди молодежи.

Есть два критерия для продвижения: Первый основан на конкретных положениях, на основе которых набирается персонал, избегая конфликтных ситуаций.

Второй - продвижение, устанавливает в надлежащий план служащих, имеющих базовую и социальную подготовку, необходимость непрерывного обучения для потенциального роста своих служащих. Среди методов набора кадров следует отметить, набор на конкурсной основе. Из методов организации конкурса можно выделить конкурс личных дел - состоит из проверки комиссией, учрежденной для работы с кандидатами. Другой метод заключается в организации экзаменов для проверки знаний и навыков кандидатов.

В заключение хотел бы отметить, что только с учетом целей и задач кадровой политики в зачислении и продвижении сотрудников полиции по карьерной лестнице формируется воспитанный профессиональный корпус полицейских уважаемых гражданским обществом.

ИСПОЛЬЗОВАННАЯ ЛИТЕРАТУРА

1. Abrudan, Denisa Motivarea, evaluarea performanțelor și recompensarea resurselor umane, Timișoara, Editura Solne ss, 2007
2. Burloiu P., Managementul resurselor umane, București, Ed. Humanitas, 1998
3. Burloiu Petre – “Managementul Resurselor Umane” – Editura Lumina Lex, 2001
4. Chișu Viorica Ana – “Manualul specialistului în Resurse Umane” – Editura Irexon, 2002
5. Deaconu Alexandrina – “Comportamentul Organizational Si Gestiunea Resurselor Umane” – Editura Ase, 2002
6. Manolescu Aurel – “Managementul Resurselor Umane” – Editura Economica, 2001
7. Orlov M., Belecciu Șt., Drept administrativ, Chișinău 2005
8. Robert Mathis – “Managementul Resurselor Umane” – Editura Economica, 1997
9. Алешунас М. Р., Новые технологии управления персоналом, ИЗДАТЕЛЬС-ТВО «Речь», Санкт-Петербург, 2003

23 Idem 116.

10. Балабанов Л. В., Сардак О.В., Управління персоналом, а также интернет ресурсы от 27.01.2014 <http://www.webarhimed.ru/page-146.html>, <http://bibliofond.ru/view.aspx?id=90922>
11. Гамов И., Гаманджи А., Гарштя С., Managementul personalului, Chi;inău: Evrica 2004
12. Егоршин А.П. Управление персоналом. — Н. Новгород: НИИМБ, 2001. С. 259-263
13. Жуплев А.В. Эффект горизонта. — М.: Московский рабочий, 1989
14. Закон Республики Молдова 320/27.12.2012 Закон о деятельности полиции и статусе полицейского //Мониторул Официал 42-47/145, 01.03.2013
15. Кибанов А. Я., Основы управления персоналом, Учебник, Москва ИНФРА-М, 2007
16. Кодекса этики и деонтологии полицейского Постановление Правительства Республики Молдова N 481 от 10.05.2006 Мониторул Официал N 75-78/527 от 19.05.2006
17. Постановление Правительства Nr. 1109 от 06.12.2010 об утверждении Концепции реформирования Министерства внутренних дел и его подведомственных и десконцентрированных подразделений Опубликован: 17.12.2010 в Monitorul Oficial Nr. 247-251 статья № : 1233
18. Стратан Г. Н., Смирнов. А. Ю., Гудимов В. В., Подхватилин Н. В.
19. Травин В. В., Дятлов В. А., Основы кадрового менеджмента, Москва, Издательство «Дело», 1997

THE PROCESS OF SELECTION IN POLICE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Assistant Professor **Nikola Dujovski**, PhD
Faculty of Security, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Abstract: Human Resource management is a process of crucial meaning for all institutions and companies. Police is one of the most important organizations within the state; it provides for security, protection of citizens, prevention and detection of crime, finding and apprehending the perpetrators of crimes, maintenance of public order, road traffic safety, etc. The activities taken by the police officers are closely related to the conventions of Human rights and freedoms; this implies that in order to become a police officer, one must be well trained and prepared for the Police job. The process of selection is the first step to be taken when employing new officers. It is a complex process including various methods and procedures that will bring to selection of the best candidates.

This paper will point out the best practices of selection in Police and give new approaches and possibilities of how to promote the process into more successful and useful.

Keywords: Police, Management, Selection.

INTRODUCTION

The process of selection, as one of the functions of the human resource management, can be observed as a process of admission of candidates who meet the requirements and standards, a process of rejecting the applications for employment of those candidates who do not meet the projected criteria, or as a combination of both mentioned possibilities.¹ Selection is considered as one of the most important processes in the work of the security establishments, and its meaning is based on the fact that all of the remaining works and activities in the organization and the system of human resource management depend to a great extent on the quality of the selected people. Their competence and will for working in the security services facilitate the training process through which all selected candidates must pass.

The process of selection must be appropriately planned and previously established to choose the possible number of candidates. The filters, i.e. the mechanisms for selection must meet the requirements of the service in finding out the most suitable candidates. Inadequate selection cannot be compensated even with the best training programmes, because when the selected candidates do not possess elementary knowledge of the work in this service or simply lack the necessary amount of motivation for working in this service, they cannot acquire the training in the proper way.

The purpose of our paper is to present the process of selection of candidates for police officers in the Republic of Macedonia and to give directions and suggestions of how to improve this process into more successful and more useful for both the candidates and the Police. Based on scientific acquisitions, we can bring useful conclusions about the development of the selection in the Police in the Republic of Macedonia and the broader region. A well-conceptualized process, meeting the requirements of the service and protected from external influence, can lead to successful selection of the highest-quality candidates; such candidates will later be able to meet all challenges of the police profession.

THE PROCESS OF SELECTION

Selection begins immediately after the submission of the required documentation; the first step is to control whether the candidate submitted all documents stated in the competition. The persons whose documentation is incomplete or do not possess the required qualifications are not

¹ <http://www.scribd.com/doc/2587050/SELECTION-PROCESS-AS-HUMAN-RESOURCE-FUNCTION>, presented on 5th January 2009;

considered as applicants and their cases are not reviewed at all.² Required qualifications imply to necessary or recommended education and experience, as well as knowledge, competences and skills stated in the description of the work position. The selected applicant must possess the qualifications needed for the work position for which he or she is selected. In this sense, the process of selection is understood as a process in which the qualifications possessed by each candidate are compared to the required qualifications for each work position. This process points out the most competent candidates and provides for precise selection.³

The main idea in the process of selection is to gather all possible information about the candidates in order to check their compatibility for employment. Several factors influence this process⁴:

Firstly, the different steps to be undertaken depend on the level of the personnel to be selected. For instance, a lot more information is required for persons who compete for higher-level supervisory positions than for persons who compete for basic police training. Persons competing for the higher-level positions must meet criteria related to education (at least an academic degree of undergraduate studies of the appropriate education) whereas persons competing for the basic levels of personnel are required only a four-year secondary education.

Secondly, the process of selection depends on the models of recruiting and the methods of contact and communication with the potential candidates. For instance, the process of selection for employment in the Police is usually a long process, sometimes lasting for several months, while employing processes for less characteristic work positions can be completed in the same day.

Thirdly, the process of selection also depends on the number of applicants. If the number of applicants exceeds the number of available work positions, various filters must be provided; these filters are to enable the candidates to present their own qualities and persuade the employer that they are the best choice. When the number of candidates does not exceed the available positions, the filters for selection will not be numerous as well.⁵

Fourthly, the policy of selection set by the organization also has its influence on the process. For instance, the policy of selection of candidates for employment in the Police surely includes psycho-physical tests and medical examinations, whereas the policy for employment in other security institutions can include only a face-to-face interview of the candidate.

Selection is conducted through several steps or phases. In each phase, useful information on the candidates is acquired; such information can lead to refusal of the application for employment. In the process of selection, the candidate goes through several obstacles which were designed to locate the unqualified applicants and eliminate them in any phase of the selection⁶. The phases of the selection depend on the work position for which the candidate is selected. If the selection is performed on operational or lower managerial position where authorizations and responsibilities are limited, the process is simpler and shorter. When employment on a high managerial position with extended authorizations and responsibilities is conducted, then the selection is performed through several phases and sometimes it can take a longer period of time.

For instance, in the Republic of Macedonia the process of selection in the public sector differs from the one applied in the private enterprises and companies. For government employees, the competitions and the whole process of employment is led by the Agency for Government Employees⁷; here, a developed system of selection applicable to all state or government services is implemented. The Ministry of Interior has developed its own system for selection of candidates which is to a great extent compatible with the systems of selection applied by the police services of the member states of EU. The system of selection of candidates of the Army of the Republic of Macedonia is completely compatible to the standards of NATO and it is operational

² Armstrong, 2006: 118;

³ Ibid;

⁴ Ibid: 122;

⁵In the practice for employment of candidates on work positions in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Macedonia, it is frequently the case that the number of applicants is several times bigger than the number stated in the competition. In such cases, psycho-physical testing of the candidates are conducted, each of them is summoned for an interview, and several other measures and activities are undertaken in order to come to selection of the most suitable candidates;

⁶ Ibid;

⁷http://www.ads.gov.mk/WBStorage/Files/Recruitment_Procedure_ReSPA_Director.pdf, presented on 6th January 2014;

and applicable for all work positions in the army. The other security services have also got their own systems of selection in accordance to their needs.

In contrast to the complex process of selection applied in the public sector, in the private sector this process is simpler and shorter but it gives enough space to choose the most suitable candidates. The requirements are mostly directed towards appropriate education, knowledge of foreign languages (especially when it comes to enterprises with foreign capital, knowledge of the language of the country from where the enterprise comes is definitely needed), communicativeness, preparedness for team work, etc.

The main purpose of the process of selection is to provide for employment of candidates who will prove to have the best chance for success in their work in the security services. The plan which contains the biggest number of filters or obstacles for the candidates is the best strategy for selection. The selection of the best candidates is a challenge of every establishment; each case is characteristic and routine in the selection must be avoided. Nevertheless, the basic postulates which are important for the employers are: the selected candidate must be “desirous” of success and be capable of taking responsibilities when it is needed. He or she must be capable to think “on his / her own”, to learn to cope with the stress accompanying the complex security tasks, to be successful team player and to be completely dedicated to his / her work.⁸

THE PROCESS OF SELECTION IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

In the Republic of Macedonia the process of selection for employment in the Ministry of Interior, i.e. in the Police, is regulated by the Law of Internal Affairs⁹ (Article 50 from the Law), by the Rulebook on the model and procedure of the system of career of the authorized officials in the Ministry of Internal Affairs¹⁰ and the Rulebook on the procedure and model of working of the Commission for selection of candidates for police officers.¹¹

In the Law of Internal Affairs it is provided that on the position of police officer, the work relation in the Ministry of interior is based only on the grounds of public announcing. The selection of the candidates for police officers is conducted on the grounds of the procedures for selection from the persons who had applied on the competition. The selected candidates are taken through basic training for police officers in the Training Centre of the Ministry of Interior. The contract for employing on work position of police officer is offered to candidates who successfully complete the basic training for police officers and on the ground of the achieved results, the candidates are put on the ranking list prepared by the Training Centre.

In the Rulebook on the model and procedure of the system of career of the authorized officials in the Ministry of Internal Affairs the question of selection of the candidates for police officers is not elaborated at all, and the only provision referring to this issue points out to the Law of Internal Affairs and the other bylaws brought in accordance with the Law of Internal Affairs. Important questions such as this selection must be given bigger space in this bylaw because the first postulate of the system of career in the Ministry of Internal Affairs is the appropriate selection of candidates establishing work relations in the Ministry of Interior for the first time.

The Rulebook on the procedure and model of working of the Commission for selection of candidates for police officers is an adequate bylaw which sets the work of the Commission for selection in details. The provisions referring to the selection cover all the activities of the Commission (from preparation of the announcement of the competition to signing of the contract for employment). Thus, they regulate:

- The content of the public competition;
- The application of the candidate;
- The activities of the commission;
- The procedure of selection;
- The selection of the candidates;

⁸ Armstrong, 2006: 144;

⁹ Government Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia No 92 from 24th July 2009;

¹⁰ Government Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia No 122 from 7th October 2009;

¹¹ Government Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia No 128 from 22nd October 2009;

In the public competition, besides the general conditions provided by the law, it is also included a note that each candidate voluntarily accesses the process of selection without the right of compensation on the part of the Ministry in cases of injury within the check-ups. It is also included a note that the training is attended by a number of candidates in 10 % bigger than the number of open work positions. Contract for employment will be offered only to the candidates who will complete the training successfully and they are ranked according to the results achieved in the training.

The application contains the required information on the candidate, who must possess citizenship of the Republic of Macedonia, is less than 25 years of age and has completed at least a four-year secondary education.

On the grounds of the applications, the Commission for selection of the candidates for police officers conducts the procedure of selection. Furthermore, the Commission has the following responsibilities:

- it coordinates the work of all relevant actors taking part in the process of selection of the candidates;
- sets the time and the place for conduction of each phase of the procedure and promptly gives the necessary information to the applicants;
- establishes the ranking list of the candidates for police officers;
- prepares the records of the conducted procedure;
- responds to complaints of the applicants related to the procedure of selection;

The Commission submits the prepared ranking list and the records of the conducted procedure to the Minister of Internal Affairs.

The procedure of selection is conducted through the following phases:
administrative check of the submitted documentation;
written testing;
check of the motor capabilities;
interview; and
medical examinations;

Scoring of the candidates is performed in each phase of the process of selection, except in the phase of administrative checking of the submitted documentation and the medical examinations.

In the first phase of the process - the administrative check of the submitted documentation, the promptness of the application and the completeness of the submitted documentation is checked, as well as the compatibility to the conditions stated in the competition.

The written testing is the second part of the procedure and it is offered only to the persons who passed the administrative check. The testing generally includes: writing an essay, testing of the general education, and psychological testing. Scoring is done anonymously for each separate testing, and then the Commission announces the scoring, i.e. the achieved results for every person separately.

The checking of the motor capabilities is the third part of the procedure and includes:
for men – 60 abdominal exercises, 55 pushups, 10 chin-upson the horizontal barand running of 3200 meters in time of up to 13 minutes and 30 seconds.
for women – 60 abdominal exercises, 27 pushupsand running of 3200 meters in time of up to 16 minutes and 30 seconds.

The interview is conducted individually with every applicant, by the Commission or experts appointed by the Commission. In cases when two or more persons have the same number of points, they are summoned by the Commission for additional interviewing.

The medical examinations are the last phase of the process of selection for employment in the Macedonian police. These examinations are performed by Health Commission formed on the part of the Minister of Internal Affairs, in accordance to the regulations for medical and psycho-physical competencies which must be possessed by the person who is to establish work

relation in the Police. A number of applicants bigger for 10% than the number of open positions in the competition are summoned to medical examinations. It is certain that all candidates must be in a good health state; man must be at least 175 centimetres tall and women must be at least 165 centimetres tall.

Comments on the provisions of these laws and bylaws as well as of the whole procedure of selection will be elaborated through the practical example from the last conducted competition for employment of candidates for police officers which took place from 7th October 2013 to 10th January 2014.

The public competition on 440 open work positions for police officers was announced in the daily press in the Republic of Macedonia. The general conditions provided by the competition are according to the Law of Internal Affairs and the bylaws concerning this area, which we have already mentioned.

Year	Applicants	Summoned for check-up of motor capabilities	Summoned for written testing	Summoned for interview	Summoned for medical examinations	Summoned for signing Contract of employment
2013	5312	4887	1217	1083	482	440
2012	7258	6520	1775	1312	362	330 ¹

Table 1. Information related to the competition for employment of police officers in 2013 and 2012¹²

Table 1 presents the numbers of applicants on the public competition for employing police officers, as well as the number of summoned applicants in the phases of selection. According to the number of applicants, we can say that the interest for employment in the police service is extremely big; there were 12 applicants for one open position. The check of the documentation and the promptness of the application showed that 4887 applicant out of 5312 met the requirements, while 425 did not. Expressed in percentage, this phase of the process of selection was passed by 92% of the applicants. After the administrative check - physical testing, i.e. check of the motor capabilities was carried out.¹³ This phase was successfully passed by 1217 applicants out of the number of 4887, i.e. 25%. All applicants who passed the check of motor capabilities were summoned for written testing. For the purpose of consistency of the process as well as prevention from certain subjective or external influence, the written testing was conducted in one day. 1083 candidates, i.e. 89% were summoned for the interview. After interviewing each candidate individually, for medical examinations were summoned a total number of 482 candidates; this is consistent to the Rulebook where it is provided that medical examination will be carried out on 10% more candidates than the needed number. 440 of them were offered to sign Contracts of employment and these Contracts were signed on 10th January 2014.

Every separate phase of the process of selection deserves special attention and we can give useful suggestions how to make this process better and more successful, i.e. how to select the best possible candidates. Compared to other countries from the region and abroad, the general impression is that in the Republic of Macedonia the new parameters are present, and according to the phases of check, those parameters are sufficient for selection of the best candidates out of many.

1. The first phase of the process is administrative and it is formal and carried out without special checks of the applicants for police officers. The check refers to the promptness of the ap-

¹² Internal records of the Ministry of Interior;

¹³ Even though according to the Rulebook for procedure and model of working of the Commission for selection of candidates for police officers the second phase in the process of selection is the written testing, the experience of the previous competition conducted in 2011 shows that the greatest number of the applicants do not achieve the needed results of the motor capabilities and out of rational reasons, this phase is conducted before the phase of written examination.

plication and the completeness of the documents. In this phase are rejected the candidates who have already completed 25 years of age or whose applications lack one or more of the required documents.

The main premise posed here is the limitation of persons older than 25 years of age. Or the additional question here is “what is the difference between a person younger than 25 from a candidate at the age of 26?” The experience from other countries is that persons at the age of 40 or more can also apply for such work positions, i.e. there is not discrimination on the grounds of age. For instance, in Sweden the age of the candidate is related only to the number of years which the officer has to spend working in the police service, i.e. eleven years. Taking into consideration the fact that police officers acquire the right on pension with completed 65 years of age, it would mean that the candidate cannot be older than 54 years.¹⁴ There, people at the age from 21 to 50 meet in the same classroom. In USA the applicants for police officers cannot be younger than 21 or older than 44. Similar to Sweden, police officers in the USA have to spend at least 21 years in the police service, and the right to pension is acquired with 65 years of age.¹⁵ In Germany, candidates cannot be younger than 21 or older than 45. In Cyprus, candidates for police officers cannot be older than 40.

Hence arises that the Republic of Macedonia chose quite a restrictive approach when it comes to the age of the applicants. With this the access of persons older than 25 is limited, even though they can be quite competent and prepared to go through the training and serve the country equally well as the candidates who did not complete 25 years of age. On the other hand, the lower limit is the age of becoming adult which is too low, especially taking into consideration the fact that serving the army was abolished long ago. Here the maturity of the candidate can be questionable, especially when it comes to carrying and using fire weapons or other coercion means only after training of one year. Hence, changes related to the lower limit of age must be made, and the age of at least 21 should be set instead, while the upper limit can be defined according to other regulations in the state.¹⁶ Certainly, in case of changing the limits of the age of the candidates, the other parameters referring the check of the motor capabilities, medical examinations, etc, must be additionally changed.

In the phase of administrative check, the significant security check characteristic for many other states is lacking. In the USA for instance, the candidates must have clear records, i.e. they cannot be previously trialed. If it comes to smaller violations which took place at least five years before the application, such candidates can be taken into consideration. In Germany candidates must have clear records for any period of their lives. This part was also paid great attention in the Republic of Macedonia two decades ago. Unfortunately, the last several competitions for employment of police officers did not take into consideration the past behaviour of the candidates for police officers in the society.

2. The written examination is a phase of the selection which is compulsory in almost every country in the world. In the Republic of Serbia, the candidates sit for examination of language, culture, and spelling competence.¹⁷ In the USA the candidates must possess appropriate knowledge of English. In Germany, all candidates must achieve appropriate results on a written and oral examination of their knowledge of German.

In the Republic of Macedonia, three aspects of testing have been applied. The essay is written on the subjects related to police and police activities. The aim is to check the knowledge of Macedonian language and its Cyrillic letter as well as the attitudes of the candidates referring Police. Their previous knowledge about the police work is estimated by professionals who estimate the anonymous tests. The testing of general knowledge implies simple questions related to the social and political life of the country, as well as some questions of elementary culture related to knowledge of some basic issues from the everyday living. The psychological test is similar to the test of intelligence which has the goal to show the psychological strength, i.e. the intelligence of the candidate. Further on, the aim of the psychological test is to estimate whether the candidate is aggressive or passive in relation to questions about police procedures.

¹⁴<http://www.polisforbundet.se/in-english/>, accessed on 27th December 2013;

¹⁵ <http://retirement.futureyears.com/retirement-age/police-retirement-age.html>, accessed on 27th December 2013;

¹⁶ Law on work relations, Law on pension and disability insurance, Law on Police, and other laws;

¹⁷ More on <http://www.copo.edu.rs/162-1-1>, accessed on 27th December 2013;

This phase of the process is well conceptualized and contains appropriate aspects of psychological checks, the awareness and the personal intelligence of the candidate.

3. The check of the motor capabilities is a phase existent in most of the countries in the world. Republic of Macedonia has committed to several simple steps which aim to establish the physical strength and resistance of the candidates. The parameters and the disciplines were already mentioned in the paper. Nevertheless, these checks, beside the motor strength and resistance, do not leave enough space for estimation of their competence for rational utilization of the weapons or force. Policemen almost never run "long distance", but it is mainly about fast and explosive running of several meters. Hence, it is more useful to estimate the speed of running short distances. Further, in their everyday work police officers meet many physical obstacles. Here, it could be useful to introduce skipping obstacles or other barriers which would separate the candidates who are physically more elastic from the candidates "with strong muscles". The experiences in the USA tell us that namely this approach gives better possibility to select the better candidates.¹⁸

4. The interview is the phase of selection aiming to establish the communication skills of the candidates. In the Republic of Macedonia this phase is not paid enough attention and the standards of its application are not clearly set. In practice, the interview implies conversation on the personal attributes of the candidates, their family circumstances, their hobbies, etc. In the world, especially in the country which is leader in the police management - USA, the interview implies conversation about previous experiences of the candidates, their capacity for solving problems, communication skills, their interests and motivation for work in the police, interpersonal skills, participation in the social courses, and attitudes related to the differences of the local community (ethnic, racial, social, economic, etc).¹⁹

5. The medical examinations are the last phase of the process of selection. They are performed according to a Rulebook brought on the part of the Minister of Interior. That Rulebook responds to the needs of the Ministry of Interior and it is compatible to the practice in most of the countries in the world. It includes ophthalmological examination, ORL, internist, dental, psychological tests, laboratory analyses and testing on drugs.

CONCLUSION

If we observe the whole process independently, we can state that it is well conceptualized and realistic, and it meets the needs of the contemporary police profession. With the suggested changes and their appropriate implementation, the process can become even better and more sustainable and ensure that the best candidates are chosen. Further, the police supervisors will be certain that they have the best candidates for police officers to attend the training. Yet, it is a general impression that in the Republic of Macedonia the whole process is non-transparent and does not give the best possible results. First, the ranking list is not announced at all (neither internally nor externally) and the candidates are not aware of their position after the termination of each of the phases of the procedure. This policy must be changed, and the results and the ranking list must be announced after each terminated phase. Thus candidates will have an insight of the extent to which they should improve their results in the following phase or confirm the good results of the previous phase. The fact that the ranking list is submitted as final directly to the Minister of Interior after the termination of the whole process leaves space for doubts in possible abuse on the part of the persons engaged in the examinations. Candidates are informed about each following phase only through the local police stations, i.e. through the police station through which they submitted the application. If the results and the ranking list are announced after each completed phase, all the concerned parts will be familiar with the situation and there will not be much space for manipulation with the final results.

Another disadvantage of the whole process is the political influence which usually comes from the centres of power out of the police. It sometimes happens that people or legal subjects not at all related to police or police procedures play an important part in the whole process. In order to achieve the best results in this process and to enhance further development of the police

¹⁸ More on <http://map.ais.ucla.edu/go/1004920>, accessed on 29th December 2013;

¹⁹ More on <http://map.ais.ucla.edu/go/1004922>, accessed on 29th December 2013;

as a pillar of the security of the state, the process of selection as well as all the other activities of the police must be put aside from political influence of any kind.

REFERENCES

1. Armstrong, Marcus. 2006. A Handbook of Human Resources Management Practice (10th Edition Ed.). London: Kogan Page Limited;
2. Закон за внатрешни работи Службен весник на Република Македонија број 92 од 24.7.2009 година;
3. Little, Peter Anthony and Ziderveld, Peter. 2006. Human resources management. Oxford: Oxford University Press;
4. Малиш Саздовска, Марина и Дујовски, Никола. 2009. Безбедносен менаџмент. Скопје: Факултет за безбедност;
5. Правилник за начинот и постапката за остварување на системот на кариера на овластените службени лица во Министерството за внатрешни работи, Службен весник на Република Македонија број 122 од 7.10.2009 година;
6. Правилник за постапката и начинот на работа на комисијата за избор на кандидат за полицаец, Службен весник на Република Македонија број 128 од 22.10.2009 година;
7. Rosenbaum M, Ferguson K, and others. 2004. Interpersonal and Communication skills. Oxford: Oxford University Press;
8. Стевановић, Обрад. 2012. Раковођење у полицији. Београд: Криминалистичко полицијска академија;
9. <http://mar.ais.ucla.edu/go/1004920>, пристапено на 29. декември 2013 година;
10. <http://mar.ais.ucla.edu/go/1004922>, пристапено на 29. декември 2013 година;
11. <http://www.polisforbundet.se/in-english/>, пристапено на 27. декември 2013. година;
12. <http://retirement.futureyears.com/retirement-age/police-retirement-age.html>, пристапено на 27. декември 2013. година;
13. <http://www.coro.edu.rs/162-1-1>, пристапено на 27. декември 2013 година;
14. http://www.ads.gov.mk/WBStorage/Files/Recruitment_Procedure_ReSPA_Director.pdf, претставено на 6 јануари 2014 година;
15. <http://www.scribd.com/doc/2587050/SELECTION-PROCESS-AS-HUMAN-RESOURCE-FUNCTION>, претставено на 5 јануари 2014 година.

(Footnotes)

1 In 2012, 330 candidates were accepted. 308 of them finished the training successfully and signed Contracts for employment with the Ministry of Interior;

ENDANGERMENT OF POLICE OFFICERS' SAFETY – OCCUPATIONAL HAZARD

LLD student **Marta Vujisić**

Uniformed Police Directorate, Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia

Abstract: The police profession is taught to be one of the most risky, given that police officers are required “at any time” to take the necessary measures and actions to protect the life, personal and property safety of citizens, as well as to perform police duties even when by doing so their personal safety is threatened. The danger related to police profession arises from both the circumstances of the specific tasks that police officers perform, and the current security situation in society and the relationship of citizens towards the state and its symbols in general. By endangering the safety of police officers, the lawful, timely, and efficient performance of official duties is indirectly threatened, which may also jeopardize the accomplishment of duties and tasks to protect the security of the state and its citizens.

Various forms of threats to personal and bodily integrity are usually undertaken towards uniformed police officers while performing their duties of maintenance or establishment of disturbed public order, control and regulation of traffic and apprehension. From the standpoint of potential threats to safety, engagement of police officers as undercover investigators is particularly important.

Keywords: police officers, threats to safety, occupational hazards.

INTRODUCTION

When considering issues related to threats to police officers' safety, one must first look back at the definitions of the concept of police in a particular state and social system. Without going further into the aetiology and different meanings of the word “police” over time, it can be pointed out that this notion usually includes the public administration service in charge of maintaining order and safety of citizens, staff and building in which that administration is located¹, or specifically organized service or services for the maintenance of public peace and order, for prevention and repression of crime and the enforcement of laws, as well as members of this service, or these services.² By establishing THE police as system, the state ensures its own resistance and ability to protect itself from criminal aggression and the pursuit of other systems or individuals who intentionally or negligently endanger the survival of the state and threaten people, institutions and other values of the society and the state³.

The police are part of the state government, which in comparison to other state administration bodies, has certain specificities. Among these specificities are: the protection of public safety, personal and property safety of citizens; multidimensional police activity, i.e., contribution to achieving various state functions (functions of government, the judiciary and legislation); police powers to use coercion; possession of means of armed coercion - part of the staff that are armed and the so-called police field work, and confidentiality of work, as one of the prerequisites for successful performance of police duties and tasks.⁴

The position of the police officers, as employees of the state administration, significantly differs from that of other civil servants. Their status is characterized by special powers, and special obligations arising from the triple role of the police – their duty to perform police and other duties determined by law, uphold the rule of law in a democratic society and be in charge for the achievement of safety in accordance with the law. Particularly characteristic for the position of police officers is a legal obligation to always take the necessary actions to protect human lives, and personal and property safety of people. By performing their duties, police

¹ I. Klajn, M. Šipka, *Veliki rečni stranih reči i izraza*, Prometej, Novi Sad, 2006, p. 961.

² B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, Policijska akademija, Beograd, 1997, p. 7.

³ O. Stevanović, *Rukovođenje u policiji*, Policijska akademija, Beograd, 2003, pp. 61-62.

⁴ S. Miletić, S. Jugović, *Pravo unutrašnjih poslova*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2009, pp. 62-64.

officers are serving the community and protecting all persons against illegal activities, they are required to always act professionally, responsibly and humanely and respect human dignity, reputation and honour of every person and their other rights and freedoms. In addition, they are obliged to preserve the reputation of the service with their overall behaviour, given that the public follows with due care actions of police officers, and that it is particularly sensitive to failures in their behaviour, both during the performance of the duties, and beyond. The literature points out that the role of the police in society is being overestimated in terms of high public expectations of the police as the most relevant and practically only factor preventing the growth of crime, while on the other hand, the authority of the police is drastically decreasing, as well as the willingness of citizens to provide them with any help in the fight against crime⁵.

Generally speaking, the police profession can be defined as performing police work as a permanent and paid profession, on the basis of special professional qualification.⁶ The permanence of profession, salary and professional qualification are common features of police and other professions, but what stands out is the danger that comes with policing.

THE DANGERS OF THE POLICE PROFESSION

The police profession is taught to be one of the most risky, given that police officers are required to perform police duties even when by doing so their personal safety is threatened, as well as to take the necessary measures and actions "at any time" to protect the life, personal and property safety of citizens. In other high-risk professions, the risk usually can be predicted and by taking appropriate measures controlled or reduced, while the specificity of risk of the police profession is reflected in the unpredictable outcome of dealing with other people⁷. Bearing in mind the very nature of police profession, and that policing involves regular contacts with persons who in a certain way do not comply with the law, the deviant and violent persons, a police officer can never know for sure "whether behind a street corner or door where he/she rang, a man with a weapon or ready for fighting is waiting"⁸. This very uncertainty essentially represents the greatest danger that threatens a police officer when performing his/her duty and a possible security risk cannot be eliminated, nor even substantially reduced or controlled in advance by undertaking any measures.

The danger related to police profession is also affected by the current situation in the country and the general social relations that are manifested through the relation of citizens to government institutions, and therefore the police. Since the police is traditionally seen as the guardian of the state authority, or an institution that provides maintenance and protection, as well as suppression of violent changing of existing social relations, the potential risk to the safety of police officers is also affected by the existence of internal conflicts in a state. Internal conflicts, depending on the particular country where they exist, are based on national, ethnic, religious or racial grounds, and more often are caused by economic inequality and dissatisfaction with the ruling political structures. In such situations, police officers become the object of attack, both in individual acts of violence, and during destructive demonstrations and other forms of mass expression of dissatisfaction. Police officers, especially uniformed, who due to their clearly specified features are personification of institutionalized power, may be the direct object of indiscriminate terrorist acts and other politically motivated attacks, where by attacking their physical integrity the so-called hostile intentions of perpetrator are manifested. In addition, police officers, members of the security services, as well as heads of said services, may be victims of selective attacks and direct objects (direct targets) of classic assassinations⁹.

In our country, in 1990s, police officers were objects of armed and terrorist attacks, as well as of other hostile or politically motivated actions during performance of security tasks on the territory of the Autonomous Province of Kosovo and Metohija. From the beginning of 1995 until May 1997, 31 terrorist attacks against members and facilities of the MoI were carried out on the

5 V.B. Gončarov, V. V. Koženikov, O nekaturnih aspektah občestvenogo mnenija omičej o miliciji, Gosudarstvo i pravo, br. 6/1996, p. 84, in: M. Milošević, G. Mićrović, B. Nikolić, *Istraživački projekat: Krivičnopravna, prekršajnopravna i druga zaštita policajaca*, VŠUP, Beograd, 1998, p. 7.

6 B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, op. cit., p. 483.

7 M. Milošević, Opšta pitanja ugrožavnja i zaštite pripadnika policije, *Bezbednost*, 2/1998, p. 161-181.

8 B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, op. cit., p. 574.

9 M. Milošević, Opšta pitanja ugrožavnja i zaštite pripadnika policije, op. cit., p. 168.

said territory (out of which there were 7 cases where explosives were used), in which 6 police officers were killed¹⁰. Assaults on police officers, police patrols, vehicles and checkpoints, are currently going on in the Ground Safety Zone. In the area of the GSZ (South Serbia), from 1999 until May 2001, a minor armed conflict took place - between the Albanian terrorist formations, the so-called Liberation Army of Preševo, Bujanovac and Medveđa, which fought for secession of these municipalities from Serbia, and Serbian security forces. After about 17 months, the so-called "Končulj Agreement" was signed, by which Albanians were obliged to "demilitarize, demobilize and disband" the so-called Liberation Army of Preševo, Bujanovac and Medveđa. According to the data of the Government of the Republic of Serbia, in the period from the arrival of international forces in Kosovo and Metohija to 23 August 2003, the Albanian terrorists, in the municipalities of Preševo, Bujanovac and Medveđa, carried out 57 attacks on police officers, when 15 policemen were injured. Though after the agreement was signed, the security situation in the GSZ stabilized, occasional attacks on police checkpoints and police officers, mostly members of the Gendarmerie, still occur¹¹.

Dangers to which police officers are exposed, due to the character of duties and tasks they perform, can be conditionally divided into indirect and direct¹².

Indirect dangers related to police profession arise from specific working conditions of police officers, which include the conditions of the working environment, working hours and occupational safety. Inadequate working conditions (inadequate working facilities, lack of office furniture and equipment, etc.), complex employee relationships, inappropriate treatment of employees by management, problems in career development and pressures by internal bureaucracy, shift work and overtime working hours, performing tasks at different places and in all weather conditions, outdated and insufficient technical equipment, are just some of the problems faced by police officers¹³.

The unfavourable working conditions are often followed by physical strain at work and mental stress, as well as the constant possibility of experiencing various inconveniences in contacts with the public, resulting in the occurrence of stress among police officers. The police profession, because of the dangers to which policemen are exposed, is considered one of the emotionally and mentally toughest jobs today¹⁴. Exposure to stress influences both the possible deficiencies in their work (and therefore the safety of police officers), and the family of police officers and their interrelations. A police officer's family life suffers due to shift work, night work, overtime hours, the negative social evaluation of police call, and constant and excessive concern for the family. Police officers often encounter problems and difficulties in contacts with other citizens and efforts to fit into the social environment. While the choice of police profession is free and primarily affects only the social life of the police officer, it often affects the members of his/her family. A police officer, as well as his/her family, may be socially isolated from the environment in which their behaviour is viewed with suspicion and less indulgence. They usually have a special system of moral and social values arising from the police subculture, and the obligation to act in accordance with the function they perform in society, because of which they cannot be equated with "other citizens". The general attitude of society toward police officers is also refracted through the relationship with their family, which often can be stigmatized and not accepted in the narrow social groups, and can be the subject of insults and attacks. Although the occurrence of such "social isolation" is characteristic in environment with high levels of delict behaviour, policemen and their families may be undesirable even in environments with common standards of conventional morality¹⁵.

10 M. Milošević, G. Mitrović, B. Nikolić, *Istraživački projekat: Krivičnopravna, prekršajnopravna i druga zaštita policajaca*, op. cit., p. 269-270.

11 Gendarmerie patrols were targeted in July 2009, when in the terrorist attack (with grenade) at the entrance in Lučane village in the municipality of Bujanovac, two members of the Gendarmerie were injured. In July 2013, in the area of the Borovac village, municipality of Kuršumljija, several persons, from two directions, opened fire from automatic weapons towards the Gendarmerie patrol. The Gendarmerie responded to the armed attack, and no one among their members was injured. In May and June 2012, multi-ethnic police checkpoint in the village of Dobrosin, near Bujanovac, was attacked, when a police officer was injured.

12 M. Milošević, *Opšta pitanja ugrožavnja i zaštite pripadnika policije*, op. cit., p. 164.

13 B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, op. cit., pp. 571-572.

14 Đ. Ignjatović, *Kriminologija, Dosije*, Beograd, 2007, p. 202.

15 B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, op. cit., p. 576.

On the other hand, the direct danger to the life, physical and personal integrity of police officers arise from the contents of the police profession - the ways and conditions of policing and use of power. Police officers and members of their families may be exposed to criticism, verbal assaults, insults and serious threats, as well as to attacks on physical integrity while performing official duties or in connection with it. When performing their tasks and duties, police officers are in constant danger of injuries and deaths, because it is not possible to predict the development of situation – when will a seemingly common situation turn into an event with an unfortunate outcome. Generally, by unarmed police intervention, the situation of safety violation is either solved or it escalates to such an extent that the ground for use of firearms is achieved¹⁶.

According to the results of the research on crime that threatens the safety of the police¹⁷, which analyses the characteristics of attacks on police in Serbia in the period from 1993 to 2003, attacks on the physical integrity of officers most often happened while maintaining or establishing public order and peace (in 42% of cases), while controlling and regulating traffic (14.6%), during arrest and detention of persons (10.7%) and their identifying (9%). A much smaller number of police officers were injured while providing assistance to other agencies (the so-called police assistance), during arrests, border control, escort of vehicles and bringing persons before the proper authorities (less than 7% of the total). In this period, the largest number of persons were convicted of an offense of preventing an official in the performance of security tasks or maintenance of public order under the Article 24 of the Law on Public Order and Peace (81%), followed by preventing an official in discharge of duty under the Article 213 of the Criminal Code of Serbia (12%) and obstructing an official in performance of security tasks or maintenance of public order under the Article 23 of the Law on Public Order and Peace (5%)¹⁸.

Authorized officials, depending on the type of job they carry out, are subject to certain high-risk situations, however, it is considered that the risk of physical harm and deprivation of life is most common for uniformed policemen.¹⁹ Uniformed police officers, who also are the most numerous, usually perform their tasks in the street, through a continuous and direct contact with the citizens, with their identity of police officers clearly expressed. While performing their duties, they intervene in conflict situations, with potentially dangerous and aggressive persons, applying police powers and coercive means. In addition, uniformed police officers primarily perform duties which even statistically most often lead to attacks on police officers - maintenance or establishment of disturbed public order, control and regulation of traffic and bringing persons before competent authority.

Finally, one should have in mind that police officers often found themselves between two conflicting requirements - to consistently obey the law and apply the law enforcement powers and means of coercion or to refrain from applying them. The lawful use of coercive measures can sometimes cause greater negative consequences than refraining from carrying out a specific task, but on the other hand, such refraining may endanger the life of police officers and others. When using coercive measures, a police officer usually must promptly make an independent decision, and for fear of negative social reaction, possible accountability, inexperience, lack of legal protection, and insufficient knowledge of the legal provisions and consequently failure to apply them, can encounter a dilemma whether to react in a certain way, which can indirectly endanger him/her.

Response, inadequate response or lack of response of police officers to everyday security challenges they face are constantly under scrutiny and media coverage. Desirable or socially unacceptable behaviour of some police officers is usually generalized and transferred to the entire police organization, thus depicting all police officers in a positive or negative context, depending on the specific event. In the literature, it is rightly said that although endangerment of the police officer's safety is on a daily basis and evident, the society pays greater attention

16 S. Miletić, *Komentar Zakona o policiji*, Službeni glasnik, Beograd, 2009, p. 218.

17 Đ. Ignjatović, *Kriminalitet kojim se ugrožava bezbednost pripadnika policije – rezultati i iskustva jednog istraživanja*, *Nauka, bezbednost, policija*, 3/2006, pp. 123-152.

18 This research was carried out from 2003 to 2005, i.e. before the entry into force of the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia, by which previous incrimination were changed. By current regulations, criminal offense under Article 24 of the Law on Public Order and Peace has been incorporated into the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia.

19 M. Milošević, *Opšta pitanja ugrožavanja i zaštite pripadnika policije*, op. cit., p. 165.

to the protection of citizens against “the illegal actions of the police and measures of police accountability for failure in their work and behaviour”²⁰. Positive or negative perception of the police by the society is manifested through concrete relationship of citizens towards police officers, as well as through social acceptance or rejection of the negative attitude toward police officers and potential threats to their safety.

THE VULNERABILITY OF UNDERCOVER INVESTIGATORS

Endangering the safety of uniformed police officers, the so-called operational policemen, is primarily associated with the undertaking of operational, tactical and investigative measures and actions for the purpose of identifying and solving specific crimes, when they often can be the object of various threats, intimidation, and physical attacks. Safety of operational policemen can be compromised while undertaking measures and actions such as raids, blockades, pursuit activity, search of persons and premises, apprehension of perpetrators *in flagranti*, etc., as well as in situations typical for uniformed police officers – during arrest and when establishing disturbed public order.

In order to prevent and combat organized crime offenses and other serious criminal offenses, measures and actions can be applied, which by conditions and manner of application, as well as positive legal standardization, significantly differ from the other measures used in the prevention and repression of crime in general. In addition to the usual – operational, tactical and investigative (proving) measures and actions, police officers may, in cases stipulated by law, apply special evidentiary actions, i.e. special investigative methods.

In terms of endangering police officers' safety, particularly important is their involvement as undercover agents. In our country, the engagement of an undercover investigator, as a special evidentiary action, is defined by the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Code²¹, which stipulates that the undercover investigator can be engaged only for criminal offences which according to separate statute fall within the competence of a prosecutor's office of special jurisdiction (Article 162, Paragraph 1 of the Criminal Procedure Code). If all the conditions are fulfilled, upon reasoned motion of a public prosecutor, the court may order engagement of an undercover investigator, if by other special evidentiary actions evidence for criminal prosecution cannot be secured or if their collection would be made substantially more difficult.

Undercover investigator under a pseudonym or code-name is designated by the minister responsible for internal affairs, director of the Security Information Agency or director of the Military Security Agency, or a person authorized by them. The undercover investigator is, as a rule, an authorised officer of the internal affairs authorities, Security Information Agency or Military Security Agency, and if special circumstances of the case so require, another person, who may also be a foreign national. For the purpose of protecting the identity of the undercover investigator, the competent authorities may alter data in databases and issue personal documents with altered data.

It is particularly important to emphasize that according to the Code of Criminal Procedure, it is prohibited and punishable for an undercover investigator to incite the commission of a criminal offence, that is, to act as an agent provocateur. If he/she acts contrary to the above prohibition and assumes the role of agent provocateur, undercover investigator will not be covered by the criminal law protection, i.e. he/she will be responsible for abetting as a form of complicity. In the case an undercover investigator incites a person to commit a criminal offence, his/her criminal responsibility will exist, because by exceeding his/her authority, he/she violated the statutory prohibition, despite the fact that his/her activity has been legalized by court order. Some authors conclude that a police officer who is on a mission as undercover investigator, but at the same time acts as agent provocateur, is not covered by any criminal protection, therefore his/her responsibility for incitement, as a form of complicity, is not excluded²².

The Criminal Procedure Code explicitly prohibits and punishes incitement to commit a criminal offence, while the responsibility of an undercover agent for a committed criminal

20 B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, op. cit., p. 577.

21 Zakonik o krivičnom postupku („Službeni glasnik RS“, br. 72/2011, 101/2011, 121/2012, 32/2013 i 45/2013).

22 M. Milošević, *Oblici ugrožavanja i mere zaštite policajca u ulozi prikriivenog islednika*, *Zbornik radova: Ugrožavanje bezbednosti pripadnika policije – uzroci, oblici i mere zaštite*, Beograd, 2003, p. 96.

offense is not specifically provided. If the undercover investigator directly commits a crime or participates in its commission as an accomplice, the question of the degree of his/her responsibility arises. The literature points out that a police officer will not be liable for certain offenses committed in his/her capacity as an undercover investigator, such as the use of false identity documents or conspiracy to commit criminal offences. The undercover investigator, however, must not participate in commission of other criminal offences, because according to our criminal legislation, the general rules of criminal responsibility also apply to them²³. The work of an undercover investigator is indisputable only when the measures and actions to prove and detect criminal offences are carried out without entering the punitive zone, and without his/her action as instigator or perpetrator.

Therefore, undercover investigator is a police officer, officer of other state agency or a person with altered identity, who within the statutory deadline secretly engages in activities legalized by the court order, independently or as part of an organized criminal group, as its member, in order to find out, gather, determine, record, reproduce and present information about an organized crime group, its structure and operational modes, that is, to discover, gather and secure evidence of committed criminal offences or offenses that will be repeated, and their perpetrators²⁴. Undercover investigators (agents) are also defined as police officers who are assigned changed identity (legend) in a certain period of time to, by acting secretly in contact with certain criminal circles, collect information that will be used to detect, clarify and prevent criminal offences, primarily those related to organized crime.²⁵

The deployment of an undercover investigator opens numerous questions in terms of the threats and protection of safety of persons who will infiltrate the criminal environment. In the cases of disclosure, the greatest danger for undercover investigators are suspected criminals - members of certain groups, but also other members of the police that are not able to distinguish between an undercover agent and other criminals. The literature states that the first woman police officer in Houston was killed while working as an undercover investigator in the case of detection of the illegal drug trade. The victim, a woman police officer, was killed by a uniformed police officer, who was on duty in that area, while she was "buying" drugs from the dealer²⁶.

In order to protect the safety of undercover investigators, it is necessary, above all, to thoroughly and seriously do the preparatory work – the very planning of covert operation in which a certain person is engaged. The selection and training of undercover investigators represent some of the key factors that determine the outcome of a covert operation. They include specific activities that involve different levels of assessment of persons, detailed research of biographical data, personality profiling, conducting interview and medical check. The whole process begins with an interview with a potential candidate, which is undertaken in order to determine the current psychological and health condition, previous work experience, skills, and abilities. These are followed by operational and safety checks, psychological tests and case studies - role play, where the person's ability to get on in an imaginary situation is checked. After this phase, the potential undercover investigator goes through basic and advanced training. Basic level training is based on mastering basic legislation in certain areas, understanding nature of evidence and understanding what can be evidence in criminal proceedings in general, training in handling equipment for documenting etc. Advanced level of training requires more expertise and more complex work with the person, with specifying concrete examples and situations. After the training, the legend of the undercover investigator and scenarios in which he/she will participate in their covert role, are created. The legend includes fictional features of undercover investigator that will be used during the commission of a secret task - a false name, line of work, community from which he/she originates etc. Creating a legend - the whole "protection story" is an essential prerequisite for the successful implementation of a specific task and for achieving safety of an undercover investigator. When preparing and designing scenarios of engagement of undercover investigator, it is necessary to pay special attention to the safe execution of that

23 Ibid.

24 V. Jović, *Prikriveni islednik*, Sezam Medico, Beograd, 2011, p. 55.

25 G. Koriath, Verdeckte Ermittler-Ein europaweit taugliches Instrument, *Kriminalistik*, No.8-9/96, Heidelberg, 1996, str. 535 U: Ignjatović Đ, Skulić M, *Organizovani kriminalitet*, Pravni fakultet Univerzitet u Beogradu - Centar za izdavaštvo i informisanje, Beograd, 2010, p. 291.

26 M. Milošević, G. Mitrović, B. Nikolić, *Istraživački projekat: Krivičnopravna, prekršajnopravna i druga zaštita policajaca*, op. cit., p. 14.

operation, and therefore, the safety is the main precondition for the implementation of this action. Also, all aspects of the work of a secret agent in a particular situation and the potential hazard that could endanger his/her life or health, should be considered²⁷. Undercover investigator acts in accordance with the instructions of his/her leader - handler, who has a complete "jurisdiction" over his/her work. After engaging an undercover investigator, in the next six weeks the handler is bound to maintain daily contact with the undercover investigator, followed by the audit, which aims to establish a further justification of his/her engagement, and whether, in terms of risk assessment, some circumstances has changed. After the deadline for which the order was issued for engagement of undercover investigator, a final audit is performed, when the reintegration of the undercover investigator is carried out²⁸.

LEGAL MEASURES TO PROTECT THE SAFETY OF POLICE OFFICERS

Having in mind the specific protective role that police officers have when performing daily activities, it is necessary to point out the existing legal measures to protect the safety of police officers, which are materialized through reaction of judicial authorities, and police officers themselves. Legal protection of the police officers, through appropriate positive legal norms and their efficient implementation, is necessary in order to achieve the protection of public safety and to ensure timely, efficient and lawful performance of police work and official duties in general. This form of protection of police officers is provided primarily by criminal law provisions, that is, by criminalization of criminal offenses as the most serious forms of harm and threats to life, physical and personal integrity of the police, as well as by the positive legal regulations which stipulate rights and duties of police officers in the performance of official duties, manner, procedure and conditions for the performance of police work, i.e. the provisions of the Law on Police and bylaws.

The criminal legislation of the Republic of Serbia stipulates a number of criminal offenses to ensure protection of police officers while performing security tasks or maintaining public order. The Criminal Code provides the following criminal offenses: murder of an official or serviceman during discharge of their duty (Article 114, Paragraph 1, Point 6), murder of a judge, public prosecutor, deputy public prosecutor or police officer related to the discharge of official duties (Article 114, Paragraph 1, Point 7), preventing an official in discharge of duty (Article 322), attack on an official performing his/her duty (Article 323) and participating in a group that prevented an official in the performance of official duties (Article 324). The Law on Public Order and Peace stipulates the criminal offense of obstructing an official in the performance of the security tasks or maintenance of public order (Art. 23).

In order to achieve its own safety and the safety of citizens, the state entrusted the police with significant rights and powers when performing police duties, which are regulated by the Law on Police and relevant bylaws. Among the police powers, particularly emphasized is the power to use force or "coercive means", as a very important part of protection of police officers' safety. Lawful use of coercive measures ensures protection of the safety of citizens and police officers themselves, however, its application directly enters the circle of guaranteed human rights and freedoms, and therefore its application must be reduced to exceptional cases determined by law and must never exceed the objective need - the need to achieve legitimate objective of law enforcement²⁹. When using coercion, the basic roles of the police - the police right to use force and their duty to serve the citizens and protect them from everyone, even from themselves³⁰.

In addition, one should also bear in mind that the positive legal provisions governing the conduct of police officers in the exercise of police powers, especially when using coercive measures, define, first and foremost, the conditions for a smooth implementation of the powers, that is, for securing the interests of maintaining public order and security of citizens. On the other hand, much less attention has been paid to creating conditions and systems of measures for the protection of police officers in the performance of their duties. Although smooth performance

27 D. Marinković, Kriminalistički aspekti angažovanja prikrivenog islednika, *Bezbednost*, 1-2/2009, p. 136.

28 V. Jović, *Prikriveni islednik*, op.cit., pp. 132-161.

29 O. Stevanović, *Rukovođenje u policiji*, op. cit., p. 85.

30 Ibid, p. 84.

of police duties to some extent provides protection of police officers (but only to the extent to which these things are closely related), it is necessary to provide special conditions for their own protection. The fact that a police officer has significant powers and the possibility to use means of coercion (ultimately firearms), does not mean that he/she should be allowed to be a target of attack, but it is necessary to provide adequate legal and physical protection, legal assistance and moral support³¹.

Finally, it must be emphasized that the provisions of the Law on Occupational Safety and Health³², which regulate the implementation and improvement of occupational safety and health of persons who participate in work processes, as well as persons who are in the working environment, in order to prevent injuries, occupational diseases and diseases related to work, are also applied on police officers as well as employees in the state administration. Namely, the provisions of the Law stipulate that the employer must provide the employee working in the workplace and the environment in which measures of health and safety at work are implemented, as well as to ensure that the work process is adapted to physical and mental capacity of the employee, and that the work environment, working equipment and equipment for personal protection are supplied and secured, so as to not compromise the safety and health of employees. In addition, the employer is required to provide training for employee for safe and healthy work, and in the course of training introduce the employee to all types of risks in line of work to which he/she assigns him/her and concrete measures for occupational safety and health in accordance with the risk assessment act.

CONCLUSION

Police officers are almost daily exposed to various forms of injury and threat to their lives, personal and bodily integrity, deriving both from the contents of their profession, and the symbol of state power which they directly represent. The forms and frequency of endangering the safety of police officers are affected primarily by circumstances of the event in which such danger or injury occurred, i.e. facts relating to the place and time of the commission of a criminal offense, the circumstances of the event, the condition of the offender, the reaction of the police officer, etc. The danger associated with the police profession stems from the general security situation in society and society's attitude towards the state and symbols of its authority, i.e. from the attitude of the citizens towards the police officers in general. Given that along with the modern tendency of authority's decline, respect for police officers as representatives of state authorities declines as well, endangering the safety of police officers is associated with the overall situation in the state and society.

Dangers of police profession arise from the specific working conditions of police officers, which include the conditions of the working environment, working hours and occupational safety (indirect dangers), as well as from the contents of the police profession, that is, the manner and conditions for carrying out police duties and application of police powers (direct danger). The risk of potential endangerment of police officers' safety is associated with their engagement as an undercover investigator. Infiltration into a criminal environment, the need to gather appropriate evidence, possible discovery of his/her true identity, as well as explicit legal prohibition for undercover investigator to instigate the commission of criminal offenses, are just some of the factors that affect the high level of possible endangerment of their safety.

The importance of work performed by police officers, specific powers they possess and apply, as well as specificity of the conditions under which they work, all together contribute to the classification of police profession in the most risky group. In order to protect state security, personal and property safety of citizens, protect official duties and safety of police officers themselves, it is necessary to provide appropriate legal protection measures, both in the regulations and in their concrete application.

³¹ B. Milosavljević, *Nauka o policiji*, op. cit., pp. 577-578.

³² Zakon o bezbednosti i zdravlju na radu ("Službeni glasnik RS", br. 101/2005).

REFERENCES

1. Ignjatović Đorđe, Kriminalitet kojim se ugrožava bezbednost pripadnika policije – rezultati i iskustva jednog istraživanja, Nauka, bezbednost, policija, 3/2006.
2. Ignjatović Đorđe, Kriminologija, Dosije, Beograd, 2007.
3. Ignjatović Đorđe, Škulić Milan, Organizovani kriminalitet, Pravni fakultet Univerzitet u Beogradu - Centar za izdavaštvo i informisanje, Beograd, 2010.
4. Jović Vojislav, Prikriveni islednik, Sezam Medico, Beograd, 2011.
5. Klajn Ivan, Šipka Milan, Veliki rečnih stranih reči i izraza, Prometej, Novi Sad, 2006.
6. Marinković Darko, Kriminalistički aspekti angažovanja prikrivenog islednika, Bezbednost, 1-2/2009.
7. Miletić Slobodan, Komentar Zakona o policiji, Službeni glasnik, Beograd, 2009.
8. Miletić Slobodan, Jugović Sreten, Pravo unutrašnjih poslova, KPA, Beograd, 2009.
9. Milosavljević Bogoljub, Nauka o policiji, Policijska akademija, Beograd, 1997.
10. Milošević Milan, Oblici ugrožavanja i mere zaštite policajca u ulozi prikrivenog islednika, Zbornik radova: Ugrožavanje bezbednosti pripadnika policije – uzroci, oblici i mere zaštite, Beograd, 2003.
11. Milošević Milan, Opšta pitanja ugrožavanja i zaštite pripadnika policije, Bezbednost, Beograd, 2/1998.
12. Milošević Milan, Mitrović Gordana, Nikolić Branko, Istraživački projekat: Krivičnopravna, prekršajnopravna i druga zaštita policajaca, VŠUP, Beograd, 1998.
13. Stevanović Obrad, Rukovođenje u policiji, Policijska akademija, Beograd, 2003.
14. Zakon o bezbednosti i zdravlju na radu ("Službeni glasnik RS", br. 101/2005).
15. Zakonik o krivičnom postupku („Službeni glasnik RS“, br. 72/2011, 101/2011, 121/2012, 32/2013 i 45/2013).

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT IN THE POLICE FORCE AND THE IMPORTANCE OF CERTAIN AREAS TO REDUCE STRESS AT WORK

Slobodan Spasić
Police Union of Serbia

Abstract: Model of human resources respects peoples' needs to use and develop their skills and abilities. Continuous process of improvement of working conditions is required for development of organization and employee development. Apart from the systemically defined environment this process is also affected by the employees' personal characteristics.

Organization and Management is the first of four strategic areas defined in Development Strategy of the Ministry of Interior (MoI) of the Republic of Serbia. According to the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (EU-OSHA), stress at work has harmful effects on employees' health and it also represents a challenge with regard to development of organization. 28% of employees experience stress-related problems. 50 - 60% of all lost working days are related to stress at work. Department of Psychological Prevention (MoI) states that 57.2 % of employees have psychological problems in the period of their full work potential (5-20 years of work experience).

This paper aims to present the interconnection of the certain HRM fields and their importance regarding the reduction and prevention of consequences from stress-related work, including the suicide as the most serious of all. In addition, it aims at presenting the importance of successful HRM as one of the key factors for the development of any organization. Therefore, it covers some of the HRM fields that may contribute to decreasing stress at work, such as: job analysis, selection, training, career guidance and advancement.

The paper is based on the analysis of the results of national and international research and the results of the pilot study for the Police Union of Serbia.

Keywords: human resources management, stress at work, psychological prevention, job analysis, selection, training.

INTRODUCTION

Current social changes are entering the key period of intensive political, economic and social adjustments to the European Union system. Commencement of the accession negotiation had imposed a major challenge of structural and functional changes of strategic importance to the Ministry of Interior.

The Ministry of Interior had initiated preparations, as indicated in the documents such as: Development Strategy of MoI 2011 - 2016¹, Communication Strategy in MoI², Police in the Community Strategy³, with the major importance of planned "Modern Concept of Human Resources Management"⁴ Project.

The past staff management method in the MoI had shown a set of weaknesses. It was reduced down to keeping records, personnel files, payroll and retirement. Analysis of professional literature indicates that the significant changes, for the part referring to staffing, had gone along with scientific discoveries. Unfortunately, there is a major gap between the profession and readiness to implement knowledge and research result through organizations' and institutions' activities, being the Ministry of Interior in our case.

System efficiency may be appraised using a set of criteria, with one of the indicators being the number and type of professional ailments and problems of the employees, being linked and/or directly provoked by working conditions. This refers to on-the-job stress and its consequences against general health and functioning of the employees at workplace and in private life. This state is probably the best explained by recognized (alas, deceased) professors, lawyers and criminologists Norval Morris and Gordon Hawkins:

¹http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/Strategija%20razvoja%20MUP-a%202011-2016.pdf

²http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms/resursi.nsf/Strategija_komunikacije_Ministarstva_unutrasnjih_poslova_Republike_Srbije_2012-2016_cir.pdf

³http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/strategije.h

⁴http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/projekti.h

“Member of police force is being badmouthed by public, critiqued by storytellers, ridiculed in movies, criticized in newspapers, without the support of prosecutors or judges, avoided by the ones fearing him, feared by criminals, cheated by everyone, stupid and deceiving politicians kick him around like a ball. He is exposed to numerous temptations and suffering, he is condemned when he enforces the law, and fired from the service when he does not. Everyone thinks that he needs to have education of soldier, physician, lawyer, diplomat and teacher, for the salary under minimum wage.”

ON-THE-JOB STRESS

Stress is the reaction of organism attempting to adjust to unfavorable and harmful influences from the exterior and/or interior environment⁵. These adaptive reactions may have negative and positive consequences. Sources of stress are designated as stressors. Classification of stress⁶ is established on various stressors, with the most common ones being: physical, biological, psychological, social, life and professional; developmental and accidental; chronic and acute; distress and eustress; environmental, urban and acculturational.

On-the-job stress is the experience of misbalance between the requirements imposed on the employee, personal and environmental resources available to meet such requirements. The ratio between requirements and resources may be strongly influenced by factors, such as social support (at work and beyond) and work control.

Evaluation process of requirements and resources is psychological in nature, however stress effects go beyond. They may influence physical and social health, creativity and productivity. Work-related stress may significantly influence person's behavior, impair quality of life (individual and/or family) of damage one's health.

In past decade, in European Union the work-related stress is one of the major challenges, both for employees' and organizations' health. The European fundamental research on working conditions from 1996 to 2000 indicate that 28 % of employees have some sort of stress-related issues, with the percentage increases regarding skeletal musculature issues (30 – 33 %). Moreover, studies in the EU and beyond (Cox et al, 2000) indicate that 50 to 60 % of all working days lost are stress-related. Council Directive 89/391/EEC and necessary legislation at Member States' level categorize the work-related stress inside the security and safety legislative domain.⁷

Speaking of Serbia, data provides little encouragement. Some of the publically available information indicates that in past 12 years “more than 140 police officers had taken their own lives”.⁸ “Number of suicide among the MoI of Serbia employees from 2007 to 2011 averages at 9.6 against 40,000 employees, with the average age of police officers committing suicide being 35, as indicated by the MiA data. Comparison with statistics by the World Health Organization (WHO), stating that the number of suicide in Serbia averages at 16 against 100,000 citizens, with the average age of suicide victims being 52, indicates that the suicidal behavior is more frequent with the MiA members against general population.”⁹

According to the research by the Belgrade Center for Security Policy, in 2010 252 police officers had suffered minor, and 11 major injuries in last three months alone.¹⁰

Based on the Section for Psychological Prevention data for the period 2007 – 2012, suicide had been committed by 52 police officers, with 18 attempts and 9 suicide threats, and 2 cases of murder-suicide. Data in the table below indicate psychological status of police officers.

5 Professional literature recognizes five models of stress: physical-mechanical; physiological-medical; emotional-functional; psycho-social and system-integrative model. This paper does not intend to tackle the stress models as such and their characteristics. The most commonly used approaches are psycho-social and systematic-integrative, being the ones striving to consider all stress components, including stressors, reactions and stress management options.

6 Adjusted from: Čabarkapa, M. (2008): Čovek i radna okolina – psihofiziološki i ekološki aspekti rada.

7 Working on stress - European Agency for Safety and Health at Work <https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/magazine/5>

8 Zivanović, K.: „MUP nema dovoljno psihologa“, dnevne novine „Danas“, 09.10.2013.

9 Ibid.

10 Đorđević, S.: “Prevenција stresa kod policijskih službenika u Srbiji“, Zbirka predloga praktične politike za reformu policije, broj 4 mart 2011., Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku

Years of service	Percentage of employees with psychological issues
0 – 5	5.2
5 – 10	12.7
10 – 20	44.5
20 – 30	29
30 – 40	5.2
No data	3.4
Total	100

Table 1: Overview of percentages of police officers against years of service

Analysis of data shown in table above indicates the following:

From the total number of employees, 5.2 % of police officers with psychological issues during the first five years in service verges at the upper threshold of acceptability. If we are to compare this number with the number of newly employed, situation changes (increase in number of police officers with issues is certainly to increase). Accurate interpretation lacks data on the total number of newly employed for the period covered by data. This indicates a minimum of five possible problem areas:

Selection of applicants had not been performed with quality (inexistence of working positions analysis, lack of clear selection criteria, low selection threshold, insufficiently appropriate evaluation tests, poor data integration, untrained staff performing selection);

Selection had been performed with quality, but psychologist's opinions were not considered when hiring – "hire and ask no questions" principle (the question arises: why perform selection and waste money);

Selection could not have been performed, since there was no public call, which leads to decrease in selection sample, thus psychologist's work is being reduced to mere testing, without any impact on further procedure;

Inappropriate acceptance for work, internship and period of working and social-psychological adaptation;

Employees have no knowledge and/or training on categories of on-the-job stressors and methods for alleviating negative consequences of stress.

Lack of public call eliminates the possibility to collect significant information for strategic planning and managing police human resources. High share of young, newly hired police officers, with psychological issues, may indicate characteristics of the generation, which can be determined in this manner.

There is a clear, positive correlation between the years in service and number of police officers with psychological issues. One of the causes may be inexistence of the appropriate psychological support for police officers after stressful situations. This indicates unspoken standpoint that the employees are "expandable". Another cause may be inexistence of the appropriate training.

WORK-RELATED STRESS SOURCES

As for work-related stress, there are numerous categories of stressors. Influence degree those exhibit on employees varies with working positions, different employees at the same position and the same employee in different timeframes and/or situations.

Here, there is an evident interlinking of some human resources management functions with the stress. In fact, stressors' classification and specific influence is established by:

Workplace and task analysis;

Risk appraisal for each workplace in organization;

Collecting information by systematic observation of the most and the least successful officers at working position;

Integration of the aforementioned data with employee data (age, experience, education, capacities, competences, personal profile, emotional stability profile, developmental or accidental crises' influence, stress alleviation mechanisms, etc).

Past scientific knowledge indicates that all stressors derived from the analysis of different workplaces and tasks may be classified in three major categories:

Stressors referring to the work factor, so-called intrinsic work factors. These are intrinsic, being induced by technology and work organization method. This category includes:

Working environment (physical and psycho-social) and working equipment (individual and collective);

Excessive workload, task schedule, plans, dynamics and work pace.

Stressors referring to the organizational context in which the work is being performed:

Organizational structure and climate;

Organizational roles (number, level of ambiguity);

Moving through organization and career advancement;

Decision-making and work situation control;

Interpersonal relationships at work.

Professional stress psycho-physical and psycho-social factors:

Responsibility for security of other persons;

Responsibility for managing other persons;

Responsibility for high financial values;

Working with special categories of persons;

Repetitive and monotonous work;

Dictated or forced pace of work;

Limiting freedoms and initiative at work;

Signal detection and surveillance works;

High speed and pressure in works performance;

Complex decision-making and problem solving;

Unfavorable working conditions, accidents and unforeseen events.

Although most commonly used, the above classification does not fully meet the rule of exclusivity¹¹. Interpersonal relations at work are undoubtedly a psycho-social factor, but here those are listed in stressors' category referring to the organizational context. This indicates yet again the complexity of this issue and necessity for interdisciplinary approach.

International working conditions organization had defined psycho-social stressors, through interaction of job satisfaction, organization and working process management on one hand, and employees' competences and rights on the other.¹² Defined in this manner, psycho-social stressors establish the foundation for union activities and the right for the unions to participate in all working groups tackling organizational changes and development in the Ministry of Interior.

Working with representatives of various union groups of the Police Union of Serbia, 98 % of representatives note poor interpersonal relationships as the most significant stressor. This stressor, being significant and powerful on its own, also has great influence on modifying impact of other stressors, especially the ones influencing working environment, work overload, equipment, working pace; weather by diminishing their negative influence when interpersonal relationships are good, or exacerbating it when poor.

Apart from influence of above stressors, psychological prevention within the human resources management framework is also under influence of terms crisis and life event. Without initiating the discussion on terminology mismatches, we shall highlight only the elements potentially beneficial for understanding employees' position¹³.

¹¹ Classification principles may be contentual and formal (event and population independent). Two formal principles are exclusivity (categories are exclusive, there are no items belonging to more than one category) and exhaustivity (there are no items outside any category). For details, see Todorović, D., (1995): „Osnovi metodologije psiholoških ostraživanja“, Laboratorija za eksperimentalnu psihologiju, Beograd

¹² For details, see: Working on stress - European Agency for Safety and Health at Work <https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/magazine/5>

¹³ For details, see: Vlajković, J. (2009): „Od žrtve do preživelog – psihološka pomoć u nesrećama“, IP Zarko Albulj, Beograd, p. 23-38

Crisis is a short psychic disturbance, which intermittently happens to the persons fighting life problems exceeding their capacities at that moment. There are developmental and accidental crisis.

Another term is life event. That is the change in exterior reality which engages the level of adaptation powers of an individual outside his daily routine. Criteria determining the difficulty of live event and quantity of stress generating potential depend on: life event difficulty, possibility to anticipate – predictability and expectancy, belief that the event can(not) be controlled and desirability of the event.

Special importance for psychological stability of an individual belongs to interpretation – experience of life events. Each event may be experienced as: threat, loss or challenge. The worst experience for a person is loss, and the best one is challenge. Manner of live events' interpretation may be practiced using certain cognitive strategies, being one of the stress combating methods.

POLICE OFFICERS ON-THE-JOB STRESS CONSEQUENCES

Stressor influence on employee leads to stress reaction development, going through several clearly determined phases. Recognizing phases by the person himself, colleague, direct superior or family member may decrease negative stress consequences for the employee¹⁴. Social support is the most significant factor in overcoming negative consequences of stress¹⁵. Stress reaction phases are:

Alert, alarm.

Resistance or mobilization.

Overcoming (if resistance is successful – there is no breakdown phase, since the person continues to function normally) or exhaustion (if resistance is unsuccessful).

Breakdown.

Physical and emotional stress effects are numerous, difficult and painful. Each of those may diminish working capacity. Categorization of disturbances caused by stress is not unique. These usually vary with country and theoretical commitment of the author. Consequences of work-related stress mostly reported by police officers¹⁶ are as follows:

Cynicism and suspiciousness.

Emotional isolation from daily life situation.

Diminished efficiency.

Absenteeism and early retirement.

Excessive aggression (which may lead to increased citizens' complaints and increase domestic violence in police officers' families).

Alcoholism and other substance abuse problems.

Material and other family problems.

PTSD.

Cardiology disorders, ulcers, bodyweight increase and other health problems.

Suicide.

Gerson et al. (2009) had been researching physical, psychological and behavioral stress symptoms with police officers. Apart from on-the-job stress, police officers are facing life events such as death or health problems of relatives and close friends (Patterson 2002).

Defining critical situation in police officers' work: "Critical situation may be any such situation where police officers' expectation to handle situation is being questioned (Mitchell, 1990b; Ryan & Brewster, 1994 from Krstić, 2004). These situations involve:

Death of colleague police officer;

Serious injury of a colleague;

Serious incident with great number of fatalities/injuries;

Colleague's suicide;

Incident with loss of child's life;

¹⁴ Recognizing stress symptoms may be achieved by employees training, publishing various appraisal scales on institution's website, keeping precise electronic records – staff file, which would provide for monitoring changes, together with proactive work when a certain problem is detected.

¹⁵ Social support or solidarity is indeed one of the basic principles of union work.

¹⁶ Refined overview from the article: "On-the-Job Stress in Policing—Reducing It, Preventing It" NIJ Journal- January 2000 <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/jr000242d.pdf>

Incident involving a person with whom police officer is familiar;
 Incident with exposure to infectious disease;
 Incident leading to court trial;
 Event attracting major media interest.

There are no specialized trainings in our country for police officers and superiors, belonging to the category specifically exposed to stress effect after using coercive measures, including firearms with injury or fatal outcome for perpetrator and/or police officer.

We should note two additional categories suffering consequences of police officers' on-the-job stress. These are their families and retired colleagues.

Speaking of police officers' families, foreign papers indicate following. Police officers' spouses and children feel different consequences of stress related to the job of their spouse – parent. Influence of these factors is bi-directional. Stressful family environment and problems faced by police officer in the family may influence his efficiency at work and increase work-related stress. This is particularly true for the police officers working plainclothes on secret assignments.

As for retired police officers, Čabarkapa (2008) notes that: “After the end of work and professional career, especially with sudden retirement, they feel less valuable, rejected, useless and unneeded, falling into so-called discharging stress from working tension, which can exacerbate in retirement breakdown and de-compensation, sometimes even accelerating fatal outcome”.

The two most important organizational measures for on-the-job stress prevention are selection and evaluation of risk for employees' stress. Selection is very important for a vast number of operative working positions in the police, where the possibility to eliminate stress from environment or task type is minimal or impossible. Risk estimation is based on workplace and tasks analysis, being the foundation to determine criteria for selection, training and classification.

Research by the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (OSHA) clearly define the following factors successfully aiding stress prevention¹⁷:

Appropriate risk analysis. The foundation must be established through risk appraisal. Examination may be included in this process, but it should not be undertaken unless there is a clear intent to perform timely action, based on the obtained results.

Comprehensive – exhaustive planning and “step-wise” approach. Define clear objectives and intents, define target groups, determine tasks, responsibilities and allocate resources.

Combination of work-directed and employee-directed measures. The priority must be given to collective and organizational intervention, in order to prevent the risk at its source. Employee-directed measures may complement other actions.

Context-coordinated solutions. Employees' experience at a particular job is the vital source for identifying problems and finding solutions. External experiences may be necessary in some cases.

Interventions based on facts and experience of officers. Use external associates exclusively, when they are needed.

Social dialogue, partnership and inclusion of employees. Inclusion and commitment of employees, mid-level and senior management is the key for any intervention phase.

Permanent prevention and support from top management. Permanent improvements are not possible, unless management is ready to implement changes. Risk management should be the principle of work.

HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

Standpoint regarding worker – employee had been changing throughout history. Development of new scientific disciplines, such as labor psychology, interest in individuals' characteristics, economic crises, wars, concentration of capital had influenced development of labor psychology, which involves worker's position.

¹⁷ Taken over from: „Prevention of psychosocial risks and stress at work in practice“ - European Agency for Safety and Health at Work

<https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/104>

In our country, Human Resources Management is new, not fully accepted term. One of the reasons is different interpretation of the term itself, as a consequence of fundamental theoretical base, and another one is substantial theoretical conundrum. What is the essential difference between Staff Management, Human Resources Management, Managing Humans as Resources, Organizational Behavior?

Staff Management is based on the belief that the employee is direct executor, with clear task to perform the orders of superiors. In this sense, the staffing department system was exclusively administrative, tackling formal and legal aspects of employees. Workplace systematization (precursor of working position and task analysis) had contained technical description of work and required professional education exclusively.

Human resources model, although being based on work of USA scientists¹⁸, had occurred in practice in Japan, within the movement for productivity and quality¹⁹. Model is based on the understanding that a person has the need to develop and perfect himself²⁰. Therefore, speaking of Human Resources Management in this sense, the employer's task is to get to know and create new working conditions, so that every employee may develop his needs from fundamental ones to self-actualization. Managing humans as resources is much closer to twisted understanding, which involves exploitation of employees, for the benefit of employer.

Organizational Behavior, although tackling the same topics as human resources management, has completely different theoretical foundation. This concept appears in tendency to resolve the issues of quality, productivity and efficiency. It is founded in psychological theory of learning, known as Instrumental Conditioning or Theory of Corroboration – Incentive Theory (stimulus – response). This theory stipulates that the behavior we wish to establish needs to be rewarded consistently, and the unfavorable behavior needs to be reprimanded. This approach provides contribution through procedures and rules of work and behavior, since it is necessary to assure that the employee sees clear link between reward and performance. Due to common resistance, this approach had been “softened” by affirming organizational climate and culture, as significant resources for organizational behavior change.

“Human resources management system involves strategic approach to managing processes of goal-oriented recruitment, selection, classification, employment, education, distribution, evaluation, motivation, leading, promoting, removal and firing employees” (Žilović 2012).

Human resources management is the key instrument for achieving missions, objectives and tasks, defined in the Development Strategy of MoI. Due to the complexity of works in the Ministry, HR Management may be combined with Organizational Behavior.

In its strategic document covering changes in the HR system, Mauritius police²¹ stipulates as follows:

“It is established that HR are the most important factor of the entire organization. Previous replacement of Records Office with Staffing Department did not produce expected results and had been reduced to routine, administrative work of employees register, payroll, absence registration, retirement. Document administration does not mean human resource management.”

For better HR management, Mauritian police had given strategic role to this department. Among the other things: level of authority is increased regarding employment, promotion and retiring/replacement of employees – instead of administrative (auxiliary), this role turns executive (obligatory); managing HR department is risen to a higher level, being managed by assistant police commissioner, directly responsible to the police commissioner.

Similar approach and results are visible in police forces of India²², Los Angeles²³, Hong Kong²⁴, and Canada²⁵.

¹⁸Papers by: Mc Gregor, Likert, Argyris.

¹⁹ Foundation of Japanese economic miracle is in belief that human work has advantage against natural, financial and technological resources, being their baseline. For more details, see: Vujić, D. (2003): “Menadžment ljudskih resursa i kvalitet”, Centar za primenjenu psihologiju, Beograd

²⁰ Abraham Maslow – hierarchy of needs theory: needs have hierarchical organization – existential, safety, social, respect and self-actualization.

²¹ Adjusted from: Mauritius Police Force National Policing Strategic Framework, “Human Resource Management Capability” (modernising our human resource management), <http://police.gov.mu/English/Documents/Publication/HRM.pdf>

²² For more details, see: Human Resource Management in the Police Department, http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/7597/10/10_chapter%205.pdf

²³ Police Officer Selection Process, City of Los Angeles Personnel Department http://per.lacity.org/psb/lapd_pdprocess.pdf

²⁴ Psychological Competency Training, A Centre of Excellence in Police Training and Development, January 2011, <http://www.police.gov.hk/info/doc/PsychologicalCompetency.pdf>

²⁵ Blake, R.J. (2007): “OPC 2007—Police Management Job Analysis & Leadership Needs Assessment”, Research and Evaluation Unit Ontario Police College, Queens Printer for Ontario

ANALYSIS OF WORK AND TASKS

Analysis of work and tasks, i.e. workplaces analysis, is the systematic procedure to determine content of work, working conditions and methods, and necessary traits, knowledge and skills, of importance for success at work. Apart from psychologists (organizational psychology), workplaces analysis should include manager and top employee. The next step is to produce criteria for each workplace. These criteria are the foundation for selecting psychological measurement instruments and organization of recruitment and selection process.

There are several schemes for workplaces analysis. Apart from general data on workplace and work analysis, information is usually gathered regarding physical and social working conditions, activities involved in the work, critical points of work and psychological functions required by the work.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

Recruitment or coaxing (attracting staff) process may be external or internal. External refers to attracting staff from the environments outside the organization – institution. By the nature of relationships, it can be passive – when organization is known in the environment and candidates access themselves, or active – when part of human resources department (known as “head hunters”) actively search for best staff in external environment. Using modern information technologies provides the possibility for efficient organization of this system. Keeping register of best students in schools of importance for organization, monitoring talent organizations works, winners of domestic and international rewards are within these activities. Speaking of internal recruitment, it mostly refers to the term of employees’ classification, i.e. assigning and reassigning them to different workplaces. Good and complete staff records and plan of employees’ succession are fundamentals for such work.

Professional selection, in very general terms, involves choosing the best candidate for a certain job (under the given, realistic circumstances). “The essence of professional selection is the process of systematic, controlled and objective choice of persons to work on certain jobs, having in mind that individual positions have different requirements they impose upon employee, and that people are different regarding their individual traits, determining working behavior.” (Corto, 2003)

Professional selection is performed based on the criteria obtained through workplaces and tasks analysis. It is the function vouching the success of training, classification, work adaptation, efficiency and promotion.

First phase of selection is previously mentioned workplaces analysis. The next one is choice and construction of selection predictors. The third phase is analysis of relations between personal traits and working behavior. Fourth phase is determining criteria used for selection. Criteria cover personal traits, emotional stability degree, intellectual capacities, integrity, communication skills, etc.

Selection efficiency depends on several factors: validity of measurement instruments and procedures used during selection, selection ratio and accuracy of implemented job success measures. Here, selection ratio is very important. It is the number of hired against the number of applicants. Milder selection will yield more candidates selected and increase the group of hired, who will be unsuccessful at work. Therefore, it is better not to hire than hire a bad candidate. When testing a small number of candidates or a single candidate, this is simple testing, not the selection.

The most common selection procedures are: tests, interviews, references, biographic data, sample work, selection training, internship, appraisal centers.

The basic purpose of test battery is selection and classification. Classification is the procedure for allocating hired and trained officers to jobs and tasks most appropriate for them regarding their capacities and personal traits. Selection is one-time procedure, and classification repetitive one: it is being performed whenever there is a need to establish teams, groups and individuals to perform current activities within the service. Apart from this, battery is being used for monitoring and psychological assistance for police force members.²⁶

²⁶ Adjusted overview from: Kostić, P., Tomić, C., Kržić, M., Nikolić, I. (2004): „Model i baterija psiholoških testovaza selekciju i klasifikaciju kandidata žandarmerije“, Beograd

In past years, alongside traditional selection criteria, there is a discussion on competences and competences models. Although the direction is different, I believe that the models are not exclusive; instead, good organization may provide successful supplementation.

Job-oriented approach is used to determine suitability of an individual for work, selecting individuals meeting job requirements. Due to changes in working environment, job nature and organizational changes included, there is a shift from job focus to focus on individuals and their competences - skills (Lawler, 1994; Sanchez & Levine, 2009, from Lindy-Lee Lubbe).²⁷.

Dimension	Job-oriented approach	Competences-oriented approach
Focus – direction	Job.	Individual and organization
Organizational structure	Bureaucratic approach for organizational hierarchy; job design and evaluation.	Flattened (non-hierarchical) structure.
Purpose	Description of behavior.	Influencing behavior.
Work analysis	Object to be described.	Role to be played.
Organizational change	Job is relatively constant.	Continuous learning and development.

Table 2: Difference between job-oriented approach and competences-oriented approach (compare Lawler, 1994; Sanchez & Levine, 2009)

Competences are being formulated according to the behavior, therefore they may be used for creating different tools for evaluation, when the work is fully analyzed and associated to the measurable set of standards. (Heinsman, de Hoogh, Koopman & van Muijen, 2007, according to Lindy-Lee Lubbe).

Competence for job is defined as: “prominent characteristic of a person leading to efficient and/or superior achievement at work. It may also include motives, traits, skills, self-understanding aspects, or social roles, together with the knowledge used by a person”.

US Human Resources Office (2005) defines competences as: “measurable set of knowledge, skills, talent, behaviors and other characteristics a person needs to successfully perform role at work or professional function.

Several definitions indicate the importance of knowledge and capabilities of a person, together with a certain number of social skills, such as interpersonal skills and team work. Competences link individual’s behavior with achievements at work he performs. This makes them close to the Organizational Behavior model.

Regardless of the model to be used, workplaces and tasks analysis is mandatory. Complex systems, with different types of tasks, should strive to combine leading models, without their mutual exclusion.

I believe that it is necessary to note several data on position of psychologist in MoI. As for daily work, Krstić (2004) notes two fundamental problems:

Police officer’s perception of psychologist (belief that they provide more assistance for criminals to get away, fear of F diagnoses, belief that only weaklings ask for assistance, fear of betrayed confidence and confidentiality, fear of job loss).

The psychologist’s perception of police officer (the majority of psychologists do not understand police work, professional stereotypes and prejudices, fear of police officer).

The first two cover individual relations between psychologist and police officer, and the next one mostly organizational aspect.

²⁷ From: Lindy-Lee Lubbe / A Competency Model For Security Officers: A Qualitative Design http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/4608/thesis_lubbe_1.pdf?sequence=1

Stereotypes and lack of knowledge of psychology vocation differences bring problems in their hiring. Psychologists are not mere helpers. They also tackle psychology of work and organization.

Organizational inconsistency and failure to comprehend various roles that psychologists can and should achieve in MoI. Psychologists' work is more than preventive, counseling and therapeutic work. Role of the psychologists covering work and organizational psychology is fully neglected. We often see requirements for mixing these roles, which is contrary to the Law on Psychological Work and Code of Ethics. Psychologist working on selection, classification, training, career management, motivation, etc, protects interests of organization in his work. Psychologist working on prevention, counseling and therapy predominantly protects interests of individual – employee (and consequently interests of organization). It is not advisable to mix these roles for the same persons.

Inexistence of training programs at universities training psychologists, covering specific traits of engagement in police, military and security services. There is no Psychology Department in Serbia covering courses on: Police Psychology, Military Psychology, Security Psychology, Forensic Psychology, Psychology of Intelligence, Psychology of Terrorism, etc.

Lack of cooperation with main faculties and institutes. There is an impression that the state did not coordinate its own institution. In most of the developed countries, the major purchasers and financers of new psychological measurement instruments development are military, police, security services and industry. In our country, none of these organizations had established cooperation with tests developing institutions (Institute for Psychology, Association of Psychologists of Serbia, and Faculties of Philosophy – departments of psychology).

Inexistence of separate applied psychology courses, covering specific traits of working in police and security services. The first step of on-the-job stress prevention is getting used to stress during the training.²⁸

The planned number of psychologists, according to the current systematization, is way under the real needs of the MoI. Furthermore, even those workplaces are vacant.

CONCLUSIONS

According to presented data and experience, I believe that the scope of the upcoming organizational changes in MoI should include establishing Sector for Human Resources, as the most significant task.

Producing workplaces and tasks analysis for all lines of works in the Ministry and Police Directorate is the fundamental step for drafting the Act on Job Risk Appraisal and Workplaces Systematization. Workplaces analysis also identifies all categories of stressors. In this manner, this analysis becomes the main document for selection, training and classification, as well as for psychological prevention.

Staff selection (instead of hiring on any other grounds) is pre-prevention mechanism to protect employees and institution. Selection according to strict selection criteria, regardless if these are based on traditional model, competences model or combination thereof decreases probability to hire candidates who cannot render the maximum achievements at work. During the training for work, candidates should also be trained to recognize stressors and use techniques for overcoming and/or remedying stress consequences. Interventions may be individual or organizational.

Organization of training based on evaluation of changes per working lines provides for achieving several objectives: employees' development, improving interpersonal relations, increasing loyalty and sense of belonging, decreasing fluctuation and absenteeism, improving efficiency, and employees' self-actualization.

Improved interpersonal relations lead to greater cohesiveness of collective, being one of the significant efficiency factors. Apart from that, the manner in which the solidarity or social support increases is the most significant factor for overcoming stress consequences.

28 "On-the-Job Stress in Policing—Reducing It, Preventing It" NIJ Journal- January 2000 <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/jr000242d.pdf>

REFERENCES

1. A Guide to Competency-Based Management in Police Services <http://www.police-council.ca/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/Competency-Based-Management-Guide.pdf>
2. Arnold, J., Silvester, J., Patterson, F., Robertson, I., Cooper, C., Burnes, B. (2005): "Work psychology : understanding human behaviour in the workplace", Fourth edition 2005, Pearson Education Limited
3. Barišić – Čiganović, N. (2012): "Upotreba psiholoških mernih instrumenata u Srbiji", Centar za primenjenu psihologiju, Beograd
4. Blake, R.J. (2007): "OPC 2007—Police Management Job Analysis & Leadership Needs Assessment", Research and Evaluation Unit Ontario Police College, Queens Printer for Ontario [http://www.opconline.ca/promo/2008/Police%20Management%20Job%20Analysis%20and%20%20Leadership%20Needs%20Assesment%20\(OCT%202007,%20R.%20Blake%20Jelley,%20PhD\).pdf](http://www.opconline.ca/promo/2008/Police%20Management%20Job%20Analysis%20and%20%20Leadership%20Needs%20Assesment%20(OCT%202007,%20R.%20Blake%20Jelley,%20PhD).pdf)
5. COPS Problem-Based Learning/Police Training Officer Program <http://lib.post.ca.gov/Publications/FTG-A14-overview.PDF>
6. Čabarkapa, M. (2008): Čovek i radna okolina – psihofiziološki i ekološki aspekti rada.
7. Čorto, V. (2003): "Procedura realizacije postupka profesionalne selekcije" u Čizmić, S., Kondić, V.: "Psihologija rada u formuli uspeha organizacije", Centar za primenjenu psihologiju, Beograd
8. Defining Key Emerging Competencies of the Chief Diversity Officer (CDO), 2008 Metzler/CDO/Cornell University http://www.michigandiversitycouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/04/CU_emerging_draft1_0519f.pdf.PdfCompressor-323811.pdf
9. Đorđević, S. i Litvaski, J. (2012): "Zbirka predloga praktične politike za reformu policije u Srbiji", broj 7, Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku, decembar 2012.
10. Đorđević, S.: "Prevenција stresa kod policijskih službenika u Srbiji", Zbirka predloga praktične politike za reformu policije, broj 4 mart 2011., Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku
11. Guzina, M. (1980): "Kadrovska psihologija", Naučna knjiga, Beograd
12. Human Resource Management in the Police Department, http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/10603/7597/10/10_chapter%205.pdf
13. Kostić, P., Tomić, C., Kržić, M., Nikolić, I. (2004): „Model i baterija psiholoških testova za selekciju i klasifikaciju kandidata žandarmerije“, Beograd
14. Krstić, Z., (2004): "Psihološko-savetodavna služba u policiji, nacionalna i globalna bezbednost", zbirka radova specijalizanata Fakulteta političkih nauka, generacija 2004.
15. Kulić, Ž., Milošević, G. (2012): "Faktori upravljanja ljudskim potencijalima", Kultura polisa, god. IX (2012), br.17, str. 217-236
16. Lindy-Lee Lubbe / A Competency Model For Security Officers: A Qualitative Design http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/4608/thesis_lebbe_1.pdf?sequence=1
17. Mauritius Police Force National Policing Strategic Framework, "Human Resource Management Capability"(modernising our human resource management), <http://police.gov.mu/English/Documents/Publication/HRM.pdf>
18. "On-the-Job Stress in Policing—Reducing It, Preventing It" NIJ Journal- January 2000 <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/jr000242d.pdf>
19. Police Officer Selection Process, City of Los Angeles Personnel Department http://per.lacity.org/psb/lapd_pdprocess.pdf
20. „Prevention of psychosocial risks and stress at work in practice“ - European Agency for Safety and Health at Work <https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/104>
21. Psychological Competency Training, A Centre of Excellence in Police Training and Development, January 2011, <http://www.police.gov.hk/info/doc/Psychological-Competency.pdf>

22. Robbins, P.S. (1996): "Bitni elementi organizacijskog ponašanja", treće izdanje, MATE, Zagreb
23. Strategija komunikacije Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova Republike Srbije http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms/resursi.nsf/Strategija_komunikacije_Ministarstva_unutrasnjih_poslova_Republike_Srbije_2012-2016_cir.pdf
24. Strategija razvoja Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova 2012. – 2016. http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/Strategija%20razvoja%20MUP-a%202011-2016.pdf
25. Strategija policije u zajednici, http://www.mup.gov.rs/cms_cir/sadrzaj.nsf/strategije.h
26. The Hong Kong Civil Service, Guide to Human Resource Management, <http://www.csb.gov.hk/english/publication/files/e-hrmguide.pdf>
27. Thite, M., Kavanagh, M.J.(?): "Evolution of Human Resource Management and Human Resource Information Systems - The Role of Information Technology", preuzeto sa: http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/25450_Ch1.pdf
28. Todorović, D., (1995): „Osnovi metodologije psiholoških ostraživanja“, Laboratorija za eksperimentalnu psihologiju, Beograd
29. Vljaković, J. (2009): „Od žrtve do preživelog – psihološka pomoć u nesrećama“, IP Žarko Albulj, Beograd, strane 23-38
30. Vujić, D. (2003): "Menadžment ljudskih resursa i kvalitet", Centar za primenjenu psihologiju, Beograd
31. Working on stress - European Agency for Safety and Health at Work <https://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/magazine/5>
32. Živanović, K.: „MUP nema dovoljno psihologa“, dnevne novine „Danas“, 09.10.2013.

TOPIC

SECURITY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS

BEZBEDNOST U VANREDNIM SITUACIJAMA

RESPONSIBILITY OF A STATE IN BUILDING A CAPACITY OF SECURITY SYSTEM

Senior Advisor **Radoslav Gaćinović**, PhD
Institute for Political Studies, Belgrade

„*Can anybody remember when the times were not hard and money not scarce?*“
R. W. Emerson

Abstract: Responsibility is a relation between power holders and subjects to whom the moves of the power holders are directed to. It consists of two elements: „a feeling of duty“ (which makes the power holder to describe his/her moves) and „implementation of the law“ (by which a bad or criminal behavior is sanctioned.) The capacity of the security system in relation to the responsibility is reflected not only in a number of material-technological devices, equipment and armament which are used for purpose of defense of a the state and its citizens. It is reflected also in a geographical position of the state, in its resources, number of population, organization of security system, and training level of its people, that is, training level of the system security actors and their feeling of responsibility toward participation in the security system. The capacity of the security system is reflected also in capability of members of the security structures to efficiently and continuously implement a strategy of deterrence (discouragement) of a threat and when it is necessary also to implement a strategy of retaliation. A level of competence of the managers of the security system is very important in every sense of the word, and in particular in expressing ability for preventive actions, for early recognizing and assesment of the threat. Creation of democratic institutions requires establishing of rules for governing of the relations of responsibilities. Since all social systems are established to meet certain social needs, the security system is an organized social system through which the society realizes and implements the function of protecting its vital values in all circumstances, in particular in times of emergency situations for purpose of general progress and development of society.

Keywords: democracy, responsibility, capacity, system, state, security

Responsibility is a relation between power holders and subjects to whom the moves of the power holders are directed to. It consists of two elements: „a feeling of duty“ (which makes the power holder to describe his/her moves) and „implementation of the law“ (by which a bad or criminal behavior is sanctioned.)¹ It is often comprehended that the responsibility appears in two dimensions (vertical and horizontal ones). „Vertical“ relationship between citizens and the state can be formal relationship (appearing within an electoral system) or informal one (appearing through the forms of lobbying and public representing of some associations).

„Horizontal“ relationship implies the existence of a public body of authority that controls activities of the other authority bodies – f.e. when the legislature bodies supervise the executive ones or in case of authorization of some special authority bodies such as ombudsman or anti-corruption agencies to investigate charges on unlawful acts.² Above the notion of responsibility there are often placed some descriptive adjectives to determine the field of action within which it is necessary to exercise control, a type of performer for the action which is considered to be responsible, or general criterion for assessment of the process performing the action. In this way, the „fiscal responsibility“ refers to the field of operation and the use of public resources and formal systems for submitting financial reports and financial control. „Administrative responsibility“ refers to a special type of participants: bureaucrats, who are required to answer to elected officials and to comply with the regulations that determine their relationship with superiors and subordinates. „Legal“ („constitutional“) responsibility refers to a criterion that

1 Schedler, A. (1999) „Conceptualizing accountability“, in A. Schedler, L. Diamond and M.F. Plattner (eds.) *The Self-Restraining State: Power and Accountability in New Democracies*, London

2 O'Donnell, G. (1999) „Horizontal accountability in new democracies“, in A. Schedler, I. Diamond and M.F. Plattner (eds.) *The Self-Restraining State: Power and Accountability in New Democracies*, London.

is determined by someone else: its conduct is implemented and executed by judicial bodies which take care to ensure that government bodies do not overstep their legal authority, and that they don't avoid their obligations toward the citizens.³ "Security responsibility" belongs to the state and with help of its bodies the state it sets eligible conditions for successful functioning of the security system. Each type of responsibilities, including the one in the field of security, is more evident in democratically organized states.

Democracy applies both to political system and political aspirations. When considering the political system, democracy implies an aspiration to awaken and spread ideal of self-governance. One common definition of democracy is that it means a "reign of people" and the word derives from Greek language (*demos + kratia*). Within the definition there is underlined one question on identity of a nation and character of its reign.⁴ A wave of democracy which emerged during last quarter of 20th century⁵ gave hope to many groups which were just about to hold the right of vote, that they will have a far more active role in urging for the responsibility from politicians and bureaucrats, in a double sense. *Firstly*, to make the public bodies of power responsible to frequently and clearly, without improvisation and in mutually responsible relation, provide arguments for their functioning, and in the process that they explain and justify their moves in accord with determined criterions of morality and efficiency. *Secondly*, the responsibility is required by implementation of the right to announce sanctions to the public bodies of authority for which it is discovered that they acted in immoral way or that they did not do their job efficiently. However, these aspirations have not been accomplished in many cases. Democratic systems of developing states, as well as the states with stable democracy in industrialized states, have experienced a so-called crisis of responsibility - this impression has been gained due to general corruption, wrongly made decisions and a feeling that public bodies have not shown responsibility toward common citizens. Globalization process, which has been going on, has made visible a whole line of new power holders such as multinational corporations and transnational social movements, which has been "rubbing through some cracks in the law" dividing national government bodies and still leaving considerable trace in lives of people.⁶

The challenges posed by imperfect democratization and unbalanced globalization around the world encouraged emergence of an interest to strengthen relevant institutions such as electoral systems, the courts, human rights commissions and audit agencies. This is the core of the plan to establish a "proper reign" which promotes the rule of many agencies for assistance. These efforts are insufficient, having in mind dimensions of all things of which poor people in the world are deprived of in the chain of responsibility. This is the reason why during 1990's there were strengthened efforts for strengthening of responsibility. Despite undoubtedly exhibited differences among experiments related to the way of reigning, which were done for purpose of strengthening responsibility, and despite different domains in which these experiments were made, it is greatly possible to realize important traits of the new plan of responsibility that has been emerging.⁷ Despite their emergence mainly in fragments only of notional innovations and practical experiments, basic elements of this plan have become more clear and they are the following ones: a more direct role of common people and their associations with demands for responsibility and a huger number of authorizations within which there has been used a growing repertoire of methods on the basis of growingly demanding criterions of social justice. Examples for the growingly direct enrollment of the citizens in the efforts for realization of responsibility are public financial controls of local self-government's expenditure that are led by the citizens,⁸ then the participation in financing and review of the expenditure⁹ or existence of an association for filing a case in public interest, often in the interest of socially neglected

3 Адам Купер – Џесика Купер, *Енциклопедија друштвених наука*, том II *Службени гласник*, Београд, 2009, р. 927

4 Ibid, том I, р. 117

5 Huntington, S. (1991) *The Third Wave: Democratization in the late Twentieth Century*, Norman, UK.

6 Адам Купер – Џесика Купер, *Енциклопедија друштвених наука*, том II *Службени гласник*, Београд, 2009, р. 928

7 Goetz, A.M. and Jenkins, R. (2004) *Reinventing Accountability: Making Democracy Work for the Poor*, London.

8 Jenkins, R.; Goetz, A.M. (1999) "Accounts and accountability: Theoretical implications of the right to information movement in India", *Third World Quarterly* 20 (3): 603-622.

9 Albers, R. (1998) "From clientalism to cooperation: Local government, participatory policy, and civic organizing in Porto Alegre Brazil", *Politics and Society* 26 (4): 511-538.

groups, as well as emergence of the state and private factors in the battle against misuse of the power.¹⁰ It is impossible to comprehend modern domestic and international political relations and political processes if prior to that there was not adopted the knowledge on true essence of phenomenon of a state as such. A basic precondition and objective of survival for the state is its security. Therefore purpose of all the state activities, conditionally called political activities, is directed exactly toward this objective. This is a frame of the security politics, too, and it has for its task to accomplish a concept of mechanisms and tools for providing (delivering) of internal and external capacities for security of the state and society.

In general, capacity (lat. *capacitas*) means volume, spatiality, amount of storage space, tonnage (weight carrying ability), ability to do, make, accept or process something; physical amount of electricity and heat or an information which a device can receive in itself; in metaphorical sense it means a man with great talents, a recognized expert.¹¹ However, the capacity of the security system is not reflected only in a number of material-technical devices, equipment and armament that is used for defense of a state and its citizens. The capacity of the security system is reflected also in geographical position of the state, in the state resources, number of population, organization of the system of security and training of people, that is, the training of the security system actors and their feeling of responsibility for active participation in the security system. The capacity of the security system is reflected also in ability of members of the security structures to efficiently and continuously implement a strategy of deterrence (discouragement of a threat) and when it is necessary also to implement a strategy of retaliation. A level of competence of the managers of the security system is very important in every sense of the word, and in particular in expressing their ability for preventive actions and for early recognizing and assesment of the threat. Modern state is responsible for building the capacity of the security system. The modern state might be defined as a special and impersonal institution which is politically centralized – but not necessarily unitarian as well; which authoritatively creates obligations by bringing rules (or by sovereign reigning) for purpose of regulation of the issues among people and groups and also regarding property; which, generally speaking, has an effective monopoly on a publicly organized physical force and which is sufficiently recognized by an appropriate number of the citizens and other states so that it can preserve its organizational and legislative powers within a frame of a (potentially variable) territory. Each one of these elements helps in understanding of the notion of the modern state and of the character of social crisis.¹² In order to understand the essence of functioning of the modern state one should never equate a state with a nation, the state with the state administration and the state with political entities.

THE NOTION AND DEFINITION OF SYSTEM

The word “system” derives from Greek language (Gr. *systema, systematos*) and in general this notion implies a composition, unit, collection, assembly, order, regularity, correctness, harmony, symmetry, distribution, arrangement, organization, correlation (interaction), appropriateness.¹³ In mathematical terms, this notion can be defined with a formula: system = units + interaction + structure. Elaboration of this general understanding shows that the system implies a unique arrangement of its parts in one unit. By the notion system there is always marked only a unit of elements in which a position of each of these elements is essentially determined by its function in relation with the whole unit and other elements.¹⁴ The notion system itself is very old. It is as old as European philosophy which is the source of this notion. Since ancient times to the beginning of 21st century the use of the notion system has become spread from philosophical essays to all spheres of human activity and environment in which people work. This is why it has become one of most frequent notions in use. There is particular meaning of the notion system in Hegel’s

10 Dembowski, H. (2001) *Taking the State to Court: Public Interest Litigation and the Public Sphere in metropolitan India*, New Delhi.

11 Иван Клајн и Милан Шипка, "Велики речник страних речи и израза" IV издање, Прометеј, Нови Сад, 2008, р.583

12 Адам Купер – Џесика Купер, *Енциклопедија друштвених наука*, том I Службени гласник, Београд, 2009, р. 189

13 Клајн.Б. *Велики ријечник страних ријечи*. Зора, Загреб, 1974, р.1212

14 *Опћа енциклопедија*, ЈЛЗ, Загреб, 1981

philosophy. According to Hegel, a reality which gets developed during development of an idea which is immanent to it is envisioned as a system. Hegel's dialectics was a new look on issues of units / complexes. Special traits of the units in relation to their integral parts have started to be explained as a consequence of rules of interactions of the integral parts of some unit and not by metaphysical, abstract and transcendental purposefulness as it used to be the case before it.

Development of humankind, of environment in which the humankind lives and works and development of the way the humankind functions, is characterized by complexity of social, political, technical, natural and other phenomenons which popularized the use of the notion system. As time went by, the notion system developed as a tool of expression of a certain category of phenomenons with some general meaning which could imply the complexity of these phenomenons. This notion simply became an integral part of all spheres of human activities. The reason for this outcome were not only demands for modernization of scientific approaches, but also objective reasons which changed living circumstances, f.e. technical-technological development and industrial revolution and new organizations of production that were based on them. However, system is: a set of interrelated elements that are in direct or indirect relation with each other, and each one of them is a subset related to other subset; each entity, notional or physical one, which is made up of mutually interdependent parts; a set of objects with relations of these objects and their attributes. To this group of definitions which in their center have an internal structuring of system it is possible to add also a determination (definition) that the system relates to integral parts and their interrelated temporal functioning (that is, their interrelated functioning through time).¹⁵ Something different from it, although made on the same basis, is Tilles's definition of system, or Tilles's "System approach". System is a collection of parts that are interrelated and constitute a different entity from its component parts, when viewed separately. According to Tilles, system is a set of interrelated parts and, when observed separately, these interrelated elements constitute an entity which is different from its integral parts.¹⁶ In contrast to these authors who underline system's internal organization when defining the notion of system, a German theoretician sociologist Luhmann is one of pioneers of theoretical orientation who omit system's internal structure when defining the notion system. In system version of his theory of system, which is one of examples of modern organization of theory, Luhmann defined systems as identities which are reflected in complex and changeable environment by stabilization of of difference in relation inner - external world. In other words, Luhmann understands systems as any serious being who is expressed as identity, partially on the basis of one's own order and partially on the basis of external circumstances in one totally complex changeable environment which cannot be totally reigned over.¹⁷ Churchman gave one of possibly most complete definitions and analysis of the notion of system. According to Churchman *system is a set of elements which are inter-matched for purpose of accomplishing certain objectives*.¹⁸ Such definition of the notion of system leads to a conclusion on existence of five elements which are necessary for its complete understanding. These elements are: *objective of system, environment of system, resources of system, components of system and management of system*.

When considering *the objective*, it is necessary to comprehend existence of the objective of system as a whole, but also a possibility that each of separate (respective) elements has its own objective. It is certain that the objective of system as a whole is crucial for efficiency of a system. Also, there are so-called *expressed* and *real* objectives of system. In direct relation with the objectives of system, in particular with dilemmas related to duality of the objectives (the system as a whole and its separate elements, expressed and real ones), of particular importance are so-called measures of performance of system. According to Churchman, so-called measures of performance of system are criterions for determination of efficiency of system. Performance is better in accord with better result. In elaboration of system as a tool of expression of certain category of phenomenons and in his elaboration of some general meanings which could define complexity of these phenomenons, professor Eugen Pusic argues that in science the notion

¹⁵ Ibid, p.12.

¹⁶ Tilles, S. *The Manager's Job: A Systems Approach*, наведено према: Перко-Шепаровић, И. *Теорије организације*, Школска књига, Загреб, 1975, p.37.

¹⁷ Лухманн, Н. *Теорије система: Сврховитост и рационалност*, Глобус, Загреб, 1991.p.5; 143.

¹⁸ Churchman.C.W. *Системски приступ*, CDD CCOX, Загреб, 1986, pp. 30-41

system is used in parallel with growing possibility of people to comprehend complexity of their problems in life. In this sense, Pusic underlined that the characteristics of the notion of system could be grouped into three categories: *general correlation of phenomenons, contingency and dynamics of contrasts (antipodes)*.¹⁹ The system is more than a sum of its elements, due to a principle of integration which implies establishment of at least one connection between at least two elements. Through the principle of integration there is set up an unit (complex) of the system. *Elements of the system* are connected in a combined way, that is, they are connected directly with each other, but also they are connected to their whole unit of the system, while preserving realism of direct relations among the elements all the while also considering the whole unit of system.

Within general connectivity as a separate feature of the system, all relations between phenomenons can be contingent ones.²⁰ The word is about a notion which in theoretical sense (A Contingency Theory) was defined by Lawrence and Lorsch, American experts for issues of theory of organization.²¹ If observed from an aspect of system, contingency means that the relations among phenomenons can be different than they really are in certain place and at certain time. System expresses complexity of the contingency through its elements. Contingency is different for each element. In different circumstances some same phenomenons might be considerably connected with other phenomenons in different way in other units (complexes) through their other attributes.

Therefore, the purpose of general theory of system, (*systems theory*), as a new scientific discipline, is to research rules of all systems, mechanic/technical as well as biological and social systems alike. Theme of its research are the rules of connecting of the parts in the unit, legality of interactions within the system and interaction between the system and environment. Establishment of general system theory provided its implementation in all spheres of human activity with an objective, as Young underlined, to avoid fragmentation of existing knowledge, that is, to integrate precious knowledge and skills from other disciplines.²²

As one of supporters of general system theory Young argues that this theory proves that all systems, no matter whether they are mechanic, organic, human or social ones, have characteristic traits which are mainly common traits.²³ Therefore it is necessary research these elements which have the common traits and this, according to one of founders of the general system theory Kenneth Boulding, should be main scientific base which provides a central framework for the research.²⁴ On the other hand, American sociologist Talcott Parsons, as a great supporter of system approach to the research of social phenomenons, thinks that each system, regardless of all its traits, has to accomplish some basic functions if it wants to survive and be a stable one. *First* function implies a need of each social system to preserve opportunity (possibility) of its preservation and reproduction of the unit or its main traits. This is why each system has to be adapted, that is, it has to be capable of accepting all new facts and circumstances and to adapt to them. *Second* function is related to functioning of the objective of system. The objectives of system are different ones and most basic objective is the survival of system. *Third* trait is integration of system which implies a coherent functioning of important parts of system and their conduct. On the basis of their conduct it is possible to notice important regularities in relations between systems and sub-systems.

In their elaboration of the general system theory certain authors have warned that in some cases it is substituted with a system of analysis which is in fact methodology of observation of complicated problems which are divided and separated on sections for purpose of easier research. In other words, system analysis is a set of techniques which help in organization of the data, but it itself does not set up any fixed objective in advance, while system theory is an

19 Пусић. Е. *Управни системи*, Књига прва, Графички завод Хрватска, Загреб, 1985, pp. 13-19.

20 Notion contingency (Lat. *contingere*- coincidence, possibility, eventuality (Клаић.Б. *Велики речник страних речи*. Зора. Загреб, 1974, p.693)

21 Lawrence.R.P: Lorsch W.J. *Organization and Environment: Managing Differentiation and Integration*, Harvard University, Бостон, 1967.

22 Радован Вукадиновић., *Међународни политички односи*, Барбат, Загреб, 1998, p.349

23 Young, R.O. *Systems of Political Science*, in Вукадиновић. Р. *Међународни политички односи*, Барбат, Загреб, 1998, p.349.

24 Boulding. K.General Systems, *The Skeleton of Science*, in Вукадиновић. Р. *Међународни политички односи*, Барбат, Загреб, 1998, p. 349.

integral set of concepts, hypothesis and proposals that are applicable in a spectre of human knowledge.²⁵ System thinking is in direct relation with the general system theory. The system thinking is based, before anything else, on the research of all objects as the system, while elements of the systems are explained on the basis of their interactions and relations within a process of functioning of the unit (the complex) and not vice versa. Hence, the system thinking is third phase in development of science.

General systems theory emerged in natural sciences as a reaction to a tendency for more and more narrow specialization and "automatization" of knowledge. In social sciences this theory emerged as a result of penetration of behaviouristic²⁶ movement in science. Basic motive in the emergence of the system theory was to make unification of science and scientific analysis, that is, an integration of different disciplines in social sciences. The notion system itself derives from a Greek word "sistema" which marks a characteristic of a set of elements, something which is composed, a composition, unit, and according to some certain view a regulated unit which is compiled from various things or cognitions.²⁷ *Idea of system is not completely new in social sciences and it has had long history behind. Among others, it was Leibnitz, Hegel and Marx and in recent period it was W. Rohler (works from 1924 and 1927) and A.J. Lotka (works from 1925). The works of these authors are a precedent in creation of general system theory.*²⁸ Since the latter half of 20th century this idea got developed into a theoretical concept in the field of social sciences. Biologist Ludwig von Bertalanffy was a founder of the theory of general system. He presented the idea of the general theory of system in 1937 on a seminar *Charles Morris* at the Chicago University. However, real serious beginning of the system theory became evident with establishment of the *Society for the Advancement of General Systems Theory* in 1954. године, whose founders were a biologist *Ludwig von Bertalanffy*, an economist *Kenneth Boulding*, a bio-mathematician *Anatol Rapoport* and a psychologist *Ralph Gerald*. This society soon changed its title into the *Society for General Systems Research*. Hence, the objective of the general systems theory was formulation of universal principles which could be applied in all systems of physical, biological or sociological nature alike. *According to this theory "system is defined as a set (complex) of elements in interaction (interactivity), and these interactions have their own order (they are not of spontaneous nature), and general theory could be applied on the phenomenons in different traditional branches of scientific research."*²⁹ Most often the notion *social system* implies a regulated unit (complex) which consists of various elements and cognitions in accord with an in advance defined view for purpose of accomplishment of its social purpose. Social system encompasses the following elements: a clear objective (reason) for its establishment; forces and tools for accomplishment of the objective; organization or structure of the elements which are necessary for realization of certain activities for purpose of accomplishment of the objective; a set of activities directed to the accomplishment of the objective and a function of structural elements for purpose of the accomplishment of the objective. Since all social systems are established for purpose of satisfying certain social needs, the *security system* is an organized social system in which society accomplishes a function of protection of its vital values for purpose of general development and advancement of the society. *Taking into consideration that all social systems are established for purpose of accomplishment of permanent goals, the security system of one society, state or international community is established as a permanent system for purpose of defense of national states, regions and global society from models and sources of threat and imperilment.*

Internal system of security consists of a number of sub-systems: Army, Police, intelligence and security services, civil service of security, customs, inspection and judicial authorities, civil defense and citizens. Inter-connection and inter-dependence of functioning of all security subjects is based on their complementarity within the framework of organization and functioning of the security system.³⁰

25 Радован Вукадиновић, *Међународни политички односи*, Барбаг, Загреб, 1998, p. 349.

26 *Biheaviourism* (Engl. behaviour, conduct; a psych. mov., founded by American Watson in 1912, who carefully observed behavior of people in different circumstances and on the basis of these circumstances explained social processes. (Милан Вујаклија, *Лексикон страних речи и израза*, Просвета, Београд, 1980, p. 118).

27 *Ibid*, p. 841

28 Ludwig von Bertalanffy, *General System Theory*, Georga Brayiller, New York, 1968. p. 13.

29 Ludwig von Bertalanffy, *General Theory of System: Application to Psychology*, in the *Socijal Sciences – Problems and Orientations*, Mouton/UNESCO, The Hague, Paris, 1968. p. 309.

30 Љубомир Стајић – Радослав Гаћиновић, *Увод у студије безбедности*, Драслар, Београд, 2007, pp. 99-100

Central-State system is based on a traditional – realistic view which holds that sovereign states are dominant subjects making rules of “conduct” in archaic sense and it is based on a hierarchical division of military, political and economic power among existing states. Its objective is provision and preservation of physical survival of a state and society and its final tool for the preservation and accomplishment of the objectives is the use of force. Weak states have to make alliances with great powers for purpose of preserving their own and / or joint security. On the other hand, *multicentral system* is a complex system consisting of different and relatively autonomous subjects. Their objective is not only preservation of traditional objectives of the central-state system, but through cooperation with like-minded ones or submission of weaker ones they attempt to spread the world market of which various sub-systems and associations of new factors significantly influence international relations. This system is still sensitive to changes, because its institutionalization is not yet complete.³¹

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE SECURITY SYSTEM

Theory of security is often comprehended as a systematically organized knowledge on security phenomenons which is obtained through a scientific-methodological method and in this sense this knowledge is equated with a science of security. Development of the theory of security also in practical sense creates possibility to elaborate objective tendencies of further route of the security phenomenons and practice within the framework of a society in question and that moving in this direction accelerates and gets directed to desired direction by practical participation in the process.

Significance of *the theory* of security for *the practice* of security is not only underlining of necessity of the need for the security, but also in adjustment of methods and tools to the needs of elimination of all sources and ways of imperilment of the security of society in an optimal and social acceptable way.

The theory of security is also a tool for research of the security phenomenons, because there is no understanding of the security phenomenons and they are viewed only superficially if there is not scientifically based and correctly methodologically analyzed hypothesis that are derived from the research. As a consequence this superficiality has unreliable results and narrowing of analysis of the security issues only on empirical descriptions.

Hence, the theory of security can be defined as a set of cognitions and comprehensive explanations and practically proved hypothesis on emerging rules (regularities, legalities), directions and endings in case of the security phenomenons and the phenomenons of imperilment which are directly inter-related.

The theory of security, just like other general social theories, starts from some basic principles such as: comprehensiveness of the subject or research; simplicity and uniqueness of methods, tools and notional apparatus; a need for constant scientific confirmation of basic standpoints (verifiability of results); theoretical, social and practical contribution, etc.

*It is possible to conclude that each security system depends mostly on human activity, because people (both in case of individuals and groups) with their activities and interests are basic sources of imperilment security of a community. However, it is also possible to conclude that it is people who make social objectives, establish the objectives of the security system and by making conscious and necessary joint efforts within some security system they accomplish such objective.*³²

Each system, including the security system, is characterized by its own efficiency. Among other characteristics, a characteristic of the security system is that its efficiency does not depend on itself as such, no matter how organized it is, but also on relevant circumstances in which it is positioned and functions. Consequently, the purpose of the security system is not the security system itself, but it is a consequence of a need for accomplishment of certain social objectives through it, that is, through its functioning. Through the security system people, tools and the way of functioning of the system are determined and established on the right of law. The security system is very comprehensive system and it is organized in hierarchical structure or sub-systems and micro-systems. As a rule a sub-system accomplishes one activity as a part of

³¹ Ibid.

³² Љубомир Стаић – Радослав Гаџиновић, *Увод у студије безбедности*, Драсслар, Београд, 2007, р.93

general activity, while a micro-system connects a number of activities and functions in a narrow space (a municipality, region and republic). Each system may have one or many types of activity and it is divided on several subsystems in accord with the number of activities. A specificity of the security system, which further describes its comprehensiveness, is reflected in the fact that its subsystems are organized like systems, because each of them has its particular forces, tools, methods, rules and norms of work.³³

Therefore, taking into consideration all above mentioned definitions and facts, a generally accepted definition of the security system is the following one: *"It is a form of organization and functioning of society in implementation of measures and activities on preventive and repressive plan for purpose of preservation of sovereignty and integrity of a state, its constitutionally established order, rights and freedoms of its citizens and all other social values from all sources and forms of imperilment."*³⁴

Basic function of the security system is established and reflected in a timely discovering and prevention of all forms of enemy's and anti-social activity which imperil basic functions of society. By the very defining of the security system of modern state there is stated a wish to establish functional integration of all structures of the state for purpose of strengthening of protective function and also a systematization of all defensive components into a separate unit (system) for purpose of easier accomplishment of basic objectives of the state in the sphere of security.³⁵

A state organizes the security system in a way and to the extent which suits its character, needs and capacities. With this act the state defines its vital values and protects them through functioning of the security system. These values are caused (modeled) by a character of social and economic relations which are prevailing in the state, also by a level of development of productive forces, relations among social classes and legal and political superstructure. Basic values of modern state are: *sovereignty, territorial integrity, independence, constitutional order and human rights and freedoms.*

Structure of the security system is reflected in: *Organization and regulation; unity; efficiency; openness; dynamics; hierarchical structure; two-way relationship; functionality of foreign politics; integral management, control and command.*

The security system is aimed at establishment of internal and external balance within international community. The security system accomplishes the external balance through activity of foreign politics in the field of international relations, before all, by discouragement with its own strength and organization and with establishment of external security in international environment through cooperation with other states on the basis of established international law.³⁶

Function of the security system, as well as comprehensiveness of activities and tasks of such a significant system that the security system is, is reflected through a huge number of characteristics. Many of these characteristics are immanent only to the security system and they are the following ones: the security system is organized, regulated and comprehensive social system; it is a specific, open and dynamic system; it is a subsystem of a great social system; it is a hierarchically structured system; functioning of this system is related to unfavorable conditions; there is a significant mutual contrast (confrontation) between the security and the sources of its imperilment; functioning of the system mostly depends on human factor; purpose of its existence is of two-fold nature – prevention, that is, preventive activity and responding (reciprocation) and removal of the threat; uniqueness (impossibility of repeating) of the methods, tools and events in their absolute sameness; functioning in peaceful, extra-ordinary and war conditions and continuous qualitative changes in structure and way of functioning.³⁷

The state security measures are activities (acts, moves) which are performed with an objective of bringing the subjects of the security system, partially or completely, into a state of readiness for performance of defensive activities. By the security measures the security system reacts to

33 Радослав Гаћиновић, *Безбедносна функција државе*, Институт за политичке студије, Београд, 2012, р. 27

34 Ibid, р. 97

35 Радослав Гаћиновић, "Демократија и безбедност у националној држави," *Српка политичка мисао* бр.1/2010, р. 165

36 Радослав Гаћиновић, *Безбедносна функција државе*, Институт за политичке студије, Београд, 2012, р. 35

37 Љубомир Стајић – Радослав Гаћиновић, *Увод у студије безбедности*, Драслар, Београд, 2007, рр. 98-99

certain imperilments which pose a threat to the state. In general, they are undertaken between two states in which the subjects of the security are and that is – between a regular (peaceful) state and the state of their combat use (the state of war).

It is scientifically proved, and it is confirmed by practical experience as well, that achievements of overall state development, stability of economic, political and overall social relations and organization and capability of the state directly influence defensive strength of the state. In order to achieve the second precondition of security – organization and capability of the state for its defense it is necessary to perform certain activities in order to provide it directly. These activities, due to their character and purpose, are called activities for accomplishing security of the state.³⁸

REFERENCES

1. Albers, R. (1998) "From clientalism to cooperation: Local government, participatory policy, and civic organizing in Porto Alegre Brazil", *Politics and Society* 26 (4):
2. Адам Купер – Џесика Купер, *Енциклопедија друштвених наука*, том II Службени гласник, Београд, 2009,
3. Dembowski, H. (2001) *Taking the State to Court: Public Interest Litigation and the Public Sphere in metropolitan India*, New Delhi.
4. Goetz, A.M. and Jenkins, R. (2004) *Reinventing Accountability: Making Democracy Work for the Poor*, London.
5. Радослав Гаџиновић, *Безбедносна функција државе*, Институт за политичке студије, Београд, 2012,
6. Huntington, S. (1991) *The Third Wave: Democratization in the late Twentieth Century*, Norman, OK.
7. Huntington, S. (2004) *Трећи талас, Демократизација на измеку двадесетог века (превод: Бранимин Глигорић) Политичка култура Загреб-ЦИД, Подгорица*.
8. Jenkins, R. i Goetz, A.M. (1999) "Accounts and accountability: Theoretical implications of the right to information movement in India", *Third World Quarterly* 20 (3)
9. O'Donnell, G. (1999) "Horizontal accountability in new democracies", in A. Schedler, I. Diamond and M.F. Plattner (eds.) *The Self-Restraining State: Power and Accountability in New Democracies*, London.
10. Schedler, A. (1999) "Conceptualizing accountability", in A. Schedler, I. Diamond and M.F. Plattner (eds.) *The Self-Restraining State: Power and Accountability in New Democracies*, London.
11. Д. Вејновић, *Систем безбедности и друштвено окружење*, Удружење дефендолога Републике Српске, Бања Лука, 2006, стр. 87
12. Љубомир Стајић – Радослав Гаџиновић, *Увод у студије безбедности*, Драслар, Београд, 2007,
13. Љубомир Стајић; Саша Мијалковић; Светлана Станаревић, *Безбедносна култура*, Драганић, Београд, 2005,
14. М. Ракић и Д. Вејновић, *Систем безбедности и друштвено окружење*, Удружење дефендолога Републике Српске, Бања Лука, 2006
15. Ludvig von Bartalanffy, *General Theory of System: Application to Psychology*, in the *Socijal Sciences – Problems and Orientations*, Mouton/UNESCO, The Hague, Paris, 1968
16. Перко-Шепаровић, И. *Теорије организације*, Школска књига, Загреб, 1975
17. Радован Вукадиновић, *Међународни политички односи*, Барбат, Загреб, 1998.
18. Ludvig von Bartalanffy, *General System Theory*, Georga Brayiller, New York, 1968

³⁸ Радослав Гаџиновић, *Угрожавање капацитета безбедности државе*, Филип Вишњић, Београд, 2013, р. 29,

STRATEGIES AND TACTICS IN CRISIS MANAGEMENT INFORMATION AND EMERGENCY

Associate Professor **Zoran Jevtović**, PhD¹
University of Niš, Faculty of Philosophy

Full Professor **Srđan Milašinović**, PhD²
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: By creating an integrated system for emergency management since 2009 the Government of Serbia joined crucial reforms in the system of protection and rescuing of people, material assets and the environment. The formation of the Emergency Department together with specialist teams for rapid response a significant progress towards European standards has been made; the international cooperation has contributed to the exchange of experiences and knowledge, while the adoption of the Law on Emergency Situations established guidelines that represent the highest standard of regulation in those areas whose subject is a protection of fundamental values such as life, the integrity, the environment and property. Natural disasters, technological accidents and traffic accidents are some of the causes that are the subject of public attention, which is why information management is of growing importance. The authors offer an open and multi-dimensional conceptual model of crisis communication, advocating that any emergency situation takes place in several stages, each of which is characterized by different patterns of communication. New media, social network above all, have changed the context of the communication activities, while the variable speed of data communication, though inadequate and unprepared teams, often undermine the results achieved in the field. Performing the analytical investigation of messages of Archibald Reiss authors emphasize the relevance of his views on important communication in times of crisis, offering an original theoretical model of information management, adequate to the qualitatively changed social condition.

Keywords: Information, Emergency situations, new media, Crisis communications, Public management, Security.

It is difficult to define the modern society from a sociological framework, since the current series of crises, conflicts, unexpected events and political developments, are changing social and political security environment, creating a new inter-group and individual relationships. The world is in information and security turmoil, and the crisis communications and construction consent forms come to the forefront, while the priorities are given to the realization of compromises and peaceful solutions. Spotting crisis situations, decision making, their correct interpretation, execution in the field and drawing lessons are considered as crucial phases of emergency management. Hence, this paper claims that every crisis, conflict or emergency situation has its own peculiarities and perspectives, but vital strategic thinking direction and control over the information is important for their development and social positioning! Between democratic legitimacy and dynamic and sophisticated symbolic management there is a narrow space for *crisis management* activities³, minding the stability of the system and the measures to be taken. The public impression is important because of the perception of security problems, ways of reacting and solving those problems, especially in the digital community when, caused by the “data leakage” a panic or distrust in the power of system can easily arise. Emergency situations cannot be often predicted, but in practice they should be faced as soon as possible, and not avoided or delayed!

¹ The paper was written under the Project No. 179008, implemented by the University of Belgrade – Faculty of Political Sciences, and the University of Niš – Faculty of Philosophy, funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.

² The paper was written under the Project No. 179045, implemented by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, funded by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of the Republic of Serbia.

³ This concept in future work will involve “*planning, implementation and control of complex processes of inter-subjective transmission of content and construction of reality by political actors*” (Zerfaß A. & Oehsen, H.O. 2011:11).

The concept of strategy comes from the Greek language (*stratēgós*: warlord, according to *stratós*: army, and *agein*: leading), and the original interpretation is understood as “the science of the art of war, which explores the mutual relations of political, economic and war elements of preparation and conduction of war” and “long-term plan of the Supreme Command for the achievement of victory.”⁴ In contemporary community the concept is used in all areas of social life, from politics and security, via the economy and education, to sports and entertainment, but in derived and figurative meaning. In the public sphere the term communication strategy originated as a comprehensive idea of an individual or a social group, in the communication role of the sender, in order to achieve specific goals by persuasive effect on the individual or social groups, in the communication role of the recipient.⁵ The theory based on the number of participants that create communication situation clearly distinguishes interpersonal, mass and integrated⁶ communication strategy. In emergency situations, a combination of strategies is preferred, because the ultimate effect is the efforts of entities influence attitudes, thinking and behavior of differently structured public opinion with plurality of messages. In emergency situations, the safety of the entire community may depend on the transmission speed and quality of information content, which means that it is necessary to form a unified communication center, which would, in consistence with the expressive possibilities of technical and technological support, create and direct media production to all public segments. Controlling and dosing of attention, learning about the situation in the field, the identification of the problems of citizens, gaining the trust, blurring reality, preventing panic, conflict resolution, recovery are only some of the techniques that can be used. *Conditio sine qua non* of any strategy in this form of communication practice makes communication timely and transparent. With that in mind, the emergency communications strategy can be defined as a comprehensive concept of a security subject of the ways to disseminate messages in order to preserve the stability of the system, allowing the effectiveness of responses to the events and directing the publicity to the desired direction.

Tactics include the choice of communication methods and skills during emergencies implementing by entities in order to gain the attention and trust. Their mission is to assist in achieving the projected strategy, whereby information as part of the solution emergencies, but also as a means of persuading others are used. In contemporary society, the public perception is the result of directed mass-production, which means that combination of a variety of communication channels and the projected content affects the resolution of the situation, and thus expected outcomes. Democratic establishment does not mean the anarchy in the communication space – by the development of a strategy for acting in emergency situations at the same time the tactics that will ensure dissemination of influence on the public should be defined.

To avoid possible theoretical differences here we will delimit the conceptual differences and similarities between the notions of crisis, conflict and emergencies. From the extensive range of semantics we highlighted several distinctive concepts: Ian Mitroff believes that the crisis is an unpredictable event that has the potential “to hit the entire organization”, but if we want to talk about a greater crisis “the price expressed in human lives, property, financial gain, reputation, general health and well-being of the organization” comes into play.⁷ Pearson C.M. and Clair J.A. define crisis as “low probability event and a major consequences that threatens the life of the organization, and is characterized by vague causes, effects and means of solution, as well as belief that decisions must be made quickly”.⁸ Contemporary definition is given by Paul t’Hart stating that it is “an unpleasant event, which poses a challenge for policy makers, tempt them to act in terms of threats, time constraints and lack of readiness”, because it is “a serious threat to the basic structures or the fundamental values and norms of social system which, in terms of time pressure and very precarious circumstances, requires making critical decisions”.⁹ From this definition, we see that it can be applied to all kinds of disturbances

4 Klajn and Šipka, *The dictionary of foreign words and phrases*, 2008, pp.1187.

5 Miletić, M. i Miletić, N., *Komunikološki leksikon*, 2012, p.142.

6 Lat. *integralis*; from *integer*, with meaning: entire, complete, whole.

7 Mitroff, I., “*Managing Crisis before they Happen*”, AMACOM, New York, 2000.

8 Pearson C. M. and J. A. Clair : “Reaffirming Crisis Management”, *Academy of Management Review* 23, 1998, p.60.

9 U: Rosenthal, U., M.T.Charles and P. t’Hart (1989), “The world of crisis and crisis management” in: U. Rosenthal, M. T. Charles and P. t’Hart (Eds), *Coping with Crises: The Management of Disasters, Riots and Terrorism*, Springfield:Charles C. Thomas.

(environmental threats, fractures of information and communication systems, economic crises, conflicts within states, prison riots, regional wars, factory explosions, and natural disasters), as it introduces multidisciplinary access in the analytical process. Second, this definition indicates the importance of timely decision making - crisis and emergency situations are viewed as opportunities for the urgent adoption of important decisions.

The notion of *conflict* is related to different types of negative social practices and interactions between and within social groups and their relationship with the larger or smaller dose involved violence. The roots of conflict as a complex phenomenon, are found in a variety of needs: economic, class, racial, religious, national, political, socio-psychological and other contradictions, interests and goals. Researchers, by recognizing the position of historical materialism, notice how this concept emphasizes the importance of contradictions, tensions and conflicts among antagonized social classes. "Polarization of these major groups within global companies, which occurs primarily in connection with the distribution of socio-economic and then political, moral, cultural and other values, culminates in the respective global social crisis. States of such social tensions and struggles are permanent companion of human societies since the large internal differentiation of conflicting interests arising from the emergence of private property, which took place at the dawn of civilization.¹⁰ "So, by looking at the development of civilization, we will notice conflicts as constant companions, regardless of ideological order or economic-cultural values. Hence, the conflict can be defined as "the social situation in which at least two parties (individuals, groups, states) participate having: a) a completely different starting point, at first glance irreconcilable, and seek different objectives that can be achieved only by one party and/or using b) completely different means for achieving a particular goal".¹¹

An *emergency situation*¹² is a broader concept than the notion of *crisis* and *conflict*. The emergency situation may only be emergency for a social group or geographic community (large fire, serious traffic accidents, floods) for direct actors it can be a major crisis or disaster. Therefore, an emergency situation does not have to be a crisis situation, but it puts extraordinary demands in front of the traditional structures.¹³ Specifically, the institutional system components scheduled to fight crisis can respond to this emergency needs with the entrenched mechanisms and security standards. Events that cause emergencies are understandable (comprehensible) operational situation which, if they are allowed to develop unchecked, can result in a serious degradation of capacity and loss of resources and/or human life. Therefore, the internal and external information management is of growing importance, especially as in the practice the public uses these terms interchangeably, not noticing the precise line of demarcation that is stressed in Conflictology. Each emergency situation is composed of several phases: the event, media manifestation, escalation, de-escalation, resolution and stability (compromise). Theorists see the four main angles from which we approach the event:

According to the source, or origin (natural or technological emergencies);

According to the consequences (degree of loss and damage, the intensity and duration);

According to the course (intervention of different actors, the security capacity of response, organizations and communities),

According to the degree of risk that it involves.¹⁴

The process of crisis communication in emergency situations usually flows from security,

¹⁰ Jevtović, M., Mlašinović, S.: *Socijalnopatološke pojave*, PA, Beograd, 2006, p.33.

¹¹ <http://www.friedenspaedagogik.de/2008>

¹² The concept of emergency situations in our work involves adversities and extraordinary events that occurred on factors that are not predictable, nor are under man's contingency, and have the effect on endangering the life or health of humans or animals and property damage. However, the conceptual framework is further expanding to accidents that indicate a man-made disasters, and are generally consequences of natural events.

¹³ The *emergency situation* should be distinguished from *state of emergency* which implies that the government's announcement to suspend the normal functioning of the government and public administration, and citizens are warned to change their normal way of life or behavior in order to protect lives and property, while government agencies receive instructions to act according to the plans for emergency situations, with certain restrictions of freedoms and rights of citizens. Causes of the state of emergency are usually natural disasters, massive civil riots, announcement or the beginning of the war, in which case the term *state of war* is used.

¹⁴ Lalonde, C., (2004), "In Search of Archetypes in Crises Management", *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis management*, Vol 12, No 2.

via social to the psychological level. The process has a substantially hidden unpredictability, but communication team oversees the public sphere in order to achieve physical, economic or social interests. Communication is usually based on a set of expected outcomes, while the control is reflected in the creation of predictable behavior of the audience, leading to the expected result. We live in a time of permanent risks and challenges in which spatial and temporal frames of communications experience profound transformation, due to the fact that the media of public information and notification are grown in competitive and successful creative industry of thinking.¹⁵

THE CONCEPT OF INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

In *Merriam-Webster dictionary* the *concept* is defined as “the general overall thought, opinion, or idea; an idea made up by a combination of characteristics and components of a entirety”.¹⁶ Therefore, the concept of crisis communication can be understood as a general thought, opinion or idea of the security system; an idea made up by a combination of characteristics or subgroups of the security system. The emergency situations, in its core, comprises a process of communication exchange, either to express the essence of misunderstandings and obstacles, or to offer solutions and to achieve consensus. With o contact with the other side there is no conflict, so we can talk about the dialectical relationship of the participants. Besides, the key to their lack of understanding is in the different perceptions of reality, or the surplus or deficit of certain data.

If we do not act on time, the emergency situation may be extended to escalate to a higher level of intensity. For the purposes of this study we have analyzed the case of the recent water pollution in city of Uzice (Serbia), in order to show the consequences of confusing response of crisis management:

On 6th of December, 2013 at 6.18 p.m. the media first reported on the panic that prevails among the citizens of city of Uzice. Less than an hour earlier, Institute of Public Health announced that algae in drinking water were found and that the tap water is not for drinking and cooking, and that the citizens will get recommendations about further utilization tomorrow. Unofficially, the Institute of Public Health of Serbia sent a telephone notification to its Department in Uzice at 1.00 p.m. that “something is wrong” with the tap water in the city, but this strategically important information is concealed from the general public. This is a typical error of communication in crisis situations, because the thought that a latent (hidden) crisis can be hidden when there is a chain of involved collaborators is equal to utopia. At 8.30 p.m. the citizens were officially informed that the water is not for drinking and cooking. The team for emergency situations immediately held a meeting, but unprepared for timely response allowed the rumors to take the place of soothing information! The creation of a team to operate in crisis communication was absent; top managers as the most responsible person, determination of PR and beginning control and routing data (emergency press conference, the opening of free info- line for citizens, creating a website, writing press releases, submitting a statement media...). At the head of the team, the Deputy Mayor of city of Uzice was appointed in the absence of the mayor and chief of staff of the Municipal Emergency Management (political, not professional appointment), while in practice the priority was to ensure the tank with water from the surrounding villages (“the team will try during night to address the issue of bottled water supply of the city, as all stores by early evening hours were left with no bottles of water”). From a potential problem situation was out of control and crossed into the manifest (open) crisis, which every moment increased the number of interested participants!

Just a day later, the situation is further complicated since the crisis is not well presented in the public sphere, so that the pressure of citizens is growing. Poor communication reinforces the conflicting tensions, especially as no one accepts responsibility for the resulting situation. In emergency situations it is better to prevent the appearance of bad image than to allow it public acclimatization. In practice, the opposite happened: the journalist went to the lake Vrutci, from which the city is supplied with water and met a disastrous situation. The coastal part of the lake,

¹⁵ Milašinović, S., Jevtović, Z., Despotović, Lj., *Politika, mediji i bezbednost*, Beograd, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, 2012.

¹⁶ <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/376313/Merriam-Webster-dictionary> On 01/23/2014.

close to the dam is covered with a thick layer of slimy, dark red mass, like raspberry syrup. Further upstream the bottom of the lake was covered in thin layer, and the water itself, seen from the surrounding hills, has a reddish color. All television programs and news begin with apocalyptic scenes, because in crisis situations the images are easily implanted into the subconscious than statements or descriptive data. If media are left with no fresh information during the emergency situations, they take the initiative, which was very noticeable in this example. A sensationalist articles about the “fabulous” attempts of getting rich of local merchants who sell water to the cup are published; rumors about cancer are spread, while statements, in some cases, are given by bitter individuals with hidden ideological motives. Attempts of relevant departments to ban the use of water as a preventive measure only encouraged rumor communication (“on Thursday morning the rumors that cyanobacteria are isolated from the water were spread. Hours before the official announcement, some of the citizens of Užice who have friends in the Public Health Department, were informed that the water is not for drinking”). The Institute of Public Health of Serbia was confirmed the presence of algae isolated from water identified as cyanobacteria, but, at the same time, the Division in Užice claims that the presence of extremely hazardous cyanotoxin called *microcystin-LR* is not proved, which is malignant in small quantities, and is the result of decomposition of cyanobacteria; to prove this, engaging the foreign laboratory is needed. In these situations, the feverish as the wind expands media images, because the public is infected by partial information. This is dangerous to the stability of the community, because when transmitting data their relevance distorts, and the suspicion converts into truth. Rumors projected a false reality, and with a loss of confidence in the official media their suggestiveness and credibility arise.¹⁷ The situation in the field is escalating from the simple reason since the human needs are ignored! Rudolph Archibald Reiss, a renowned Swiss publicist, a doctor of chemistry and professor at the University of Lausanne¹⁸, wrote that “in times of political and economic crisis the feeling of helplessness, fear, violence and mistrust in the state government arises, whose task is to ensure peace and security”.¹⁹

On 31st of December, 2013, water supply system of the city of Užice began chemical purification of the pipeline that runs from the reservoir to the plant Vrutci to the plant in Užice Terazije. After a few days (01/04/2014) of additional chemical treatment, the water was still defective. Emergency laboratory tests performed at the Institute “Batut” in Belgrade showed that in a liter of water taken from the tank of purified, treated water at the plant Cerovića hill, some 7.700 cells of potentially toxic algae planktothrix was found. Even worse is the situation in the urban water supply network where 22.000 cells were found in a sample. However, unlike the last time when the citizens of Užice waited for seven days from sampling to results of laboratory analysis, this time the authorities should have only a day and a half, which is proof that the system restores vitality and control of the operation. Even now we can say that the city headquarters is characterized by all phases of inadequate response times: the unwillingness and unpreparedness to deal with time pressure.²⁰ The team for crisis management has no initiative, and instead of being proactive and to impose discourse, it leaves it to media that, driven sensationalism and circulation, only encourages discontent and apathy.

On 5th of January, hundreds of citizens of Užice expressed a protest outside the local government headquarters demanding immediate solution to the problem of water supply. Citizens have organized themselves through Facebook and call themselves a group of “Užice citizens who will not be silent”. Thus, the social network space occupied conventional media, using slowness and disorganization of official institutions. “It is time to, instead of standing still in the queues beside the water supply tanks, ask for the acceptance of moral and criminal responsibility of all relevant and to require the solution of the hot topic problem, since we do not believe that the amount of algae and bacteria are to repair any time soon”, was written in a

17 Nojbauer, H. J., *Fama – istorija glasina*, Beograd, Klio, 2010, p. 14.

18 Archibald Reiss (1875 -1929) was the founder of the first academic program of the Institute of Forensic Science and Criminology, at the University of Lausanne.

19 See more in: Jevtović, Z. and Aracki, Z.: „Archibald Reiss propaganda – Communication Influence on Conflict Paradigm Construction“, Thematic Proceedings of International Significance: *Archibald Reiss Days*, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2013, issue III, Volume III, p. 249-256.

20 “The crisis is a big challenge for managers, since they are required to make appropriate decisions in the highly stressed situation”. See more in: *Metodologija istraživanja konflikata i krizno komuniciranje*, Milašinović, Jevtović, 2013, p. 100.

letter which was read out at the protest. The Facebook group has announced the continuation of the meeting. That same evening, after the meeting of the local team for emergency situations the director of “Srbija vode” (“Serbian waters”) said at a press conference that on Monday the construction of the pipeline with a length of two kilometers to Užice will begin in order to obtain drinking water from wells “Sušička” on Zlatibor mountain. For the construction of the pipeline the machinery Army of Serbia will be hired, was announced. Almost ten days after the occurrence of the problem the first decisions were made, which means that a lot of time has been lost. Emergency situation management in this case required the grassroots mobilization and coordination with national institutions and focus on the consequences of the problem. After the 6th of January, at the proposal of the team for emergencies, Mayor of Užice **Saša Milošević** made a Decision on declaring emergency in the territory of the city which is supplied with water from the reservoir Vrutci. Two days later, General Manager of “Srbija vode” Goran Puzović said “that building a pipeline from Čajetina to Užice will be 24/7 work”. He said that everything will be done for the citizens of Užice to obtain drinking water as soon as possible, and to determine the responsibility of how it came to pollution of the accumulation. The same day, the Government of Serbia has concluded that for supplying quality water it is necessary to build a network that will connect the city water supply system with the spring in the municipality of Čajetina, as well. The Government has tasked the relevant ministries to suggest ways and the extent of the Republic to build the necessary water supply network and formed a team, headed by the Minister of Regional Development and Local Government Igor Mirović. And then, in the press release, the local headquarters for the Emergency situations recognizes that this is an ecological disaster!

Incorrect assessments of politicians or public services, with the wrong emergency situation management produced reasonable dissatisfaction of the citizens. Only by involving the Government of Serbia perception was drawn to a fundamental solution to the crisis, extensive field activities and mobilization in terms of the operation of management communications. On the 9th of January, Major of the Army of Serbia Slavko Prodanović, head of the working group for the construction of the pipeline, said that “so far 1.200 meters of the route is cleared and that the army will operate 24 hours a day”, even stating a specific dates by which tasks must be completed. Minister of Justice Nikola Selaković few days later announced that an investigation against those responsible for this situation was launched and that the names will be revealed in “the near future”. Continuous improvement in the field is followed with distrust, and in the process the highest state officials are included. The focus is on re-establishing confidence in the state institutions; government offer safety by proactive action in the field, and the fact that promises are fulfilled and that the plumbing is completed reduced the tension. Resolution of the crisis (on 7th of February, citizens of Užice were officially announced that the water is safe for drinking, and the emergency situations is canceled after 43 days) meant the achievement of the objectives of the crisis team. However, the issue of accountability to the moment of this article preparation is not resolved, and it may have consequences to other, similar situations!

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In emergency situations it is necessary to form a unified center for crisis communication that takes responsibility in the distribution of credible data to the variety of public: from traditional media to social networks. Integral communications strategies involve two groups, and which is particularly important, two activity levels: internal and external, in order to attract attention. The analysis of Serbian practice shows survival of ossified bureaucratic-apologetic model of convincing communication, thus losing the trust of the citizens, but leaving the space for uncontrolled action of citizen media (Facebook, Twitter, SMS, rumor, misinformation, etc.). Analytical and research approach is missing, so after a solution to the problem there is no person or institutions to assume responsibility. The political marketing which scores the resolution of issues in the short term gives the effects, but in the long-term it leads to the loss of credibility of the overall security system.

In the analyzed case study, we had a typical example of how emergency situations can be transformed into a latent crisis when the competent bodies and services are not able to control

the situation in the field. In contemporary society a problem as its visibility in the public space is no longer as important as the method of representation and solutions. Therefore, contact with the public must be professional, intensive, proactive and dynamic as the team for emergency situations will possess the necessary initiative. Crisis communication plan should contain complete and accurate information about the event, responding should be specific and rhetoric should be appropriate and mild in stress situation. Information management does not mean establishing censorship and selection in providing information, but specific creative effort of constructing a media reception which draws the attention of the audience towards the strategic profiled field. By attracting and maintaining the attention of communication time and space for the activities of the teams on the field are provided. Example of emergency situation in Užice showed us how during the crisis communication the range of rhetorical tactics and arguments changes: when they are used (time), where they are used (social networks and forums, who uses them (credibility) and how successful they are presented to the public (mass media).

REFERENCES

1. Jevtović, M., Milašinović, S., (2006): *Socijalnopatološke pojave*, PA, Beograd.
2. Jevtović, Z. i Aracki, Z.(2013): „Archibald Reiss propaganda – Communication Influence on Conflict Paradigm Construction“, Thematic Proceedings of International Significance: *Archibald Reiss Days*, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade.
3. Klajn, I. i Šipka, M. (2008): *Veliki rečnik stranih reči i izraza*, Prometej, Novi Sad.
4. Lalonde, C., (2004), “In Search of Archetypes in Crises Management”, *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis management*, Vol 12, No 2, New York.
5. Milašinović, S., Jevtović, Z., Despotović, Lj., *Politika, mediji i bezbednost*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2012.
6. Milašinović, S., Jevtović, Z. (2013): *Metodologija istraživanja konflikata i krizno komuniciranje*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd.
7. Miletić, M. i Miletić, N., (2012): *Komunikološki leksikon*, Univerzitet Megatrend, Beograd.
8. Mitroff, I., (2000): *Managing Crisis before they Happen*, AMACOM, New York.
9. Pearson C. M. and J. A. Clair (1998): Reaffirming Crisis Management, *Academy of Management Review*, New York.
10. Rosenthal, U., M.T.Charles and P. 't Hart (1989), “The world of crisis and crisis management”, in: U. Rosenthal, M. T. Charles and P. 't Hart (Eds), *Coping with Crises: The Management of Disasters, Riots and Terrorism*, Springfield: Charles C. Thomas.
11. Zerfaß A. & Oehsen, H.O. (2011): “Menadžment komunikacija u politici: osnove, procesi i dimenzije”, u Zborniku: *Menadžment političke komunikacije*, prir. Zerfaß A. i Radojković, M., Konrad Adenauer Stiftung, Beograd.

ORGANIZED CRIME AND TERRORISM AS PARA-POLITICAL FORMS

Research Associate **Neven Cvetićanin**, PhD
Institute of Social Sciences in Belgrade

PhD student **Aleksandar Đokić**, MA
Faculty of Political Sciences, University of Belgrade

Abstract: This paper represents a sociological and politological research dealing with the analysis of a social phenomenon of so-called “modern barbarism” as a specific phenomenon opposing the official institutionalized civic politics. Crime and terrorism are recognized to be the most important forms of this “modern barbarism”, identified in this paper as specific para-political forms with their own particular ethics, worldviews, institutions and internal organization. This paper concludes that terrorism and organized crime cannot be regarded as mere social deviations, but they should rather be seen as a complete and integral social phenomenon with a stable and specific structure when we take into account that they represent explicit para-political forms which practice a specific *anti-civic understanding of politics*, thus representing the dominant anti-civic forms of power of our time.

Keywords: organized crime, terrorism, para-political forms, anti-civic understanding of politics

INTRODUCTION

The following scientific paper deals with sociological and politological research of the forms of so-called *new barbarism* that would arise from frustrations of some social groups from the margins of society who would not be able to see any other way, save for that of violence, in order to secure themselves the desired social recognition and influence. In that manner, this *new barbarism* would become a weapon in the hands of the weak, who would, accordingly, get revenge against the powerful whom they would deem responsible for their own marginalization. Paradoxically, however, the birthplace of those “new barbarians” as well as of those institutionalized socialist democrats would be identical. Namely, both would have their distant origins in the French Revolution, since it had not only given birth to the modern civil order, but it also, like a germ, dialectically contained the so-called “new barbarism” which is exactly what, two centuries after, attacks the civil-democratic order which the Revolution had established.² This “new kind of barbarism” established by the French Revolution and the Enlightenment with their extreme interpretation of politics and man, was astutely recognized by Horkheimer and Adorno.³ We can therefore say that the importance of the French Revolution, even though its context was outdated a long time ago, can be seen in the fact that it helped establish civil order

1 When we talk about “barbarism” and “barbarians”, we do that quite conditionally, without connotations of value, not wanting at any moment to suggest that they are some wild, evil and bloodthirsty “uncivilized” groups. These terms are used simply to denote a particular mode of existence of the groups from the margins of society, which differ from the existence of “civilized” civil society. However, these two modes of existence are immeasurable from the ethic, i.e. moral point of view, because both of them have their own truths, their systems of value and their moral patterns. To put it simply, it is a matter of different worldviews, rather than of a conflict between “the good” and “the bad guys”, because both parties have a specific process of self-legitimation for which they are convinced to be correct and unquestionable. It is exactly this process of self-legitimation, as we will see later on in this paper, that has turned organized crime and terrorism into specific para-political forms.

2 More about this specific dialectic which has evolved from the French Revolution in the book by N. Cvetićanin, *Epoha s' one strane levice i desnice; O levici, desnici i centru u političkom polju Evrope, o građanskom i antgrađanskom shvatanju politike, o postideološkoj politici u 21. veku* [The epoch beyond the Left and the Right; about the Left, the Right and the center in the political field of Europe, about civic and anti-civic understanding of politics, about post-ideological politics in the 21. century], Službeni Glasnik-Institut društvenih nauka, Belgrade, 2008, p. 47-72.

3 M. Horkheimer, T. Adorno, *Dijalektika prosvetiteljstva* [Dialectic of Enlightenment], Veselin Masleša, Sarajevo, 1989, p. 7

(and post-civil order arising from that classical-civil order)⁴ equally anticipating anti-civic types of resistance to it coming from the political margins. Therein lies the greatness of Jean Jacques Rousseau, the main theorist who defined the French revolution, who bequeathed the idea of democracy to the order we live in today, anticipating, at the same time, with his anarcho-archaic aspect, all forms of “barbaric” resistance to the democratic order.⁵ We should also remember Alexis de Tocqueville, who brilliantly noticed that the brave new democratic world lives in constant tension and contradiction between institutionalism and barbarism, order and anarchy.⁶ A democratic society is dynamic, which is the most visible in the contemporary global situation, where on one side we have the outlines of global democracy, with its variety of institutions (the EU being certainly the most important in the context of our paper), whereas on the other side we have groups of so-called “new barbarians” who stand at the gates of that democratic world. The thesis which we will try to prove in our paper is that “new barbarism” would not be possible in some authoritarian and totalitarian regime that would fully and forcefully pacify and suppress every sign of political resistance, and that these “barbaric” types of resistance to global democracy (i.e. the possibility that they emerge) are a good evidence that this very democracy exists and that it is not totalitarian.⁷ Consequently, we can say that the global democratic *open society* produces its enemies itself, exactly by being open as it is, and that the enemies of such society are the best witnesses of its openness, since an authoritarian and totalitarian regime would eradicate them from the start. With this in mind we again come to the inevitable dialectic of liberal-democratic civil order and anti-civic “barbaric” margins, which not only have the same place of origin, but also need each other so they could form a political identity.⁸ The “democrats” would need the “barbarians” as a proof that the political field is not totalitarian, static and uniform. Moreover, they could always say that the “barbarians” are a product of their own “lenience” and “tolerance”. On the other hand, the “barbarians” also need the “democrats” so they could have an *enemy* required by their *metaphysics of struggle*, which is at the core of their system of values, or, in other words, their *political theology*. All this confirms the famous Schmitt’s thesis on the significance of the figure of *apolitical enemy* for the political field and its dynamics¹⁰, as well as the fact that political groups do not acquire their identity themselves but in relation to their own “political competition” (let us avoid the unpopular term “enemy” and use this expression not as strict as that of Schmitt). Be that as it may, in the following text we will deal with the various forms of the aforementioned *new barbarism* that opposes global, mostly liberal-democratic order. Also, we will rather sketch those shapes recognizing their respective

4 More about how classical civil order evolves into so-called post-civil order in the 21. century in the book N. Cvetičanin, *Epoha s one strane levice i desnice; O levici, desnici i centru u političkom polju Evrope, o građanskom i antigrađanskom shvatanju politike, o postideološkoj politici u 21. veku* [The epoch beyond the Left and the Right; about the Left, the Right and the center in the political field of Europe, about civic and anti-civic understanding of politics, about post-ideological politics in the 21. century], Službeni Glasnik-Institut društvenih nauka, Belgrade, 2008, p. 547-587.

5 Fukuyama notices well that Rousseau simultaneously talks of both the foundations of the new democratic world and its inner destruction as “an attack on the civilized man.” F. Fukuyama, *Kraj istorije i poslednji čovek* [The End of History and the Last Man], CID, Podgorica, 1997, p. 107/108, 203 (footnote 63)

6 Alexis de Tocqueville, *O demokratiji u Americi* [Democracy in America], Izdavačka knjižarnica Zorana Stojanovića, Sremski Karlovci, CID, Podgorica, 1990.

7 In this fashion Laqueur brilliantly concludes that, e.g. terrorism can occur and sustain only within a democratic regime, as every authoritarian regime cuts it off at its roots. Laqueur, Walter, *Istorija Evrope 1945. – 1992.*, [Europe in Our Time: A History 1945-1992], Clio, Belgrade, 1999, p. 546

8 About this dialectic of liberal-democratic civil order and anti-civic “barbarian” margins see the book by N. Cvetičanin, *Epoha s one strane levice i desnice; O levici, desnici i centru u političkom polju Evrope, o građanskom i antigrađanskom shvatanju politike, o postideološkoj politici u 21. veku* [The epoch beyond the Left and the Right; about the Left, the Right and the center in the political field of Europe, about civic and anti-civic understanding of politics, about post-ideological politics in the 21. century], Službeni Glasnik-Institut društvenih nauka, Belgrade, 2008, p. 511-587.

9 About more thorough analysis of this “metaphysics of struggle” which has its most explicit expression in Carl Schmitt, a German lawyer who excellently connected the types of extremism of both the left and right, see the book by N. Cvetičanin *Evropska desnica između mača i zakona* [The European Right between the sword and the law], Filip Višnjić, Belgrade, 2004, p. 121.-188.

10 About Schmitt’s principle of distinguishing friends and enemies, and particularly and thoroughly about his category of *political enemy* in ibid., p. 121-128., 171-188, 293/294. About Schmitt’s category of *political enemy* also very thoroughly in Gopal Balahrishanan, *The Enemy; An Intellectual Portrait of Carl Schmitt*, Verso, London-New York, 2000

specific qualities, than deal with their thorough and extensive structural analysis, for which, regarding the scope of this paper, we simply do not have enough space and time.

MODERN TERRORISM AS A PARA-POLITICAL FORM

Global terrorism is certainly one form of the “new barbarism”, which is the most widespread, the most dangerous and the most uncompromising. The modern terrorism has its origins in the French Revolution where the categories of modern mathematized rationality and irrational violence merged, being that Robespierre’s, Montagnards or counterrevolutionary crusading fundamentalist troops. In other words, the violence now gets its own mathematized methodology which, in view of modern, i.e. contemporary terrorism, distinguishes it from the spontaneous and uncontrolled violence of the past. Therefore, we can recognize the formula of terrorism in the following equation: *violence + mathematics (as a method) = terrorism*. Modern terrorists, regardless of whether they are Islamic fundamentalists or marginal groups of the extreme left or right, are not simply wild and unbridled hordes, but rather very well organized structures, with its combat cells, systems of internal organization and communication, and strategic planning. Beside all that, they very gladly accept all the benefits of modern technology and modern communication systems, thus forming true techno-terrorist squads. This particularly applies to Islamic fundamentalists and terrorist groups of the extreme right, while some anarchist groups still remain at the level of “Molotov cocktails”, whereas some other anarchist groups accepted modern weapons and communication systems. The best evidence that Islamic fundamentalists are just the other side of the coin of the global civil liberal-democratic world compared to which they are not far behind neither in technology, nor in resources and education, is the well-known fact that some of their leaders and activists have attended the world’s most prestigious universities and have mostly gained solid education. All this complicates our classical image of terrorists as squalid, half-wild, uneducated and fanatical fighters. Of course, one could find such people among their ranks as well, but what we could call a “command structure” is as sophisticated as the best security services of influential countries, which is exactly what is responsible for the successful execution of terrorist acts, far behind the backs of those influential security services. The beginning of our millennium was therefore marked by major terrorist attacks which have shaken up the rule of the global liberal-democratic order, and especially its *open society* - starting from nowaday well-known 9/11 attacks on the World Trade Center in New York in 2001, continuing with the attacks of March 11, 2004 in Madrid, the attacks of July 7, 2005 in London or a series of attacks across Putin’s Russia at the beginning of 21. century. In response to a new global situation, the Russian President, Putin, noticed that today’s terrorism which bears a fundamentalist mark is an ideological heir to Nazism, because it imperils “our unique and peaceful union of civilizations”¹¹. Moreover, after the London attacks he said that he not only sympathized with the British, but also that he was ready to have the fight against terrorism coordinated at the global level, because terrorism is a common enemy both in Chechnya and in London.¹² Putin thus outlines the contours of a global political center that is forced to take a joint action in order to defend itself from attacks coming from the political margins. It is no coincidence that he juxtaposes terrorism and Nazism, because they are both cases of fundamentalist and anti-civic understanding of politics, opposite to the civic, communicative and consensual conception of politics insisted on by the leaders gathered in the so-called Group of Eight (G8), who are precisely a sort of an unofficial global government of civic center. While the great powers lean towards communication and consensus, i.e. towards mutual agreements and harmonization of interests thus forcing the rules upon those ‘small ones’, the small and the marginalized turn their own frustrations into pure violence of terrorist acts. All this determines the dynamics of the political field, and, it is in that fashion that the world we live in changes, *torn in that dialectic of center and margins*¹³. Thus, exposed to the challenge of terrorist attacks, the civil world slowly changes its structure, because due to its defensive

¹¹ A statement by the Russian President quoted from the daily newspaper *Politika*, May 9, 2005

¹² A statement made at the G8 summit in Scotland, on the same day of the London terrorist attacks.

¹³ See footnote no. 8

attitude one may notice that certain civil liberties, which were, as far as yesterday, seen as basic¹⁴, appear to be limited. So would the *open society* become the first victim of global instabilities arising from the postmodern opposites of *center* and *margins*. In addition, tying terrorism to Islamic fundamentalism would also condition the appearance of a cultural distance in Europe towards Islam itself, which is, for example, visible from the fact that after the terrorist attacks in London, attacks on the Muslim community in Britain have become frequent.¹⁵ The riots in Paris in November 2005, which would later spread throughout Europe¹⁶, in which Afro-Asian Muslim immigrants would be the group which would, at one point, break off from the constitutional order and act against it, would also serve as an evidence of cultural animosity that tries to break free from institutional control. To put it simply, due to the pressure caused by Islamic fundamentalism and prejudice against Islam, caused by this entire situation, the Muslim immigrants will at one point find themselves, speaking in football terms, in “offside”, beyond the line of the European liberal-democratic order. All this serves as a testimony that the (post)civil world in Europe is in constant danger of spontaneous “uprisings” of unassimilated immigrant groups from other civilizational circles, who reside within stable European liberal democracies. Such “uprisings” may destabilize European democracies and can have lasting effects, so before finding a political strategy for their prevention it is necessary to make a diagnosis first, or, in other words, to answer the question - do they appear because of socio-economic or religio-cultural reasons?¹⁷ Be that as it may, after this “immigrant” violence, Europe will not remain the same and this will have multiple consequences on the political and institutional development, as the (post)civil order needs to find the right answers to the problem of cultural distance which it faces in the heart of the Old continent. Terrorist attacks and the problem of cultural distance would also yield disagreement within the (post)civil order between the civil left and the civil right, i.e. between the left and the right center, as they would suggest different strategies for dealing with these problems. So would the civil left call for non-participation in the global “crusade” raids against Islamic fundamentalists and the withdrawal of troops from the conflicting areas where different interests and cultural identities clash, whereas the civil right would seek even more drastic confrontation with terrorists and retention of military and political influence in “bordering” areas.¹⁸ On top of that, the left and the right-wing extremists, i.e. the “terrorists” of European origin reflected in the still active neo-Nazi and anarchist groups would “structurally” be on the side of Islamic fundamentalists (even though some of them, especially those belonging

14 In that manner, in the address to the European Parliament on September 7, 2005, the British Foreign Secretary Charles Rodway Clarke, said that “the right to life outweighs concerns about invasion of privacy”, considering that a balance between the respect of human rights and anti-terrorist measures should be made. At the same time, he added that the old balance of rights and duties established by the European *Convention on Human Rights* no longer corresponds to the current circumstances in which terrorist attacks have become a real threat, not just one of the possibilities. *Ograničenje sloboda [Restriction of liberties]*, article, *Politika*, September 8, 2005

15 TV news of RTS (Radio Television of Serbia) of July 17, 2005 reports of three mosques set on fire, whereas the news of BKT V of July 17, 2005 reports more than one hundred incidents and attacks on Muslim communities since the London tragedy. However, it is important to point out that all the incidents occurred spontaneously and that neither institutions participated in them nor were they incited by officials. Nevertheless, the fact that the institutions proved to be incapable of preventing such incidents is quite important.

16 *Gori li Pariz? [Is Paris burning?]*, article, *Politika*, November 4, 2005

17 It is very difficult to get into the motives of violence in Paris in 2005, and say whether the primary role was played by socio-economic or religious-cultural factor. However, it is more likely that both of them were related, with the second factor being more dominant after all, because it is interesting that the French of non-Muslim origin who also belonged to the lower social strata did not join immigrants in violence. If they do join them in any future violence, then we could talk about purely social motives of the uprising.

18 However, according to this issue, the civil right and the civil left would not be coherent and uniform, because we have those civil right leaders such as former French President Chirac, who would be against the latest “crusades”, as well as those leaders of the civil left, such as the former British Prime Minister Blair, who would be for them, which, in total, relativizes the division into the left and the right and shows how intermixed they are within the (post)civil order. About the difference between the civil left and the civil right see N. Cvetičanin *Epoha s one strane levice i desnice; O levici, desnici i centru u političkom polju Evrope, o građanskom i antigrađanskom shvatanju politike, o postideološkoj politici u 21. veku [The epoch beyond the Left and the Right; about the Left, the Right and the center in the political field of Europe, about civic and anti-civic understanding of politics, about post-ideological politics in the 21. century]*, Službeni Glasnik-Institut društvenih nauka, Belgrade, 2008, p. 162-179., 267-285., 447-510.

to the extreme right, could seek confrontation with Islamic fundamentalists), since according to their methods of action they should place themselves in the same discourse to which Islamic fundamentalists belong, because their political narratives also have their origins in *metaphysics of struggle, technization of violence and political theology*, which all stem from the French Revolution and its counter-revolutionary resistance.

ORGANIZED CRIME AS A PARA-POLITICAL FORM

In addition to terrorism, no less important form of “new barbarism” is *organized crime*. Similarly to terrorism, here we cannot talk about an uncontrolled phenomenon that appears chaotically and spontaneously, as it would again be organized, institutionalized, “para-political” structure that not only manages its systems of internal organization and communication, as well as the latest technical and technological means, but is a coherent system of values as well. When considering organized crime, people make mistakes when they observe this phenomenon solely as a form of outlaw behavior that, because it remains outside of any type of positive-legal norms, civilization standards and established ethical system, is considered to be beyond any type of ethics and systems of value. The furthest realization one usually reaches is that organized crime disposes of its operational network and its internal pseudo-institutions, which explains why it got labeled as “organized”, as opposed to profane. However, analyses very rarely point out to an entire system of values and an implicit (pseudo)ethics to which the success of organized crime can be equally thankful as to their specific operational-technical organization. To put it simply, organized crime is not just a specific network of criminals who operate on the far side of the positive-judicial legislation, but it rather represents a whole new worldview that has its own laws, canons and principles, which derive from its power. For example, well-known laws are those of Italian Mafia i.e. Cosa Nostra embodied in two basic laws - the law of silence (*omerta*) and the law of blood feud (*vendetta*). Moreover, we can assume that other criminal organizations such as the Chinese triads, the Japanese Yakuza, the Colombian cartels, the Russian and the Albanian mafia have their own unwritten and, even sometimes, clearly written law-like rules.

In this sense, the most interesting is the discovery of so-called *carte constitutionale* as a specific example of mafia constitution that was found a few years ago when a significant mafia boss Salvatore Lo Piccolo¹⁹ was arrested. In this completely official and written mafia constitution we have strict and precise rules that must be obeyed by every member of the organization, and which in turn represents an amalgam of primitive positive law and implicit ethics with strict moral norms that have a pragmatic-cohesive effect. Accordingly, the first article of this “Mafia’s Constitution” is in fact an oath of allegiance to the organization, which is the element that structurally indicates that it is an organization which represents an explicit para-political form, because an oath to this organization directly excludes all other possibly given oaths (to the state, court, church, etc.), which establishes a specific category of *political sovereignty and subjectivity*. In this case, it is less important that this document is in minimal domain and range, as it is in its full intensity of commitment. The first article of this criminal pseudo-constitution brings, in the form of an oath of allegiance, a legitimate foundation for the activities of organized crime, without which it would only be an uncontrolled gathering into some kind of unstable pack in purpose of casual “common hunting” for lucrative purposes. This is how the organization gets its legitimacy, coherence and not only specific, but also a symbolic connection. The second article of this specific criminal pseudo-constitution states that it is forbidden for the members of the organization to look at the wives of their friends - a pragmatic policy which primary aim is not a moralistic monogamy, but rather a pragmatic prevention of possible conflicts within the organization because of women, which could be fatal for men under arms. Also, the third article of this criminal pseudo-constitution states that the members of the organization should treat their wives with respect and should also exclude from the Mafia everyone “who does not hold to moral values”. This rule as well has a pragmatic and stabilizing effect, because, on one hand, it defines

¹⁹ About this *carte constitutionale* and the arrest of Lo Piccolo newspapers were reporting at the end of 2007. Pronađeno “deset zapovesti” Koza Nostre [“Ten commandments” of Cosa Nostra discovered], *Politika*, November 9, 2007; *Cosa Nostra collects 75 billion euros*, *Blic*, November 11, 2007.

the ethics, i.e. the "moral" of organized crime as an impermeable barrier through which those "who does not hold to moral values" cannot pass, while, on the other hand, the rule to treat wives with respect pragmatically socializes and stabilizes those who are, by the logic of their business, permanently exposed to exceptional circumstances. Hence this rule which, in such circumstances, does not recommend additional conflicts on personal level. Furthermore, article seven of this pseudo-constitution requires that the members of the organization tell the truth to their superiors, without which it could not be possible to establish a circle of trust and accountability chain, and again, without which there would be no effective command of the organization's structure. Therefore, this is also a pragmatic-cohesive rule. Article eight of this pseudo-constitution of organized crime obliges all the members of the organization not to steal from the Mafia families, which further strengthens the sovereignty and subjectivity of organization, because it "protects" all those within the circle of the organization's sovereignty, whereas outsiders, to whom the organization possesses no obligations, are left to its mercy. Finally, the most interesting is article ten of this pseudo-constitution, which states that "a man who was cheated on by a woman is not suitable to be a member of the Mafia"²⁰. Contrary to what would first come to mind, this is less about honor and expulsion of "cuckolds cheated on by women", and more about a pragmatic concern that relevant information regarding the organization do not go along with those estranged women, since they could be potentially dangerous witnesses. In that manner, infidelity to a man is interpreted as disloyalty to organization, which could cause that not only men and "fighters" perish in mutual confrontation, but also their partners as potentially dangerous witnesses. At the very end of the analysis of this specific constitution of organized crime, we can conclude that the rules are clear and that each of them has both a symbolic-legitimizing value and simple practical and operational function, together ensuring seamless operation of the organization. Thus is the oath of allegiance to the organization symbolic, having, at the same time, a pragmatic influence and specific sanctions if it be broken as evidenced by the words of the curse: "Should you *betray Cosa Nostra*, your flesh will burn." As we said, the articles that state that one should not look at his friends' wives and that a member of the organization cannot be someone who has been cheated on by a woman, represent practical guidelines²¹ rather than an explicit ethics, although we can also recognize here some values, mostly traditionalistic. Actually, the truth is that every moral, regardless of being official civil or the Mafia-underground, is actually functional, because it sets clear rules for relations between people stabilizing their mutual connections, regardless of whether the connection is established for good or bad causes. A particular evidence of this can be found in an article of *carte constitutionale* that states that the members of the organization should tell the truth to their superiors, without which the organization would not be able to function, or an article that states that one must not steal from the Mafia families, without which again it would not be possible to maintain peace and stability within the organization. All in all, organized crime proves to be a particular para-political form, i.e. a "state within a state" with its own laws, moral and principles, which makes it a complete worldview, rather than an uncontrolled phenomenon.

If we return to the context of our topic, we can actually say that organized crime, as well as terrorism, essentially represents an entire "politics" opposed to that of the official civil democratic politics practiced by official civic institutions in the country. That organized crime represents not only a simple and deviant form of social behavior, but also an explicit "politics", i.e. an explicit para-political form, is proven by the fact that it has its own pseudo-political institutions. Furthermore, it is well known that in the "golden age" of American organized crime from the thirties to the fifties of the 20th century, there existed the famous *Commission* as an unofficial executive government of organized crime in which different families and clans shared territory and common interests for their activities. Some of the most memorable characters of

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ In order to avoid, in the first case, as we have already said, internal conflicts about women in the organization, if anyone looked at the "wives of their friends" which could be quite possible in the situation where all men are armed, and when they are already accustomed to using their weapons. In the second case, where those men who are cheated on by their woman are not suitable to be members of the Mafia, it is a case of self-protection of the system before a possible crack, because it is assumed that a woman could carry away a secret of the organization to somebody else's bed. Therefore, this is not only a matter of lost honor (which is also in the game), but it is also a matter of imposing the organization to a risk that an outsider learns some of its secrets.

American underground of that time would be active in *the Commission*, as specific “ministers” of organized crime: Joseph Bonano, Charles “Lucky” Luciano, Meyer Lansky and others, while one of them, Frank Costello, would even earn the unofficial nickname “Prime Minister” which shows how much this was a para-political order, with its institutions and officials.²² *The Commission* would hold its summits and conferences²³, just as a legitimate political organization would do, with the difference that here, of course, it was not a matter of civic conception of politics based on democratic procedures, but rather of anti-civic understanding of politics which combines violent behavior and pragmatism, where weapons would not only be the main method of legitimacy, but also that of selection, which, as we have said, is in turn again based on a particular form of *metaphysics of struggle*.²⁴ Organized crime has remained similar to the present day when, for the reason of being not only organized, but also value-based, it has become one of the specific ways of *anti-civic understanding of politics* as evidenced by international actions it carries out. Just as the global liberal-democratic center makes its strategic decisions in organizations such as the G8, the United Nations, the European Union, etc, so does organized crime transcend national borders causing a formation of international “underground” criminal association evident primarily in the trade of weapons, drugs and human trafficking which has become less local and more global. We can assume that there are certainly some points where these two worlds—“above-ground” and “underground” meet, because due to its democratic nature and its *open society*, the global order leaves room for various porous cavities through which criminal structures can squeeze through. Simply stated, organized crime, as well as terrorism, testifies about the democratic organization of the order within which it occurs, as it would not be possible for it to emerge in a totalitarian and autocratic regime that would cut it off at its roots, as evidenced by the fact that totalitarian regimes such as those of Stalin and Hitler were without organized crime. The emergence of organized crime within these regimes would be impossible simply because they represent specific forms of “criminalized” state, which possesses a selective right to determine life and death independently of any universal principle, being that of natural-justice or of positive-legal origin. Therefore, we have a situation that democracy (and the concept of *open society*) and organized crime would be in fact sociologically connected (because democratic order is suitable for emergence of organized crime²⁵), although structurally opposed (since the democratic order fights against organized crime and operates according to different internal “rules of the game” i.e. it has a different structure), while, on the other side, autocracy and organized crime are in fact opposed in the sociological sense (because it is very difficult for underground structures of organized crime to occur in autocratic regimes), but are very similar in their internal structure, because they are two similar voluntaristic, absolutistic and closed systems that outside of all universal principles have life and death at their disposal. However it may be that, organized crime, as well as terrorism and autocratic (and totalitarian) regimes, contains logic of anti-civic and voluntarist conception of politics that is beyond the civil-democratic procedures, even though it does not lack other forms of organization and internal canon. Nonetheless, these canons in organized crime, as well as in other anti-civic forms occurring on the margins of the political field, would be associated with a *metaphysical struggle*

22 Lauren Carter, *Najveći zlotvori u istoriji: Mafijaši*, [Most Evil Mobsters in History], p.80

23 One of the most famous conference was held in 1946 in Havana at the hotel “National” when heads and “ministers” of the underworld all gathered in person, perhaps for the last time in such a strong lineup—Vito Genovese, Charles “Lucky” Luciano, Joseph Bonanno, Frank Costello, Albert Anastasia, Thomas Lucchese, Joe Adonis and Meyer Lansky, and it was recorded that the singer Frank Sinatra “concelebrated” with them. This conference, just as those real political conferences, had several items on the agenda, making a series of binding and “strategic” decisions, the most important one being that which forbade drug trafficking, deemed as too risky, and that of the status of Benjamin Bugsy Siegel, who due to his destructiveness received a reprimand from the Commission, only to be killed later, Ibid. p. 108/109.

24 See footnote no.9

25 Organized crime in Europe appeared precisely with the expansion of the democratic era, when, in Southern Italy and Sicily, in the early 19th century the first cells of Cosa Nostra, Camorra and other organizations with the purpose of neutralizing the consequences of the Napoleonic conquests, appeared. In other words, they emerged as underground and informal “domestic” organizations since the external institutions had been occupied by “foreigners”. So we had a situation that the Napoleonic conquest spread the French Civil Code throughout Europe as a harbinger of democracy, while, simultaneously, in some parts of Europe, the first cells of organized crime began organizing themselves, in this case the Mafia, which was not only a by-product of democracy, but also a negative and combative reaction to it.

and *political theology* in which core values and “ethics” of organized crime²⁶ are reflected. True, organized crime would, similarly to other sociological structures, evolve, overcoming some of the old and romanticized forms and principles followed by the “old Mafia”, and the new generations of members of organized crime would often be much more unscrupulous and unprincipled than the old ones. However, organized crime would, in its global association, discover new cohesive factors, and it would be aware that if it wished to retain its effectiveness, influence and power, it would have to continue to commit its members to a pseudo-moral system and para-political “command” order, and not just to simple operational groups without any “deeper” connection. Thus, organized crime, as well as terrorism, would become a specific form of *politics*, i.e. a specific para-political form, which would threaten the official civic politics. Organized crime and terrorism would as para-political forms essentially be *modern barbarism* which would be based on the legitimacy of force, while the official civic politics, at least in most countries where it is being practiced, would be based on democratic legitimacy which would be in strict constitutional frames. However, we have seen that terrorism, and especially organized crime, have their own “constitutions”, which ultimately makes them specific para-political forms, and in order to be successfully fought, it is wrong to regard them as mere sociological deviations, but rather one must recognize their internal logic and their way of thinking. In this paper we identified this way of thinking as *anti-civic* according to which organized crime and terrorism represent the dominant para-political and anti-civic forms of power of our time.

²⁶ This system of values, or “ethics” of organized crime has been observed better by the works of art dealing with the portrayal of organized crime than by sociological analysis. The pinnacle could perhaps be *The Godfather*, a cinematographic masterpiece of Francis Ford Coppola, which plastically presents the coordinate ethical system of the Mafia constituted on the existentialist Schmittian categories of friends and enemies in its most radical sense. Watching this film we cannot help but notice that Karl Schmitt, with his sociological analysis, waits at every turn, and that the film, indirectly of course, completely reconstructs his political theology. So at the beginning of the film, Don Vito Corleone, as the boss of the Mafia and as the one deciding about its order, tells a man who asks him how to repay him for services rendered, that he only wants him to be a *friend* to him, after which he ceremonially kisses the godfather’s hand as a reflection of his loyalty, while the godfather in return says that “from now on, your enemies are my enemies”. The man approached the godfather because he could not find justice in the legal institutions of the system (his daughter was beaten, her bullies were set free), and in accordance with Schmittian *protego ergo oblige*, decided to put himself under the protection, and simultaneously, under the jurisdiction of the Mafia. This entire scene suggests us that the legal institutions are unjust, and it is, therefore, necessary to replace the notion of law with the notion of justice, and to establish justice itself through a certain group identity of affiliation to *friends* where it exists only for those inside, and not for those outside who may be a potential target. In addition to the Mafia as an “umbrella” organization of *friends*, a great importance is given to the family, which is almost sacralized as evident from the dialogue between the godfather and the singer Johnny Fontana who also asks him for favor, only to be in return asked by the godfather: “Are you with your family?”, and after getting an affirmative answer replying that “a man who is not with his family is not a real man”. Sacralization of the family is also conducted out of the functional need of secrecy because the business is more safely performed in a close family circle, and also out of basic needs of love and belonging in the world of bare and raw violence. The ethics of the Mafia is also an amalgam of functional and pragmatic family moral and some sort of Old-Testament retaliatory political theology which proves that organized crime is not without its ethics, but it only differs from the civil-democratic, consensual communicative ethics. *Political theology* of the Mafia culminates at the end of the film we used as an example, where, in parallel montage, we see the scene of the young godfather Michael Michele Corleone baptizing his nephew in the church, and the scenes of violence in which his people get revenge against his *enemies*, including, paradoxically, the father of the boy who is just being baptized. Therefore, it is not only baptism with holy water and the Holy Spirit, but also baptism with blood and fire, which we already had in the works of ultra-conservative philosophers such as De Maistre, as well as in those of modern “prophets” of *political theology*. Likewise, *John Gotti*, a film by Robert Harmon, similarly to Coppola’s *Godfather*, interprets organized crime as a certain system of values in which the concepts of “loyalty” and “honor” are important, so this film as well operates with Schmittian categories of *friends* and *enemies* and specific political theology. In addition, this film also shows legal institutions as manipulative and justifies organized crime as a modern version of Robin Hoodism.

REFERENCES

1. Balahrishanan , Gopal, *The Enemy - An Intellectual Portrait of Carl Schmitt*, Verso, London - New York, 2000.
2. Cvetičanin, Neven, *Evropska desnica između mača i zakona* [*The European Right between the sword and the law*], Filip Višnjić, Belgrade, 2004.
3. Cvetičanin, Neven, *Epoha s one strane levice i desnice; O levičima, desnima i centru u političkom polju Evrope, o građanskom i antigrađanskom shvatanju politike, o postideološkoj politici u 21. veku* [*The epoch beyond the Left and the Right; about the Left, the Right and the center in the political field of Europe, about civic and anti-civic understanding of politics, about post-ideological politics in the 21. century*], Službeni Glasnik-Institut društvenih nauka, Belgrade, 2008.
4. Fukujama, Francis, *Kraj istorije i poslednji čovek* [Fukuyama, Francis, *The End of History and the Last Man*], CID, Podgorica, 1997.
5. *Gori li Pariz?* [*Is Paris burning?*], article, *Politika*, November 4, 2005.
6. Horkheimer, Max, Adorno, Theodor, *Dijalektika prosvetiteljstva* [*Dialectic of Enlightenment*], Veselin Masleša, Sarajevo, 1989.
7. Karter, Loren, *Najveći zlotvori u istoriji: Mafijaši*, [Carter, Lauren, *The Most Evil Mobsters in History*] Narodna knjiga-Politika, Belgrade, 2004.
8. Laker, Volter, *Istorija Evrope 1945. – 1992.*, [Laqueur, Walter, *Europe in Our Time: A History 1945-1992*], Clió, Belgrade, 1999.
9. *Ograničenje sloboda* [*Restriction of liberties*], article, *Politika*, September 8, 2005.
10. *Pronađeno "deset zapovesti" Koza Nostre* [*Ten commandments of Cosa Nostra discovered*], article, *Politika*, November 9, 2007.
11. Tokvil, Aleksis de, *O demokratiji u Americi* [Tocqueville, Alexis de, *Democracy in America*], Izdavačka knjižarnica Zorana Stojanovića, Sremski Karlovci, CID, Podgorica, 1990.

CRISIS IN SERBIA: SUBJECTS AND IT TO SOLVE THEM¹

Full Professor **Dragan Randelović**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Miloš Randelović

Radomir Janjić

Abstract: At the beginning of the 21st century there is a pronounced trend occurrence of crises in the world and must be approached as serious analysis of the problem . On the one hand needs to know the history of crisis events , on the other hand it is necessary to define the normative right to edit the subjects of defense in emergencies and since we live in an information society, it is certainly advisable to take into account the development of technology offers more opportunities to anticipate and react to various crisis situation. The above three aspects considering the subject of this paper the authors will face them with accent on Serbia as the environment in which they watch bearing in mind above all the fact that crises are events that simply indulge , but dangerous events that require immediate decisions.

Keywords: Crisis, the National Security Strategy of Serbia, Software Crisis Management.

INTRODUCTION

The world crisis caused by the suffering of the people , great damage and loss and degradation of the natural environment . Nature sometimes reminded of the power they possess and the consequences poprimere scale disasters . Also, do not respect nature and its laws, man creates conditions for the formation of people 's negligence caused disasters which endanger the survival of the planet and the planet itself .

Although modern society is investing huge efforts in prevention, crisis management and recovery , usually there is a strong discrepancy between the need , on the one hand, and the available options , on the other hand . Prevention, protection and recovery from the crisis is a very complex process , which needs to be carefully and thoroughly plan and provide management functions situation , in order to avoid unforeseen occurrences , the result may be accidental situation with unpredictable consequences .

In addition to this introduction as the first chapter of the work is done in the second chapter overview of typical crises in Serbia . Crisis can spread from country to country , from region to region , which requires coordinated action subjects participating in the crisis to crisis , if not prevented , and what its consequences are at least reduced to a minimum making it mandatory Engaging the army and police in conjunction with other organs of the state which is under consideration of the third chapter of this work . The fourth chapter gives an overview of the software crisis management developed under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice in the most developed country in the world USA and the authors of this paper are in some of his earlier work dealt with the use of project management tools and tools including MS Office Project.²³⁴

1 This work was supported by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technological Development of Republic of Serbia [Project III44007] and [Project TR34019].

2 Ранђеловић М.,Примена савремених информатичких технологија у кризном менаџменту, Специјалистички рад, КПА Београд,2012..

3Janjić R.,Управљање кризама помоћу програмског алата МСПројект, Специјалистички рад, КПА Београд,2012.

4Randelović D., Osnovi informatike, KPA, Belgrade, 2013

CRISIS IN REPUBLIC OF SERBIA⁵

The biggest disaster in the world occurred 26 April in 1986. , at 01:24 hours after midnight reactor No. 4 nuclear power plant in the Ukrainian town of Chernobyl exploded during preliminary testing of reserve plants for electricity supply . Radiation , extending for 10 days , contaminated both hemispheres of the Earth . The amount of radioactive substance that is released during the breakdown of the reactor was 200 times greater than that produced by the explosion of the atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima 41 years ago. It is estimated that irradiated to 65 million people . Fukushima disaster⁶ is the next biggest nuclear disaster in the world and includes a series of nuclear accidents and equipment failure in the Fukushima 1 nuclear power plant , near the town of Okuma , Japan , which occurred as a result of the devastating earthquake in Japan 11 marta 2011. year.

In this chapter we will give the largest labor crises caused by natural disasters and other events that have taken place in our country , contemporary prthodno Serbia and Yugoslavia. Disaster event hydrometeorological , geological or biological origin , caused by the action of natural forces, such as: earthquakes, floods , flash floods, storms, heavy rain , atmospherics , city , drought, landslide or landslides , snow avalanches and causes extreme temperature air build-up of ice on the river , epidemics , outbreaks of livestock diseases and the occurrence of pests and other natural occurrences that may endanger the health and lives of people or cause severe damage .

Earthquaqes

Earthquakes in Serbia are a direct consequence of underlining the African tectonic plate under the Eurasian, which causes strong seismic activity in the Mediterranean . Unlike many natural disasters, the earthquake is not something that can be accurately predicted. Seismologists actually know that it happens in a certain area, but it is difficult to specify exactly when that will be . The world is a thousand earthquakes occur daily, and statistics show that in Serbia earthquake occurs one in two years . Many of them can not be felt. Earthquakes in Serbia are much weaker than those that take place in Japan and Turkey, and the strongest earthquake in Serbia , for example , six on the Richter scale can not bring down a relatively well- built building. Earthquakes up to five on the Richter scale are considered to be of lower intensity earthquakes , and earthquakes over 5.9 degrees belong to the stronger , and those of seven degrees apply to devastating . In Serbia, some 60 percent of the building, have high intensity protection . These facilities should be strengthened so that the earthquake is “ passed” with as little damage . According to the map of seismic activity that is used during the construction of the building, the whole of Serbia is the ninth degree Mercalli scale, which means that the maximum expected earthquake can hit this area, and among the middle ranking massive earthquakes . A favorable circumstance is that our country is on the edge of the slab , and earthquakes in Serbia , according to estimates seismologists can not be higher than 6.2 or 6.3 degrees on the Richter or 7.11 per Mercali scale intensity . Earthquake prone areas in Serbia are Kopaonik , Rudnick Krupanjska , Maljenska , Lazarevačka , the area around Svilajinac , Golubac , and Ferizaj - Gnjilane , Vranje and Kraljevo area . There is no evidence that in the past was catastrophic earthquake in Serbia , but should take into account that even our cities in the past have not been especially constructed . Serbia does not feel any major earthquake. For example , in 1922. The increase was a strong earthquake in Lazarevac, 6.1 degree on the Richter scale , and five years later was shaking at the mine around Gornji Milanovac. Richter gives information about the energy that is released, and its effect depends on the depth at which the earthquake occurred . The strongest earthquake in the former Yugoslavia in the past century occurred in Montenegro in 1979. year. Its strength varied from 6.7 to 7.2 on the Richter scale , depending on the data source .

The earthquake that struck Skopje in 1963. , was not high intensity . Was about six degrees on the Richter scale , but it is the epicenter was very shallow in the earth’s crust , just 70 kilometers below the surface , so the capital of Macedonia suffered great damage. Banja Luka

⁵ www.krize.medijstestudije.org

⁶ http://sr.wikipedia.org/sr/Фукушимска_катастрофа

was heavily damaged in 1969. the two earthquakes , whose strength was 6 and 6 , 5 degrees on the Richter scale .

Makarska is in 1962. damaged in an earthquake measuring 6.3 on the Richter scale. A powerful earthquake in the region was recorded in 19 century , in 1893. , when it destroyed several villages in the area between Svilajinac and Petrovac na Mlavi, and in the 18th century, a strong earthquake shook the Fruska Gora.

The strongest earthquakes in the twentieth century in Serbia were certainly 1921st in Ferizaj 5.7 degrees on the Richter scale, in 1922. The Lazarevac 6.1 degrees on the Richter scale, in 1927. at the mine 6.0 degrees on the Richter scale, in 1980. The Kopaonik 5.8 on the Richter scale, in 1980. in Mionica 5.7 degrees on the Richter scale and in Kraljevo 2010th The 5.4 on the Richter scale. Typical examples:

In September in 1998. The most devastating earthquake in our region in the last decade hit the Mionica in 1998. and amounted to 5.7 on the Richter scale. On that occasion, the area of the municipality Mionica damaged about 12 thousand objects in more than six thousand households.

On the 03. november 2010. in the morning, an earthquake measuring 5.4 on the Richter scale struck Kraljevo, moderate intensity , but for this area yet powerful , with its epicenter in the village Vitanovac about 10 km north of the city. The earthquake was felt in most parts of the country , two people were killed and nearly 50 injured. After the devastating earthquake of 5.4 on the Richter scale , followed more than a hundred smaller quakes that were a consequence of settling soil . The earthquake was felt also in other towns in Serbia: Cacak, Uzice , Kragujevac, Belgrade and Novi Sad. The earthquake damaged more than 16 000 facilities and expert committee to assess the damage has been estimated that slightly more than 1500 units are unusable.

Floods

Floods are one of the major threats to human community and have a significant impact on social and economic development . This deadly , harmful occurrences annually kill thousands of people around the world , and thereby cause damage on a large scale . Even very small streams , gullies or small rivers are not harmless and can also cause flooding. Therefore, every country in the world could be in danger of the same . Heavy rainfall is the most common cause of flooding around the world . The water level rises due to heavy rains, especially in regions where precipitation is frequent and long . Floods also occur due to melting snow and ice. It often happens that the affected areas are covered with sludge and mud when it comes to river flooding or heavy rains. Affected areas are usually contaminated with hazardous substances such as various wastes , sewage, pesticides , fuel , etc. . , And residents of flooded areas are often left without electricity and drinking water . Deadly diseases like typhoid, hepatitis and cholera are also not excluded. Typical examples are:

The largest flood in Serbia occurred in 1965 when the Danube poured that affected almost all the rivers flow, and under the water was about 150,000 acres, 16,000 houses and 214 kilometers of road. Almost every year the river of the same blue area in Serbia, despite the fact that about 88 percent of the country's territory is protected from flooding. Floods affect most settlements in Vojvodina, while in Serbia usually pours river Morava. Major floods occurred throughout Serbia also in 2006th year.

In April 2005th Tamis was poured and destroyed the village of Jasa Tomic, where damage was the largest, as well as municipalities Sečanj and viilage Medja. Groundwater flooded basements a serious problem arose when it began to discharge sewage, and when the village was left without drinking water. After the rehabilitation of flood country made list and from June 2005th until end of 2007. built over 365 houses

in April 2010. In the vicinity of Zajecar, poured the White Timok, and the final balance of the 500 damaged buildings, flooded 150 houses and 279 people evacuated without casualties. From the District Court in Zajecar 40 convicts and 31 detainees were evacuated because of a state of emergency due to the imminent danger of flood.

Landslide

Landslide is a rocky or loose rock mass separated from the substrate, which, under the influence of gravity sliding down the slope. Skating does not have to be moving in a clearly defined area (sliding surface) and then the middle of the place where the movement of the landslide body is called the sliding zone. Ice skating can be played at different speeds, from slowest when the movement of soil does not notice until the very fast with possible severe damage and threatened the lives of people. Typical examples are:

In late May and early June 2010. year there has been a dangerous landslide that threatened to undermine the place of Trgoviste (near the Macedonian border) Cause for initiation of landslides was heavy rain that fell a few days straight and threatened to approximately 300000 cubic meters of earth and trees collapsed into the river Tripusnicu that flows through Trgoviste. This fateful event did not happen because the rain after two weeks of falling, stopped. It was feared that collapsing so much land into the river could interrupt streams and form a flood wave 5 meters high.

Only four months prior to this, in April 2010. landfall in Pribojska banja almost destroyed the village and its spa wealth. Then it create a slide with a length of 300 meters on the hill above the building Priboj Rehabilitation Center. In it collapsed building center and another 10 houses were cut off rural roads, power lines destroyed poles, telephone and so on.

Explosions

Typical examples:

On the 19th of October 2006th at about four o'clock in the morning a series of explosions occurred at a military depot in Paracin. Detonation was felt and in 20 kilometers away Jagodina a last blast occurred about eight hours on the same day.

On the 03th of September 2009th the series of powerful explosions at a munitions factory "Prvi Partizan" in Uzice seven workers lost their lives due to suffocation, and 15 of them suffered minor injuries. The accident occurred in the field of powder charge, or a separate part of the factory nestled in the hills. "Prvi Partizan" Uzice there than since 1928. years and this is the greatest tragedy that has befallen the plant after the explosion in the vaults of the 1941st year during the Republic of Uzice.

Ecological disasters

Ecological disasters are different from "normal" natural disaster in that the human factor plays a big role in the first case. The consequences of this type of crisis are large and dangerous to all living beings on the planet. A typical example:

01/10/2009. The sudden emptying of the reservoir on the river Gradac, the so-called "Berkova dam", caused by improper while lifting all four floodgates at the dam, the town of Valjevo faced with a big environmental, health, water management and economic problems. The opening of discharge at the dam, there was a large amount of run-off water, raising the mud and killing of fish. The accumulation remained without water, and the drying up due to sediment and sludge into the environment stench.

Fire

The fire is uncontrolled spread of fire in the area causing property damage, and often taking away human lives. A typical example:

- During the 2007th. in Serbia has burned 16,000 acres of forest . District of Pirot , Stara Planina , Kraljevo and Vranje was most hit by fire. In just six days, the living world is caused irreparable damage , especially in Stara Planina . Flames engulfed the forests and vegetation, due to strong winds and high temperatures that ranged up to 45 degrees, the fire is constantly increasing. Wildland fire was complicated by the fact that they break out in a very rugged terrain. Memebers of the Army were involved, police, and Pirot workers, also "Forest Management " , but in this situation more important were the helicopters. However, Serbia did not have a

sufficient number of appropriate helicopters and in Stara Planina is involved only one such aircraft. Due to the amount of fire it was required the assistance of neighboring countries. The only help Serbia in localizing the fire gave the Russian water bomber "Ilyushin 76". After this crisis, the competent authorities of Serbia was asked to form a special center for emergency situations, such as large forest fires. The Center was established in Nis, well organized and equipped, ready to engage a broader range of authorities, agencies and associations from mountain climbers and services over territorial defense, to the emergency room.

DEFENSE OF REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Normative regulation of defense area

Due to the complex nature of security in the region, the countries of South Eastern Europe are increasingly targeting to work together to combat the negative processes that threaten their safety.

Developing appropriate social capacities for crisis management and organization of citizens and effective information system creates the conditions for more effective protection of life, health and property of citizens and the environment. Particularly important is the preparation for action in emergency situations, in case of fire, natural disaster, technical and technological accidents, effects of hazardous substances and other dangerous situations.

A state of emergency is a condition in which the public need to fear is threatening the viability of the state or citizens, a consequence of the military or non-military challenges, risks and threats.

Non-military challenges, risks and threats are manifested in the form of: terrorism, organized crime, corruption, natural disasters, technological and other disasters and hazards.

Pursuant to Article 99 Paragraph 1 Item 7 Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, Article 9 Paragraph 2 point 2) of the Defence ("Sluzbeni glasnik RS", No. 116 / 07) and Article 136 Of the National Assembly of the Republic of Serbia ("Sluzbeni glasnik RS", No. 14/ 09 - consolidated text), the National Assembly of the Republic of Serbia, at the first session of the Second Regular Session of 2009. year, held on 26th of October 2009. year, has made a decision on the adoption of the National Security Strategy of the Republic of Serbia ("Sluzbeni glasnik RS", No. 88 of 28 October 2009.). The National Security Strategy of the Republic of Serbia is the highest policy document which sets out the basics of security policies to protect national interests and whose implementation is protecting national interests of the Republic of Serbia of the challenges, risks and threats in various areas of social life.

Human resources in the defense include demographic potential of the state which is subject to the defense, which is capable and trained to join the defense system. Material resources in the defense include natural, economic, financial, information and other resources of the country, who are hired for the defense.

Ministry of Interior within its scope, formulates and implements policies on matters of protection and rescue, executed ratified international treaties, laws and other general acts of the National Assembly and the Government. The Serbian Army is an organized armed force to defend the Republic of Serbia from external armed threats and carry out other missions and tasks, especially in accordance with the Constitution, the law and the principles of international law regulating the use of force.

Republic of Serbia provides building a unified system of protection and rescue in accordance with the Law on Emergency Situations and other regulations, as well as programs, plans and other documents relating to the protection and rescue and civil protection.

Law on emergency situations shall define:

- Action, proclamation and Emergency Management;
- The system of protection and rescue of people, material and cultural resources and the environment from natural disasters, technological accidents - accidents and disasters, the consequences of terrorism, war and other major disasters;
- Jurisdiction of Government Authorities, autonomous regions, local authorities and the participation of the police and the Army of Serbia in protection and rescue;

- Rights and duties of citizens , companies and other legal entities and entrepreneurs in connection with emergency situations ;
- Organization and operation of civil protection in protection, rescue and natural disaster and other disasters ;
- Financing ;
- Inspection ;
- International cooperation and other issues of importance to the organization and functioning of the system of protection and rescue.

At a time when other forces and means of protection and rescue system is not sufficient for the protection of people , material and cultural resources and environmental disaster caused by the impact of natural disasters and other catastrophes , at the request of and organizational units responsible for Emergency Management , Ministry of Defence provides participation of the organizational units of the Ministry of Defence , commands , units and institutions of the Serbian Armed Forces to assist in rescue and protection under the law. Coordination and management protection and rescue in emergency situations in accordance with the law on emergency situations and other regulations , as well as operational and professional bodies are formed committees for emergency situations , such as:

1. For the territory of the Republic of Serbia - Republic of Staff for Emergencies, formed by a government,
2. For the territory of the autonomous province - provincial headquarters for emergency situations, which is formed by the executive body of the province;
3. For the territory of the administrative district - District Headquarters for Emergency Situations, which educates Republican headquarters for emergency situations;
4. For the city - city staff for emergencies, which is by formed the City Council;
5. For the municipality - municipal staff for emergencies, which is formed by the municipal council.

Staff consists of the commander and chief of staff and members of city and municipal headquarters and deputy commander staff. Staff for emergencies forms, if necessary, additional professional and operational teams for specific tasks of protection and rescue.

Staff for emergency situations is engaged in next activities:

1. Manages and coordinates the work of this system of protection and rescue and search and rescue forces in emergency situations fortified implementation tasks ,
2. Manages and coordinates the implementation of measures and tasks of civil protection ,
3. Review and comment on the proposal of risk assessment and proposal for the protection and rescue in emergency situations ;
4. Monitor the status and organization of protection and rescue and propose measures for improvement :
5. Order the use of force to protect and rescue assistance funds and other resources to be used in emergency situations ;
6. Ensure regular information and informing the population about the risks and hazards and the measures taken ;
7. Consider organizing , equipping and training of civil protection , authorized , qualified entities ;
8. Cooperate with the authorities to protect and rescue the neighboring state of emergency situations ;
9. Assesses the vulnerability of developing emergencies ;
10. Delivers orders, conclusions and recommendations .

Commander of the Republican staff of the emergency, elects government, among the members of the Government. Chief of Staff of the National Emergency Management is the head of the heritage, who as Chief is appointed and dismissed by the Government. Staff members of the National Emergency Management appointed and dismissed by the Government from among the heads of state authority in whose purview are the affairs of importance for the protection and rescue, professionals of the Ministry of Interior , the Army of Serbia , the Serbian Red Cross , Mountain Rescue Serbia , directors of public companies in transport, forestry and water management and executives of other authorities, organizations and institutions whose activities are related to the protection and rescue.

Subjects of defense system

As mentioned entities of defense system are: citizens, public authorities, companies, other legal entities and entrepreneurs, Ministry of Interior and the Army of Serbia.

MINISTRY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS

Ministry in the area of Protection and Rescue:

Drafts a national strategy for the protection and rescue in emergency situations ,

Prepare a Proposed Plan for the protection and rescue system ,

Organize the development of risk assessment Republic of Serbia from natural and other disasters and submits to the Government ,

Develops a proposal of the National Plan for the Protection and rescue in emergency situations ,

Coordinates with all entities of the protection and rescue in matters of organization, planning , preparation and implementation of measures and activities for prevention and risk reduction , protection and rescue (establishing telecommunications and information systems for the management and coordination of protection and rescue and transfer of data and information and their protection) ,

Organize a system of monitoring, information , early warning and alert system,

Ensures the participation of the police and other organizational units of the Ministry in the implementation of measures and carrying out the tasks of protection and rescue

Prepare and implement security protection area , the infrastructure and facilities of importance to take measures and carry out tasks of protection and rescue

Organize training and test the operational readiness staffs and emergency services , as well as specialized civil protection , in accordance with the syllabus

Educate , organize and equip specialized units of civil protection in the territory of the Republic of Serbia and administrative districts , organizing and supplies, service , maintain and store equipment for the protection and rescue

Organize and remove, deactivate and destroy unexploded ordnance (UXO) ,

Conduct training and issue certificates of competency of personnel to remove UXO issues authorizations companies and other legal entities for the removal and destruction of UXO

Establish national and regional training centers for the protection and rescue of the Republic of Serbia ,

Prepare and adopt technical regulations for funds and equipment for the protection and rescue , and when he is entrusted , prepares proposals of Serbian standards for tools and equipment for the protection and rescue

Initiate and fund scientific research in the field of protection and rescue

Keeps records of human and material resources for the protection and rescue and ordered a partial mobilization of the necessary human and material resources ,

Carries out international cooperation in the field of protection and rescue and disaster risk reduction ,

Participate in search and rescue in traffic accidents in road, rail, river and air transport,

Supervise the implementation of this Act and regulations made under this Law ,

Performs other duties specified by law.

Based on the analysis conducted by the Service for Protection and Rescue , which showed that in 26 European countries, this service operates as an independent under the Ministry of Interior, it was decided that the existing Sector for Protection and Rescue reorganize in the Department of Emergency Management.

Department of Emergency Management⁷ was formed in 2006th, it seeks to build , maintain and improve the ability of the whole nation how to help to prevent the risks , and to respond to the challenges and mitigate the consequences of various disasters that may hit our region. Sector consolidates all available resources to protect , rescue and emergency situations , the organization has given in Figure 1 and the composition of the Board has engaged in preventive care, risk management and civil protection.

⁷ <http://prezentacije.mup.gov.rs/svs/HTML/delatnost.html>

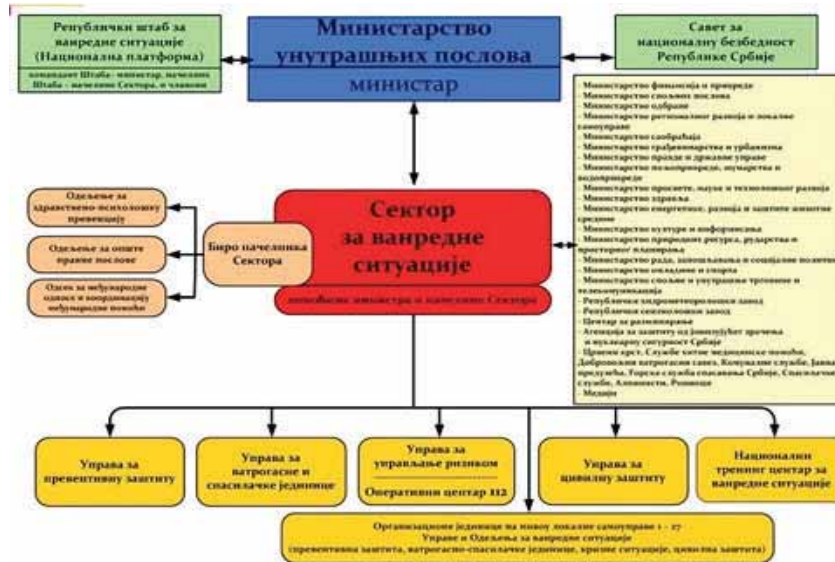


Figure 1. Organization of department of emergency management⁸

MINISTRY OF DEFENSE AND SERBIAN ARMY

The Ministry of Defence has for goal:

Bringing a defense plan into state of usability and connectivity planning,

Drafting, approving and monitoring the implementation of plans fill manpower planning entities to their task could perform in full and on time,

The planning, approval and monitoring of the execution of the Army of Serbia and fill subjects of importance , material resources and vehicles from the list , in order to fulfill the tasks of planning ,

Planning the food security of the population articles in emergencies and war,

Definition of possible emergencies opportunities for risk prevention and reduction of negative effects ,

Preparation of operational plans for possible emergency,

Preparation of the necessary forces and resources to resolve the emergency ,

Responding to threatening situations so that the net adverse effects to humans and the environment ,

The establishment - restoration necessary functions required for life,

Organization of early warning , development of information and communication systems , and information systems for the needs of the population in emergency situations,

Training of persons involved in the prevention , preparation and response,

Informing the public of behavior in emergency situations.

Organizational structure in Ministry of Defense looks like shown in figure 2.

⁸ <http://prezentacije.mup.gov.rs/svs/HTML/organizacija.html>



Figure 2. Organizational structure Ministry of defense⁹

CRISIS MANAGEMET SOFTWARE

In this paper we discuss the characteristics of some of the most popular candidates for leader of software for crisis management than more considered in the study for the Ministry of Justice in the most developed country in the world – USA¹⁰, and that just proactive software that can be configured to alert you to suspicious activity: Crisis™, EM 2000 E-Team and Incident Master, according to Table 1:

Table .1 Comparison Feature for crisis management

Fucntion category		CRISIS	EM2000	E TEAM	Incident Master and InfoBook
1	2	3	4	5	6
1.1	Model use				
1.1.1	Software usses model of application supplier for services)?			X	
1.1.2	Does the software uses a local area network (LAN), hosted client-server model?	X	X	X	X
1.1.3	Does the software uses a hybrid ASP and LAN models?			X	
1.2	Server hardware / OS				
1.2.1	Does the software support the hardware configuration of the server that provides the software to run on the site managed by the supplier (ASP)?			X	
1.2.2	Does the software support the hardware configuration of the server that provides the software to run on the site managed by the customer (LAN)	X	X	X	X

⁹ http://www.mod.gov.rs/cir/organizacija/index_cir.php

¹⁰ Crisis Information Management Software (CIMS) Feature Comnarison Report, 2002

1.2.3	Does the software support the specification of the hardware configuration of the server that provides the software to run concurrently with the buyer and seller in the (hybrid)			X	
1.3	Application Server Software Installation				
1.3.1	Can all applications on the server needed to use the software to be installed and managed by a system administrator?	X	X	X	X
1.4	Server applicative software				
1.4.1	Does the application server provides robust performance in a user place the user environment midrange?	X	X	X	X
1.4.2	Does the application server provides robust performance and support for more than one user of the site in the mid-range?			X	
1.5	Client hardware –OS				
1.5.1	Does the software support user access from a personal computer?	X	X	X	X
1.5.2	Whether the software supports data entry keypad phone?				
1.6	Instalation of users application				
1.6.1	Can all software required by the client to be installed by the system administrator?	X	X		X
1.7	Client aplication (users interface)				
1.7.1	Does the software support standard Web browser as the user interface?	X	X	X	X
1.8	Maintenance by admin				
1.8.1	Is the maintenance of applications customized to the user and whether to implement a system administrator mid-level?	X	X	X	X
1.9	Integrity				
1.9.1	Can I import data from external systems?	X	X	X	X
1.9.2	Can I export data to external systems?	X	X	X	X
1.10	Comparison of functions of the general security environment				
1.10.1	Does the software work with firewalls safely	X	X	X	X
1.10.2	Does the software provides the ability to e-mail in a safe way?	X	X		
1.10.3	Does the software requires a user name, a password to access the software and whether it provides the opportunity to usernames and passwords in a safe way?	X	X	X	X
1.10.4	Is the software used Web server?	X	X	X	X
1.10.5	If a software application based on the LAN, whether remote access is allowed?	X	X	X	X
1.10.6	Does the software work properly with general computer security tools?	X	X	X	X
2.1	Basic functions				
2.1.1	Whether the software is structured to support operations along the organizational role?	X	X	X	X
2.1.2	Is the software that generates the incident. event log (using "event *" to refer to any event or incident)?	X	X	X	X
2.2	Organization structure				
2.2.1	Does the software support different functional roles within an ICS organizational structure?	X	X	X	X
2.2.2	Does the software support different functional roles within the ESF organizational structure?	X		X	X
2.3	Events				

2.3.1	Does the software allow the connection between the incidents and events?	X	X	X	X
2.3.2	Whether the software is structured to support the management of different types of incidents, that is. event (using "event" to mean any incident or event-present I / D)?	X	X	X	X
2.3.3	Does the software support multiple events - i / d?	X	X	X	X
2.4	Planing				
2.4.1	Да ли софтвер подржава развој планова инцидената / догађаја и допуна - и/д?	X	X	X	X
2.5	Enforcement operations				
2.5.1	Does the software support the execution of emergency operating procedures and / d?	X	X	X	X
2.6	Handling of resurses				
2.6.1	Does the software allows the user to maintain current browser available resources?	X	X	X	X
2.6.2	Does the system provide status, alerts and alarms, emergency resources?	X	X		X
2.7	Organizational communication (local, regional, state, national, foreign agencies)				
2.7.1	Does the software provides a method to automatically connect with other EMAs and or EMAC?	X	X	X	X
2.7.2	Does the software provides a method to automatically connect with other state agencies or elements of the private sector?	X		X	X
2.7.3	Is software provides automated status different field command centers?	X	X	X	X
2.8	Screens				
2.8.1	Does the software have the ability to provide data of geographic information system (GIS)?	X	X	X	X
2.9	Interfaces				
2.9.1	Does GIS software provide integration with a variety of sensors?	X			
2.10	Modeling od incident / event				
2.10.1	Does the software have an interface with the modeling package?	X	X	X	X
2.11	Referent datas				
2.11.1	Does the software provide links to different types of reference data?	X		X	X
2.11.2	Does the software provides access to public Web sites?	X		X	X
2.12	Reporting				
2.12.1	Is software provides standard reports?	X	X	X	X
2.12.2	Does the software provide user-defined reports of incidents?	X			X
3.1	Help assistance				
3.1.1	Does the seller have a service to provide assistance, upgrades, and consulting services?	X	X	X	X

CONCLUSION

During the process of research and comparisons of different IT tools is mandatory to take into account the price where it is obvious that the industry uses a wide range of pricing models that make it difficult to achieve the so-called “apples - apples “ price comparison method that is the safest method of comparative reasoning. However , some key issues have emerged during the process of comparison and that could be given in the form of conclusions that every vendor should provide answers to them in order to obtain a reasonable comparison. It also imposes a discussion and concluding that although software packages can not compensate for the lack of knowledge and skills people can significantly facilitate the work in the process of crisis management and that is an obvious trend of positive correlation effectiveness of crisis management and the development of new information technologies.

REFERENCES

1. Branderberger, J., Konrad, R., Техника мрежног планирања, Техничка књига, Зарепб, 1970.
2. Carl Chatfield, Timothy Johnson: Корак по корак Microsoft Project 2007, СЕТ, Београд, 2007.
3. Gundel, S., „Towards a New Typology of Crisis“, Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management, Vol. 13, No. 3, 2005.
4. Кековић, З., Николић, В., Управљање ризицима као предуслов ефективног кризног менаџмента, Хрестоматија „Кризни Менаџмент I“, Факултет Безбедности, Београд, 2006.
5. Милашиновић Срђан, Кешетовић Желимир: Кризни менаџмент у историјској перспективи, Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, Београд, 2011.
6. Милашиновић Срђан, Јевтовић Зоран, Деспотовић Љубиша: Политика, медији, безбедност, Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, Београд, 2011.
7. Милашиновић Срђан, Кешетовић Желимир: Кризни менаџмент, Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, Београд, 2009.
8. Rosenthal U., Boin, A.R. and Comfort, J.K., Managing Crisis, Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 2001
9. Rosenthal, U. and Kouzmin, A. “Globalizing an Agenda for Contingencies and Crisis Management: An Editorial Statement”, Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1993
10. Sarah Hart, Crisis Information Management Software (CIMS) Feature Comparison Report, National Institute of Justice, 2002.
11. Закон о ванредним ситуацијама Републике Србије.
12. www.mup.gov.rs
13. www.vs.rs

CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE PROTECTION - ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Associate Professor **Mladen Bajagić**, PhD*
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Spec. **Marjan Marjanović**

Abstract: All countries, individually and through international cooperation, seek to provide an efficient and effective response to modern threats such as terrorism, organized crime, conflicts, natural disasters and accidents, or computer crime, particularly within the context of emergency situations. However, the application of science and technology, modern safety procedures and measures, and strengthening of the entire infrastructure of the countries, brings not only advantages in that fight, but also some drawbacks, such as dependency and vulnerability. A particularly important question for each country is the protection of critical infrastructure, as well as its relationship with all the owners - operators of critical infrastructure. Also, an important issue is the level of critical infrastructure, as well as the responsibilities and investing in it, because the state wants to secure and maintain the continuity and functionality of critical infrastructure, time and functionality of the entire society. This paper discusses the role of state and non state/private sector in the protection of critical infrastructure. The state should provide legal, economic, tax and other reliefs in the area of critical infrastructure protection. A strict legal framework that applies to the state and to the professional associations should follow these incentives. The goal is to motivate all the subjects (owners and users) of critical infrastructure to further strengthen their potentials in its protection.

Keywords: critical infrastructure, security threats, the basic threat skeleton, emergency situations, vulnerability, protection, responsibility, the state, the owner/operator.

CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE AND THREATS TO CRITICAL INFRASTRUCTURE

Dynamic and complex processes and events that characterize contemporary international relations in all fields (political, economic, military, energy, etc.), which influenced the international security reality, have led to an increase in the number of non-traditional security challenges and threats¹, with the high degree of uncertainty, unpredictability and discontinuity. The development of majority of modern countries today depends, among other things, on critical infrastructure (*Critical Infrastructure - CI*), which can be defined as “the backbone of the national economy, national security and health of the whole nation...which includes resources, systems, and networks, whether physical or virtual, which are of vital importance to the nation, whose restraint or destruction would produce serious (unacceptable) consequences² for national security, economic interests and public health of the nation.”³ According to a dictionary of English terms, critical infrastructure consists of facilities, services and installations needed for the functioning of a community or society, such as transportation and communication systems, water and power

1* This paper is the result of the realisation of the Scientific Research Project entitled „The Development of Institutional Capacities, Standards and Procedures for Combating Organized Crime and Terrorism in the International Integration Conditions“. 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 Criminalistics and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011–2014). The leader of the Project is Associate Professor Saša Mijalković, PhD.

Each entity with the motivation, intent and ability to execute malicious act makes a threat within the context of endangering CI.

2 Unacceptable consequence is the threshold of consequence which is determined by the state to justify the resources spent on the organization responsible for providing protection for preventing its occurrence.

3 Compare: US Department of Homeland Security, *What Is Critical Infrastructure?*, <http://www.dhs.gov/critical-infrastructure>; U.S. Office of Homeland Security, *The National Strategy for Homeland Security*, July 16, 2002.

lines, and public institutions including schools, post offices, and prisons.⁴ According to Executive Order of U.S. president no. 13228, the critical infrastructure (CI) includes:

- energy production, transmission and distribution of electrical energy and services, and critical facilities;
- other utilities;
- telecommunications;
- facilities that produce, use, store, or dispose of nuclear material;
- public and privately owned information systems;
- special events of national significance;
- transportation, including railways, highways, shipping ports and waterways;
- airports and civilian aircraft, and
- livestock, agriculture, and systems for the provision of water and food for human use and consumption.⁵

From this it is evident that all of the modern countries are obliged to provide a range of products and services that are vital for the normal functioning of society. In this sense, the protection of CI should be considered as one of the pillars of national security, as well as the factor of the current and future economic stability.

The fact is that modern societies today depend entirely on scientific and technological development and the implementation of technical and technological innovation in all segments of society and its development. However, this fact makes modern societies more vulnerable from the perspective of security, and it multiplies risks and threats to smooth and efficient functioning of CI, definitely increasing financial expenses of providing adequate protection of the CI.

Elements of critical infrastructure are more and more vulnerable to human error, weather conditions and natural causes, physical and cyber attacks. Each of these threats, caused on certain points of CI, has potential to cause serious and far-reaching negative consequences. The current economic crisis, climate changes, urbanization, demographical growth and its socio-economic consequences, are increasing potential threats which are beginning to represent real security risks for CI.⁶ The estimates stating that the frequency and seriousness of incidents threatening CI will increase in the future are realistic.⁷

Protection of CI requires the capability to recognize/identify and follow critical elements, and to determine when and whether the elements of CI are under attack or are they victims of destructive natural phenomena. In order to identify the necessary capacities for countering certain threats to CI we need to:

- identify basic infrastructure which is of crucial importance for undisturbed functioning of society;
- evaluate threats: proactively identify elements of critical infrastructure (CI) and take future trends into consideration;
- assess dangerment: determine the influence of incidents/incident on CI, taking into consideration the susceptibility of existing facilities; and
- assess risks: it is necessary to create a list of existing credible risks, depending on potential risks in terms of their causes, nature, potential targets, as well as an assessment of those risks.⁸

Every country, region, or a single object of CI, is responsible for identifying threats which they are trying to defend themselves from. This is important during the definition and development of a system for protection and neutralization of a threat. Main principle of protection of CI should be based on the current evaluation of danger the country is in, that is, on threat assessment.⁹

⁴ American Heritage Dictionary of English Language (4th edition), Houghton Mifflin Company, 2000; See: Rinaldi, S.M., Peerenboom, J.P. and T.K. Kelly, "Identifying, Understanding, and Analyzing Critical Infrastructure Interdependencies". In *IEEE Control Systems Magazine*, 2001, pp. 11-25.

⁵ Executive Order 13228 - Establishing the Office of Homeland Security and the Homeland Security Council. Federal Register, Vol. 66, No. 196, October 8, 2001, pp. 51812- 51817.

⁶ Cornelis, B., *Federal Risk Inventory, Survey and Knowledge Building*, SPIRAL, Liège, 2004.

⁷ Maliszewski P. J., *Modeling Critical Vaccine Supply Location: Protecting Critical Infrastructure and Population in Central Florida*, Florida State University College of Social Sciences, 2008.

⁸ Smedts B., *Critical infrastructure protection at the European level*, EGMONT – The Royal Institute for International Relations, 2011., Studia Diplomatica Vol. LXIV: 2011, N°1, <http://www.egmontinstitute.be/FR/SD-2011-2012.html>.

⁹ The Physical Protection Objectives and Fundamental Principles (GOV/2001/41/Attachment), IAEA, Vienna, 2001.

Threat assessment¹⁰ done by a country leads us to the *design of basic threats* for the given category of objects (*design basic threat – DBT*), which is a subset of threat assessment for the object that is being guarded. DBT determines necessary performance of the security system for a specific object of CI, and it provides the basis for an assessment of changes when it comes to the level of threats. Therefore, DBT is derived from an assessment of threats to the state and it is used to facilitate the development of physical protection from threats.

In order to define DBT¹¹ - the set of described threats in an assessment of threat to a country, we have to take other factors into consideration as well, such as technical, economic and political questions (PESTLE and SWOT analyses), and especially requests for the planning of protection of CI.¹²

Normally, PESTLE and SWOT analyses fall into a brainstorming tool of thought, very popular in the business world, and it is used for fast, creative and radical problem solving.¹³ Goal of PESTLE analysis is to determine and summarize influences of the environment to a specific organization. It was created from a traditional PEST analysis (*Political, Economic, Social and Technological analysis*). PESTLE represents the following factors: P – Political, E – Economic, S – Social, T – Technological, L – Legal, and E – Environmental. PESTLE analyses the environment and it provides an overview of the external situation which can affect the branch of economy in general or companies in the given branch of economy. When it comes to PESTLE analysis it is very important to ask these questions:

- which factors from the environment affect a given entity (state, organization, etc.);
- which one is the most important at the moment; and
- which one will be in effect in the next couple of years.

By considering political, economic, technological, legal and ethical/ecological environment and its influence on the state or a certain organization in combination with the influence of the state/organization on them, PESTLE analysis can provide an overview which: a) minimizes exposure to threats and internal risks; b) optimizes the efficiency of country's infrastructure or a certain organization/company; and c) it promotes understanding and a knowledge base about the position of the state/organization/company in relation to threats. On the other hand, SWOT method (*Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats Methods*) is a very frequently used technique that helps in the preparation or alteration of plans, problem solving and decision making.¹⁴ It can be applied to various functions, activities, business projects, etc. SWOT analysis is an extremely useful method for summarizing relations between environmental influence and business dealings. It includes examination of internal strengths and weaknesses, external developments and threats to the organization, however it is only efficient if comprehensive and accurate information is used. SWOT analysis is conducted in two phases.

Phase one: 1) Determining the objectives of the analysis, so that they are as clear and as concise as possible. Determining objectives is the most important phase of SWOT analysis; 2) choosing appropriate associates for the team, because analysis requires rational and objective reasoning from participants, as well as correct and rapid assessments, accurate and precise predictions, separating the important from the unimportant, realizing the connection between elements inside the organization and the environment and finding the characteristics of elements and using these connections for accomplishing goals; 3) gathering information.

In the second phase of SWOT analysis we classify the parameters into groups and create the matrix of threats and threat assessments.

DBT is a description of attributes and characteristics of potential enemies (insiders and outsiders) who could attempt a malicious act, against who the system of protection of CI is

10 Threat assessment includes an evaluation of existing threats and it also usually includes intelligence assessments which describe motivation, intentions and possibilities of committing a malicious act.

11 *Development, Use and Maintenance of the Design Basic Threat*, IAEA Nuclear Security Series No. 10, IAEA, Austria, 2009.

12 *Ibid*, p. 3.

13 Collin, P.H. and A. Ivanovic, *Dictionary of Marketing* (3rd edition), Bloomsbury /Independent Publishers Group, Chicago, 2004.

14 Ko, A.S.O. and S.F. Lee, "Building balanced scorecard with SWOT analysis, and implementing 'Sun Tzu's The Art of Business Management Strategies' on QFD methodology", In *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 2000, Volume 15 Issue 1, pp.68-77.

designed and evaluated.¹⁵ This paper elaborates the relation between the responsibility of the state and an operator for protection of CI. The definition of DBT is derived based on the following explanations:

- a potential enemy is every individual or a group of individuals, including outsiders and insiders, for whom it is suspected to have the intention/capability to commit a malicious act;
- malicious act is every act that can lead to unacceptable consequences, and therefore it has to be prevented¹⁶;
- attributes and characteristics of potential enemies: description of motivation, capabilities and intentions for committing a malicious act are: motivation, which can be economic, political and ideological; and
- intentions include all political, military or economic targets.

Capabilities of enemies are determined by: their team, number, grouping, possibility of an inclusion of an insider, secret arrangement with insiders, organization, capabilities and means, including tactics, weapons, explosive, tools, transportation, level of access and the skill of the opponent.

DBT is defined on the state level as a tool for assistance and establishing performances for projecting and assessment of the protection system for CI, and it helps operators and state authorities to determine criteria for detecting, holding and an answer during the projecting and assessment of an efficient protection system for CI. As a matter of fact, DBT contains a set of characteristics of the enemy against whom operators and state organizations have a responsibility to protect.¹⁷

The division of this responsibility can vary from country to country. Responsibilities that are appointed to an operator for protection from DBT should be defined in accordance with authorities, missions, capabilities and resources of the operator.

TYPES OF RESPONSIBILITY

Stone, Dwivedi and Jabbra provided a list of eight types of responsibility: moral, administrative, political, managerial, market, legal/judicial, constituency relation and professional.¹⁸ Leadership responsibility contains many of the stated responsibilities. The fact is that many individuals in large organizations contribute in many ways when it comes to making decisions and defining rules, so it is hard to identify the ones responsible for the results of these decisions, therefore the dilemma about who is actually responsible remains unresolved.¹⁹ If individuals take responsibility or a part of responsibility, but they could not prevent the outcome or if they are unjustly punished, or if they symbolically take the responsibility, they do not suffer any consequences. However, if the organization is responsible, then all the individuals in an organization are equally guilty, or they are all innocent. Many solutions of the problem of determining responsibility are being suggested. One of them is to broaden the criteria for individual responsibility, so that the individuals are responsible for failures and they are obliged to anticipate the omissions in the organization. Another one is that the individual is responsible for creating the organization in the past and in the future.²⁰

With the increase of the delivery of public services in the last couple of decades by private

¹⁵*The Physical Protection of Nuclear Material and Nuclear Facilities*, INFCIRC/ 225/Rev. 4 (corrected), IAEA, Vienna, 1999.

¹⁶ Malicious act is every act aimed against the object of CI that could directly or indirectly endanger health and safety of staff, population and environment, and prevent normal functioning of CI. Malicious act can also include taking control over the equipment and the premises for blackmail.

¹⁷ Operator is every organization or an individual approved or authorized for conducting activities in the domain of CI.

¹⁸ Jabbra, J.G. and O.P. Dwivedi (eds.), *Public Service Accountability: A Comparative Perspective*, Kumarian Press, Hartford, CT, 1989.

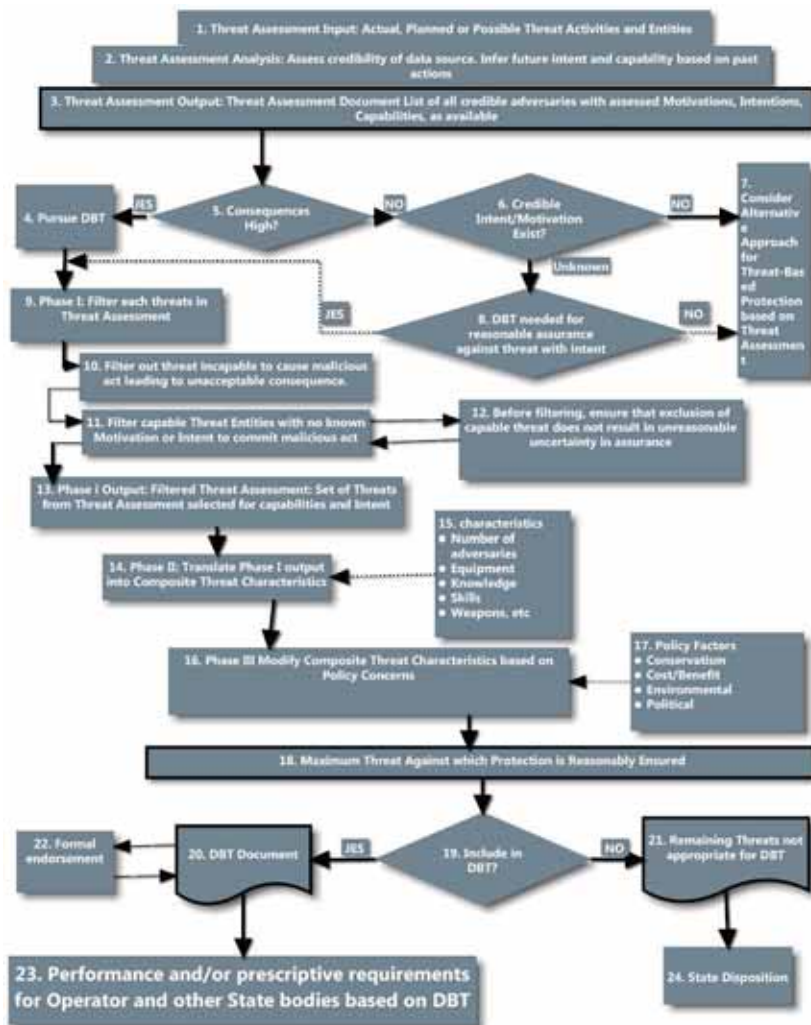
¹⁹ Thompson, D., "The Problem of Many Hands" in *Restoring Responsibility: Ethics in Government, Business and Healthcare*. Cambridge University Press., 2005, pp. 33-49.

²⁰ Thompson, D.F., "Designing Responsibility: The Problem of Many Hands in Complex Organizations", In van den Hoven, J, Miller S. and T. Pogge (eds), *The Design Turn in Applied Ethics*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press. 2012.

entities, especially in Britain and USA, the boundaries between public institutions and private entities, such as corporations for example, become blurry in certain areas of public service, and this can jeopardize the political responsibility in those areas. That is why legal reforms are necessary in order to eliminate this lack of responsibility.

It is very possible that some threats that are defined in the threat assessment will not be included in the DBT, and that the protection from these threats will remain in the jurisdiction of the state. Still, even though the state will develop measures against these threats, the operator has the key role in assisting the state, or in the protection from threats or mitigating their consequences.

International Atomic Energy Agency – IAEA provided a special model of basic threat development, from which we can conclude that basic threat development consists of many phases, which are connected by cause and effect and form a unity of processes of this development (see picture no. 1).



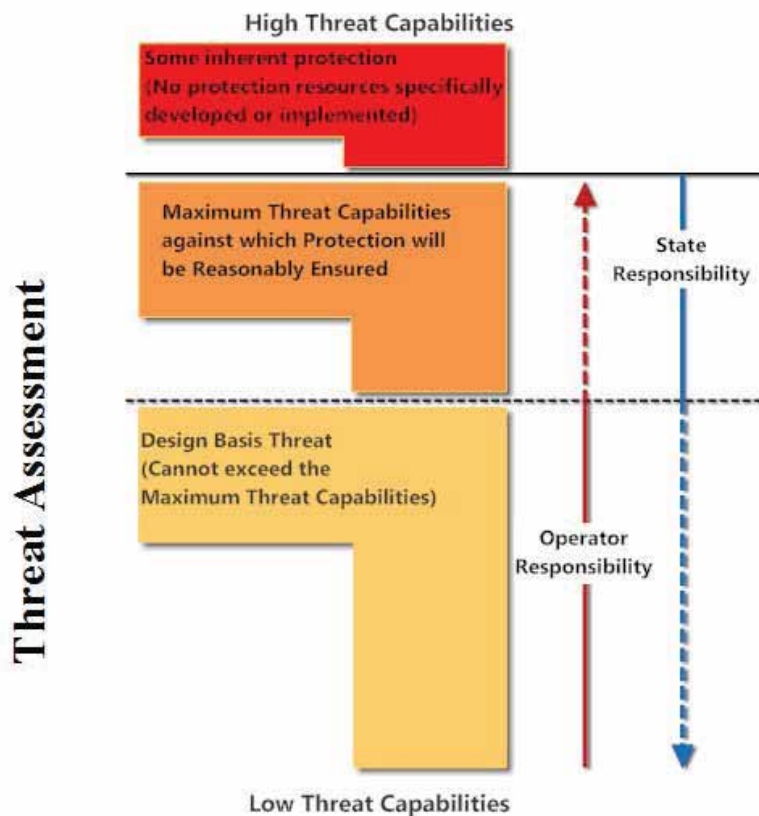
Picture 1. Basic threat development²¹

21 See: Development, Use and Maintenance of the Design Basic Threat, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

The state can have more than one DBT for different types of critical infrastructure, to reflect different needs for protection. These differences indicate the importance of clarifying the planned use of DBT before it is completed.

The picture n° 2 shows the relation between potential threats in the threat assessment and the DBT. It shows the range of all the threats, from the possibility of low threats (bottom of the chart), to the high possibility of threats (on top of the chart). This range represents well-known, real and prevalent threats which are being evaluated in threats assessment. Through the development of DBT these threats will be evaluated to determine whether they would be appropriate as a basis for creating the conditions for the protection of CI.

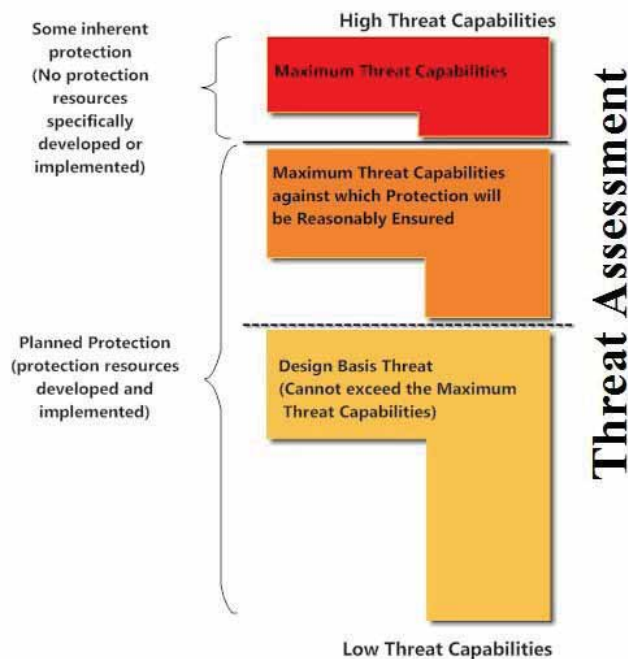
The result of the screening and treatment process will be defining the maximum possibilities of threats against which justified protection will be provided. This definition includes all the possible potential threats against which the government decided to develop special measures of protection (see dashed horizontal line). The level of threats is marked on the graph so that DBT is a subset of all the possible threats and that it will be used as the basis for regulating the protection of CI. DBT can cover all the threats in the maximum capability of threats against which justified protection will be provided, under the condition that these threats are appropriate for DBT. It should be noted that neither the maximum capability of threats against which protection will be reasonably secured, nor DBT describe a single specific identification or name of the opponents. They are only representative descriptions drawn from all the credible threats that cause concern.



Picture 2. The relationship between the threats involved in basic threats and those which we consider for threat assessment²²

²² See: *Development, Use and Maintenance of the Design Basic Threat*, op. cit., p. 6.

The picture n°3 shows the relationship of responsibility between the government and the operators for the implementation of effective protection of CI from the threats. As shown, the state will provide resources of the protection that will be applied to all the threats covered by the maximum capabilities of threats, against which the protection will be reasonably assured. The state and the operator will share the responsibility for this protection, where the operator has the primary responsibility for threat possibilities within DBT, and the state has the responsibility to battle against threats between DBT and maximum potential of threats for which the protection will be reasonably provided.



Picture 3. Roles and responsibilities for threat protection²³

Protection resources will not be developed or assigned for the protection of threat possibilities beyond the threshold of the maximum threat possibility in relation to which the protection will be reasonably assured. However, there are mitigation measures that are expected to provide some intrinsic protection against the possibility of these threats.

The skeleton of basic threats provides a detailed and accurate technical basis for designing, as well as the evaluation criteria for the CI protection, so it can provide greater assurance that the level of protection is sufficient. Using DBT to develop the system of CI protection should lead to an efficient allocation of resources for protection, by reducing the arbitrariness that would otherwise exist in the establishment of the protection system. It allows a flexible approach to the regulation of this problem and allows adjustment of the project of the CI protection system for solving the unique characteristics of the system, or objects. Also, it provides a clear basis for defining the responsibility of operators for the CI protection.

DBT should be included in the regulatory framework and used for:

- establishing the performances goals and requests for the CI protection systems;
- determining the criteria for designing the CI protection systems;
- establishing the criteria for evaluation of the CI protection system, and
- share responsibility between the state and the operator.

²³ See: Development, Use and Maintenance of the Design Basic Threat, op. cit., p. 7

A method should be developed on the operator level for evaluating measures of retention and response to malicious acts, for solving attributes and characteristics of opponents described in DBT, and emergency situations.

ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES FOR THE CI PROTECTION

The state has the overall responsibility for the development and control of CI protection and the use and maintenance of DBT. The way in which this is achieved depends on the state and development of policies, legislation and other legal regulations. There may be more competent authorities involved in the process, development and control of CI protection and the use and maintenance of DBT. The best solution is to have all of these activities assigned to one competent authority. (e.g. the competent authority for the supervision and control of the protection of the facilities of CI). However, the decision on who will be the competent authority depends on the state. If the state decides to have special authorities for these two roles, coordination is important to ensure the development of DBT, and that it fits into the regulatory schemes. In the specific case, close coordination is required between the authorities to identify the types of objects/licenses for operators (based on the regulatory framework) and to ensure that the development of the CI protection system takes into account the potential consequences associated with endangerment for each type of facility and licenses for CI operators.

The state should ensure that:

legal framework that allows the CI protection through a legally binding instrument or regulation;

competent authority - has the authority to initiate the development of CI protection, gain access to appropriate information and receive help from other state authorities for development;

appropriate state authorities are involved in the process of threat assessment;

organizations involved in the CI protection are being identified and their roles determined, and there is an effective integration of operators and authorities in the State for the CI protection.

Only one authority can have the responsibility for development and control of CI or responsibility can be divided between several authorities. Anyhow, the following responsibilities should be clearly assigned:

coordination of the process through which should be determined whether an appropriate mechanism ensures an adequate level of protection²⁴;

initiating the process of developing the document "Threat assessment for DBT";

coordinating the process of development of DBT and decision making;

ensuring that DBT conclusions are consistent with other legal, legislative or other regulatory requirements;

check whether the existing regulatory framework is good for strengthening the relevant state authorities to the extent necessary to achieve its complementary role in the protection from threats or mitigating these threats;

distribution of DBT to those responsible for the CI protection, as well as to those involved in the development of the System for the CI protection;

deciding how DBT will be used and which regulatory requirements should be applied;

determining how much the CI protection system should be controlled and properly maintained;

deciding when it is necessary to initiate the formal updating of CI protection system, and

adoption, implementation and verification of appropriate security measures and confidentiality rules for the protection of information and plans of the CI and DBT protection systems.

For the installation of DBT within the regulatory security system and its use for developing appropriate protection measures, the competent authority must ensure that the requirements for the protection arising from DBT comply with legal or regulatory requirements.

²⁴ If the level of protection is not considered to be appropriate, the competent authority should identify an alternative approach to provide adequate security and adequate protection based on threats.

THE ROLE OF INTELLIGENCE AGENCIES, OTHER ORGANIZATIONS AND OPERATORS/OWNERS IN THREAT ASSESSMENT

CI protection system is designed to prevent an opponent in the execution of malicious acts. To ensure that this objective is fulfilled, the CI protection designer should understand the conditions under which the protection system must be carried out. A clear description of these threats defines these terms, and is therefore an essential prerequisite for reasonable assurance and effective protection of CI. Ideally, intelligence and other sources of information regarding the threats will provide enough information to specify the requirements for design and implementation of the CI protection system, to ensure that this objective is fulfilled. However, intelligence work is often limited, and the threats are dynamic per se. The CI protection system designed only for existing threats cannot be effective against future threats.

In the absence of sufficiently detailed and specific description of the threats, it is difficult to accurately determine the level of protection that will be appropriate and effective for a given object or activity. Given the potentially serious consequences of some malicious acts and the high costs of providing protection, the unsafe level of required protection is unlikely to be acceptable to the competent state authorities.

Involving organizations responsible for collecting and evaluating intelligence data is essential for the development of credible threats as a basis for the assessment of CI protection measures. Intelligence expertise can be done in several authorities: (counter) intelligence agency, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the police and the army. Such authorities are familiar with the process of gathering and assessing intelligence data, and making the necessary assessments. They have access to sources of information, including information from the international connections that may otherwise be unavailable to the CI competent authority.

One of the key responsibilities of the modern intelligence agencies is to collect, process (classify, analyse and evaluate) information about potential threats with great consequences and that, on the basis of credible final intelligence data, prepare special documents on the threat assessment and assign them to end users (holders of highest government duties and top state authorities - the government and ministries).

In addition to the intelligence agencies, many other agencies, organizations and authorities (national and local), independently and with other authorities, play an important role in the CI protection. These organizations/authorities should be involved or consulted in the development process of CI protection. These organizations have similar responsibilities as the operator: 1) to develop the necessary protection measures within their jurisdiction, and 2) to provide feedback to the competent authority regarding the financial and operational impact of potential decisions regarding the DBT.²⁵

The operator/owner has the main responsibility for direct implementing the CI protection measures, as well as specific measures that support it, which have been developed by the operator and approved by the regulatory body, or directly defined by the regulatory body.

Operators' authorities responsible for the protection must be familiar with the financial, operational and security impacts of the specific measures that may affect the protection, and consequently the share of responsibilities for security measures between the operator and other subjects. Therefore, the input information from the operator, formal or informal, is of great importance. The operator should provide feedback to the competent authority regarding the financial, operational and security impacts of the potential decisions regarding the CI protection, with possible doubts about insider threats and incidents that may have a negative background. He develops and implements the necessary protection measures from DBT, including control, readiness and legality.

CONCLUSION

The obligation of each state is to determine how many opponents form a threat and what are their abilities, including: equipment, weapons, method of attack, familiarity with objects,

²⁵ This feedback will ensure that the competent authority took all the impacts into account in the development of DBT.

insider cooperation, training, funding, and motivation of opponents that helps to define the credibility or the probability of occurrence of attacks.²⁶ The DBT should be based on regularly updated assessment of credible threats to CI, assessment that is a reflection of capabilities and intentions of potential enemies. The DBT is generally a subset of credible threats to CI and its infrastructure. Obligations of the operator/owners are: 1) to determine the attractiveness of the CI object for the opponent, 2) to calculate the consequences of damage or destruction of the target, 3) level of self-protection, and 4) to determine the ability of the opponent to threaten the target. If the risk analysis for CI is used to determine the adequacy of project of the object, designers need to know the level of acceptable risk. The level of acceptable risk is determined by the regulator or by the competent state authority. When managing risks in the CI the following should be done: implement international standards, perform iterative analysis of CI objects, use as much as possible experience of other similar CI systems, determine the worst case scenarios, train qualified staff to determine the risk, simulate scenarios that include all the elements (physical protection, response forces, and management structure), to make the risk level based on the information about the probability of an attack or event.

To assess the effectiveness of the CI protection system, it is necessary to use an approach that is based on the full DBT, using the maximum power and the best strategies and scenarios for the protection system, with the data on the performances of that system. An effective CI protection system must contain the element of "response". The meaning of "response" or "power to respond" varies from country to country, and often even from object to object in a given country. Part or all of the power of response can be located outside of the CI object. In response forces may be included, besides the police and the army, especially highly trained teams of security agencies to the extent that the laws and regulations allow it. Due to diversity in cultures and national approaches, it is difficult to generalize special procedures or tasks for response forces. Regardless of the differences in approach, response forces must prevent the opponent from achieving his goal and to act on clear basis and rules of engagement. In response to the threat common obligations of the state and the operators/owners themselves are: all staff involved in the protection and response force must pass the test of reliability (security check), an integrated response plan must be developed so it defines responsibility for the implementation and communication during the response; continuous exercises to confirm readiness to respond to emergency situations, which include: defined criteria for success and execution, simulations, and multiple implementation of exercises. The staff involved in the protection and response forces should have regular training based on a training program based on the threats that are defined in DBT. A shared training of response forces from all the agencies is necessary in case of emergency situations. Response forces must be trained and qualified to the point that they can compensate for some shortcomings in other characteristics of CI protection. Equipment of the staff involved in the protection and response forces must be able to mitigate the threat identified in the DBT. Finally, as an important factor of the response arises the so called "mitigating the consequences." This mitigation is important in reducing the impact on the overall success of the opponent, but the primary responsibility is on the state and operator to prevent success of the threat. Mitigation is important, and if the operating procedures on the object are appropriate and the staff for response and mitigation is reliable and qualified, the consequences of a successful attack of the opponent can be significantly reduced. To mitigate the effects arising as a result of natural disasters, state and objects of CI should develop plans for responding to emergency situations. These plans should be regularly tested and evaluated. The state should provide the legal, economic, tax and other facilitations in the area of CI protection. These facilitations should follow a strict legal framework that applies to the state and to the professional associations. The goal is to motivate all the subjects (owners and users) of CI to continue to strengthen its potentials in its protection.

²⁶ Probability of attack must be considered during a specific time period, such as the lifetime of the object. If the lifetime of the object is long enough, the probability of occurrence of attacks is high.

REFERENCES

1. Collin, P.H. and A. Ivanovic, *Dictionary of Marketing* (3rd edition), Bloomsbury / Independent Publishers Group, Chicago, 2004.
2. Cornelis, B., *Federal Risk Inventory, Survey and Knowledge Building*, SPIRAL, Liège, 2004.
3. Jabbra, J.G. and O.P. Dwivedi (eds.), *Public Service Accountability: A Comparative Perspective*, Kumarian Press, Hartford, CT, 1989.
4. Ko, A.S.O. and S.F. Lee, "Building balanced scorecard with SWOT analysis, and implementing 'Sun Tzu's The Art of Business Management Strategies' on QFD methodology", In *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 2000, Volume 15 Issue 1, pp.68-77.
5. American Heritage Dictionary of English Language (4th edition), Houghton Mifflin Company, 2000.
6. Maliszewski P.J., *Modeling Critical Vaccine Supply Location: Protecting Critical Infrastructure and Population in Central Florida*, Florida State University College of Social Sciences, 2008.
7. Rinaldi, S.M., Peerenboom, J.P. and T.K. Kelly, "Identifying, Understanding, and Analyzing Critical Infrastructure Interdependencies", In *IEEE Control Systems Magazine*, 2001.
8. Smedts B., *Critical infrastructure protection at the European level*, EGMONT, The Royal Institute for International Relations, StudiaDiplomatica Vol. LXIV: 2011, N°1 2011., <http://www.egmontinstitute.be/FR/SD-2011-2012.html>.
9. Thompson D., "The Problem of Many Hands", In *Restoring Responsibility: Ethics in Government, Business and Healthcare*. Cambridge University Press., 2005.
10. van den Hoven, J., Miller, S. and T. Pogge (eds), *The Design Turn in Applied Ethics*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press. 2012.
11. Executive Order 13228 - Establishing the Office of Homeland Security and the Homeland Security Council. Federal Register, Vol. 66, No. 196, October 8, 2001.
12. *The Physical Protection Objectives and Fundamental Principles* (GOV/2001/41/ Attachment), IAEA, Vienna, 2001.
13. *Development, Use and Maintenance of the Design Basic Threat*, IAEA Nuclear Security Series No. 10, IAEA, Austria, 2009.
14. *The Physical Protection of Nuclear Material and Nuclear Facilities*, INFCIRC/225/Rev. 4 (corrected), IAEA, Vienna, 1999.
15. US Department of Homeland Security, *What Is Critical Infrastructure?*, <http://www.dhs.gov/critical-infrastructure>; U.S. Office of Homeland Security, The National Strategy for Homeland Security. July 16, 2002.

SECURITY AS A CONDITION OF DEMOCRATIZATION – EXAMPLE OF SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Associate Professor **Zoran Krstić**, PhD
Faculty of Political Sciences, University of Belgrade

Abstract: This paper deal with security and democratization in region of Sub-Saharan Africa. African countries, or a large number of them, need to move forward from symbolic gestures and protocolar democracy, and implement substantial adjustments that signify true dedication to democratic and secure reforms. The African political elites need to be instilled with a sense of ephemerality, and the people with a sense of citizenship, responsibility and power. Needless to say, the existence of free and fair elections is a prerequisite of any further advancement in the field. Unfortunately, this minimum of democracy is still to be reached in a number of countries, where ethically challenged leaders still cling firmly to their autocratic thrones. The neopatrimonial relationships have to be deprived of their folkloric value and fought in all strata of the society. This problem, present throughout the world, proves to be particularly debilitating in African societies.

Keywords: security, democratization, political elite, military forces, conflict, humanitarian crisis

DEMOCRATIZATION AND SECURITY IN AFRICA: PROCESSES AND OBSTACLES

There are numerous factors that influence the political reshaping. The strength of their impact varies from country to country, and is not linear. As we can see, different authors tend to stress different factors as being the most decisive in democratization processes. As it is impossible to thoroughly examine all of them, we will try to explore those that are most often seen as the crucial ones in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa. Analyzing what is, as we saw, usually mentioned as prerequisites for democratization, for example capitalism, relative wealth, cultural unity, civic culture, social agents, or Western Christianity, Joseph concludes that African countries lacked the majority, if not all of them, and therefore, represented an “infertile terrain” for democracy.¹ Stephen N. Ndegwa compiled a list of major reasons for failure of democratic consolidation. Economic crises and deep discontent, institutional weakness/decay, external conditioning and dependency, post-cold war fluidity and lack of external patronage and, finally, atrimonialism and personal rule tendencies are the factors that are deeply woven into the fabric of African states and societies. Although these conditions were the power behind the anti-authoritarian changes, they have proven not to be particularly conducive to further democratization and consolidation of democratic institutions.²

Despite the existence of undoubtedly formidable efforts by private actors at home and abroad to promote human rights, civil liberties, and pluralist democracy, as well as the onset of encouraging upheavals that swept over Eastern Europe, Joseph claims that these impulses would remain futile, albeit praiseworthy, if it was not for three key factors: the worsening economic crisis, the increasing pressure from international financial institutions and aid agencies to gain greater control over economic policy, and changes in international relations following the end of the Cold War, namely the rising intolerance for authoritarian regimes, which were previously welcome as allies in the fight with a bigger enemy.³ It is habitual in relevant academic literature to make a distinction between internal and external reasons for the onset and spreading of

¹ Joseph, R., Democratization in Africa after 1989: Comparative and Theoretical Perspectives, *Comparative Politics*, 29, 1997, pp.363-382.

² Ndegwa, S.N., A Decade of Democracy in Africa, *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, (36), 2001, pp. 1-14

³ Joseph, R., Democratization in Africa after 1989, Op.cit.

democratization. In an attempt to summarize contemporary academic views on causes of democratization in Africa, Abrahamsen concludes that it is widely agreed upon that internal factors carried much greater significance. The external, or international factors seem to have just “made things *marginally* less difficult for those in Africa seeking to democratize their political systems and *marginally* more difficult for those (mainly incumbent authoritarian elites) who sought to prevent them from doing so”.⁴Sachs has a somewhat more balanced opinion. He states that there is no doubt that the corrupt and authoritarian rule of some African leaders has facilitated the impact of external influences. In his words, “if it is true that these leaders hanged themselves and their fellow citizens, the rich countries often provided the rope.”⁵

POLITICAL AND SECURE RESHAPING

Since the independence, all but a handful of African countries have failed to maintain the newlyacquired democratic institutions and regressed into the trap of authoritarian regimes. Whenconsidering external political factors, it is impossible to ignore the Cold War. Ironically, the finalgain of full independence was followed by further manipulation of African countries, as proxysubjects during the era of the Cold War, and/or as viable suppliers of natural resources⁶. The newdemocracies in sub Saharan Africa, and elsewhere, were continuously under pressure to make anideological, and even a military choice between the rival sides. This was even more evident inethnically diverse states, which also had to endure a constant struggle among the proponents of the two sides from within.⁶

The ideological and military fight for the clients between the two hostile blocks, in Africa andelsewhere, had largely taken the appearance of helping the less fortunate. The Soviet Union and its satellites on one, and the western powers led by the United States on the other side, engaged in a race for political and economical dominance on the continent. This was primarily exercised through abundant financial aid to the newly independent countries. The political elites in Sub-Saharan countries, concerned with issues like poverty and illiteracy, were more inclined to the Soviet-led socialist doctrines of distributive justice, social welfare and regulated markets. In face of the Cold War struggle and increased pressure from the West, they preferred to take a neutral rather than an openly negative stance towards the penetration of communism. That is how the West discovered that authoritarian regimes represented a much stronger barrier against the Soviet block than ideologically hesitant ones.⁷In the situation where two opposing groups of patrons compete for the clients, these can utilize greater leverage. Both the West and the Soviet Union, in their geostrategic race, were trying to get as many clients as they could. This raised the importance of African countries, and made the donors look the other way when their African allies were engaging in severe human rights abuses.⁸ African countries, and their increasingly authoritarian leaders, were able to maximize their role as desirable allies in the Cold War battle to extract the desired benefits, financial, military, or otherwise. Moreover, neither of the two groups of donors were ready to sacrifice an ally amidst growing reports of human right abuses and wide-spread oppression.

By the mid '80s, however, the opinions of the Soviet elites had undergone a significant change. They no longer adhered to the idea of the “irreconcilable struggle between imperialism and socialism for the allegiance of the Third World peoples”, and the Soviet financial assistance to African countries was beginning to wane. The end of the bipolar struggle for influence and power, in addition to triggering transitions to (more) democratic systems in Eastern Europe, had

4 Abrahamsen, Rita, The Victory of Popular Forces or Passive Revolution: A Neo-Gramscian Perspective on Democratization, *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, (35), 2007, p. 129-152.

5 Sachs, Jeffrey D., McArthur, John W., Schmidt-Traub, Guido, Kruk, Margaret, Bahadur, Chandrika, Faye, Michael, McCord, Gordon, *Ending Africa's Poverty Trap*, in *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, Brainard, William C., Perry, George L. (eds.), Washington, D.C., 2004, pp. 117-216.

6 Gaonkar, Dilip Parameshwar, *On Cultures of Democracy, Public Culture*, (19), 2007, p. 4.

7 *Ibid.*, op.cit.

8 Dunning, Thad, Conditioning the Effects of Aid: Cold War Politics, Donor Credibility, and Democracy in Africa, *International Organization*, 58, 2004, p. 409-423, pp. 411-413.

a formidable impact on pro-democratic changes in Africa. After the end of the bipolar rivalry, and the onset of a new struggle for power on the international stage, Africa found itself playing another important role on this newly set stage, primarily through its vast reserves of natural resources and raw materials.

The post-Cold war era also witnessed the departure of the politicians belonging to the first African generation, and the uprise of the ones that had no base in the fight for independence.⁹ This was a period of a significant generational change between the ones that waged the battles of independence, and faced the immediate difficulties brought by the fruits of this fight, and the ones that followed them. While the former generation was driven by basic democratic principles of self-rule in their struggle for independence from colonial powers, the latter found their motivation in fighting the inner enemy embodied in the form of the autocratic regime. In the thirty-three years that stand between the first Sub-Saharan country proclaiming independence, Ghana in 1957, and the last colony losing that status, Namibia in 1990, the methods of regime transitions were primarily limited to military coups. The idea that a president stays in the office for a previously determined period of time, or for as long as the voters showed their support for him was virtually unknown. Only three countries of the region held competitive elections during the '70s; in all of them the incumbents were quickly ousted by the military. The military took upon itself the role of a superior entity, an element that will perform as a cohesive force within society, preserving order amidst omnipresent crisis. These sealed echelons were creating policy away from the public eye, not allowing for any civilian opposition, safe in their hierarchical heights.

African leaders were defending the one-party rule claiming that multipartism, and the subsequent choice, was "an imported luxury which is neither needed nor affordable in developing countries", and that democratic institutions can be achieved within the frame of a single party rule. Stevens of Sierra Leone saw multipartism as "a system of [...] institutionalized tribal and ethnic quinquennial warfare euphemistically known as elections (which) contributes an open invitation to anarchy and disunity".¹⁰ According to Decalo, whether it was a benevolent, more firm, or simply tyrannic form of governing, the thirty years between the independence and the beginning of democratic changes in the '90s "empirically negated" the single-party rule. It is not difficult to see the source of a certain level of skepticism towards democratization processes in Africa. The long promised freedom from colonizers was, for the most part, very short lived, leading to yet another form of forced and unwilling subjection to various authoritarian regimes. Many attempts of reversal back to democracy in the '70s and '80s also ended rapidly. This caused a certain degree of frustration with democratic promises, as the experience showed that they often vanish soon after their most vocal proponents seize the power. "At independence, African leaders based their rule on the promise of improved material welfare. But as the economic predicament worsened during the 1980s, the rhetoric of development sounded increasingly hollow."¹¹ However, the continuously deteriorating economic situation in combination with abuse of power, clientelism and mismanagement led to the state's failure to perform its basic purposes and a general loss of state legitimacy.

This created the internal environment for the upcoming wave of democratization. The strong external impulses came in the form of events that swept over Eastern Europe, followed by political pressure for African countries to join the global tendency towards democratization. Although the pictures of democratic upheavals in Eastern Europe definitely had some impact on the subsequent movements for democracy in Africa, it would be wrong to see them as a "knee-jerk" of the processes happening in the former Soviet block. Africa was for some time, due to a range of internal and external factors, getting ready to demand democratization. Upon the beginning of the late 20th century wave of democratization on the African continent, the hopes of simultaneous successful transitions in the political and economic realms were not given too

⁹ Gyimah-Boadi, Emmanuel, *Democratic Reform in Africa: The Quality of Progress*, Gyimah-Boadi, Emmanuel (ed.), Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2004, p.5.

¹⁰ Decalo, S., *The Process, Prospects and Constraints of Democratization in Africa*, pp. 9-10.

¹¹ Abrahamsen, R., *The Victory of Popular Forces or Passive Revolution*, p. 134.

much base. Such a grim view was founded on three reasons, as van de Walle notices. Firstly, as it has previously been experienced in other parts of the world, democratization causes far greater participation, and puts the new democratic state leaders under “strong distributive pressures”, from both the new forces on the political scene, as well as the old ones. Secondly, the weakening of the executive branch in favor of the legislative would hinder the former from making and implementing decisions necessary for ensuring economic stabilization, and worsen the existing problems of corruption, poor economic leadership and state failure. The third reason lies in the much disputed role, behavior, and agenda of the West. Analogous to Huntington’s global waves of democratization, we can also discern three African waves and the reverse movements, but, due to obvious reasons, occurring in a historically much narrower period. The first happened in the period preceding and following the independence. The anti-colonial fight, that was spearheaded by the basic democratic idea that people should be able to rule themselves was swiftly followed by a myriad of nondemocratic regimes. The second came in the ’70s, together with its counterpart. The third one was more in line with its global analogue, taking place during the 1980s and 1990s, although some see it as far from over, and even further from definitely successful. According to Young, using Huntington’s time-line, democratic waves in Africa coincide with the late periods of the second and the third global wave, while the lengthy period of “patrimonial autocracy” can be seen as the reversal movement that followed the second wave.¹²

Relying on Dahl’s well-known two-dimensional model that encompasses contestation (competition) and inclusiveness (participation), Bratton and de Walle developed a typology of African regimes. The 47 countries that comprised the Sub-Saharan region at the time preceding the wave of democratization in the ’90s, were divided into five different categories: 1) plebiscitary one-party system (16 countries); 2) military oligarchy (11 countries); 3) competitive one-party system (13 countries); 4) settler oligarchy (2 countries); 5) multiparty system (5 countries). The first three types, that account for as much as 40 countries, all represent different forms of neopatrimonial regimes. Additional five countries, from the multiparty type, can be also be viewed as displaying neopatrimonial characteristics if we acknowledge their inclination to personal rule. Only two out of forty-seven countries, Namibia and South Africa, that constitute the category of settler oligarchies, broke away from, otherwise standard, neopatrimonial practices.¹³ It is also important to understand that this typology is not firm and absolute. Not abandoning neopatrimonialism as the umbrella feature, countries have displayed a tendency to change in relation to the two dimensions, moving from one category to the other.⁸⁴ Responding to changing situations, the leaders and appropriate elites also adapted the rules of the game, nonetheless never stepping out of the boundaries that allowed them to remain comfortably cushioned in the neopatrimonial tradition.

TYPES OF POLITICAL REGIMES

We will now take a closer look at the three regime types that are clearly neopatrimonial, encompassing a great majority of African countries, including the three countries that will be subjected to a more thorough examination as case studies. **Plebiscitary one-party systems.** Typically led by a civilian ruler that was revered for his contribution in the struggle for independence in the ’60s, or a military leader that rose in a coup a decade later, this was the most frequent type of regime on the continent. They were characterized by high levels of participation and very low competition. Very high voter turnouts (above 90%), and a matching quantity of votes that supported the incumbent regime were offset by virtually non-existent competition, obvious from the fact that opposition parties were banned, and that there was only one single candidate, from the only/ruling party, per election. **Military oligarchies.** Frequently headed by a prominent personality, they were de facto led by an elite comprised primarily of military personnel, aided by civilian experts and technocrats. The military officers that ruled the state tended to belong to the generations that performed the repeated attempts of military coups

¹² Young, C., *The Third Wave of Democratization in Africa*, p. 16.

¹³ Bratton, Michael, Van De Walle, Nicolas, *Democratic Experiments in Africa: regime transitions in comparative perspective*, Cambridge University Press, 1997, p. 77-82.

during the '70s and '80s. Contestation was present within the elite decision-making, but only there. Participation was at a very low level, with elections often being very rare, if held at all. Opposition in form of parties and associations was forbidden. Compared to the previous type, the plebiscitary one-party system, sometimes run by a military ruler, military oligarchies were characterized by a much greater military presence in political life. However, the institutions of the system appeared to effectively carry out their functions through established civil

or military hierarchy. Both Nigeria and Ghana represented examples of military oligarchies until the early '90s. **Competitive one-party system.** These regimes were usually governed by independence-day heroes, as in the examples of Zambia (Kenneth Kaunda) and Côte d'Ivoire (Félix Houphouët-Boigny), who often predetermined their heirs to the presidential posts through previously established party predominance. Characterized by high levels of participation, similarly to plebiscitary one-party systems, their competitive counterparts allowed a certain degree of competition. Ordinary voters had some choice among same-party candidates, even if that choice had no actual bearing on the actual policy. Some opposition was also permitted through media and civic associations.¹⁴

By 1991 the backwash was a veritable tidal wave, methodically transforming the political map of the continent.¹⁵ That is to say that the shifts that swept the continent in the early '90s were a corollary of the situation. The turbulent political shifts away from one party and military rule in the first half of '90s followed a certain sequential pattern, which can be substantiated by statistical data: they were introduced by **political protests**, the frequency of which reached the maximum in 1991; followed by **liberalization reforms** which were at the highest stage in 1992; then came **competitive elections** that culminated in 1993, with **democratic trend** indicators continuing to rise in the following year, as well. It can be concluded that each one of these phases ushered the next one, making way for what seemed to be a relatively rapid, wide-spread and rather successful transition to more democratic forms of regimes on the continent.

The pertaining literature often saw the African Third wave as a period of rebirth or second independence of Sub-Saharan countries. This optimistic view lost its plausibility in view of relevant empirical data and observations that followed. Moreover, it gave way to the phenomenon that will later be dubbed as "afropessimism". So, why did the pendulum of scientific opinion sway from one extreme to the other? Where is the right measure of success or failure of the African struggle for democracy? What are the factors and conditions that led to results so diverse? The surge of democratic changes that swept across African societies in the first half of '90 did not necessarily mean democracy. The liberalization of political systems did not always proceed to the heights that we label as democratic. The political turbulences that marked the beginning of the '90s had very different outcomes. Wholesome countries resisted the turmoil and retained the authoritarian regimes, others underwent liberalization to a certain extent; while some bounced back to authoritarianism after a brief period of a democratic attempt, some other ventured into a new, democratic experience. As Bratton and deWalle put it "the political processes of the the period displayed a combination of *both change and continuity*". There were even voices that African regime transitions are so far away from what we tend to call "democratization" elsewhere in the world, that it is "both arbitrary and terribly premature"¹⁶ to use it when discussing political changes in Africa.

By 1995, the majority of African countries had undergone some form of liberalization. Some have even experienced democratization, to a different extent, and with different success. After the initial period of liberalization, and occasional transition to democratic regimes, the question arose of what path will be taken from there. Possibilities were many – reversal to authoritarianism, stagnation and struggle, and decisive progress towards the establishment of democracy being the most prominent ones, with many shades in between. Having in mind the array of events of very varied nature that took place in Africa in the mid-'90s, ranging from elections held under

14 Bratton, M., Van De Walle, N., *Democratic Experiments in Africa*, pp. 77-82.

15 Decalo, S., *The Process, Prospects and Constraints of Democratization in Africa*, p. 7.

16 Schatzberg, Michael, *Power, Legitimacy and 'Democratization' in Africa*, cited according to Bratton, M., Van deWalle, N., *Democratic Experiments in Africa*, p. 10.

circumstances of open intimidation of voters, and those that could not be consistently conducted throughout the territory in face of threats of violent conflict, over new victories of old leaders, proclamation of new constitutions, to military coups with democratic endings, and landmark, overturning elections, it was only natural to expect an equally diverse range of outcomes of these occurrences. Regime transition can be described as a “struggle between competing political forces over the rules of the political game and for the resources with which the game is played”. It should also be emphasized that regime transitions can be very diverse: the speed at which they occur can differ to a great extent, ranging from quick, sharp transformations to those that evolve for much longer time, as is the case with gradual liberalizations of some despotic rules; the direction of a transition is also a complex variable, as it can lead towards a more democratic system, or a more authoritarian one; and, finally, we must not forget that any transition can be a subject of reversal, with new regimes failing to establish themselves and making way for the return of the old ones. Although we can discern different results brought by the changes that occurred in the early '90s, several key innovations were introduced in the realm of African politics in comparison to the earlier post-colonial period. First of all, the concept of political competition, previously largely unknown to the majority of the citizenry, was introduced. The choice over those who will govern did not exist even in countries that held elections, since they were generally noncompetitive and with more than foreseeable outcomes. The change that happened in this regard in the mentioned period was of a stable character, continuing to the present days. The number of countries holding competitive elections increased dramatically. In the second half of the '80s only nine countries held competitive elections, determined by the presence of opposition in the legislature, and even these were seriously marred.

When discussing the reasons for the onset of democratization in Africa, but also for frequent slips back to authoritarianism, we can distinguish between two main groups of theories that have emerged in the literature. The first focuses on the state, defined as a set of core political structures, administrative institutions governed by law that, through coercion, claim a legitimate command over certain territory. The second group is centered around regimes, seen as sets of political procedures, popularly called the rules of the game, determining who can play in the decision-making process and how. The proponents of the first attitude argue that democracy can not be established without an appropriate political structure to support it, namely the state. The advocates of the second view, on the other hand, posit that these structures have to be legitimized, which requires an adequate set of procedures, or a regime.

The recent from the 2000s reforms are still failing to downsize the bureaucratic machinery, allowing for continued budgetary pressure, from the economic view, but also inefficient state apparatus, from the political standpoint. Hyden recognizes that the changes that happened in the political life of Sub-Saharan countries since the beginning of 90s, especially in the way of choosing the official representatives and greater independence of the judiciary branch, are important. African countries have, in general, stepped back from the previous patterns of wide-spread disregard for the legitimacy, fairness and freedom of electoral process, and improved their performance in the fields of civil and human rights. This does not, however, mean that ailments that have persisted on the continent for decades are cured: the problems arising from rooted neopatrimonial practices, nepotism, corruption, abuse of office, etc. continue to undermine the efforts to extend and stabilize democratic institutions in the region. The speed of the democratization process that took place in Sub-Saharan countries took its toll. The short time in which democratic procedures and institutions were attempted to be established proved to be insufficient for their proper rooting and stabilization. The drawbacks of this democratic hastiness are present to date. Bratton and Chang are wondering if Africans are, perhaps, trying to apply “democratization backwards, by implementing electoral procedures “before they have secured a legitimate political order based on a rule of law”.¹⁷ The democracies of the first wave went forwards to democracy, developing the institutions of the state before introducing universal suffrage as the measure of democratization. The third wave democracies, on the other hand, went in the opposite direction: they moved to democracy backwards, introducing elections before having set the institutional foundations of the state. The Sub-Saharan countries still face great difficulties institutionalizing democracy whose torrent flooded the continent in the first

¹⁷ Ibid., op.cit.

half of the '90s. The elapsed time prepared grounds for the transition from an overly optimistic perspective to the one that was far more pessimistic in regards of future developments on the continent.

The rebirth of African democracy is losing the avid support that gave it speed and strength at the beginning of the '90s. Many are disillusioned by the extent of the faced problems, which were often invisible in the liberalization frenzy; they are disappointed by the characters of their leaders, who largely follow in the steps of those they fought against; and they are dissatisfied with the assistance from the developed world, which did not meet neither the nature, nor the scope of their needs.

SECURE AND ECONOMIC FACTORS

The indisputably tangible relationship between economy and democratization has proven to be extremely complex. The relevance, nature and extent of this bond has been in the focus of scholarly interest for quite a while. The assumptions, theories, and analyses have rendered diverse results. Not all economic factors, conditions and environments are equally conducive to transitions to more democratic regimes, nor are they all equally supportive of maintaining the achieved level, let alone advancing it. Great variations that have been observed have allowed for an array of substantiated standpoints pertaining to the matter. It has been long believed that economic growth and increase in income lead to democracy. The proof can be found in a simple empirical observance – most of the developed countries are democratic, while most of the undemocratic ones are poor. Judging by economy and democracy indices, Sub-Saharan Africa can be taken as a regional example of this theory. However, the situation might not be as simple as it initially appeared to be. Huntington formed a “political transition zone” or, as Joseph explains “a range of per capita incomes in which opportunities for effecting a transformation of authoritarian systems appear to increase.”¹⁸ This is to say that political transitions towards more democratic regimes are more likely to occur under certain economic conditions. Not denying the positive correlation between income and democracy, Acemoglu et al. argue that this bond is not causal. But, how do we explain the fact that, from the contemporary point of view, richer countries are more democratic? The answer, according to research these authors have conducted, lies in the historical circumstances that established the complex bond between the level of income and that of democracy.¹⁹

Contrary to the popular belief that certain economic standards are necessary for political change, the majority of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa experienced a political step forward in the first half of the '90s, without enjoying the elevated level of economic development thought necessary. The problems that African societies are encountering in their attempts to achieve and deepen democracy largely depend on their economic well-being. Lasting constitutions, effective institutions, electoral systems that result in valid representation, conflict resolution, decentralization of power and other difficulties that have been plaguing African states cannot be achieved in the environment of poverty. Ndulo claims that a part of the colonial legacy was that the inherited institutions in the African states were basically undemocratic. They were based on “hierarchy, compliance, and discipline”, without any interest in matters such as representation and accountability. The regimes in the newly independent countries retained this pattern, nourishing patrimonial practices, corruption and exploitation of positions of political authority. The old rulers were merely substituted with new ones, while the states sank deeper into authoritarianism or turned towards military dictatorship. Furthermore, the absence of democratic institutions has ensued the economic decay, and ultimately led to wide-spread conflict and poverty. Przeworski repudiates the effect of the colonial legacy on the survival of democratic regimes, stating that, although we can clearly establish that democracy does fail easier in the countries that gained their independence after the Second World War, this effect can be attributed to other reasons, foremost the fact that the former colonies were simply poor, and poverty clearly represents a hostile

¹⁸ Joseph, R., *Democratization in Africa after 1989*, p. 369.

¹⁹ Acemoglu, Daron, Johnson, Simon, Robinson, James A., Yared, Pierre, *Income and Democracy*, Working Paper, Version February

2005, p. 29, retrieved January, 10th 2010 from

http://www.people.fas.harvard.edu/~jrobinson/researchpapers/unpublishedpapers/jr_IncomeDemocracy.pdf

environment for the sustainability of democratic institutions.

Van de Walle stresses that the political and economic transitions rarely happen together, but rather in a succession, with one influencing the other. "Political transitions are conditioned by the legacy of past economic decision-making and in turn have an impact on economic policy-making following democratization." However, the same author will conclude that "political liberalization has had little effect on economic performance in Africa".²⁰ Sachs and Warner negate that institutional quality is of crucial importance to economic growth, seeing the institutions as a consequence, rather than as a cause of growth. Mehlum et al., on the other hand, claim that institutions and their quality play a decisive role in determining the fate of a country's economic growth relevant to the resources in question: if the institutions are "grabber-friendly", the incomes from natural resources will tend to decrease, as opposed to "producer-friendly" institutional behavior, which tends to result in increased incomes.²¹

CONCLUSIONS

In an attempt to promote democracy and good governance on the continent, the Mo Ibrahim Foundation established an annual prize for deserving African leaders. The amount of US \$ 5 million and an additional life-long payment make it the most generous yearly award in the world. The quantity is meant to motivate African leaders to display responsibility of leadership in order to enjoy the fruits of such work or, as critics point out, to "bribe leaders to do their jobs". However, following three laureates so far, the Foundation has been unable to find a suitable candidate for 2009.³⁶³ This is a vocal illustration of the state of affairs on the continent. The mention of Africa usually invokes images of civil wars, famine, corruption, failed states or incompetent governments and various human rights violations. When we think of the continent, we seem to see armed men, nameless in their utter poverty and misery, lethal diseases that are easily treatable anywhere else in the world, children with distended abdomens, all starving not only for food but also for some peace, order, and a good state that could be even distantly capable of ensuring the basics. This seems to be unattainable for decades. However, this is also a false image. There are many different faces of Africa: some are painfully impoverished, sickeningly brutal and downright ugly; the others display contemporary aspirations, vibrant societies, and, above all, tremendous potential. Although some generalizations about the process of democratization in sub-Saharan Africa, its development, hindrances and regional specificities can be drawn, the process was hardly uniform.

Ghana represents a stellar and often acclaimed success story of the region. The country has conducted an effective and peaceful transition to democracy in a relatively short time period. Moreover, by continuing its efforts in further consolidation of democratic order, it represents a bright example and restores hope for the rest of the continent. Nigeria, on the other hand, displays some persistent ailments, the same ones to be seen throughout the continent. Corruption in the country remains cancerous. According to Transparency International, Nigeria is still lingering at the bottom of their list of the world's most corrupt countries. "Malignant ethnicity" characterizes the political life of Nigeria both as a tool for mobilization, as well as means of gaining benefits. Violent conflicts still pose one of the country's biggest and most serious problems, continuously taking lives every year. DR Congo, finally, is the country that provides the least reason for an optimistic attitude. The government is struggling to embark on the path of democratic change. However, with the violent conflicts of varying proportions ravaging the country for more than a decade, translating the idea of democracy into reality seems as a lengthy journey. It is a very common phenomenon in Congo that former rebel movements turn into political parties. However, they prefer to stay true to military hierarchy, and even more to stay close to their weapons, posing a constant threat and creating an atmosphere of permanent insecurity. Africa refocused has a tremendous potential to grow and develop at a rapid rate. This requires introduction, and more importantly, adherence to a series of deep changes, by a wide range of agents, at a large scope, on permanent basis. Democratization in Africa undoubtedly greatly depends on economic conditions. Without substantial development that will be able to

²⁰ Van de Walle, Nicolas, *Economic Reform in a Democratizing Africa* (a), pp. 22-33.

²¹ Mehlum, Halvor, Moene, Kalle, Torvik, Ragnar, *Institutions and the Resource Curse*, *The Economic Journal*, 508, 2006, pp. 1-3.

sustain and provide for further investment into democratic institutions and their promotion, the future of democracy on the continent is questionable, at best. The past several years again gave reasons for hope for African countries, with growth rates around 6% across the continent. This was largely thanks to beneficial atmosphere on global markets, particularly concerning commodity prices, but also improved governance and economic management.

Hypertrophy of bureaucratic apparatus that for years fed on patrimonial traditions must be dealt with in a manner that will stop the hemorrhaging of financial resources from the budget without producing an additional economic, social and political burden of a new army of unemployed. By even a remotely serious observation of the main hindrances preventing further democratization in the vast majority of African countries, we can conclude that all these reasons are deeply intertwined. What sometimes seems very frustrating to scholars is absolutely devastating in practice: challenges and problems of sub-Saharan polities are so deeply, and often inextricably knotted that any attempt of fighting them resembles going against the proverbial multi-headed monsters that rejuvenate easily. In deed, these monsters have been devouring the democratic and developmental potential of societies, economies and political elites. And a successful program to tame the maladies, and lead towards a path of improvement, has yet to be found for most of the countries on the continent.

REFERENCES

1. Abrahamsen, Rita, The Victory of Popular Forces or Passive Revolution: A Neo-Gramscian Perspective on Democratization, *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, (35), 2007, 129-152.
2. Bratton, Michael, Van De Walle, Nicolas, *Democratic Experiments in Africa: regime transitions in comparative perspective*, Cambridge University Press, 1997.
3. Decalo, Samuel, The Process, Prospects and Constraints of Democratization in Africa, *African Affairs*, (91), 1992, 7-35.
4. Diamond, Larry, Promoting Real Reform in Africa" in *Democratic Reform in Africa: The Quality of Progress*, E. Gyimah-Boadi, ed. Boulder, CO, Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2004.
5. Dunning, Thad, Conditioning the Effects of Aid: Cold War Politics, Donor Credibility, and Democracy in Africa, *International Organization*, (58), 2004, p. 409-423.
6. Gaonkar, Dilip Parameshwar, On Cultures of Democracy, *Public Culture*, (51), 1: 2007.
7. Gyimah-Boadi, Emmanuel, *Democratic Reform in Africa: The Quality of Progress*, Gyimah-Boadi, Emmanuel (ed.), Lynne Rienner Publishers, 2004.
8. Huntington, Samuel P., Will more Countries Become Democratic?, *Political Science Quarterly*, (99), 1984.
9. Joseph, Richard, Democratization in Africa after 1989: Comparative and Theoretical Perspectives, *Comparative Politics*, (29), 1997, 363-382.
10. Mehlum, Halvor, Moene, Kalle, Torvik, Ragnar, Institutions and the Resource Curse, *The Economic Journal*, (508), 2006.
11. Ndegwa, N. Stephen, A Decade of Democracy in Africa, *Journal of Asian and African Studies*, (36), 2001, 1-14. Sachs, Jeffrey D., McArthur, John W., Schmidt-Traub, Guido, Kruk, Margaret, Bahadur, Chandrika, Faye, Michael, McCord, Gordon, *Ending Africa's Poverty Trap*. In: *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, Brainard, William C., Perry, George L. (eds.), Washington, D.C., 2004.
12. Przeworski, Adam, *Democracy and Economic Development*, in *The evolution of political knowledge: democracy, autonomy, and conflict in comparative and international politics*, Mansfield, Edward D., Sisson, Richard (eds.), Ohio State University Press, 2004.
13. Van de Walle, Nicolas, Africa's Range of Regimes, *Journal of Democracy*, (13), 2002.

RAISING PUBLIC AWARENESS AND SAFETY CULTURE AS A PREREQUISITE OF EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT

Full Professor **Vesna Nikolić**, PhD
Faculty of Occupational Safety, University of Niš

Mirjana Galjak, PhD
Ministry of Health of the Republic of Serbia

Abstract: Analysis of the research on the level of public awareness and preparedness of a community for emergency response, which has been conducted across various socio-cultural contexts, reveals a disturbing lack of awareness about existing risks and hazards and about inadequate preparedness of local population for safe conduct during emergencies. Perception of risk is commonly based on biased and false information, additionally worsened by ignorance of local leaders and media reporters. Despite the fact that the concept of safety culture has been generally accepted as necessary and important for risk prevention and emergency management, there has not yet been a didactic-methodical conceptualization of education for the purpose of raising awareness and developing safety culture among the population. This paper is based on the assumption about the effect of a socio-cultural context on risk perception, awareness, and emergency preparedness. As part of the descriptive research method, we used a survey questionnaire as the basic data collection instrument. The field research was conducted in south-eastern Serbia by random sampling involving 600 respondents. Based on the obtained data, we confirmed the proposed hypotheses and established the directions in which the raising of public awareness and safety culture is to go in the future.

Keywords: risk perception, public awareness, safety culture, education, emergency

INSTEAD OF INTRODUCTION & THEORETICAL APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

After the Chernobyl disaster, »safety culture« comes into focus of research interest of authors of different theoretical orientations. The term »safety culture« first time appeared in the Report of The International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group OECD in 1987¹ regarding the disaster and emergency in Chernobyl in 1986. Sometime later, Turner² defines safety culture as »a set of beliefs, attitudes, roles, and social and technical practices that care about minimizing exposure of employees, managers, customers and members of the public to conditions that are considered dangerous or harmful«. Representatives of The International Atomic Energy Agency³, The Confederation of British Industry⁴, The UK Health and Safety Commission⁵ believe it is about ideas, knowledge and beliefs of all members of an organization and the whole community about the significance of prevention and the need for participation in prevention of risks, accidents and diseases.

In contemporary academic literature of the 21st century we find similar beliefs and interpretations of this term. Safety culture implies safety activity which expresses readiness for action and behavior in accordance with gained knowledge and skills, as well as in accordance

1 INSAG, 1988. *Basic Safety Principles for Nuclear Power Plants* (Safety Series No 75 INSAG 3). International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group, International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna.

2 Turner, B.A., Pidgeon, N., Blockley, D., Toft, B. (1989). *Safety Culture: its importance in future risk management*. Position paper for the Second World Bank Workshop on Safety Control and Risk Management, Karlstadt, Sweden.

3 IAEA, 1991. *Safety Culture* (Safety Series No 75 INSAG 4). International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group, International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna.

4 CBI, 1991. *Developing a Safety Culture*. Confederation of British Industry, London

5 HCS, 1993. ACSNI Study Group of Human Factors. *3rd Report Organizing for Safety*. Health and Safety Commission, HMSO, London.

with accepted opinions of value.⁶ It is reflected in recognition of dangers, reaction to them by avoiding dangers, removal of dangers and referring to those subjects who will react professionally and save the values that are jeopardized. According to Stajić, safety culture represents a set of gained opinions, knowledge, skills and rules from the field of safety, manifested as a behavior and a process, about the need, ways and means of protection of personal, social and international values from all sources, shapes and carriers of endangerment regardless of the place or time of their manifestation⁷.

Since this is a “product”⁸ that derives from the values, opinions, competences, behavior models, it is the definition of that »product« that is important in order to clarify all the procedures and activities that are supposed to lead to its formation and shaping. The results of numerous research⁹ suggest that exposure to educational materials can increase the knowledge and consciousness about the dangers, and shape the corresponding behavior models (safety culture). The main purpose of education in safety¹⁰ and emergencies is the promotion of personal, family and community safety¹¹ by decreasing the exposure to risks, injuries and possible death¹². The education should provide greater knowledge of the danger itself, as well as of the safety measures that can be taken. That knowledge should in return provide shaping of corresponding behavior.¹³

On the other hand, the number of research¹⁴ which point out that knowledge gained at schools is not of great importance for safety during emergencies is not small.¹⁵ An interesting research was conducted in Japan aimed at understanding how experience during an earthquake and education about earthquakes influence consciousness and behavior.¹⁶ The results of this research showed that experience with earthquakes and school education are important for perception of earthquake risks, however, active participating education (learning by participation), family upbringing and education from the community play more important role in development of a desire for deepening the existing knowledge. Self-education is also one of the important factors in that sense. However, the real deepening of knowledge derives from learning by participation in different community activities. Preparedness for emergencies is also closely connected to family educational influences, and to self-education. Desire for passing on the knowledge is increased by active school and family education, while the real broadening of knowledge is promoted by the community and by family education. In both cases, school education is not of great influence (Ibid.).

Observed in international frames, educational programs have been set for consciousness development and safety culture,¹⁷ but there is a question of their efficiency, that is their

⁶ Pojmovnik bezbednosne kulture, CCVO, Beograd, 2009.

⁷ Stajić, Lj., Mijalković, S., Stanarević, S., *Bezbednosna kultura mladih: kako živeti bezbedno* Draganić, Beograd, 2006.

⁸ HCS, 1993. ACSNI Study Group of Human Factors. 3 rd Report Organizing for Safety. Health and Safety Commission, HMSO, London.

⁹ McKay, J. (1984). Community Response to Hazard information. *Disasters*. 8(2). II 8-23; Mileti, D.S., Darlington, J. (1995). Societal response to revised earthquake probabilities in the San Francisco Bay area. *International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters*. 13(2) pp. 119-145; Ruch, C.E., Christensen, L. (1980) Hurricane Message Enhancement. Report to Congress. Texas A&M University, College station, TX.

¹⁰ Rodriguez, H., Diaz, W., Santos, J.M., Aguirre, B.E. (2007). *Communicating risk and uncertainty: science, technology and disasters at the crossroads*. In H. Rodriguez, E.L. Quarantelly and R.R. Dynes (eds). *Handbook of Disaster Research*. Springer, New York, NY. pp. 476-488.

¹¹ Sattler, D.N., Marshall, A. (2002). *Hurricane preparedness improving television hurricane watch and warning graphics*. *International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters*. 20 (I). pp.41-49

¹² Slovic, P., Fischhoff, B., Lichstein, S. (1982). *Behavioral decision theory perspectives on risk and safety*. *Acta Psychologica*. 56 (1-3) pp.183-203.

¹³ Finnis, K., Standing, D., Johnston, D., Ronan, K. (2004). *Children's understanding of natural hazards in Christchurch, New Zealand*. *The Australian Journal of Emergency Management* 19 (2). pp.11-20.

¹⁴ Wenger, D. E., Thomas, F.J., Faupel, C.E. (1980). *A Few empirical observations concerning the relationship between the mass media and disaster knowledge/ a research report*. In Committee on Disasters and Mass Media (eds.) *Disasters and Mass Media: Proceedings of the Committee on Disasters and Mass Media Workshop*. National Academy of Sciences, Washington, DC. Pp. 241-253.

¹⁵ Sorensen, J.H. (1983). *Knowing how to behave under the treat of disaster: can it be explained?* *Environment and Behaviour*. 15 (4). pp.438-457.

¹⁶ Rajib, S., Koichi, S., Hirohide, K., Masami, K., (2004). *Linking experience, education, perception and earthquake preparedness*, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

¹⁷ Rodriguez, H., Diaz, W., Santos, J.M., Aguirre, B.E. (2007). *Communicating risk and uncertainty: science, technology and disasters at the crossroads*. In H. Rodriguez, E.L. Quarantelly and R.R. Dynes (eds). *Handbook of Disaster Research*. Springer, New York, NY. pp. 476-488.

organizational and didactic and methodological conceptualization. Unfortunately, many programs in the field of public information start from the notion that mere presentation of information about dangers, risks and measures of protection will bring to the wanted behavior.¹⁸ Studies have shown that only well designed organizational and didactic and methodological educational programs will gain public support for danger prevention.¹⁹ Badly designed programs, which do not include evaluation of expected results, can do more harm than benefit, and they can even lead to a strong feeling of safety, which can result in inadequate behavior during an emergency.²⁰

METHODOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESEARCH

Goal, hypothesis and research sample

Starting from the research results shortly presented in previous section of this work, we have taken a research with the aim of determining safety culture of population in the southeast of The Republic of Serbia (socio-cultural context), that is of their relation to education and preparation for emergencies. Within descriptive research method, a survey questionnaire was used as a basic research instrument for gathering data. Research sample was determined by the method of random sampling and it involved 600 respondents.

We drew up a hypothetical framework of research which is comprised of the following assumptions:

H1: There is statistically significant relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the the respondents and the perception of risk and hazards or experience in emergencies

H2: There is statistically significant relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the the respondents and the perception of education and preparedness for emergencies

H3: There is statistically significant relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and cognitive aspects of educational needs for safety and emergencies

The status of an independent variable was assigned to the respondents' social-demographic characteristics, while safety culture (certain aspects) of the respondents was treated as a dependent variable (Table 1.).

Socio-demographic characteristics Independent variables	Safety Culture Dependent variables
1. Age	1. Perception of risk and hazard
2. Gender	2. Experience in emergency
3. Educational level	3. Attitude towards the need of knowledge
4. Work/ Employment status	4. Educational population
5. The Environment (urban/rural)	5. The manner of acquiring knowledge
	6. The amount of the possession of knowledge
	7. Expression of the desire to learn and further knowledge acquisition
	Engaging in some form of organized education

Table 1. Independent and Dependent variables

18 Smith, K. (1993). Environmental Hazards. Assessing risk and Reducing Disaster. Routledge London.

19 Slovic, P., Fischhoff, B., Lichstein, S. (1982). *Bihevioral decision theory perspectives on risk and safety*. Acta Psychologia. 56 (1-3) pp.183-203

20 Gebbie, K.M., Valas, J., Merrill, J., Morse, S., (2006). *Role of exercies and drills in the evaluation of public health in an emergency response*. Prehospital and Disaster medicine. 21(3). pp.173-182.

Sample description

Population in our research consists of adults (people aged 18 plus) on the southeast territory of Serbia. The survey was conducted on a sample of 600 respondents. The sample structure made based on socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents is shown in the following table (Table 2).

	N	%
1. Age		
18-27	168	28,00
28-37	157	26,17
38-47	147	24,50
48 and more	128	21,33
2. Gender		
Male	294	49,00
Female	306	51,00
3. Educational level		
Primary school	75	12,50
Secondary school	314	52,33
High school	211	35,17
4. Employment status		
Employed	378	63,00
Unemployed	222	37,00
5. Environment		
Urban area	252	42,00
Rural area	348	58,00

Table 2. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Description of instrument, gathering and analysis of data

Preliminary research, which was aimed at testing the validity of the instrument, was conducted at the beginning of 2013. It showed to be very useful and justified pointing to the ambiguous and vague questions, which required their amendment and correction in the final form of the instrument. In the phase of gathering data significant for the investigation of problems, as a technique we used survey, i.e. a questionnaire as a measurement research instrument. Since the examinees filled in an instrument which was subsequently partially modified, data gathered in preliminary research were not taken into account during processing of data gathered in the main research. In May and June we completely carried out the field part of research. In processing the data gathered by empirical research we applied a set of statistical procedures: percentage expression of the major quantitative and qualitative data, ranking, calculation of arithmetic means, standard deviations, Chi-square test (χ^2) test and contingency coefficient.

THE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

H1: There is statistically significant relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the perception of risk and hazard or experience in emergencies

<i>Socio-demographic characteristics</i>	Risk and emergency			
	Perception of risk and hazard		Experience in emergency	
	χ^2	C	χ^2	C
Age	2,616	.066	0,234	.020
Gender	1,518	.050	0,410	.026
Educational level	23,413**	.194	0,256	.021
Employment status	8,428*	.118	0,674	.034
Environment	14,482**	.154	5,778*	.098

*p<0.05 ; **p<0.01

Table 3. Relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the perception of risk and hazard or experience in emergencies

Among all socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, only age and gender do not have statistically significant part in the perception of risk and hazard in the environment. Observed in percentage, the highest percentage of the respondents (as high as 80%) from all four age categories and both genders, consider that there are great dangers to safety in the working and living environment. Starting from the notion that safety culture, among other things, is

reflected in recognizing dangers²¹, it can be concluded that the respondents are aware of safety problems in their environment. The results also show that the level of education of the respondents is statistically connected (at level 0,01) to the evaluation of danger (risk perception), that is the examinees with higher education mainly estimate dangers as large ones (Table 3.).

By analyzing the difference between the employed and the unemployed in regard with the evaluation of dangers that could jeopardize the safety of the environment, we have determined $C=0,11$, χ^2 significant at level 0,05. The respondents who are employed more than others (unemployed) consider that great dangers and harmfulness could jeopardize the safety of the working and living environment and lead to emergencies. The specificity and diversity of risks that may jeopardize the safety and health at work, or lead to accidents, incidents and other emergency situations of technogenic character have surely influenced this perception of our examinees. The results that show that the respondents from urban areas highly rank risks to safety in their environment can be explained in the same way. However, statistical connection of low intensity only appeared between the type of environment (urban, rural) and immediate experience of an emergency. In this segment the respondents from rural areas in larger percentage than those from urban areas state that they had an immediate experience of an emergency situation ($C=0,098$, χ^2 significant at level 0,05), which is somewhat logical, considering that these respondents live in specific conditions of territorial safety (Serbian enclaves on Kosovo territory). This claim is also supported by answers to an open question (to state the immediate danger). The examinees stated risks from hostilities of Albanian armed forces, health risks due to NATO bombing, ecological risks due to waste material and waste waters, etc.

H2: There is statistically significant relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the perception of education for safety and emergencies

Socio-demographic characteristics	Perception of education for safety and emergencies					
	Needs for knowledge and education		Educational education		The way of population	
	χ^2	C	χ^2	C	χ^2	C
Age	8,404	.118	12,712	.144	6,029	.099
Gender	3,628	.078	2,066	.059	5,242	.093
Educational level	20,637**	.182	32,803**	.228	17,815*	.170
Employment status	11,634**	.138	11,444**	.137	8,307	.117
Environment	15,678**	.160	3,169	.072	3,344	.075

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 4. Relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and the perception of education for safety and emergencies

21 Stajić, Lj., Mijalković, S., Stanarević, S., *Bezbednosna kultura mladih: kako živeti bezbedno* Draganić, Beograd, 2006.

Research data have shown that the age and gender are not statistically significantly related to the perception of education in safety and emergencies. With statistical reliability we can say that there are differences between the respondents with different levels of education – with the increase of the level of education, slowly increases the percentage of those who manifest needs to adopt the knowledge which is related to safety in emergencies ($C=0,182$, χ^2 significant at level 0,01). We have identified educational needs in larger measure in the employed examinees, and what is especially interesting, both the employed and the unemployed equally consider that it is socio-cultural context of the area they live in what implicates the necessity for functional and applicable knowledge in this field ($C=0,138$, χ^2 significant at level 0,01). Beside that, the respondents from urban areas prefer knowledge in environmental protection, while the examinees from rural areas are more oriented toward knowledge which considers better preparation for emergencies ($C=0,160$, χ^2 significant at level 0,01).

For the creation of future educational programs as an entry data we can use the result that shows that the largest percentage of the respondents (74,0%) thinks that it is necessary to include education in safety and emergencies in all levels and segments of educational system (formal and informal). Beside that, it can be claimed with statistical certainty that with higher level of education in the examinees the opinion of broader scope of educational population in this field is more expressed. Employment status of the respondents is a determinant which implicates differences in opinions – the employed more than the unemployed consider that education in safety and emergencies should encompass all people regardless of their level of education or profession ($C= 0,137$, χ^2 significant at level 0,01).

Research results of foreign authors, which show that school education is not of great importance and influence on behaviour during emergencies,²² have raised numerous questions and dilemmas about the efficiency of organization and didactic and methodological conceptualization of education in this field. These results prompted us to examine the preferences of our respondents' methods and forms of knowledge acquisition in this field. Given that our research sample consisted of adult population (above 18 years of age), it is interesting that the largest number of the respondents wants to acquire knowledge in this field by lessons in classical education. However, popularity of classical education decreases with the increase of the level of education. These ways of knowledge acquisition are most often stated by the respondents with (in)complete primary school, which was expected considering the educational (in)experience of these examinees, i.e. (un)familiarity with other possibilities for education in this field. But what we did not expect is that the largest number of these respondents (compared to the respondents with finished high school or faculty) opts for self-education as a way of knowledge acquisition. We tend to interpret this information by specificity of socio-cultural environment which they live in, that is by the fact that these are people from rural areas (enclaves in Kosovo) who are reluctant to leave their homes exactly due to reasons of safety. Our results show the tendency that with the increase of the level of education, the percentage of those examinees who prefer knowledge acquisition by means of public information and e-learning also increases ($C= 0,170$, χ^2 significant at level 0,05).

When it comes to cognitive dimension of educational needs, we did not find statistically significant differences in terms of age and gender of the respondents. With statistical certainty we can say that there are differences between the respondents with different level of education regarding the examined aspects of educational needs – with the increase of the level of education the percentage of the respondents who have broader knowledge referring safety during emergencies also increases. The results have confirmed our expectations that the respondents with higher level of education want to gain new knowledge, or broaden the already existing knowledge they have. However, it is interesting that the respondents with the lowest level of education (completed or not completed primary school) in a large percentage (58,0%) want to learn and adopt functional knowledge in this field ($C= 0,156$, χ^2 significant at level 0,01).

22 Rajib, S., Koichi, S., Hirohide, K., Masami, K. (2004). *Linking experience, education, perception and earthquake preparedness*, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

H3: There is statistically significant relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and cognitive aspects of educational needs for safety and emergencies

<i>Socio-demographic characteristics</i>	Educational needs for safety and emergencies					
	The amount of the possession of knowledge		Expression of a desire for learning and acquiring knowledge (expanding knowledge)		Engaging in some form of organized education	
	χ^2	C	χ^2	C	χ^2	C
Age	2,710	.067	8,829	.121	2,022	.058
Gender	1,427	.049	0,732	.035	5,994*	.100
Educational level	57,501**	.296	14,975**	.156	16,08**	.162
Employment status	18,668**	.174	2,907**	.069	7,161*	.109
Environment	6,124*	.101	6,550*	.104	6,178*	.102

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Table 5. Relation between socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents and cognitive aspects of educational needs for safety and emergencies

Employment status has statistically significant part in the self-evaluation of the owned/ existing knowledge ($C = 0,174$, χ^2 significant at level 0,01). The results show that the employed have greater knowledge than the unemployed and they evaluate it in function of everyday work activities (safety and health at work, first aid, protection from fires, etc.) This is also confirmed by the results which show that the employed more often than the unemployed have engaged in some of the organized forms of education ($C = 0,109$, χ^2 at level of significance 0,05). Given the legal foundation and mandatory training and training of employees in safety and health at work, or in protection from fires, we tend to interpret these results in context of organization of education in this field²³. It is also noticeable that the respondents from urban areas more than the respondents from rural areas estimate to possess knowledge ($C = 0,101$, χ^2 significant at level 0,05), its functional usage, but they want to gain new knowledge or broaden the existing one. The respondents from urban areas have more often taken part in some organized form of education than the respondents from rural areas ($C = 0,102$, χ^2 significant at level 0,05).

Gender of the respondents is statistically connected to engagement in some forms of organized education – male respondents have more often taken part in some forms of the organized education than female respondents ($C = 0,100$, χ^2 at level of significance 0,05). The level of education, contrary to our expectations, did not confirm to be a determinant which

²³ The Occupational Safety and Health Law, Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia 111/2005. The Law on Fire Protection, Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, 2009

implicates differences in participation in organized forms of education. However, observed in percentage, it is noticeable that the respondent with higher education have more often than the respondent with lower education declared to have been included, or partially included, in aforementioned forms of education.

CONCLUSION

During the manifestation of emergencies, individuals and communities can often be isolated from the support and interventions of teams for protection and rescue. Studies on the level of schools and communities have shown inappropriate levels of consciousness, readiness and knowledge for responding and behavior in case of an emergency. Aftermath studies have shown that unpreparedness and surprise of the people by the scope and characteristics of the last emergency is present to a large extent. These research results emphasize the importance of providing concrete and targeted education connected to raising public awareness, knowledge and competence of the community do endure a certain emergency with a minimal extent of damage and loss.

The results of our research show that there is a general level of knowledge and safety consciousness of the people of southeast Serbia. However, manifestational safety consciousness and preparedness for emergencies is a completely different issue and it is possible only through active education (learning by participation) in family and local community. It is difficult to learn a pattern of behavior for safety from books and textbooks, so school education is insufficient for shaping appropriate behaviors and reactions during emergencies. It is certainly useful as the first step for providing knowledge and awakening of interests at students. In Japan, school education about earthquakes is almost half a century old, and it implies providing theoretical knowledge about the disasters caused by earthquakes (as the most common emergencies), and providing practical training about how to protect. However, only after the tsunami in 1983, the government recognized the need to educate teachers for a role of leaders during emergencies at schools. It was shown useful during *Kobe* earthquake, when schools took the leading role of shelters and evacuation areas.²⁴

Various informal educational and propaganda activities²⁵ which are based on specificity of socio-cultural context of the area where people live²⁶, and specificity of risks and dangers from disasters they are exposed to in these areas, can have significant influence on raising of the public awareness and safety culture of the population (exercises, voluntary activities, seminars, public lectures, group discussions, test mobilization, Internet).²⁷ In this regard, it is necessary to plan in detail the educational program about safety during emergencies which is based on the fundamental principles of simplicity, consistency, reliability, which is aimed at development of safety and protection culture, as well as to create a strong will and public incentive to implement risk reduction activities in the event of emergencies²⁸.

The time after each crisis or emergency situation represents a kind of a source of knowledge and learning. Emergencies emphasize and point out numerous weaknesses and deficiencies, especially from the aspect of emergency management, so these experience lectures should be used in order to do better and more efficiently in the future. Observed in national boundaries, the example of Kraljevo earthquake which happened on November 3, 2010 shows that a number of measures and activities were taken by officials, which contributed to stabilization of the condition in Kraljevo²⁹. There is a question of learned lessons which refers to consciousness and

24 Rajib, S., Koichi, S., Hirohide, K., Masami, K., (2004). *Linking experience, education, perception and earthquake preparedness*, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

25 Nikolić, V., Živković, N. (2010). *Bezbednost radne i životne sredine, vanredne situacije i obrazovanje*, Fakultet zaštite na radu, Niš

26 Nikolić, V., Galjak, M. (2012). *Obrazovanje za zaštitu životne sredine u kriznim uslovima*, Andragoške studije, Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju, Filozofski fakultet, Beograd, 1/2012. str. 163-183

27 Nikolić, V. (2011). *Vanredne situacije kao izazov vaspitanju za humane odnose*, Zbornik radova: Vaspitanje za humane odnose – problemi i perspektive, Departman za pedagogiju, Filozofski fakultet u Nišu, Niš, str.72-84

28 Nikolić, V. (2012). *Teorija i organizacija obrazovanja za zaštitu*, Fakultet zaštite na radu u Nišu, Univerzitet u Nišu.

29 The epicenter of the main earthquake occurred at a depth of 13 km, magnitude 5.4 on the Richter scale. The epicenter was located 121 km south from Belgrade, or 4 km north from Kraljevo (village Sirča district). After the main impact, a series of subsequent impacts was detected in this area. Magnitudes of

preparedness of the population.³⁰ However, beside lawful³¹ and strategic regulations in this field³², except for means of public information in educative and informative TV programs, there were no serious educational campaigns in these areas, nor was it seriously discussed after the recovery about the need for learning and creation of educational programs based on experience from the emergency.

Learning from and for potential emergencies implies implementation of new contents, conceptualization of curriculum, providing textbooks, handbooks and other didactic and methodological material, testing on the national level and, connected to that, training of teachers.³³ Experience from different emergencies have shown that rescuing people owing to friends, family and neighbors was more efficient in places where interpersonal connections in a community were strong, that is where the corresponding cooperation of the community with the local government existed. It is, therefore, crucial for raising of the public awareness to support the initiatives of the community for the achievement of safer and sustainable community. During the United Nations session on the International Decade for Natural Disaster Reduction, public awareness of communities was promoted as part of many national, regional and international projects and initiatives. Development of public awareness and culture of preparedness for a disaster implies education and training of all categories of educational population, and identification of conditions that facilitate the effective learning and realization of the outcome in function of future improvement of safety certainly represent a kind of a challenge for investigators.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Research reported here is part of the projects III044006 and III 042006 funded by Serbian Ministry of Education and Science.

REFERENCES

1. CBI, 1991. *Developing a Safety Culture*. Confederation of British Industry, London
2. Gebbie, K.M., Valas, J., Merrill, J., Morse, S., (2006). *Role of exercises and drills in the evaluation of public health in an emergency response*. Prehospital and Disaster medicine. 21(3). pp.173-182.
3. INSAG, 1988. *Basic Safety Principles for Nuclear Power Plants* (Safety Series No 75 INSAG 3). International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group, International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna.
4. IAEA, 1991. *Safety Culture* (Safety Series No 75 INSAG 4). International Nuclear Safety Advisory Group, International Atomic Energy Agency, Vienna.
5. HCS, 1993. ACSNI Study Group of Human Factors. 3 rd Report Organizing for Safety. Health and Safety Commission, HMSO, London.
6. McKay, J. (1984). *Community Response to Hazard information*. Disasters. 8(2). II 8-23.
7. Mileti, D.S., Darlington, J. (1995). *Societal response to revised earthquake probabilities in the San Francisco Bay area*. International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters.13(2) pp. 119-145.
8. Nikolić, V. (2012). *Teorija i organizacija obrazovanja za zaštitu*, Fakultet zaštite na radu u Nišu, Univerzitet u Nišu.
9. Nikolić, V. (2011). *Vanredne situacije kao izazov vaspitanju za humane odnose*,

these earthquakes ranged from 1.0 to 4.4 on the Richter scale. Earthquakes with magnitudes of 2 on the Richter scale and lower were registered only by instruments, they could not be sensed. In period until 1 pm on November 9, 2010, **258 earthquakes** were registered (*Report from Seismological survey of Serbia, Belgrade, December 1, 2010*)

³⁰ The experience of Kraljevo emergency situation induced amendments to Emergency Preparedness Law (Emergency Preparedness Law, Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia 92/2011).

³¹ Zakon o vanrednim situacijama, "Sl. glasnik RS" 111/2009; 92/2011.

³² Nacionalna strategija za zaštitu i spasavanje u vanrednim situacijama, "Sl. glasnik" RS, 86/2011.

³³ Nikolić, V. (2012). *Teorija i organizacija obrazovanja za zaštitu*, Fakultet zaštite na radu u Nišu, Univerzitet u Nišu.

- Zbornik radova: Vaspitanje za humane odnose – problemi i perspektive, Departman za pedagogiju, Filozofski fakultet u Nišu, Niš, str.72-84
10. Nikolić, V., Živković, N. (2010). *Bezbednost radne i životne sredine, vanredne situacije i obrazovanje*, Fakultet zaštite na radu, Niš
 11. Nikolić, V., Galjak, M. (2012). *Obrazovanje za zaštitu životne sredine u kriznim uslovima*, Andragoške studije, Institut za pedagogiju i andragogiju, Filozofski fakultet, Beograd, 1/2012. str. 163-183
 12. Pojmovnik bezbednosne kulture, CCVO, Beograd, 2009.
 13. Ruch, C.E., Christensen, L. (1980) *Hurricane Message Enhancement*. Report to Congress. Texas A&M University, College station, TX.
 14. Rodriguez, H., Diaz, W., Santos, J.M., Aguirre, B.E. (2007). *Communicating risk and uncertainty: science, technology and disasters at the crossroads*. In H. Rodriguez, E.L. Quarantelly and R.R. Dynes (eds). *Handbook of Disaster Research*. Springer, New York, NY. pp. 476-488.
 15. Rajib, S., Koichi, S., Hirohide, K., Masami, K., (2004). *Linking experience, education, perception and earthquake preparedness*, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan
 16. Sorensen, J.H. (1983). *Knowing how to behave under the treat of disaster: can it be explained?* Environment and Behaviour. 15 (4). pp.438-457.
 17. Sattler, D.N., Marshall, A.(2002). *Hurricane preparednes improving television hurricane wach and warning graphics*. International Journal of Mass Emergencies and Disasters. 20 (1). pp.41-49.
 18. Stajić, Lj., Mijalković, S., Stanarević, S., *Bezbednosna kultura mladih: kako živeti bezbedno* Draganić, Beograd, 2006.
 19. Slovic, P., Fischhoff, B., Lichstein, S. (1982). *Bihevioral decision theory perspectives on risk and safety*. Acta Psychologia. 56 (1-3) pp.183-203.
 20. Smith, K. (1993). *Environmental Hazards. Assessing risk and Reducing Disaster*. Routledge London.
 21. Finnis, K., Standring, D., Johnston, D., Ronan, K. (2004). *Children's understanding of natural hazards in Christchurch*, New Zealand. The Australian Journal of Emergency Management 19 (2). pp.11-20.
 22. Wenger, D. E., Thomas, F.J., Faupel, C.E. (1980). *A Few empirical observations concerning the relationship between the mass media and disaster knowledge/ a research report*. In Committee on Disasters and Mass Media (eds.) *Disasters and Mass Media: Proceedings of the Committee on Disasters and Mass Media Workshop*. National Academy of Sciences, Washington, DC. Pp. 241-253.

REGULATIONS

1. Zakon o vanrednim situacijama , "Sl. glasnik RS" 111/2009; 92/2011.
2. Zakon o bezbednosti i zdravlju na radu, "Sl. Glasnik RS" 109/2005
3. Zakon o zaštiti od požara, "Sl. Glasnik RS", 111/2009.
4. Nacionalna strategija za zaštitu i spasavanje u vanrednim situacijama, „Sl. glasnik“ RS, 86/2011.
5. Izveštaj Republičkog seizmološkog zavoda, Beograd, 2010.

SAFETY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS CAUSED BY NATURAL DISASTERS

Associate Professor **Aleksandra Ljuština**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Associate Professor **Marina Mališ Sazdovska**, PhD
Faculty of Security, Skopje, Macedonia

Spec. **Nevenka Knežević Lukić**
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: Disasters, as incidents greatly affecting the security of any society, jeopardize the existence of individuals and political and economic safety of a community. Natural disasters seriously endanger peoples' lives and labour generated values; they alter the economic growth and the progress of the society and damage the environment, thus making people suffer. The frequency of natural disasters worldwide as well as their seriousness, complexity and effects they have produced in recent years are a big challenge to the safety of the mankind. As the society is repeatedly faced with the natural disasters so forceful that in most cases communities are able neither to prevent them nor to eliminate the consequences through regular activities of authorities and emergency agencies, emergency situations are the realities the mankind has to deal with more and more often. The modern society reacts to natural disasters by preventing them, reducing the possible risks and vulnerability of the endangered people.

Keywords: safety, disasters, natural disasters, emergency situations

Effort is useless if the nature opposes.
Lucius Annaeus Seneca

INTRODUCTION

The devastating power of the nature is sometimes underestimated. However, the changes caused by natural processes may bring about serious consequences occasionally resulting in disastrous damages affecting the mankind and ecosystems. Severe weather conditions and natural disasters hinder the functions of the society causing great human, material, economic and ecological losses which exceed the capacities of communities and the society in general to deal with the challenges by using their own resources.¹

As far as the duration of disasters is concerned, it is limited since they are defined as aggravating temporary conditions. Essentially, disasters are the conditions in which the current problems cannot be solved by regular activities and the use of standard resources. Accordingly, these conditions lead to great damages and victims requiring special solutions in order to overcome the consequences of natural disasters.²

"Naturally caused disasters are a constant threat to the global society. Caused by natural forces, they do not recognize political circumstances, economic conditions or a state's borders."³

¹ Munich Re, one of the biggest insurance companies in the world recording the natural disasters effects since 1980, estimates that in 2013 there were 880 natural disasters claiming 20 thousand human victims while the total damage reached 92 billion euros. More about the issue: www.munichre.com/ (available: January 2014)

² Catastrophes are natural disasters or some other accidents or incidents which by their size, intensity and unpredictability endanger the lives and health of a number of people, their property and the environment and whose origin is impossible to prevent or eliminate by regular activities of authorities, state's administrative organs and local governments as well as disasters caused by war devastations or terrorism. (Zakon o vanrednim situacijama, "Sl. Glasnik RS", no. 111/2009 and 92/2011)

³ Ljustina, A., Knezevic Lukic, N.,: *Vanredne situacije izazvane prirodnim katastrofama*, ECOLOGICA, year XX, no. 71, Belgrade, 2013, p. 411

Figure 1 presents the spatial distribution of natural disasters on the global level in 2012.

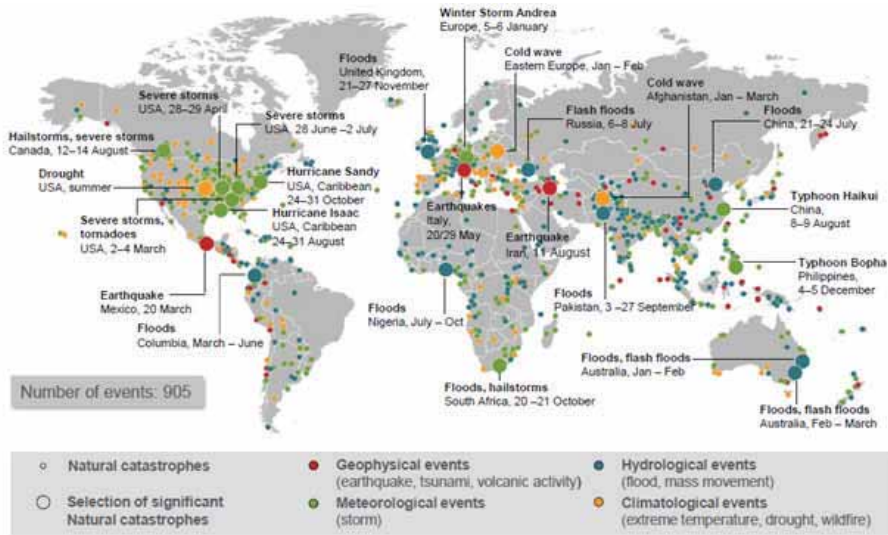


Figure 1 Graphic presentation of naturally caused disasters in the world in 2012⁴

The last decade of the 20th century (1990-2000) was proclaimed the decade of the combat against natural and technical-technological disasters by the UN (United Nations). Regardless of the scientific and technical advances of the modern society, the susceptibility to natural and technical-technological disasters is critically increasing while the number of casualties rises by 6% annually.⁵ This increase is caused by four major reasons:

- population growth and urbanization
- building of high risk facilities (chemical and nuclear plants)
- changes in the environment that may activate disasters
- deficiency of the methods for early predictions and preventions of disasters

THE CLASSIFICATION OF NATURAL DISASTERS

Natural disasters impact a country's social and political stability to a great extent. It is wrongly presumed that "developed infrastructure and sophisticated technology will put a stop to the problems caused by these devastations. The situation is almost opposite. Natural disasters fundamentally hinder everyday lives of citizens especially in big urban, administrative and industrial centers. People living in such places are more dependent on the infrastructure, i.e. water, power, gas and heat supplies as well as on communication and transport connections than people living in non-urban communities who are less reliant on the afore mentioned facilities and more prepared to help one another in emergencies. The countries with developed infrastructure are more vulnerable. The collapse of a system (power supply, telephone or transport connections) leads to the disorganization and worsen the living conditions to which the citizens adapt more slowly and with more difficulty than the people with moderate needs and habits."

The basic concept of the natural disaster categorization is based on the historical data about these catastrophes and their analyses so far. Natural disasters are as follows:

- geophysical catastrophes (events originating from solid earth, such as: earthquakes and volcanic eruptions);
- meteorological catastrophes (events caused by short-lived atmospheric processes the duration of which is expressed in minutes or days, e.g. storms)

⁴ Source: <http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Natural%20Catastrophes%20World%20Map%202012.pdf>, (available: October 20, 2013)

⁵ Михайлов, Л. А.: *Безопасность жизнедеятельности*, Издательский дом» Питер», 2012, p. 17

hydrological catastrophes (events caused by deviations in the normal water cycle occurring in the nature and/or overflowing of bodies of water, e.g. floods)
 climatological catastrophes (events caused by long-lived processes involving climate change from intra-seasonal to multi-decadal climate variability, e.g. extreme temperatures, drought, fires) and
 biological catastrophes (caused by the exposure of living organisms to germs and toxic substance, e.g. epidemic, insect infestation, animal stampede, etc.)⁶

The classification of natural disasters is shown schematically in table 1.

Disaster Subgroup	Definition	Disaster Main Type
Geophysical	Events originating from solid earth	<i>Earthquake, Volcano, Mass Movement (dry)</i>
Meteorological	Events caused by short-lived/small to meso scale atmospheric processes (in the spectrum from minutes to days)	Storm
Hydrological	Events caused by deviations in the normal water cycle and/or overflow of bodies of water caused by wind set-up	<i>Flood, Mass Movement (wet)</i>
Climatological	Events caused by long-lived/meso to macro scale processes (in the spectrum from intra-seasonal to multi-decadal climate variability)	<i>Extreme Temperature, Drought, Wildfire</i>
Biological	Disaster caused by the exposure of living organisms to germs and toxic substances	<i>Epidemic, Insect infestation, Animal Stampede</i>

Table 1 Classification of natural disasters⁷

Geophysical Catastrophes

Geophysical catastrophes, such as earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, land-slides and rock-falls are among important natural disasters. Geologically originating natural disasters endanger the safety of people and their property and affect the economic and social stability of the society to a great extent. Compared to other types of natural disasters, they are the third most frequent catastrophes (11.89%).⁸

Endogenous geological processes on Earth occur in the form of volcanic eruptions or earthquakes, while exogenous processes originate over the time through the action of water, wind, ice and gravitation. The movements of geological material on the slides caused by the gravitation (land-slides, rock-falls, avalanches) are among geological dangers. Erosions and floods are caused by exogenous geological processes.

Earthquakes are one of the greatest geological dangers with *the most casualties*. There are more casualties killed in the earthquakes than in any other natural disasters. Generally, there are no direct earthquake casualties but those killed by the collapsing objects, fires and the like.

⁶ Ljustina, A., Knezevic Lukic, N.: *Vanredne situacije izazvane prirodnim katastrofama*, ECOLOGICA, year XX, no. 71, Belgrade, 2013, p. 411

⁷ <http://www.emdat.be/classification>, (available October 20, 2013)

⁸ Cvetković, V., Mijalković, S.: *Spatial and Temporal distribution of geophysical disasters*. Serbian Academy of Sciences and Arts and Geographical Institute Jovan Cvijic, Journal of the Geographical Institute "Jovan Cvijic" SASA, 63/3, 2013, p. 346

Recent earthquakes show that the seismological hazard in all seismologically active regions increases with the growth of the population density and expansion of urban areas.

Earthquakes can cause land-slides, subsidence (land sinking that may result in flooding stricken areas) and tsunamis in seaside regions.

Another major geophysical disaster is a volcanic eruption. Lava can cause direct damage, but generally it is not the main volcanic danger. The fragments of molten rocks and lava (pyroclastics) are sometimes more dangerous than lava flows since they erupt suddenly and explosively scattering farther and faster. Huge quantities of volcanic ash in the atmosphere may bring about serious effects, even on the global level.

Land-slides can be defined as the material sliding along a sliding area. They involve slow processes, e.g. creeps and the fast ones, such as slides, rock-falls and flows.

Rock and snow avalanches are connected with sloping surface and rock-falling processes. We should make a distinction between potentially unstable terrains existing in the nature and slides induced by human activities. "Serbia is a region endangered by land-slides and rock-falls (30% of our territory is prone to land-slides)."⁹

Meteorological Catastrophes

Meteorological natural disasters as the forms of atmospheric processes may lead to the occurrences which by their size and intensity endanger people's lives, their property and the environment to a great extent.

The definition of dangerous meteorological occurrences is derived from a statistical frequency criterion and the intensity of their manifestation based on the hypothesis that meteorological occurrences and the values of meteorological parameters follow the Gaussian distribution curve. If this criterion is accepted, we may say that all values of meteorological parameters within the interval significantly exceeding the normal ones is considered to be an emergent meteorological occurrence. The parameters are as follows: daily temperature maximum, atmospheric pressure, the deficit and surplus of atmospheric precipitation, the duration of dry and rainy seasons. Dangerous meteorological occurrences are those which happen periodically and endanger people's lives and their property. They are: hurricanes, hail, intensive electric discharges, excessive rainfalls, extremely high snow, dense fog, strong inversions, and black ice.¹⁰

Hydrological Catastrophes

Hydrological catastrophes are hydrological natural disasters or related occurrences which, by their size and intensity, endanger people's lives and health, their property and the environment to a great extent.

"Floods are frequent natural disasters which may be local if they impact neighbourhood and small communities, or huge if they hit entire river basins or a number of municipalities. The interval of the flood expansion varies. The floods in plains develop slowly for days while flash floods spread rapidly, sometimes without any visible signs. This kind of floods forms a dangerous and destructive wave rolling mud, stones, branches and waste. Sometimes, floods occur in rivers when the flow rate exceeds the capacity of the river channel resulting in groundwater or when the water overtops or breaks levees and escape its usual boundaries. A flood may also occur due to the breaking and overtopping of dams because of the excessive inflow of water causing a flood similar to a flash flood but with more disastrous consequences. Floods may occur everywhere. Even very small rivers, streams or sewers which seem not to be dangerous can cause huge floods."¹¹

⁹ *Porodичni priručnik za ponašanje u vanrednim situacijama*, Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe – OSCE Mission in Serbia, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia – Emergency Sector, p. 16

¹⁰ Djarmati, S., Aleksic, Dj.: *Razorne sile*, Radnicka stampa, Beograd, 2004, p. 84

¹¹ *Porodичni priručnik za ponašanje u vanrednim situacijama*, Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe – OSCE Mission in Serbia, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia – Emergency Sector, p. 12

The extent and impact of floods on the society and environment depends on their duration, geographical terrain, soil quality, season, weather conditions, the water inflow rate, the water level, the water flow rate, the stage of inhabited places and population density in the flooded area.

Floods often cause casualties and direct damage to the society and environment. The damage can be direct and indirect. Direct damage includes the damage and destruction of houses, buildings, industrial plants, roads, communication connections, the loss of crops and livestock, the damage and devastation of raw materials, fuel and food. Indirect damage caused by hydrological catastrophes includes the temporary production and economic activities interruption in the flooded area, the change of the life style and huge financial losses.

Climatological Disasters

The world we know today is constantly changing and scientific researches point out that, in the last decades, natural disasters caused by extreme weather conditions, i.e. climate change have been on the increase. "Global climate change started being discussed at the beginning of the 1990s when it was found out that the average yearly temperatures of the lowest layers of the troposphere were increasing and that the heat of the ecosphere in the 20th century matched the increase of the green house gas concentrations and that we were the witnesses of more frequent extreme weather conditions and disasters."¹² Carbon dioxide and other green house gases accumulate in the atmosphere wherefrom they expectedly induce global warming and the sea-level rise. Anthropogenic climate change is a global threat. Undoubtedly, climate change presents a big threat to the peace and safety and in future it will "exponentially" raise the number of natural disasters. The frequency of natural disasters (droughts, forest fires, floods and extreme snowfalls) worldwide is one of the most serious challenges the mankind will face in the future. The understanding of the global climate change is crucial for studying the potential effects of these changes in the context of diverse outcomes of disasters conditioned by weather changes, such as: extreme temperatures, hurricanes, tsunamis and the like.

The modern society is faced with climate change effects. Therefore, we must be ready for more dramatic weather conditions. If we negate the dramatic changes of the weather patterns, we negate the reality.

Biological Disasters

The environment wherein modern people live and work is susceptible to numerous changes – climate, meteorological, hydrological, etc. Hence, the characteristics of the human community are the result of the multiple interweaved and causally linked and conditioned reactions. They are constantly changing, thus altering the properties of each being, even the whole population, pathogen microorganisms, all living beings and inanimate environment. Essentially, the inception of epidemics and other bio-social phenomena depend on the character of these complex changes.

Undoubtedly, natural disasters influence almost all structures of the society. Consequently, they are likely to endanger its safety because of their connection with social issues. Furthermore, there is a certain positive relation between natural disasters and potential social conflicts (table 2).

¹² Ljustina, A.,: *Ekoloska bezbednost*, Kriminalisticko policijska akademija, Beograd, 2012, p.50

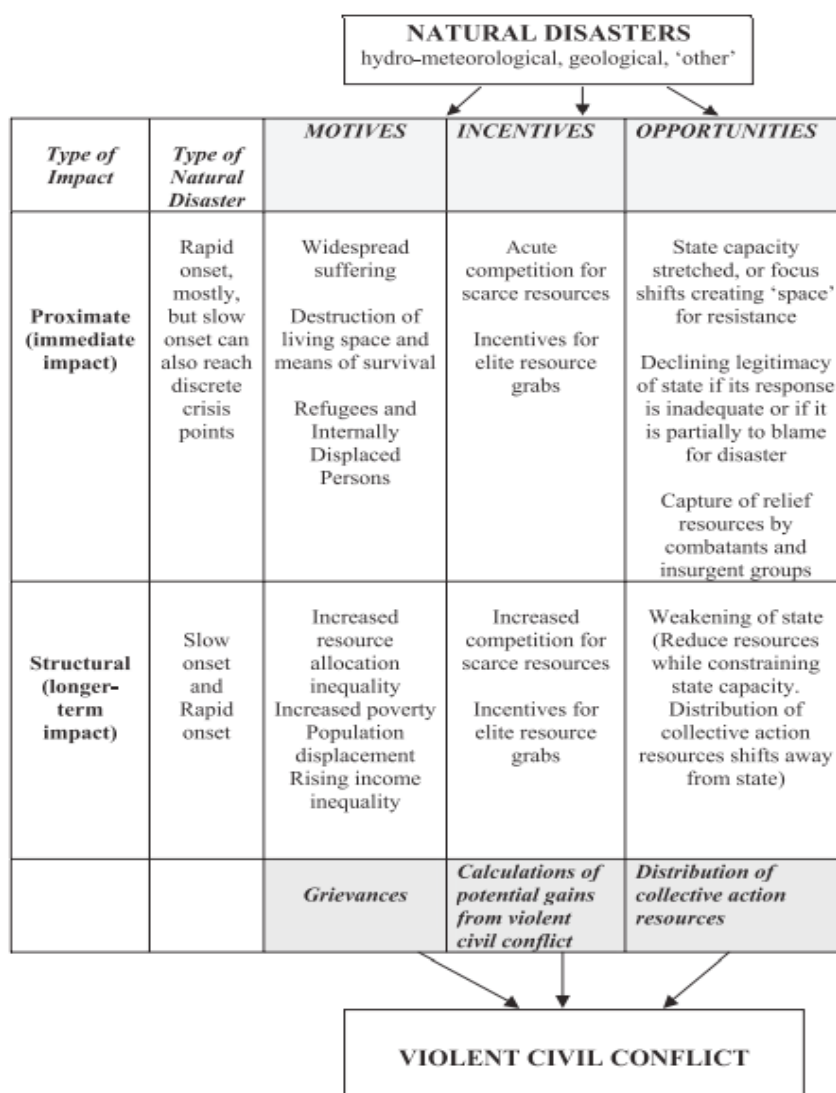


Table 2 Causal relation between natural disasters and the risk of violent civil conflict¹³

EMERGENCY SITUATIONS CAUSED BY NATURAL DISASTERS

There is no universally accepted classification of emergency situations since each emergency situation has its own causes of emergence, unique and specific scenario, and impact on the social and natural environment, extent and effects. Article 1 of the Emergency Law of the Republic of Serbia classifies emergency situations according to the nature of their emergence into: natural

13 Nel, P., Righarts, M.: *Natural Disasters and the Risk of Violent Civil Conflict*, International Studies Quarterly (2008) 52, p. 163

disasters, technical-technological incidents – accidents, consequences of war operations and terrorist acts.

Generally speaking, emergency situations can be classified according to:

the nature of their origin (natural, technical, ecological, biological, anthropogenic, social and combined);

the extent of consequences (local, national, regional and global);

predictability (predictable and unpredictable – natural);

the rapidity of their emergence and duration (ranging from just a few seconds or minutes – earthquakes, avalanches, up to several hours – flash floods, days – land-slides, and months – floods);

the likelihood of their prevention (unavoidable – natural and those that can be avoided – technical-technological, social, i.e. anthropogenic) and effects¹⁴

The effects of the emergence of a natural disaster are of the utmost importance because, for instance, the rapidity of the emergence influences the society's timely reaction to that disaster.¹⁵ The unexpected emergence of extreme earthquakes (Haiti, 20 January 2010; Japan, 13 March 2011; Kopaonik, 18 May 1980; Kraljevo, 3 November 2010) or land-slides (the river Visočica, Stara Planina, 26 February 1963) makes preventive reactions impossible. Floods are less extreme disasters since the likelihood of their emergence can be identified several hours or even days in advance. The length of the emergence of e.g. erosions, droughts, desertification, is different. Namely, these disasters can emerge abruptly (in a flash) or develop over the years with consequences manifesting subsequently. The extent of some natural hazards may be altered by adequate measures while the effects of some other disasters cannot be changed as there are no technologies that can be used for their prevention. For instance, nothing can reduce the shaking of the earth caused by an earthquake. However, the extent of floods can be diminished by foresting river banks and by channeling water flows, i.e. river beds.

The society's response to emergency situations caused by natural disasters is realized through the activities undertaken to direct the subjects of the protection and rescue to fulfill the duties and responsibilities aimed at improving the safety system in the course of emergency and destabilized conditions. Managing emergency situations before and after the emergence of the crisis is realized through the following phases:¹⁶

prevention phase involves emergency preparedness, the development of the communication strategy, early warning and material storage systems;

preparedness phase or the prevention of emergency situations involves the efforts undertaken in order to prevent the dangers of the catastrophe or to reduce its consequences including structural measures, such as embankments constructed to hold back waters or to strengthen objects as well as non-structural measures, for instance risk estimation and land use planning;

response to the emergence of a disaster involves the implementation of the emergency reaction plan including the mobilization of emergency services and the coordination of search and rescue teams. Undoubtedly, the environment is constantly changing under the influence of natural processes, such as volcanic eruptions and earthquakes. Similarly, land-slides will appear on unstable slopes; rivers will flood due to excessive water inflow; droughts will cause fires, etc. Man cannot prevent natural processes in some situations, but the modern period enables people to avoid disastrous consequences including casualties and devastations. Therefore, the response to natural processes can be either active, e.g. the construction of embankments to prevent floods or passive, e.g. the evacuation of citizens from the affected areas;

rehabilitation phase (recovery and reconstruction) includes the actions and measures undertaken to relieve disaster consequences, thus creating conditions for normal life and work in the affected area. Additionally, this phase involves collecting useful data by assessing the damage caused by the disaster.

¹⁴ Ljustina, A., Knezevic Lukic, N.: *Vanredne situacije izazvane prirodnim katastrofama*, ECOLOGICA, No. 71, Belgrade, 2013. year XX, p.412-413

¹⁵ On the management of the natural disaster crisis more in: Malish Sazdovska, M., Nikoloska, S.: *Managing in conditions of crisis events – environmental aspects*, 6th international conference "Crisis management days", Book of papers, 28-29 May 2013, Velika Gorica, Croatia, http://www.dku.hr/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/zbornik_radova_2013.pdf

¹⁶ On the phases of emergency situations more in: Baird, M.: *"The Phases of Emergency Management"*, Intermodal Freight Transportation Institute, University of Memphis, 2010

Relief aid is collected and distributed as well. Simultaneously, other measures are undertaken for the relief and elimination of the immediate effects of disasters.¹⁷

MEASURES AND ACTIVITIES FOR DISASTER RISK REDUCTION

The basis for the disaster risk reduction and the improvement of the disaster resistance culture comprises the knowledge of the hazards and physical, social and ecological risks that certain communities and the society as a whole are faced with. Furthermore, it includes the methods in which these hazards change temporarily and lastingly as well as the actions undertaken in accordance with that knowledge.¹⁸

The protection and rescue of people and material goods from natural and other hazards is of common interest to the society and it involves: programming, planning, organizing, instructing and training, controlling (surveying) and financing measures and activities for the protection and rescue from natural hazards aimed at preventing risks, decreasing the number of accidents and casualties and eliminating and reducing the damage and effects of natural disasters.

Natural disasters especially the ones that occurred not long ago (e.g. floods in Europe 1999-2000; floods in Serbia – the Danube, the Sava, the Tisa, and the Velika Morava rivers in 2006; the river Drina in 2010) called attention to the necessity of undertaking preventive measures (dislocation or protection of endangered objects, construction of embankments, elaboration of plans for the areas at risk of flooding, land-sliding, etc.).

Bearing in mind the effects of natural disasters, the society undertakes a number of measures and activities with the aim of preventing geological catastrophes. Undoubtedly, the prevention of an earthquake effects is of great importance. The only way to minimize casualties and the property damage is to take the necessary measures on time. Objects must be projected so as to be resistant to the expected earthquake magnitudes which are determined by analyzing the obtainable data (historical and measured) on the previous recorded earthquakes in a particular area. Based on this information, seismological areas (micro areas) are defined.

The so-called earthquake precursors are vital for an earthquake prediction: changes in the altitude of land surface, changes in the electrical resistance, changes in the groundwater levels, changes in animal behaviour, radon emanation and noted cycles in earthquake occurrences.

An early warning of a potential earthquake is used in order to reduce casualties. An earthquake is located in real time on the basis of the first P-wave. The warning is automatically sent to an endangered object (e.g. a nuclear power plant, and the like) as well as to citizens. On the other hand, it is important that citizens are trained how to behave in emergency situations.

Historical facts and modern social conditions show that it is impossible to control powerful volcanic eruptions. Nevertheless, it is possible to assess their potential extent and the eruption time, thus enabling temporary or permanent evacuation of a heavily affected area (for instance, the eruption of Mt Pinatubo volcano in the Philippines in 1991 with only 300 casualties). Additionally, lava flow may be more or less successfully diverted or stopped. Diverting lava flow is a better solution since stopping is only temporary. Barriers set up to stop lava flow can be made of e.g. volcanic ash, concrete or by cooling the front or flank of lava flow (with water as on the island Heimaey, Iceland, 1973). In order to reduce the effects of a volcanic eruption, it is possible to shut the active volcano vent and open a secondary one to divert lava to an area without objects that should be protected, e.g. the bombing of Mauna Loa to stop the lava flow that could have wiped out the city of Hilo on the Hawaii in 1935.¹⁹

¹⁷ Ljustina, A., Knezevic Lukic, N.: *Vanredne situacije izazvane prirodnim katastrofama*, ECOLOGICA, No. 71, Belgrade, 2013. year XX, p. 413

¹⁸ Nacionalna strategija zastite i spasavanja u vanrednim situacijama, "Sluzbeni glasnik RS", No. 86/2011, p. 6

¹⁹ In 1935 the US Army Corps bombers tried to stop the lava flow heading towards the city of Hilo. Five bomber aircraft from the 23rd and 72nd BS dropped bombs to divert the lava flow from Hilo. Although this intervention seemed to have been successful, the eruption stopped six days later remaining the effects of the bombing obscure.

http://sr.wikipedia.org/sr/%D0%9C%D0%B0%D1%83%D0%BD%D0%B0_%D0%9B%D0%BE%D0%B0, (available November 1, 2013)

Geological catastrophes, e.g. land-slides are prevented by restoration. Since the restoration of land-slides is an expensive and long-term process, prevention is a better solution. The prevention of the emergence of potential land-slides involves:

drainage (the removal of excessive water since water is an important element in land-slides activation)

the removal of unstable soil

the anchoring of unstable soil layers (the cementing of cracking rocks to prevent rock-falls)

Studying the history of the development of human settlements,²⁰ we learn that most settlements are built close to surface waters, i.e. bodies of water. Water is invaluable for a steady expansion of human settlements, i.e. cities and waterside areas suitable for the development of agriculture, industry, transport and a range of social and sports activities. Consequently, it is not surprising that hydrological catastrophes endanger human settlements to a great degree.

In order to prevent hydrological catastrophes the society, i.e. the state, establish hydrological monitoring system, telecommunication and computer network system and analytical-forecasting system with the aim of permanent monitoring and predicting the water conditions and early warnings of hydrological disasters.²¹

Meteorological disaster risk reduction entails a range of measures and activities including collecting, processing, analyzing, forecasting and distributing meteorological data on current and anticipated weather conditions and climate that are of importance to the safety of citizens and their property.²²

In the distant past natural disasters were believed to have been caused by an Act of God. Hence, floods, earthquakes, droughts and other natural disasters were accounted for by the God's dissatisfaction and reaction to the sins people committed. However, the modern society understands the reality and is aware of the climate change "exponentially" increasing the extent of natural disasters. The climate change as a direct consequence of up-to-date life style should be impeded by the natural disasters prevention.

Lately, we have witnessed the significant advance in basic science disciplines, chiefly molecular biology and genetics and their application in biological disasters prevention. The prevention entails investing in lives and sustainable development.

CONCLUSION

Modern man living in up-to-date environmental circumstances is exposed to numerous safety risks, one of them being natural disasters. All too often the society is confronted with natural disasters which are the manifestation of the power of nature claiming human lives, damaging material goods and cultural heritage, devastating the environment. Every emergency situation caused by natural disasters leaves its ecological footprint.

The modern society's response to emergency situations caused by natural disasters lies in the application of a sustainable development. Hence, the modern society should reduce the risks related to the emergence of the natural disasters. Understanding the causes and nature of natural disasters enables the timely adoption of the safety measures in emergency situations, thus reducing all kinds of losses and damages.

Social communities (from a local to the global level) must take the responsibility with regard to natural disasters. There must be the connection and coordination between local and regional agencies and national bodies. Apart from the activities of the responsible national bodies, it is of the utmost importance to improve regional networks and strengthen cross-border cooperation as regards natural disaster risk management. Beside measures and activities entailing the natural disaster prevention (involving continuous seismological and geodynamic monitoring of a territory and permanent analysis of the seismological hazard elements), it is essential to reinforce the preparedness of social communities to the citizens' reaction to the naturally caused emergency situations.

²⁰ More about the issue in: Mamford, L.: *The City in History: Its Origins, Its Transformations and Its Prospects*, (translation: Ivir, V.), Book & Marso, Subotica, 2006

²¹ *Zakon o meteoroloskoj i hidrololoskoj delatnosti*, "Sluzbeni glasnik RS", No. 88/2010

²² Section 3, Article 12, *Zakon o meteoroloskoj i hidrololoskoj delatnosti*, "Sluzbeni glasnik RS", No. 88/2010

REFERENCES

1. Baird, M.: *The "Phases" of Emergency Management*, Intermodal Freight Transportation Institute, University of Memphis, 2010
2. Cvetković, V., Mijalković, S.: *Spatial and Temporal distribution of geophysical disasters*. Serbian Academy of Sciences and Arts and Geographical Institute Jovan Cvijić, Journal of the Geographical Institute "Jovan Cvijić" SASA, 63/3, 2013, p. 345-360
3. Ljuština, A., Knežević-Lukuć, N.: *Vanredne situacije izazvane prirodnim katastrofama*, ECOLOGICA, Godina XX, No. 71, Belgrade, 2013, p. 411-415
4. Ljuština, A.: *Ekološka bezbednost*, Kriminističko-policijska akademija, Belgrade, 2012
5. Malish - Sazdovska, M., Nikoloska, S.: *Managing in conditions of crisis events – environmental aspects, 6 th international conference „Crisis management days,,* Book of papers , 28 – 29 May 2013, Velika Gorica, Croatia, http://www.dku.hr/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/zbornik_radova_2013.pdf
6. Mumford, L.: *The City in History: Its Origins, Its Transformations and Its Prospects*, (translation: Ivir, V.), Book & Marso, Subotica, 2006
7. Михайлов, Л. А.: *Безопасность жизнедеятельности*, Издательский дом» Питер», 2012.
8. Nacionalna strategija zaštite i spasavanja u vanrednim situacijama, «Službeni glasnik RS», no. 86/2011
9. Nel, P., Righarts, M.: *Natural Disasters and the Risk of Violent Civil Conflict*, International Studies Quarterly (2008) 52, 159–185
10. *Porodični priručnik za ponašanje u vanrednim situacijama*, Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe – OSCE Mission in Serbia, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia – Emergency Sector, p. 16
11. *Zakon o vanrednim situacijama*, "Službeni glasnik RS", no. 111/2009 i 92/2011
12. *Zakon o meteorološkoj i hidrološkoj delatnosti*, "Službeni glasnik RS", no. 88/2010
13. Đarmati, Š., Aleksić, Đ.: *Razorne sile*, Rđnička štampa, Belgrade, 2004
14. http://sr.wikipedia.org/sr/%D0%9C%D0%B0%D1%83%D0%BD%D0%B0_%D0%9B%D0%BE%D0%B0(available: 1 November, 2013)
15. <http://www.emdat.be/classification>,(available: 20 October 2013)
16. <http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Natural%20Catastrophes%20World%20Map%202012.pdf>, (available: 20 October, 2013)
17. www.munichre.com/(available: January 2014)

CHARACTERISTICS OF SECURITY MANAGEMENT IN SPECIFIC SECURITY CONDITIONS AND CRISIS SITUATIONS

Assistant Professor, Col. **Miroslav Talijan**, PhD
University of Defence, Military Academy, Belgrade

Col. **Mile Jelić**
University of Defence, Military Academy, Belgrade

Abstract: The authors speak of the security affairs taking place in diverse security and social conditions (social modalities). Social conditions can be diagnosed as typical – peacetime and crisis, suggesting that in peacetime there is usually a security situation that is commonly referred to as /1/ general or regular security state and /2/ specific security state in which the regular state is violated to the extent that it can escalate into a crisis situation. In this paper, the phrase “social states of crisis” is used exclusively in cases they are declared as such by the constitution and/or specific legal bodies. Social states of crisis declared by the highest state authorities lead to establishing a specific legal regime. Specific security states and crisis situations, as unusual influencing factors, bear a predominantly decisive impact on establishing and functioning of a specific system of security management.

Specifically, the paper will present outlooks on specific security conditions and crisis situations, as well as their impact on the function and organisation of the security management.

Keywords: security management, specific security conditions, crisis situations, function and organisation of security forces in crisis situations.

INTRODUCTION

Security affairs can be carried out in various security and social conditions. According to the basic features, social conditions can be divided into: regular (peacetime) and social states of crisis.

Peacetime is both commonly and colloquially referred to as ‘regular peacetime’ condition and not just ‘peacetime’, since the world peace has always been violated, especially nowadays. Some studies show that there is no discontinuation between the First and Second World Wars, and that the World War II has never ended. This fact is confirmed by over a hundred local wars and numerous military interventions, including the present-day ones such as the wars in the Southeast Asia and northern Africa. The 9/11 terrorist attacks on America in 2001, viz. the terrorists and American response have changed the world politics fundamentally. “It is clear that the years of the world unrest lie ahead, especially in the Middle East.”¹

Taking into account the rising social tensions around the world and also the conditions at home, in certain cases the last straw could trigger unforeseeable destruction, to an extent where our very existence could come into question. It can safely be said that in modern conditions of frequent and dramatic changes “if there is one thing that can be predicted with certainty, it is that the future will be uncertain.”²

All this suggests that in the regular peacetime conditions exist regular security conditions commonly referred to as general or common and the specific security conditions in which the regular state is violated to the extent that it can escalate into a crisis situation.

In this paper, the phrase “social states of crisis” is used exclusively in cases they are declared as such by the constitution and/or specific legal bodies. Social states of crisis declared by the highest state authorities lead to establishing a specific legal regime. The aspect and degree of the peace threats classify crisis situations as /1/ the state of emergency and /2/ the state of war.

Among the many both common and uncommon factors influencing the selection, establishment and functioning of the security management, specific security conditions and crisis situations, as well as uncommon factors of influence play a predominantly decisive role.

¹ Talijan, M., Miroslav, *Bezbednosni menadžment u suprotstavljanju terorizmu i borbi protiv terorizma*, MoD, Medija centar Odbrana, Beograd, 2010, p. 13-25

² Draker, Piter, *Upravljanje u novom društvu*, Adizes, Novi Sad, 2005, p. 214

Therefore, in this paper, the views on the specific security conditions and crisis situations (their definition and phasing), as well as their impact on the function and organisation of the security management are addressed.

SPECIFIC SECURITY CONDITIONS

Security conditions along with the organisation and functioning of the security institutions within can, generally speaking, be classified as: /1/ typical or regular, and /2/ special or specific.

Typical or regular security conditions can be observed “as: 1) the continued existence of identical or nearly identical security issues and appropriate security tasks implemented in established continuous forms, in terms of common security breaches or the possibility thereof, 2) legislative, rhythmic reoccurrence of identical security problems at approximately fixed periods (week, month, season etc.); 3) legislative recurrence of problems in a particular area or areas of a line of work and 4) unvarying conditions and circumstances potentially representing an actual or latent threat in causing changes of the regular security conditions. Unlike typical or regular security conditions, special or specific are induced by certain causes and occurring in particular circumstances, lacking constancy or structured cyclical regularities of origin and forms in which they manifest themselves in the real world.”³ Specific security conditions can be classified according to various division criteria in the following manner:

First, conditions originated by objective causes, viz. “force majeure” of nature that, given the current level of technical and technological development and the degree of social organisation on a global scale:

- are not always possible to foresee,
- are not possible to prevent or limit the harmful effects of despite foreseeing them fully or partially and
- are possible to predict and prevent or limit the effects thereof provided that certain conditions are met.

Second, conditions as results of subjective reasons:

- caused by positive social consequences: political, economic, cultural etc. viz. the tendencies of positive social developments or events that can at the same time create favourable conditions or causes for increased or more intense criminal activity; or to objectively induce a higher degree of threat to protective goods at such given time and
- the consequence of the negative social, political, economic, military, intelligence etc. actions, events and trends.

Third, special security conditions can be classified with relation to the place their cause, or connection between cause and effect, originates from to those that are:

- fully foreign,
- without foreign elements
- combined.

Fourth, based on predictability, specific security conditions can be:

- generally unpredictable;
- hypothetically predictable;
- of limited predictability and
- predictable.

Fifth, the place where the consequences take effect special security conditions may happen:

- abroad, intended to have the result implemented at home;
- abroad, with the results reflecting on or indirectly occurring in our country;
- abroad, with the results present both at home and abroad and
- at home.

Sixth, based on the spatial range of physical activities on a territory, specific security conditions can be observed and classified as:

- 1) highly localised, municipality or part thereof;
- 2) spread locally over two or more municipalities, regions, districts;

³ Kostić, Stanko, *Osnovi kriminalističke operative*, first part, II revised edition, VŠUP, Belgrade, 1982, p. 221.

3) across the territory of the state entities, provinces, cantons and

4) across the territory of a single or several states.

Seventh, according to duration, specific security conditions can be of:

very short time span – up to 48 hours;

short time span – up to 7 days and

long time span – over 7 days.

Eighth, according to the public manifestation, special security conditions may be:

without public or visible manifestation, combined, lacking public manifestation in the first and presenting them in the second phase, combined, in certain theatres of operational activities – lacking and in other presenting public manifestation publically manifested in both time and place.

In the specific security conditions, security institutions attempt to firstly, prevent the setting in of negative consequences in the security area; secondly, in case the negative consequences have set in, to block, localise and suppress their effect, and finally to eliminate or minimize them.

The specific security conditions or in cases when there is a real possibility for such states to occur, preventive actions are of critical significance, especially if the negative consequences have not yet taken effect. However, in case such negative consequences have already or are starting to occur, in addition to preventive actions, operational repression aimed at localisation and reduction of negative consequences is particularly significant and effective.

In order to achieve the required efficiency and effectiveness of security institutions at times of specific security conditions, it is upon the security management to ensure the application of the following general rules while performing the specific security tasks:

First, the strategy for fighting crime and other security threats must be tentatively and preventively determined preceding specific security conditions viz. causes resulting in such conditions.

Second, the strategy should be adopted according to conditions therefore needing to be resilient and flexible, to allow rapid identification, approaches and possible methods of operative actions.

Third, it must rest on the principles that allow coordination over the entire area affected by the specific security conditions.

Fourth, reporting and information have to function flawlessly.

Fifth, mobility and preparedness of the members of security must be ensured prior to the specific security conditions in which they would really prove themselves.

Sixth, depending on the level of threat, the assessment of potential adverse actions and the extent of the negative consequences, a firmly and properly directed and coordinated action of the security forces is necessary as well as their partnership with the citizens and other entities in the local community.

Security affairs at times of specific security conditions call for establishing the so-called temporary organisational structure of the security institutions fitting the actual required specific security actions performed by them.⁴ Thus, the police actions occur along the lines of performing the most common complex tasks related to specific security conditions such as special and specific security provision, upholding the public peace and order at public meetings and during the chase and locks; the implementation of special and specific actions and operations of operational and preventive character, providing assistance to other agencies, assisting individuals and institutions in the protection and saving of people and property etc. In particular, in such circumstances, temporary organisational police units are set up usually under the name of sector, sub-sector, area, cordon and also operational unit, operational and pursuit unit, special unit, auxiliary unit, etc. usually at the level of section, platoon or company. As temporary organisational forms, joined and the so-called combined and mixed police units are formed from members of the police and other competent officials.

Safety Management in a singular form is usually appointed in the commandant (commander) form, and the group in staff or team.

⁴ Talijan, M., Miroslav, Jelić, Mile, Slavković, Rade, *Projektni menadžment i modelovanje vojnih operacija*, Vojno delo, MO, Medija centar Odbrana, Belgrade, 2012

CRISIS SITUATIONS

In theory, the operation of security institutions is most commonly placed in two opposing conditions: favourable and unfavourable, namely regular (normal) conditions and irregular (specific) conditions. In military-organisational literature, the wartime and peacetime conditions are often referred to.

In regular conditions, the actions take place according to the existing plan, i.e. all the activities are carried out in a planned and controlled manner, with the management intervening in cases of any deviation from the planned results. Specific working conditions have a negative impact on all the elements and activities within an organisation. Negative factors paralyse the planned actions and prevail over the positive factors of the organisation in strength and intensity. They cause disorganisation (havoc, disorder, panic, breakdown) and dysfunctional organisational behaviour. However, in order to take appropriate action based on the decisions taken and prevent disorganisation, it is necessary to recognise the negative factors leading the organisation into this state.

In addition to the disorganisation as the most difficult state for an organisation, there are conditions whose character and strength can prove destructive (explosive factors) for the organisation; however their effects can be successfully countered by organised activities and preventive actions on part of the institution in preparation for such a situation.⁵

Crisis situations are obvious examples of such conditions. It is a condition in which the impact of negative factors is countered by means of adequate organisation on part of the institution.

Crisis is most commonly observed as emergence (the coming of) sudden change, reversal, experiencing the crucial moments (life on the verge of survival), whereby such conditions are usually followed by conflicts, destruction, havoc (war, aggression, fire, flood, earthquake), threats, block, various forms of debilitation and the like. A crisis is the result of disruptions in natural factors or social relationships on both outer and inner levels.

However, organisation wise, crisis is always a social phenomena, as this is the crisis of organisation (economic, military, security, political, social community etc.).

The crisis may arise or be caused within or by companies, institutions and other organisations, in a region or across the entire territory of a country. On the other hand, a crisis can occur in certain areas of work or those such as transport, electricity, agriculture etc.

In considering the conditions in an organisation and the functioning of security management it is of utmost importance to realise what the sources of the crisis are i.e. whether the crisis has been caused by socio-economic and political relations or ensued by natural factors (flood, earthquake, fire).

States of crisis, resulting from economic relations (exhaustion and loss of reserves of raw materials or the creation of large quantities of goods in stock) can be caused by any number of reasons (business system, staff, information systems, science and research etc.). Making definite decisions and taking remedial action is preceded by close observation.

However, the crises that have an explosive character, surviving the crucial moments (earthquake, the impact of weapons of mass destruction, violent demonstrations, sudden insurrections, surprise terrorist attacks on vital facilities), require the highest spiritual and material investment and the transition to new organisational structures, while a wrong or untimely management decisions in such circumstances can lead to devastating consequences, especially when they work in favour of the enemy or natural disasters.

Decision to establish the new organisational structures and take certain actions, including an entire system for monitoring the activities in a particular area and the necessary management interventions cannot be made and implemented based on the individual opinions, regardless of any ability the individual might possess. For these purposes, committees to operate in conditions of crisis are formed.

Some areas of work can take on the character of a crisis situation, although they are not clearly manifested in real life. This often happens in the areas which can easily slip into a state of crisis, unless constant vigilance and preparedness (prevention) for organising appropriate and timely intervention is present. Preventive organisations are established to counter such

⁵ Slavković, Rade, Talijan, M., Miroslav, Jelić, Mile, *Projektovanje vojnih operacija*, Vojno delo, MO, Medija centar Odbrana, Belgrade, 2012

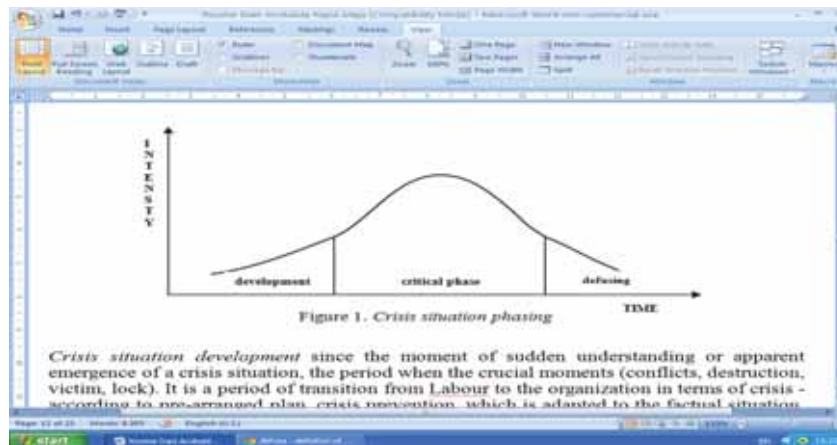
possibilities for the purpose of monitoring and analysing the resulting deviant behaviour based on which decisions to suppress, restrain or eliminate them are made.

Crisis with a gradual course of development are called “expected crisis”. However, crisis as such can also arise unexpectedly. Such crisis situation is commonly referred to as “sudden crisis”. The problem of sudden crisis is questionable, apart from those caused by natural phenomena (earthquakes, floods) and those that occur as major disasters (fire, car accidents etc.) that are caused by extreme human negligence.

It is often the case that some crises are often called sudden due to the dysfunctional information systems set up. Practice shows that certain crisis situations are categorised as sudden simply to justify the lack of organisation and avoid assigning responsibility to any party.

With relation to durability, the crisis could have a lasting or temporary character. Depending on the nature of the crisis, the crisis period can be oscillating in character according to the impact intensity of the factors conditioning it. One form of crisis can develop into another; an occurrence taking place at the critical moment of the initial crisis.

In terms of methodology, the crisis is phased including stages or periods. Regardless of the mode of occurrence and characteristics of the crisis, there are three distinctive phases: the development, critical phase and defusing of the crisis.⁶



Crisis development starts from the moment of sudden realisation or emergence of a crisis situation and ends with the crucial moments (conflicts, destruction, victims, blocks). It is a period of transition from regular organisation to organisation in terms of crisis – following the pre-planned scenario, the plan of crisis prevention, which is adapted to the factual situation.

Critical phase of every crisis situation is characterised by a number of problems during crisis development. At this stage, the management seeks solutions to the crisis. The decision can be delayed for a short while, but it must be made. The critical condition can be manifested in several ways, depending on the nature of the crisis. During the critical phase of the crisis critical moments set in (the crisis culmination, critical point), that occasionally call for the use of force, depending on the type, cause and effect. A critical point is the culmination, the most difficult part of the critical phase. However, the lessons learned from such situations show that the crisis situations can be scaled to increasingly difficult for the people and organisation. A good example of such a crisis situation is the outbreak of war at the territory of the former Yugoslavia (SFRY).

Defusing the crisis is a stage in which the termination of the negative factors impacting the organisation is expected. It is, therefore, a period of returning to the regular processes and visible relief.

⁶ More detailed reference related to crisis can be found in: Talijan, Momčilo, Talijan, M., Miroslav, *Opšti i bezbednosni menadžment*, VŠUP, Banja Luka, 2011, p. 304. Keković, Z., Kešetović, Ž., *Krizni menadžment I Prevencija krize* (hrestomatija), Fakultet bezbednosti, Belgrade 2006

Defusing the crisis could lead to a relaxation in the management and organisation as a whole, which works in favour of a new crisis situation emergence, possibly leading to more severe consequences than in the previous period of crisis development.

Given the fact that crisis as a phenomenon usually has an oscillating flow, it is characteristic that the emergence of a new crisis situation is a difficult experience, especially in cases when all the strengths have been exhausted in overcoming the critical phases. Very difficult critical situations, with tumultuous or explosive character (violent demonstrations, sudden insurrections, earthquakes, large accidents, floods, fire etc.) immediately turn into the critical state, so that the only stages present are the critical phase and defusing of the crisis.

FUNCTION AND ORGANISATION OF THE SECURITY FORCES IN CASE OF CRISIS SITUATIONS

Security affairs can be performed in various social conditions (social modalities). According to the basic features, social conditions can be: regular peacetime and crisis social conditions.

Crisis social conditions declared by the highest state authorities, resulting in the establishment of a special legal regime, can be classified according to the shape and extent of the threat to peace into /1/ emergency and /2/ state of war.

State of emergency

The very notion of a state of emergency indicates that this not a regular state, not “normal”, but rather significantly changed thus becoming irregular, bearing in mind the obvious actions changing from the core the normal, mainstream (processes) events in the people’s lives and functioning of the state – when *a public emergency*, as result of the military or non-military challenges, risks and threats, *threatens the very survival of the state or its citizens*.

The variations of this term in the political, military and security terminology includes expressions like: emergencies, immediate threat to the country, a crisis situation, a state of crisis, contingency etc.

Based on analysis of the contents of the concept of a state of emergency⁷ and other such terms of the legal, political and other literature, as well as the legal definition of the term, it can be said that the state of emergency is a special legal regime imposed across a part of the national territory to counter activities that threaten: the constitutional order, security (identity) of the state (or entity) – the sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity, economic and social activities, exercise and protection of rights, freedoms and duties of man and citizen and the work of state bodies; and/or in case of severe disasters (earthquakes, floods etc.) and other general risks to the lives of citizens (large-scale epidemics etc.). The eradication thus implies undertaking emergency measures in accordance with the law, measures which are often related to the priority of saving the lives of people and other state values, the restriction of the freedom of movement and assembly, introduction of the work obligation, limiting the right to strike, the restriction of freedom of political, trade union and other activities.

From this definition of a state of emergency, we can conclude the following:

First, it is *a special legal regime* based on constitutional and legal frameworks. It is when, during a state of emergency, some rights and freedoms of man and citizen are limited (reduced), as well as the independence and equal status of companies and other organizations; there is a deviation from the implementation of a number of legal standards and instead some other standards, adequate for that situation, are applied.

⁷ The study of the historical development of the police in Serbia shows that the state of emergency was first established by the Law on court-martial for hajduks, robbers, public violence and theft and issued on 24 April 1863, only in force at a particular territory of Serbia of the day, viz. the following districts: Užice, Čačak and Rudnik and counties: Jasenički and Gružanski in the district of Kragujevac, Kosmajski of the Belgrade district and Kolubarski and Podgorski in the district of Valjevo. The Emergency Law was enacted because: “... the regular measures are by no means sufficient to eradicate all the growing evil; (...) rather **uncommon and emergency measures** could prove successful“. Alimpić, D. Đ, *Istorijski razvoj policijskih vlasti u Srbiji 1798–1869*, reprinted from *Policejnoga Glasnika* u Državnoj štampariji Kraljevine Srbije, Belgrade, 1905, p. 99

Second, a special legal regime is the most frequently established on the part and rarely on the whole territory of the country.

Third, the essence of the term "a state of emergency" is action (deed) which threatens the state identity, state and economic-social organization and the freedoms and rights of citizens; or it is about disasters and other public dangers.

Fourth, a state of emergency responds to present unwanted activities (that threaten the above mentioned social values) in order to eliminate and remove these dangers (threats).

Fifth, the existence of the activities that threaten above mentioned social values implies taking appropriate emergency measures, in accordance with a new situation.

Sixth, it primarily refers to activities that directly threaten the above mentioned social values from inside, except for the armed aggression (when it is a state of war). But, external activities cannot be excluded, such as economic sanctions, reflection of economic and other crisis in the world and in specific countries which we have international cooperation with, natural, economic and other disasters in neighbouring countries etc.

Seventh, the existing threats do not exclude the possibility to turn into armed activities, such as terrorist activities⁸ or armed rebellion on the part of the state territory.

It is typical that the proposal for declaring a state of emergency is given by the government of the threatened country (entity). A state of emergency is declared by the Parliament (the Assembly) of the threatened country or a competent agency of its threatened entity, wherein the content of a public danger is determined, and thus those who are the most responsible for and integrators which react against the same are recognized and also an adequate expiry date of a notarized condition is determined. Declaring a state of emergency, the Parliament may prescribe measures that deviate from the constitutionally guaranteed human and minority rights. If the Parliament is not able to meet to take a decision on declaring a state of emergency, it is legally stipulated that the president of a country can do it. We have nowadays that situation in the Republic of Serbia, where the decision is made jointly by the President of the Republic, the President of the National Assembly and the Prime Minister under the same conditions as the National Assembly would do it. In this case, the measures of deviation from human and minority rights may be prescribed by the government through the regulation with the counter-signature of the President. The decision and regulation of the measures should be confirmed by the National Assembly within 48 hours or as soon as it is able to meet. If the National Assembly does not confirm the measures, they are in force up to the deadline specified by the Constitution.⁹

A state of war

A state of war is defined as a state of threat, in which the armed action from outside threatened the sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity of the country, that is to say peace in the region and which requires the mobilization of defence forces.

When above mentioned state of threat begins, a state of war is declared by the Parliament (the National Assembly) of the country in threat. If the Parliament is not able to meet, the decision on declaring a state of war is taken by leaders of the highest agencies in the country. Thus, according to the legislation in force in the Republic of Serbia, this decision is taken jointly by the President of the Republic of Serbia, the President of the National Assembly and the Prime Minister. Declaring a state of war, the National Assembly may prescribe measures that deviate from the constitutionally guaranteed human and minority rights. Deviating is possible only in accordance with the Article 202 of the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia.

If the National Assembly is not able to meet, the measures of deviation from the constitutionally guaranteed human and minority rights are jointly determined by the President of the Republic Serbia, the President of the National Assembly and the Prime Minister. All measures taken during a state of war are confirmed by the National Assembly when the conditions are met for its meeting.

⁸ On the relationship between the organized crime and terrorism see in: Mijalković, S., Bajagić, M., *Organizovani kriminal i terorizam*, KPA, Beograd, 2012.

⁹ A state of emergency in the Republic of Serbia is defined by the Defence Law ("Official Gazette of RS", no. 116/07, 88/09 - other Law and 104/09 - other Law) as a state of public threat in which the survival of the state or citizens is threatened and it is the result of military or non-military challenges, risks and security threats.

Defence forces make defence preparations that include activities based on defined defence strategy and they are carried out in accordance with the defence Plans.

All ministries have rights and responsibilities in the field of defence. They, within their jurisdiction, enforce laws related to defence, regulations for work during a war and emergency state, general acts of the National Assembly and the government, the tasks defined within the defence Plan and are responsible for operation of legal entities that are within their jurisdiction. More specifically, the ministries in the field of Defence: develop, at the request of the Ministry of Defence, acts and annexes for the preparation of the Plan of country defence, in accordance with the instructions on the methodology of making plans; provide the planned capacities and the required reserves that are of great importance for defence, in accordance with the decisions and requirements of the government; monitor preparations for defence within the scope of their responsibilities and are responsible for their implementation; develop their own plan of defence and implement their own preparations for work in a war and emergency state; develop methodological, expert and technical guidelines for the preparation of defence of legal entities from the scope of their jurisdiction; propose to the government to define responsibilities of companies, other legal entities and entrepreneurs that are important for defence within the scope of their jurisdiction; plan and implement civil protection and rescue measures, based on the law and regulations on civil protection; train employees and take measures necessary for the successful functioning of economic and other activities in a war and emergency state; implement preparedness measures in a state of emergency and other measures necessary for transition in a war organization, perform other duties specified by law and the defence Plan.

The Ministry of Interior has both special rights and duties in defence and they are related to: organizing, preparing and planning the use of police in a war and emergency state and supporting the army in defence from military and non-military challenges and threats within the military jurisdiction; determining the number of staff and organization of police work in a war and emergency state; preparing safety measures and protection of buildings that are of great importance to defence, except military facilities in a war and emergency state, carrying out air surveillance and reporting on the performance of border security; performing other duties specified by law.

During a state of emergency or a war state, the police and other security institutions perform tasks from their field by adapting their organization, forms and methods of work to new circumstances in accordance with the law and acts enacted to eliminate a state of emergency or a war state. Accordingly, they plan the use of material-technical resources, infrastructure, land and buildings during a state of emergency or a war state. To enable police and other security forces to perform specific tasks during a state of emergency or a war state, funds and equipment acquired on the basis of financial obligations can be allocated to them.

It can be concluded, on the basis of what is mentioned above, that in both a state of emergency and a war state, or in the defence of the country, security forces continue to carry out activities within their legally defined scope of work, with appropriate changes that are planned for these cases.¹⁰ Thus, the police give priority to focusing on the elimination of activities and dangers (threats) that already threaten country security and people, constitutional order, carrying out economic and other activities, realization and protection of human rights and fundamental freedoms and the work of state and other agencies. These are jobs that are primarily related to prevention of disturbing and establishing disturbed public order in peacetime to a large extent; security protection of life and personal integrity of people, property and other rights and freedoms; preventing, investigating and solving crimes; finding and capturing offenders and other forms of police fight against heavy and massive crime.¹¹

A state of war, from the point of threatening country security and vital values of society, can summarize all forms of their threats (in regular peacetime and in a state of emergency), so during a state of war, all laws passed in peace should be in force to greater extent and only harmonized to necessary extent with the Constitution.

¹⁰ Taliĵan, M., Miroslav, Slavković, Rade, *Područja odbrambene delatnosti kao predmet istraživanja bezbednosnog menadžmenta*, Vojno delo, MO, Medija centar Odbrana, Beograd, 2011.

¹¹ The authors of this paper believe that a state of war, from the point of threatening the security of state and vital values of society, can summarize all forms of threats (in a regular peacetime and in a state of emergency), and thus all laws passed in peace, harmonized with the Constitution to the minimum necessary extent, should be in force in a war state.

ORGANISATION AND FUNCTIONING OF THE SECURITY MANAGEMENT IN CRISIS SITUATION

Even in a development phase, especially in a critical phase, as well as in a defusing phase of crisis, the security management experiences significant functional and institutional changes. The changes are conditioned by social changes and security problems that are caused by them and the security management is supposed to solve them through making right decisions and effective implementation of these decisions. A lot of organizational and functional properties of the security management in crisis situations will be illustrated through considering experiences and research results of authors of this study and their colleagues in achieving /1/ goals of the security management in crisis situations and /2/ content and characteristics of functioning of the security management in crisis situations.

The goals of the organisation of the security management in crisis situations

Goals, objectives, i.e. expectations that security management needs to meet in crisis situations can be classified into three groups: general, special and individual. *The general goals* are those expectations (aspirations) which are related to the realization of the security management activities with regard to the operation of security forces in solving (removal, elimination) any form of crisis situation.

First of all, the orientation is on the use and focusing security forces on prevention of crisis situations, and if they happen - on stopping them (eliminating) and on rehabilitation of the consequences. In this endeavor, those responsible for the security management continually monitor and assess possibilities for crisis situations. Thus, as part of their planned activities, they define tasks, i.e. principally focusing security forces on the prevention of crisis.

As part of its organizing activities, the management of the security institution constantly adapts its organization. For example, in the agencies of the Ministry of Interior: activation of special police units, increased involvement of reserve forces, filling insufficient number of personnel (particularly the police and criminal police), releasing personnel who are exposed through negative social activities, as well as activities contrary to national interests.

New forms of organization are introduced, such as, for example, security checkpoints, enhancing the protection of certain objects (bridges, railways, especially significant economic and other structures - systems) and people.

Apart from orders for carrying out specific actions and tasks, dominant activities of the security management are those that provide the mobility and efficiency of acting, strengthening subordination, building professional relationships and preserving the character of a member of security forces, legal implementation of powers, tightening measures for illegal acts and mistakes at work.

In order to achieve full coordination, the police management provides: police cooperation with all other security institutions from all three sectors (state, economy and non-governmental - civil society), adequate system support to operating organizational units (accommodation, food, weapons and equipment, etc.) cooperation with judicial agencies and various inspections. In this way, in certain situations and in certain areas, to some extent, compensation for the inefficiency and disorganization of some other institutions and bodies is obtained.

The control is done continuously, often directly by top managers. Responsibility measures for failure to execute tasks are implemented more strictly and therefore more massively.

According to those responsible for management – apart from subjective, managers' objective responsibility increases.

Analysis of work are continuous, since it is very important to provide high-quality and efficient work, as well as because there is the necessity of finding adequate work methodology for solving new work problems and new forms of security concepts and events. Training staff is advanced through timely development of the education system for the purpose of specialized education and training of the members of security forces during their life.

Greater emphasis is put on reporting and briefing, both within the security institutions, and in the institutions which we cooperate in the execution of tasks with.

The special goals include those expectations related to the realization of the security management while acting in concrete (special) forms of crisis situations, i.e. in a state of emergency and war.

During a state of emergency, the goals of the security management organisation are focused on preventing and eliminating concrete activities on the part of the territory of countries that caused a state of emergency and eliminating their consequences.

Concretely and depending on the modalities of a state of emergency, security forces are diverted to preventing threats to the constitutional order, sovereignty, independence and territorial integrity; developing conditions for the functioning of economic and social affairs; eliminating conditions that threaten the freedoms, rights and duties of man and citizen and their direct protection and enabling the state agencies to work smoothly. Besides the aforementioned, the activities of security institutions focus on the prevention and suppression of security concepts and events that cause severe disasters (earthquakes, floods, fires, major accidents) or other general dangers to lives of citizens (large-scale epidemics, etc.), if they caused a state of emergency.

In wartime, the main goal of the security management is directing security forces towards preventing the establishment and functioning of the occupational system on the occupied territory and warfare and other forms of fighting and resistance.

The individual goals refer to those expectations related to the realization of the security management activities regarding operations of some of security forces in crisis situations (e.g., fire and other units in rehabilitation of large-scale fire or criminal operations to prevent and detect large-scale commission of offences involving the use of firearms and certain dangerous objects, devices and materials); then, regarding the implementation of the joint operational actions and combinations and combat tasks in a given time and in a particular area or curbing destructive demonstrations, acts of terrorism, suppression of armed rebellion and the like, up to solving specific security tasks (work problems).

In conclusion, it can be said that the security management in crisis situations, as well as in peacetime, does not have any specific goals for itself. It exists so that the purpose of a specific security institution, in which the security management is incorporated, could be achieved in reality. In crisis situations, three possible levels of goals of security institutions are presented and the practical effect of the security management in their implementation.

Contents and characteristics of the organisation of the security management in crisis situations

Upon a crises arises (develops), new activities appear, a new division of work and specific organisations are established.

The main contents and characteristics of the functioning of the security management are as follows:

- 1) In all or most forms of organisation there are changes in both the composition and in the mode.
- 2) Engagement and usage of the means and introduction of the part of people who, until then, in organizational terms, did work of different nature from the activities that are carried out during the period of development of crisis situations.
- 3) Management of staff activities is difficult (psychological state, inability to adapt, insufficient training and practice to take decisions quickly, lack of information).
- 4) Work processes are accelerated and the part of organized actions taken by staff, take elements of improvisation.
- 5) In staff and other forms of security management some new tasks are introduced as well as specific work methods, which require rapid training of personnel, while some tasks (functions) are redundant and present interference in the work of staff.
- 6) Establishing organizational units and agencies for carrying out tasks in crisis situations may last from several hours to several days, depending on the degree of change in the organizational elements during the transition from regular state to a state of crisis situation.

7) There is a large number of human problems related to family problems, as a result of psychological condition of individuals, which may take the group actually mass psychological sense of being threatened.

8) Failure to timely, completely and objectively inform the members of the security forces, including management, causes spreading and even the appearance of rumours and psychological-propaganda action of forces that cause and exacerbates the crisis, which may result in dysfunctional and undisciplined behaviour of individuals and groups and therefore the higher influence and intervention of the security management, i.e., agencies of staff are necessary.

9) New material-technical equipment (equipment for work) requires a high-quality training for their use and knowing them.

10) The personnel from different compositions is not accustomed to a common (group), actually teamwork, and a period of getting used to that is necessary, which usually lasts a few days, which further engages, staff and other agencies and separates them from the operational monitoring of the situation and performing other activities of the security management.

11) Part of the personnel is not trained for specific jobs during the crisis situation, although in regular conditions, they were able to work properly and therefore the need for personnel changes in specific duties appears.

12) The degree of organisation building is conditioned by level of crisis development, in order to have everything prepared for a period of critical conditions etc.

Preparation for action during the development of a crisis situation is an integral part of the activities of each organization. In practice, the military, the police and other security institutions establish a state of readiness, alert and mobilization to enable the transition from peacetime to a state of readiness and preparedness. This transition is done through elaborate plans for each variant of a crisis situation.

Each security organisation and its organizational units, depending on the size, form a specific type of staff to work in crisis situations. The composition and size of the staff depend on the scope of activities, organisation complexity and task specificity of each organizational unit that works in crisis situations. Current practice shows that some other organizational forms and bodies of the security management did not give better results. Therefore, each administration, command and by name staff are based on the principles of staff organization.

It is characteristic of a crisis situation that there is great uncertainty about the success, and on the other hand, the activities in a development phase of crisis situation are typically conspiratorial, so it is not possible to engage all available managers.

During the critical phase of a crisis situation, managers make decisions to solve the most important issues of defusing the crisis. It is often that a critical phase is prolonged by decision-making on the use of power and resources, particularly coercion, as means of problem solving, turning into a more severe form of the critical situation.

The critical phase of a crisis situation in terms of organisation has following characteristics:

1) Timely preparations, fast, organized and efficient transition to working conditions in a crisis situation enable each organisation to be ready for a critical phase, regardless how complex and difficult it is.

2) The rapid and unexpected transition in a critical phase complicates each organized work and thus the efforts towards organized activities are difficult and in some cases excluded for a longer period.

3) The management makes efforts to establish order, suppress rumours and panic and an explanation of the situation in which the organisation finds itself.

4) In the given situation it is necessary to respond immediately and there is no time for deeper analysis.

5) Optimality of decisions directly depends on the monitoring of situation and the state of knowledge of organizational elements (goals, manpower, material-technical security, space and time) and the basic factors of crisis situation.

6) Staffs and other management agencies at all levels, must have basic facts (tending to find that assumptions are facts as soon as possible), so that, under the circumstances of sudden changes, they can make a quality decision to carry out the task efficiently.

7) The implementation of measures and procedures that best suit in the given situation compensates for destroyed information system (instead of using disturbed and damaged communication lines and damaged or congested technical means, this contact is established by couriers, using different means).

8) The emergence of new activities (and responsibilities) that no one carried out in the organisation until then, results in a lack of organisation and slow work in the initial phase, exceptional stress, getting used to such work and the selection of personnel who are able to perform such tasks.

9) In a critical phase there is imperfect technology of work, regardless the level of training in peacetime, i.e. in the period of preparation, since conditions (situations) are quite different.

10) The attitude towards the given tasks depends on the moral values of individuals and collectives, and therefore there is a tendency, even during the preparation and transition to work in crisis situations, to present work in a crisis situation as the most sublime act of a man.

11) During the work at this phase hastiness and anxiety are present, especially in the security management structures, which could lead to making a wrong decision, especially in the absence of a group or team work based on principles of staff organization.

12) Taking risks in the decision making process is taken for granted and expected.

13) The staff which plans, organizes and controls the execution of the tasks is the creator and the most influential factor of the organisation in the decision making process and thus each decision, no matter it is not in accordance with the proposals of individuals, is the act of specific managerial authority in a crisis situation.

14) The work organisation of the governing bodies, during a critical phase, is adapted to specific circumstances and the most often the staff work is divided into three groups: operations group (including operations centre), decision making group and group enabling the work of staff (material-technical, security etc.).

In a defusing phase of a crisis situation, the security management has a clearly defined role in maintaining the organisation stability. Management agencies must express the continuity and activity in the execution of tasks, always taking into account the possibility of a new critical state.

CONCLUSION

It is necessary to note that both the organisation of security management work and those responsible for it is performed according to the task. The organisation of security management is conditioned by: a general and specific task of the structures that it is guided by; the existing structure of the security management (regarding organisation and profession); technical equipment, experience and established system and method of security management work.

Throughout this paper the prevailing idea is the necessity for the realization of the activities related to organisation and in particular the organisation of the security management work in special security states and a state of emergency, since the tasks and security phenomenon are variable and often unusual and unexpected. For solving them there is often a lack of experienced personnel and deadlines are short. Therefore, the organisation and methodology of work must continuously develop and adapt to a given situation and the particular operating problems. Otherwise, if there is no organisation, there is disorganisation and thus the inefficiency and inadequacy of acting, large losses, i.e., waste of power and resources. At last, the inability or unwillingness of engaged human and other resources and /or security management will be manifested.

Such a situation does not lead to restraint and defusing the crisis, i.e. to overcoming security problems and situations, but to their flaring, as well as to loss of reputation of concrete security institutions. Described characteristics of the security management in special security situations and crisis situations, within them the content and characteristics of functioning of the security management in crisis situations, distinctly shows that these situations put the security management in a state "to be or not to be".

This situation has a direct impact on the functioning and survival of specific security institutions and through them to the security of a country and its citizens.

REFERENCES

1. Alimpić, D. Đ, *Istorijski razvoj policijskih vlasti u Srbiji 1798–1869*, Državna štamparija Kraljevine Srbije, Beograd, 1905.
2. Draker, Piter, *Upravljanje u novom društvu*, Adižes, Novi Sad, 2005.
3. Keković, Z., Kešetović, Ž., *Krizni menadžment I, Prevencija krize*, Fakultet bezbednosti, Beograd 2006.
4. Kostić, Stanko, *Osnovi kriminalističke operative*, prvi deo, II izmenjeno i dopunjeno izdanje, VŠUP, Beograd, 1982.
5. Mijalković, S., Bajagić, M., *Organizovani kriminal i terorizam*, KPA, Beograd, 2012.
6. Slavković, Rade, Talijan, M., Miroslav, Jelić, Mile, *Projektovanje vojnih operacija*, Vojno delo, MO, Medija centar Odbrana, Beograd, 2012.
7. Talijan, M., Miroslav, Slavković, Rade, *Područja odbrambene delatnosti kao predmet istraživanja bezbednosnog menadžmenta*, Vojno delo, MO, Medija centar Odbrana, Beograd, 2011.
8. Talijan, M., Miroslav, Jelić, Mile, Slavković, Rade, *Projektni menadžment i modelovanje vojnih operacija*, Vojno delo, MO, Medija centar Odbrana, Beograd, 2012.
9. Talijan, M., Miroslav, *Bezbednosni menadžment u suprotstavljanju terorizmu i borbi protiv terorizma*, Medija centar Odbrana, MO, Beograd, 2012.
10. Talijan, Momčilo, Talijan, M., Miroslav, *Opšti i bezbednosni menadžment*, VŠUP, Banja Luka, 2011.

UDC 528.425(497.11)
528.93(497.11)
351.741(497.11)

POSSIBILITIES OF USING THE LOCATION BASED SERVICES IN EMERGENCY¹

Full Professor **Boban Milojković**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Sciences, Belgrade

Associate Professor **Dragan Mladan**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Sciences, Belgrade

Assistant Professor **Aleksandar Ilić**, PhD
Ministry of Defence of the Republic of Serbia

Abstract: Systems for automatic (electronic) tracking people and objects or location-based services (LBS) is another area of application technology of global navigation satellite system (GNSS) for the contemporary needs of human which is complemented by geoinformation and telecommunication technologies. The LBS consists of control and operating subsystems (dispatch center - call center), a subsystems for positioning (GNSS architecture) and subsystems for data transfer. Monitoring is possible regardless of location (i.e. the distance of the object from a mobile dispatch center), weather conditions and time of day. Data on the status and position of people and objects with an accuracy of 2-5 meters can be easily obtained via the Internet application, e - mail or SMS messages.

For the purposes of emergency management in rural, remote, large or inaccessible geographic space, LBS can be used for autonomous, periodically or continuously, positioning and monitoring of the status of the members of the protection and rescue system and emergency vehicles and boats, as well as their monitoring and control. LBS enable the Chiefs of Staff for Emergency to look a certain problem situations in real time, to locate and track members and mobile technical resources at the time and place, to enable them support in analysis of the possibilities of road networks and facilitate the provision of logistics, coordination, interaction and cooperation of participants in protection and rescue actions.

In this regard, the paper presents the opportunities of LBS devices that for data transmission use TETRA radio network system and GSM / GPRS / SMS two-way communication.

Also, the paper presents the trend of further development and application of LBS in the police organization of Serbia, which are directed towards the integrated application of LBS with systems for mobile surveillance, thermal imaging systems, the real-time reporting, surveillance and others, for which further interdisciplinary studies are needed.

Keywords: emergency situations, positioning Systems, TETRA system, MobiTrak-24, geoinformation decision support.

INTRODUCTION

Geographic space of Serbia is constantly threatened by various kinds of natural disasters (floods, droughts, extreme heat, earthquakes, landslides, storms, etc.) and technical and technological disasters (fires, explosions, accidents, etc.). According to the Law on Emergency Situations ("Off. Gazette" no. 111/2009 and 92/ 2011), if these hazards are of such "volume and intensity to their occurrence or effects cannot be prevented or remedied by regular action of the authorities and agencies, that for their mitigation and elimination it is necessary to use special measures, power and resources with enhanced mode", an emergency situation is emerging. The emergency is an event or occurrence that threatens and essentially changes conditions and way of life and significantly disturb wildlife in a particular area, aquatorium or air geographic space, which requires enormous human and material resources to restore the previous, regular state (economic, political, environmental, etc.).²

¹ This paper was realized as a part of the project "Studying climate change and its influence on the environment: impacts, adaptation and mitigation" (43007) financed by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Serbia within the framework of integrated and interdisciplinary research for the period 2011-2014.

² Mladan, D., Kekić, D., (2007). Vanredna situacija – prilog konceptualnom određenju bezbednosti, Nauka-Bezbednost-Policija, Vol. XII, No. 3/07, p. 80-81.

Timeliness, reliability and interoperability of information³, secure, accurate and safe access to the affected facility, speed of response, logistics and telecommunications provision and coordination of available forces and means in geographic space is of critical importance. Inaccessible parts of rural geographic space, distant from the centers of infrastructure and weather conditions often make it difficult for emergency response.⁴

In this regard, the previous protection and rescue actions imply the necessity of knowing firefighter - rescuer layout in fighting forest fires or searching for injured people, the position of emergency vehicles while moving in an unfamiliar land, in conditions of limited visibility, on the flooded, gutted, nuclear, chemically and biologically contaminated surfaces, in passing of vehicles and intersected and weakly communicative land, then in providing the material and technical resources, the evacuation of the wounded and sick, as well as in situations where the vehicle broke down, when in accidents, the irrational use or improper management, when the injured is a lifesaver, rescue damaged equipment or protection facilities and others.

Therefore, the aim is promotion of an integrated system of protection and rescue as part of the national security system for acting in emergency situations, but also approaching to EU standards, require greater technical innovation and equipping of first responders, including telecommunications and geographic information assets where a significant place have means for positioning and LBS.

BASIC SETTINGS OF LOCATION BASED SYSTEMS

For the purposes of LBS, the optimal technical solutions are powerful and reliable devices with integrated GNSS receiver and radio or GSM / GPRS modem to a rational and compact shaped casing (Fig. 1).



Figure 1 - Technical solutions of LBS (Source: LIVONA d.o.o.)

They are characterized by high reliability, an independent power source that can be refilled, low cost of installation and operation, work in extreme conditions (eg temperature range from -40° to $+80^{\circ}$ C). The above devices have the ability to connect a variety of external sensors for monitoring the status of the vehicle, receiving remote commands, etc. By setting the GEO - Fence zone it is enabled to track vehicle within certain area, and when the vehicle enters or leaves the zone it sends a text message or e - mail message that informs authorized person. Control center uses intended software for the control of communication, tracking mobile objects and the management of such functions within a particular geographic space (Fig. 2).

³ Ilić, A., Milojković, B. (2011). Princip interoperabilnosti u izgradnji infrastrukture prostornih podataka, Geodetska služba, Beograd, Vol. 40, No. 114, p. 48

⁴ Sakulski, D., (2013). Mogućnost automatizovanog lociranja i dojava požara korišćenjem satelitske i informacione tehnologije, U Zbornik radova, „Treće savetovanje u oblasti zaštite od požara“, Telfor, Beograd, p. 68.



Figure 2 – Control center of LBS (Source: MapSoft)

LBS allows precise positioning of the vehicle with an accuracy of 2-5 meters. Vehicle position is determined by GNSS receiver, and then, in digital form, transmitted via the communication segment to the control center (Fig. 3).

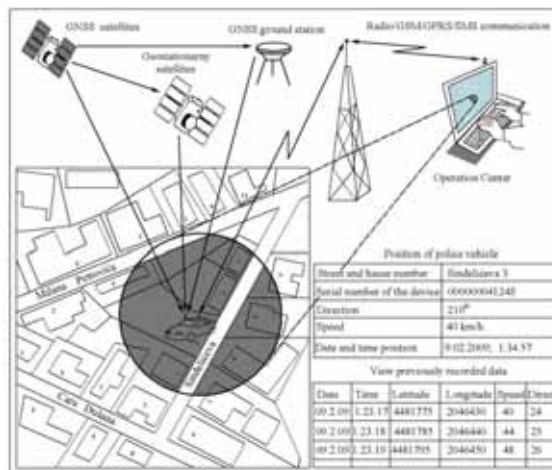


Figure 3 – Basic elements of LBS

In addition to the display of position on the different types of digital geotopographic materials (georeferenced and/or digitized geodetic plans, topographic maps, thematic maps, satellite and aero images, etc.)⁵ it is possible to obtain data on the direction and speed of movement, time of delay, parameters of the vehicle and etc. (Figure 4).

⁵ Milojković, B., (2007). Savremeni geotopografski materijali za potrebe policije – karakteristike i način korišćenja, Bezbednost, Beograd, Vol. 49, No. 4, p. 109.

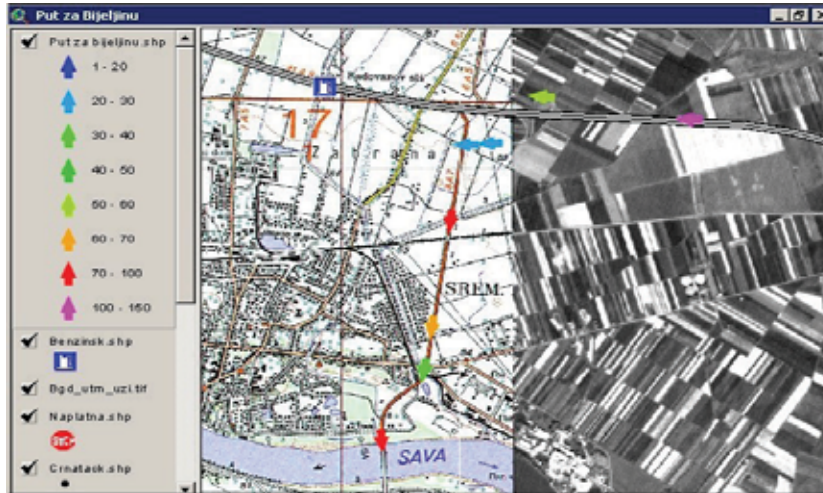


Figure 4 – Display of position of LBS – TRIMBLE AVL on a topographic map and satellite image

(Source: LIVONA d.o.o.)

LBS allows the user the following features:

- 1) at any time to have an accurate vehicle position in the digital geotopographic material;
- 2) in case of any threat or danger to send an urgent message to the center, by activating the “panic button”;
- 3) using hidden microphone in the vehicle, in an unexpected situation, to register what is happening in the vehicle and transfer to the center;
- 4) to effectively alert the attempted theft of the vehicle;
- 5) sending of vehicle data to control center (lack of oil in the engine, overheated water in the fridge, excessive speed, opened door of the vehicle, mileage, condition of brakes, number of passengers, driving outside of working hours, etc.);
- 6) sending of commands from the control center to the vehicle by which the vehicle can be blocked or turn off the fuel supply;
- 7) sending of short messages from the center to the vehicle and vice versa, and display them on a separate terminal for messages;
- 8) analysis of the vehicle movement (place and time of delay, coming-out of a given direction of movement, sections of the road with a exceeded speed of movement, etc.).

Data transmission between the vehicle and the control center can be made using radio equipment in VHF and UHF range, or using GSM/GPRS mobile networks.

LOCATION BASED SERVICES WITH TETRA SYSTEM RADION NETWORK

Communication needs of public safety organisations, cannot be met by conventional analogue radio systems any longer, taking into account the increasing security and safety challenges of the modern world. As a result of users’ needs and regulatory work of Schengen Telecom group, the European Telecommunications Standard Institute (ETSI) has created the first, truly open standard for European PMR (Professional Mobile Radio), named TETRA. The telecommunications industry worldwide has recognized the opportunity and potential of the TETRA standard and offered powerful and sophisticated telecommunications systems to the market. Public safety organisations have accepted TETRA as a high quality solution for their

communication needs. The quality of the standard, its openness, the number of industry players involved and the market success, guarantee that this standard is going to be further developed. This means that the work of public safety organisations will become more efficient and effective, thus providing a more secure and safe environment for citizens worldwide.⁶

TETRA system primarily arose from the need of public services of European countries to mutually, quickly and smoothly communicate through standardized and compatible communications system. This need is especially huge in emergency situations when there is engaging rescue teams from many countries and needed cross-border co-operation. In that regard, there are strict technical requirements and standards that need to possess communication system for the needs of professional users. TETRA standard for radiotelephone systems involves satisfying the following:

- Prompt call setup (in less than one second),
- point – multipoint communication: group calls, as well as voice broadcast
- direct communication between terminals without “intervention” of infrastructure (assumed to be the lower range)
- calls in emergency situations, the automatic inclusion of a microphone,
- individual and phone calls.

In the last ten years, **TETRA** is by its application has exceeded the boundaries of Europe, and now is used in almost every continent, and it can be said that its recent interpretation of name is **Terrestrial Trunked Radio**.

TETRA is designed for use on land as well as in the rivers, lakes and the sea (up to several tens of kilometers from the coast) and in the air at lower altitudes (for helicopters, up to 4,000 meters) and vehicles with restricted speed (eg. on a train with speeds up to 300 k/h).

Trunking is a technical term denoting the use of a smaller number of channels to serve a larger number of potential users (thus saving resources), and in interferences on the assigned channel, TETRA system carries out switching to another channel without compromising started conversation.

Also, a digital trunked system provides better propagation, transmission of various information (eg, sending geographic and rectangular coordinates, photos, files, internet use, etc.) as well as the possibility of effective encryption.

TETRA mobile radio terminals are ideal for use in emergency situations because, in addition to their shapes and purpose are like mobile phones, they have a button for establishing the connection with all users from the same organization.⁷ Unlike mobile phones, TETRA radio headphones work even when the links are broken as well as radio networks and command headquarters are destroyed. Then, the base station that serves the area goes into local mode and ensures through it unhindered communication in this area. Even in the case of the destruction of the base, with users who are not too far away communication is possible if radiotelephone is used as walkie - talkie.

Sensors to detect a fire, flood or burglary may be linked to the TETRA terminal or modem, and in easy way to achieve centralized control. As TETRA devices allow data transmission, it is possible to send a digital photo of the scene and look at the computer screen in the operations center, office or vehicle, anywhere in the country. In case of loss of the terminal it can be partially or permanently disabled telecommunications functions.

TETRA radio communication system at the national level is managed by competent organizational unit of the Ministry of Interior of Serbia. In addition to the Ministry of Interior of Serbia, TETRA radio system is used by the Army of Serbia, security services, customs, security services of the Ministry of Justice and Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Emergency medical services of Belgrade, Communal Police in several cities in Serbia and other users.

Having regard to huge need for positioning of police deployments, experts from practice of Ministry of Interior of Serbia projected a cheap and effective solution of LBS, based on the integration of TETRA system and GNSS. In this way, with the help of TETRA terminals

⁶ Vratonjić, M., (2010). TETRA – evropski standard u profesionalnim radiokomunikacijama – korak ka efikasnijem i kvalitetnijem radu službi javne bezbednosti, Telekomunikacije, Vol. 3, No. 5

⁷ Kujavić, Ž., Šuparina, M., Mepušić, F., (2011). Razvoj informacijskog sustava radijskih komunikacija u policiji – digitalni radiokomunikacijski sustav TETRA, *Policija i sigurnost*, Zagreb, Vol. 20, No. 1. p. 88.

(handheld or vehicular radio stations) that have embedded GNSS locator, equipment in the dispatch center and application software, real-time positioning is enabled. The essence of the technical solution of LBS with TETRA radio network for police officers in Ministry of Interior of Serbia makes a software application Portable Tetra AVL. Operational use of software applications Portable Tetra AVL implied the development of the conceptual design, technical solutions, realization, implementation and testing

In this manner it was used special quality of integrated TETRA handheld or vehicular radio stations in the positioning of persons and vehicles, so there was no need for any additional connection.⁸ More precisely, the measured coordinates are transmitted by wireless RS-232 connection to operations center by SDS messages, where after their conversion with the help of software application Portable Tetra AVL, positioning is performed and the movement of vehicles and personnel are observed on digital geotopographic materials of specified geographic space (Figure 5).

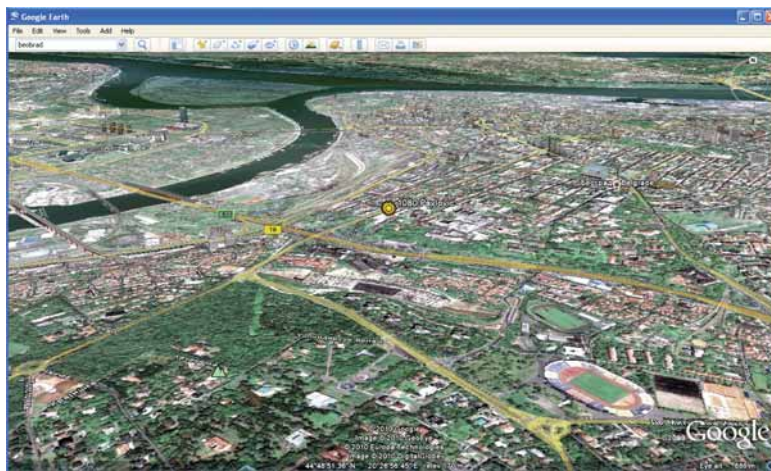


Figure 5 – Display of position of LBS – Portable Tetra AVL on the satellite image
(Source: Ministry of Interior of Serbia)

Relatively quickly (every 10 to 20 seconds) the dispatcher is allowed to monitor available and equipped forces and resources, to direct and regroup them according to the task on which they are engaged. One of the first applications of the system in the Ministry of Interior of Serbia is its use in support of the implementation of the action VIND 2010.

TETRA AVL system is increasingly used in police units for special purposes (Anti-Terrorist Unit, Special Anti-Terrorist Unit, Gendarmerie, IJP) and other organizational units of the Department and individual organizational units Ministry of Interior of Serbia in the headquarter as Sector for Emergency Situations.

This means that TETRA with its transmission of messages and data is ideal support system for decision-making in emergency situations because it is reliable, and has several times cheaper price transmission of messages or data than the GSM system. Information about the position can be cryptographically protected, as well as the radio channel.

⁸ There may be other, less precise techniques for determining the location by radio goniometry through base stations of TETRA network.

LOCATION BASED SERVICES WITH GSM/GPRS MOBILE COMMUNICATION

LBS with GSM/GPRS mobile communication can be used in geographic space affected by the disasters, where TETRA signal is not yet available. The above solution allows the user to operate one or more vehicles over a very large geographic space, using the widespread GSM mobile network. The advantage of this method of communication is that the user does not need for his radio communication system. The system allows tracking all over the world because it is used so-called roaming between different systems and countries. The system also consists of mobile logic units (MSU) installed in the vehicle, which contains a GNSS receiver and GSM/GPRS modem. In this case, MLU can be linked with various sensors in the car. The control center has a GSM/GPRS modem for communication with MLU and also a PC with AVL software.

It is currently available on the market, several models of LBS device. In addition to foreign solution, there are well-known domestic ones: MobTrack: 24,⁹ Certus, GPSPlus etc.

LBS based on software application MobTrack: 24 is used for tracking of fleet (group) of the vehicles (Fig. 6).

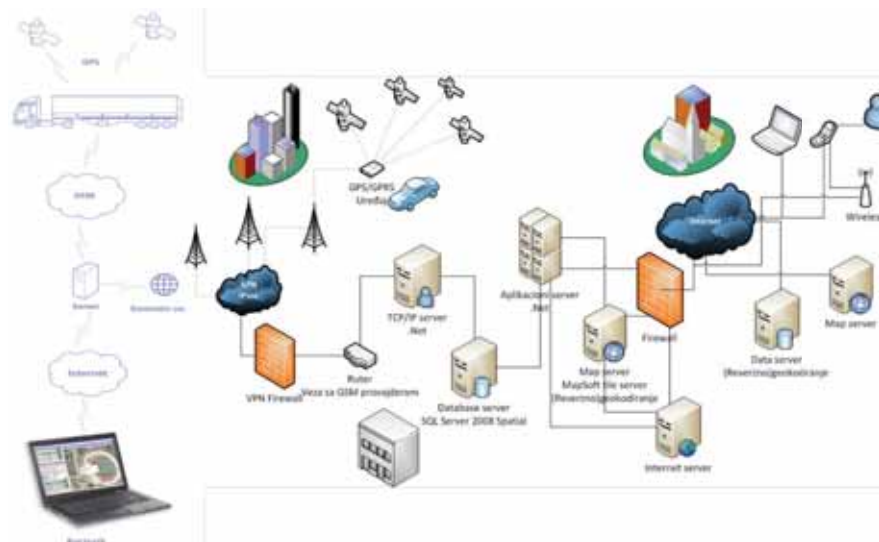


Figure 6 – Architecture of LBS MobTrack:24 (Source: MapSoft)

The person who is responsible for monitoring the vehicle can monitor all vehicles in the fleet on geotopographic digital material, and can also use text, graphic and tabular reports to analyze the work of the fleet or individual vehicles.¹⁰ In addition to the above mentioned options of GSM / GPRS modem can be used for audio and communication with the driver via messages. LBS in addition to basic data (speed, direction, acceleration, battery voltage, state of the ignition switch, odometer) can to track a series of additional telemetry parameters (level and fuel consumption, opening/closing the doors, engine speed, hydraulic work, temperature of cargo space and coolant, presence of the passengers in the vehicle, etc.). (Fig. 7).

⁹ Telemetric solution of local companies MobileSolutions and MapSoft from Belgrade.

¹⁰ Vojinović, M., (2013). Primena sistema za nadzor voznog parka u kompanijama koje upravljaju otpadom – primer JKP Mediana Niš, U Zbornik radova, Naučno-stručna konferencija „Ka održivom transportu“, TRANSPORTLog i Driverlog d.o.o., Novi Sad, p. 71.

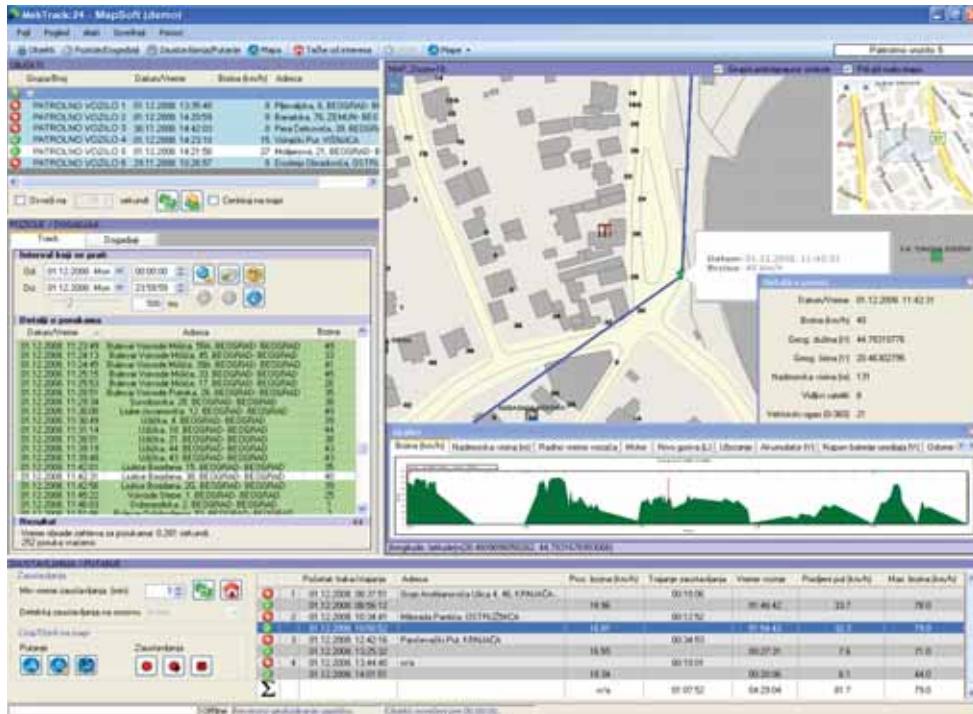


Figure 7 – The appearance of the user application LBS MobTrack:24 (Source: MapSoft)

CONCLUSION

Devices for automatic tracking of people and objects provide positioning and tracking of people and mobile objects, and also provide high-level possibilities for telecontrol of processes. These systems are used in traffic, transportation of oil, gas, electric energy, in geodesy agriculture, environmental protection, surface mining, recreation etc. Widely exploited are systems for automatic locating of vehicles, as up-to-date and efficient devices designed for positioning of vehicles. They provide precise locating of vehicle's position with accuracy range of 2-5 meters. The most optimal technical solution devised for automatic tracking of people and objects is taught to be the integration of GPS technology and GNSS receiver – systems with embedded microprocessor, GNSS and Radio/GSM/GPRS modem, providing high reliability independent rechargeable power supply source, as well as low installation cost and easy exploitation in wide temperature range. The increased usage of GNSS technology, together with geo information and telecommunication technologies, indicates the need for wider interest of security bearers in this field,¹¹ who can, in that way, for the purposes of emergency management.¹²

The possibility of effective and efficient implementation of LBS in emergency situations is more than obvious. Tactical and technical characteristics of the system and the experience of the previous application stands in the foreground as the optimal solution for operators and forces in national system of protection and rescue that are engaged in emergency situations, the TETRA system with the application Portable Tetra AVL.

11 Milojković, B., Marinković, D., (2007). Sistemi za globalno pozicioniranje i njihov značaj u otkrivanju i dokazivanju krivičnih dela, Nauka-Bezbednost-Policija, Vol. XII, No. 2/07, p. 41.

12 Mlađan D., Cvetković, V., (2012). Deployment of police in emergency situations caused by the abuse of the weapons of mass destruction, In Proceedings, International Scientific Conference "Archibald Reiss Days", 01.-02. 03. 2012., Academy of criminalistic and police studies, Belgrade, Tom II, p. 533.

However, for full operation of TETRA system at the national level it is necessary to provide substantial financial and human resource assumptions for the procurement and putting into service of the projected amounts of interoperable equipment - switching centers, base stations, handheld and vehicular radio stations. Also, it is necessary to create conditions for the improvement of the management and certified maintenance of elements of radio system and further improvement of software application Portable Tetra AVL and digital geotopographic materials for the cartographic visualization of results of positioning. Until then, there is the possibility of additional use of commercial LBS solutions presented in the previous section of this paper.

REFERENCES

1. Ilić, A., Milojković, B. (2011). Princip interoperabilnosti u izgradnji infrastrukture prostornih podataka, *Geodetska služba*, Beograd, Vol. 40, No. 114, p. 48-52.
2. Kujavić, Ž., Šuparina, M., Mepušić, F., (2011). Razvoj informacijskog sustava radijskih komunikacija u policiji – digitalni radiokomunikacijski sustav TETRA, *Policija i sigurnost*, Zagreb, Vol. 20, No. 1. p. 73-92.
3. Mladan, D., Kekić, D., (2007). Vanredna situacija – prilog konceptualnom određenju bezbednosti, *Nauka-Bezbednost-Policija*, Beograd, Vol. XII, No. 3/07, p. 61-83.
4. Mladan D., Cvetković, V., (2012). *Deployment of police in emergency situations caused by the abuse of the weapons of mass destruction*, In Procesiding, International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days“, 01.-02. 03. 2012., Academy of criminalistic and police studies, Belgrade, Tom II, p. 533-547.
5. Milojković, B., Marinković, D., (2007). Sistemi za globalno pozicioniranje i njihov značaj u otkrivanju i dokazivanju krivičnih dela, *Nauka-Bezbednost-Policija*, Beograd, Vol. XII, No. 2/07, p. 41-59.
6. Milojković, B., (2007). Savremeni geotopografski materijali za potrebe policije – karakteristike i način korišćenja, *Bezbednost*, Beograd, Vol. 49, No. 4, p. 108 - 139.
7. Sakulski, D., (2013). *Mogućnost automatizovanog lociranja i dojave požara korišćenjem satelitske i informacione tehnologije*, U Zbornik radova, „Treće savetovanje u oblasti zaštite od požara“, Telfor, Beograd, p. 67-72.
8. Vojinović, M., Cvijetinović, Ž., Đokić, M., Obradović, A., (2012). *Primena GIS i LBS sistema za upravljanje flotom vozila u procesu optimizacije prikupljanja i prevoženja otpada*, U Zbornik radova, Naučno-stručna konferencija i izložba „INFOTEH 2012“, 28-31. maj 2012., Vrnjačka Banja, (<http://www.mapsoft.rs/dev/news/pdf/Primena-mobtrack24-otpadnaprivreda.pdf> 24.12.2013.)
9. Vojinović, M., (2013). *Primena sistema za nadzor voznog parka u kompanijama koje upravljaju otpadom – primer JKP Mediana Niš*, U Zbornik radova, Naučno-stručna konferencija „Ka održivom transportu“, TRANSPORTLog i Driverlog d.o.o., Novi Sad, p. 71-84.
10. Vratonjić, M., (2010). TETRA – evropski standard u profesionalnim radiokomunikacijama – korak ka efikasnijem i kvalitetnijem radu službi javne bezbednosti, *Telekomunikacije*, Beograd, Vol. 3. No. 5, (http://www.telekomunikacije.rs/arhiva_brojeva/peti_broj.302.html 24.12.2013.).

MICROCLIMATE CHANGES IN BASIN IN KOSTOLAC AS A CONSEQUENCE OF NEGATIVE INFLUENCE OF KOSTOLAC THERMAL POWER PLANTS¹

Assistant Professor **Stevo Jaćimovski**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Assistant Professor **Slobodan Miladinović**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: Great microclimate changes in basin Kostolac are the result of the negative influences of Kostolac thermal power plants and colliery "Drmno". Thermal power plants Kostolac A and Kostolac B emit great quantities of SO₂, NO_x (NO₂), CO, ash and slag into the atmosphere. In this work, by using Gaussian model for calculation of ground-level pollution concentration, we calculated total concentration of air pollution, which comes from different sources and from various components, and we defined distances to which the increased pollution spreads. Comparisons of influences which certain stability classes of atmosphere have on air quality, for different wind velocity and different temperatures have also been done. The comparisons have been done for sulfur oxides, as they are in highest percentage in flue gas.

Keywords: Kostolac thermal power plants, air pollution, flue gases, microclimate

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND PHYSICAL- GEOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Mining-energy basin Kostolac in the broadest sense belongs to the area between the Velika Morava in the west, Golubac mountains in the east, the Danube in the north and Mlava basin in the south. Basic morphostructural elements of the terrain are Stig, the Danube region and lower Morava region as representatives of lowland relief and Sopotska and Bozevacka greda, low hills with elements of terraced character. The plain of Stig represents a relief unit with clear boundaries in the east with Bozevacka kosa and in the west with Sopotska greda. The southern boundary is the beginning of middle stream of the Mlava, while in the north it merges with the Danube region without visible morphological crossing.

Genetically and morphologically Stig is plain, mildly wavy, lower part of inherited Mlava valley, created in neogene lacustrine(lake) phase on the south edge of Pannonian basin. After the retreat of the lake, fluvial and eolian processes and creation of loess deposits (sediments) have the main role. Exploration drillings show that in the structure of the terrain the most common are Tertiary sediments (silty clay, sand and coal) and quaternary sediments, loess deposits of sand with gravel and coal. The broad alluvial plains of the Mlava and the Danube, which are connected with Klepec, do not exceed 100 meters above sea level. The highest point within a radius of 20 kilometers is up to 300 meters of absolute altitude. Bozevac declivity represents a northwestern outgrowth of Homolje mountains (D. Stepanovic 2011). Topographically it is a low watershed between the Mlava in the west and the Pek in the east, whose altitude hardly exceeds 300 meters above sea level (Veliko brdo 312m).

¹ There are different names for this morphotectonic unit. On OGK 1: 100 000 according to the interpreter for Bela Crkva 1-2, it is Kostolacka greda (Rakic, 1980.), and according to the interpreter for Pozarevac 1-2, it is Pozarevacka greda (Malesevic and others 1978.) According to O. Miletic-Spajic (1960.) in the southern parts it is Sopotska greda.



Picture 1. Geographical position of mining-energy basin
(Source: Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B, 2010)

Regressive erosion of source parts of the streams and rivers which from Bozevačka kosa flow towards the Mlava and the Pek change the direction of stretching. Sopotska greda starts from Gornjak mountains and ends on the Danube near Kostolac. It also represents watershed between the Mlava and the Velika Morava. It is bordered by 100 meters contour, while the highest point hardly reaches 200 meters in the southern part, from where they descend towards north to the level of the Danube bed. The direction was determined by two parallel cleavages which make it have horst character.

The existing relief has been substantially changed by anthropogenic factors, that is to say, by long-term exploitation of lignite on open pit mine "Drmno", "Ćirikovac" and "Klenovik". Huge depressions were created on one side, at places of colliery, and on the other side deposited material from the waste rock, slag and ash from thermal power plants Kostolac A and Kostolac B, which make 50 meters high hills. Even contemporary geomorphological processes such as colluvial movement, weathering, proluvial processes, mass sliding, ground subsidence and flow of sand mass can be noticed. Colluvial processes occur on slopes of work and storage levels, on slopes of beams, which makes changes of relief, that is, reduction and mitigation of slope inclination occur. These phenomena are particularly the characteristics of deserted pit "Ćirikovac" and "Drmno", where exploiting of lignite is done. Weathering refers to washing out of tiny particles in the ground level layer and depositing in lower terrains, much more in untreated surfaces, and less on recultivated terrains under arable lands, orchards, vineyards and partly pastures. Mass sliding is inevitable consequence of mining works and it occurs in zones of coal exploiting and dumps.

Coal basin Kostolac covers an area of around 100 km², with the settlement Kostolac in the center (44°43' northern latitude and 21°14' eastern longitude), and a wider area of complete mining-energy basin which is about 400 km² where reserves of lignite, brown and stone coal are explored (J. Djordjevic and others 2011).

The area of Kostolac basin belongs to the southern part of Pannonian basin, which is characterized by humid continental climate with elements of steppe-continental influence of neighbouring Banat. The vicinity of Djerdap glen contributes to the powerful influence of Kosava on climate circumstances and on the quality of the environment. The nearest meteorological station, which tracks weather conditions in Kostolac basin, is situated in Veliko Gradiste. Processing of climatic elements was done for the period 1990-2009. The air temperature is one of the basic climatic elements and the important indicator of the climate of an area. By analyzing average monthly and average annual air temperatures for the above mentioned meteorological station, we realized that average annual temperature is 11,5^o C, the coldest month is January with the average temperature of 0,4^oC, and the warmest month is July with the average temperature of 22,3^oC. the temperature amplitude is 21,9^oC, which indicates the continentality of climates. Air humidity and fog have great influence on atmosphere condition. These two atmospheric elements are mostly followed by temperature changes. Evaporation is the most intense in the vegetation period and it is 76% of overall evaporation, in the period June-April it is 46,9% of the value. The average relative humidity in ground level zones is 70%, because of that, this area is considered moderately humid. Average number of days with fog, which lasts longer than one day is 19 days. Two-day fog period happens once in five days. The fog frequently occurs in autumn. According to total and average monthly precipitation heights, we can conclude that continental fluviometric regime of rainfall prevails in Stig with average precipitation quantity of 676,9 mm. The precipitation is highest in June (84,1mm) and May (82,4 mm), and the lowest is September (43,1mm) and October (44,1mm). By seasons, the highest precipitation is in summer 29,7%, then in spring 27,5%, and in winter it is 22,3%, the lowest precipitation is in autumn 20,7%. This region is characterized by a very dry and cold winters with little snowfall. The land is covered with snow on average 35 days per year. Height of snow cover is 15-30 cm. The highest quantity of snow was in February in 2009, 33 cm (D. Stepanovic, 2011). Airflow, that is winds, which directly or indirectly influence numerous human activities and the quality of the environment is of great importance for climate conditions, air temperature, evaporation, cloudiness and precipitation. The most common wind in Kostolac basin and Stig is the wind from souteastern direction with frequency of 235 ‰, the second most common is the wind from eastern direction 225 ‰. After they exit Djerdap glen these winds reach great velocity and force. Plain character of topographic surfaces and absence of physical barriers allow that this wind, known as Kosava, flows freely, primarily through lower parts of the Pek valley, area known as Branicevo, and then over Bozevacka greda, with the same force also through Stig. This wind is the main problem since it spreads polluting substances and ash into the environment, and not only it spreads ash and covers settlements, but it also causes plants to dry out. The winds from western quadrant are the second by frequency, its frequency is 166 ‰, while northwestern wind has slightly smaller frequency of 125 ‰. Both winds represent airflow from the Atlantic ocean and bring rainfall during whole year. Stig is known as one of the most windy areas in Serbia with very small frequency of stillness which is only 62 ‰.

MINING-ENERGY BASIN KOSTOLAC

The occurrence of coal in Basin Kostolac is connected to geological history of the Balkans peninsula and this part of Serbia. In geological period Pliocene, Pannonian sea was divided into range of connected lakes. In the water of these lakes and on their shores specific lush vegetation was formed, from which through million year period special conditions for forming fossilization and coal were created. Coal basin Kostolac was discovered in 1870. The first drill hole was created in 1890. Over 1000 exploring drillings have been done so far in order to estimate the power and quality of coal layers for further exploitation. In wider area of the basin three coal layers were discovered. According to explored coal reserves Kostolac basin is on the third place in Serbia, right behind Kolubara and Kosovo basin, and according to intensity of exploitation and production of over 9 million tons a year it is on the second place, right behind Kolubara coal basin. According to estimation of experts from faculty of mining and Geology in Belgrade, reserves of 300 million tons, arranged in two coal layers, are sufficient for activity of existing power plants and planned new block of 350 megawatts until the end of their exploiting life.

West from the Velika Morava a new finding is being explored, it is estimated to possess 500 million tons of coal reserves. Production of Kostolac collieries is mostly used for power plants needs, and smaller part for consumer goods. For undisturbed work of four blocks of power plants in Kostolac with total force of near 1000 MW, and if we include 500 000 t of "piece coal" for consuming, production of 9,5 million tons is needed. The government of Serbia has made a decision on building block C₁ so agreement on building this block with power of 350MW with Chinese company "CMEC" has already been signed, which will result with increased annual production of coal to 12 million tons. Production in 2012 was about 9 700 000 tons.

Mining-energy basin Kostolac, besides collieries, consists of two thermal power plants Kostolac A and Kostolac B, which produce about 12% of total production of electric energy in system of Electric Power Industry of Serbia. Thermal power plant Kostolac A, it is situated in Kostolac settlement, consists of two blocks; A₁ and A₂, with total installed capacity of 281 MW (100+281). TPP Kostolac B, known as Drmno, is situated on the right bank of the Mlava, near village Drmno and 5km away from the right bank of the Danube. Towards the east of TPP at a distance of nearly 1 km there is homonymous open pit mine from which the power plant is supplied with coal. As well as Kostolac A, Kostolac B also consists of block B₁ and block B₂ with installed capacity of 2x348,5 MW. Annual production of electric energy of all four blocks of power plants Kostolac is close to 6 billion KWh a year.

A ₁	A ₂	B ₁	B ₂	Total gross (MWh)
759.999	1 537.146	2 561.225	790.296	5 648 666

*Table 1. Production of electric energy in Kostolac power plants in 2012
(Source :Department of Environmental Management of Business Association
power plants and collieries Kostolac)*

ENVIRONMENTAL STATE

The state of atmosphere and the quality of the environment in Kostolac basin are the consequence of impact of industrial objects Business Association of power plant and collieries Kostolac. Combustion of coal in boilers of the power plants, creating of dust from open pit mines Drmno, Cirikovac and Klenovik and dumps of slag and ash are great modifiers of microclimate of this area. By combustion of around 9 million tons of coal and by deposition of more than 2 million tons of ash a year, conditions for altering the quality of air, surface and ground waters are created. the greatest alterations are caused by emission of flue gases, powder materials and by production of ash and slag.

By quick combustion of coal in power plant boilers, at high temperatures, great quantity of gases such as CO₂, SO₂, NO₂, CO, O₃, tiny particles of soot and ash (powder and suspended particles PM), with traces of mineral and metal is released into the atmosphere for a period of several seconds. These gases are known as factors of green house effect, and they contribute to destroying the ozone layer also. Special attention, referring to quality of the environment, has been paid to group of gases sulfur oxide (SO_x) and nitric oxide (NO_x). Their influence on microclimate changes is manifested in increase of ozone concentration in ground levels of the atmosphere, in creation of acid rains, changes in chemical composition of the soil and water ecosystems, forest drying and creation of smog. It is widely known that during combustion of coal, at temperatures higher than 15000 °C there is a quick oxidation of sulfur and nitric compounds into sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and nitrous oxide which right after they leave the chimney oxidize into sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and nitric dioxide (NO₂). In the atmosphere, sulfur dioxide together with other gases such as ozone (O₃) or water make compound and transform into sulfuric or sulfurous acid, and nitric oxide into nitric or nitrous acid. In ground levels by further chemical processes ozone or smog can occur (J. Djordjevic-Miloradovic, 2012). Today there are different opinions about the further movement of nitrate oxides through atmosphere. One group

of explorers considers that they, after they leave the chimneys of power plants, are transported to faraway distances, and the other group of scientists thinks that they greatly influence the state of microclimate in local environment. Due to the great influence of these elements to state and quality of the environment, there have been set limits for sulfur dioxide concentration to 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, nitrite oxide to 85 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and powder materials to 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in ground level of air. Total annual damage caused by air pollution and green house effects in our country, has been assessed between 0,45 and 1,37 billion of euros, or between 1,8% и 5,5% GDP .

EMISSIONS OF SO_2 , NO_x (NO_2), CO AND SUSPENDED PARTICLES OF PM

Thermal power plants Kostolac, by emission of polluting materials, above all with flue gas and ash, represent the dominant source of atmosphere pollution. Flue gas is the product of combustion of fuels, in this specific case of coal, and represents a mixture of gases (sulfur dioxide, nitric dioxide, carbon monoxide, fluoride and chloride), whose concentration depends on fuel characteristics. Besides gases, fuel gas contains solid particles which are the product of incomplete combustion of fuel, such as soot, and influences of mineral components in the fuel (ash). The most prevalent element in fuel gas is sulfur dioxide with about 97%.

We have analyzed the data on emission of polluting materials for year 2012.

Emission, mass concentration of polluting materials in air for 2010							
Organizational Unit Block	TE KOSTOLAC A		TE KOSTOLAC B		Limit value		
	A1	A2	B1	B2			
mg/Nm^3							
Boiler	K1	K2				LV ¹	LV ²
SO_2	6 814	6 876	7 074	5 533	5 597	650	400
NO_x (NO_2)	443	346	434	557	460	450	500
CO	38	35	19	41	40	250	-
Powder materials	942	93	145	229	302	50	50

Table 2. Emission of polluting materials of power plants Kostolac in 2010.
(Source :Department of Environmental Management of Business Association power plants and collieries Kostolac)

It can be seen in table 2 that emission of SO_2 in fuel gases in thermal power plants Kostolac A and Kostolac B exceeds maximal allowed values defined in domestic and EU regulations. The measured values range from 5758 to 6582 mg/Nm^3 . Limit values defined in EU regulation, Directive 2001/80/EC has been shown in table 3.

Solid fuels	500-100 MW ₁	100-500 MW ₁	> 500 ₁
Solid	2000	2000-400 The linear dependence	400

Table 3. Limit values of emission of SO_2 for systems with solid fuel in accordance with the regulation of European Union²

² In cases when limit values cannot be reached due to the characteristics of used fuel, with systems whose power is less or equal to 100 MW₁, level of making sulfur must be decreased (desulfurization) from at least 60%, with systems whose power is higher than 100 MW₁ and less or equal to 300, the level of desulfurization must be 75% и -90%, and with systems whose power is higher than 300 MW₁. With systems whose power is higher than 500 MW₁, the percentage of lowering of sulfur must be 94

Source: Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B, 20

Organizational Unit block	t/year				
	Powder materials	SO ₂	NO _x	CO	CO ₂
PP Kostolac A					
Block A1	865	12 566	717	68	752 178
Block A2	828	40 435	2 478	110	1 598 124
Total	1 693	53 001	3 195	178	2 350 302
PP Kostolac B					
Block B1	1 667	40 132,54	4 041	295	2 268 048
Block B2	1 002	18 594,91	1 529	134	1 041 159
Total	2 669	58 727	5 570	429	3 309 207
Total ПД of PP Kostolac	4 362	111 728	8 765	607	5 659 509

Table 4. Total emission of polluting materials in air for 2010
(Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B)

Table 2 and 4 show great exceedances in emission of fuel gas particles. Power plant Kostolac A, emitted up to 10 times higher quantity of powder materials than allowed quantities. In the last few years, work of electro-filters of thermal power plant Kostolac has been improved. After the reconstruction of boiler B₂ of thermal power plant Kostolac B, concentration of particles which is emitted by this power plant is about 200 mg/ m³, but sometimes with exceedances which are up to 700 mg/ m³. Regardless of great efficiency of electro filters, they cannot absorb particles smaller than 10 microns, which are very hazardous for wildlife. It is necessary to reconstruct existing electro-filter systems because of more efficient protection and decrease of particles concentration to 50 mg/ m³ which is defined in Directives of EU.

Type of fuel	Thermal power MW	Limit value of emission of particles mg/Nm ³
solid	≥ 500	50
	< 500	100

Table 5. Limit values of emission of particles defined by EU Directive on big stoke holes
(Source: Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B, 2010.)

ASH PRODUCTION

In boilers of Public company Electric power Industry of Serbia on average 32 000 000 t of lignite from coal basin Kolubara and Kostolac combust, where around 6 000 000t of ash is produced. (Kisic D. and others, 2012). By combustion of 9 million tons of coal in Kostolac power plants, 2 million tons of ash is created. During combustion of coal, there are two types of ash, stokehole ashes which can be of great fineness, created by combustion of pulverized coal, and ash contained in gases which are product of combustion. This type of ash is characterized by electro filters, so they are in professional literature often named electro-filter ashes.

Name of thermal power plant	Work hours of blocks	Consumption of coal	Ash	Production of ash	Moist	Calorific value of coal
	h	t	%	t	%	KJ/kg
PP Kostolac A ₁	7520	1122857	23.41	262860.824	40.42	7885
Boiler 1			22.73		40.83	7925
Boiler 2			24.09		40.00	7845
PP Kostolac A ₂	7248	2223039	24.09	535530.095	39.72	7823
Total PP Kostolac A				798390.919		
PP Kostolac B ₁	7133	3275238	22.18	726447.788	40.23	8480
PP Kostolac B ₂	2190	933628	22.08	206145.062	40.11	8536
Total PP Kostolac B				932592.851		
Total Kostolac A + Kostolac B				1730983.77		

Table 6. Production of ash in Kostolac Thermal power plants in (Source :Department of Environmental Management of Business Association power plants and collieries Kostolac)

Great production of ashes caused the appliance of a new technologies of transport and disposition of ash. Recent way of disposition of ash and slag by thin hydro mixture(1:10 ash water ratio), has been replaced with ecologically better technical solution, so called thick hydro mixture (1:10 ash water ratio). Old dump in Middle Kostolac Island is replaced with the area of open pit mine "Cirikovac". New technology for disposition of ash decreased the area of disposition, smaller quantity of water is needed, there is no pollution on surface or ground waters by using foil, eolian erosion is prevented and with this atmosphere pollution is prevented also. More modern way of disposition of ash enables segregation of dry ash which can be used in construction business.

If waste ash of Kostolac power plants made in one year was evenly distributed over the area of Pozarevac territory (491 km²), it would make 8mm layer. (Lj. Miljkovic and others, 2010).

As a potential hazard from ashes of power plants is also radioactivity of the ashes. Coal is mostly made of organic materials, while some elements which are consisted are slightly radioactive. Among these elements are Uranium (U), Thorium (Th), including products of their decomposition there are Radium (Ra) and Radon (Rn). During the combustion of coal most of U and Th and their products of decomposition leave their structure and are arranged between gas phase and solid products of combustion. Total quantities of radon in coal transform into gas, and

during combustion they are released through emission. On the contrary less gaseous element such as thorium and uranium and most of products of their decomposition are kept in solid waste, such as ash and slag. (D. Kisić and others, 2012). Expert team of explorers from Institute for Nuclear Sciences in Vinča, Electric Industry of Serbia, Mining basin Kolubara and Chemical Faculty Of Belgrade University did the examination about whether the radioactive ash of PP Kolubara could be used in construction purposes. They concluded that natural radionuclides, during combustion, could be concentrated in solid products of coal combustion (ash and slag). In that way ash and slag can have increased quantities of natural radionuclides. In those cases it is a matter of technologically increased natural radio-activity. That also refers to PP Kostolac, since coal analysis which this group of authors has done, showed that coal from Kostolac and Krepoljin basin has higher content of uranium, and Krepoljin basin has the greatest content of thorium comparing to other coal basins in Serbia (D. Kisić and others, 2012). Measurements which were done by Laboratory for Radiation and Environmental Protection, Vinča Institute (2006), showed that there was no increased radioactivity caused by PP Kostolac performance.

MODEL FOR CALCULATION OF CONCENTRATION OF AIR POLLUTION

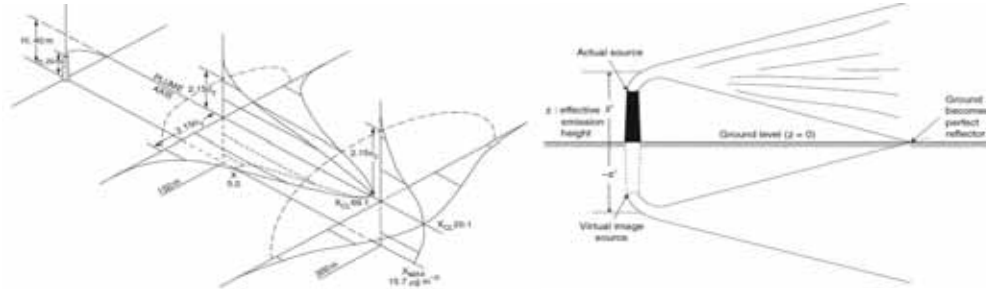
By using mathematical model in this work, we established the state of air pollution, by simulation of spreading hazardous materials for different anticipated intensities of emission in known topographical, urban and meteorological situations. With this model real picture connected to dispersion of pollutants is achieved, which can be helpful as a base for calculating potential hazards and technical solving systems of protection.

Gaussian Model

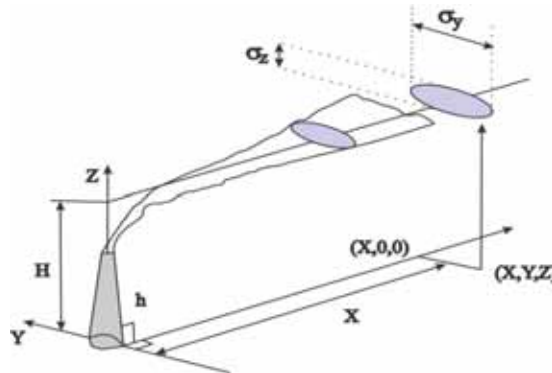
The simplest model for the calculation of ground concentrations of pollution is the statistical Gaussian model. These types of models are mostly used for practical realization of air quality. on the basis of this model is the assumption that impurities emitted by continuous point source make smoke column in which symmetric arrangement of particle concentration in regard to axis of smoke column can be noticed. The basic equation of statistical Gaussian model is composed of two functions of probability of normal law of arrangement and have form (Lazaridis 2011)

$$C(x, y, z) = \frac{Q}{2\sigma_y(x)\sigma_z(x)\bar{u}} \exp\left(-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma_y^2(x)}\right) \left\{ \exp\left[-\frac{(z-H)^2}{2\sigma_z^2(x)}\right] + \exp\left[-\frac{(z+H)^2}{2\sigma_z^2(x)}\right] \right\}$$

where Q is –mass flow; C –concentration of impurities in particular point in the space; $\sigma_y(x)$, $\sigma_z(x)$ dispersion of diffusion in the direction of appropriate axes, which depend on meteorological conditions and distances which a particle crosses from source to the point with x coordinate, where it is assumed that the direction of the axes OX is equal to the direction of wind vector; \bar{u} –average velocity of wind at measurement level; H –effective height of the source.



Picture 2. Graphical display of assumed spreading of air pollution with Gaussian (taken from Lazaridis 2011)



Picture 3. Graphical display of dispersion of smoke column from source (Jacimovski, 2013)

In equation (14) σ_y, σ_z are horizontal and vertical dispersion of impurities distribution. For assessment of these dispersions following relations are used.

$$\sigma_y = A a^x; \sigma_z = B b^x$$

where A, a, B, b are coefficients which depend on stability of atmosphere and relief area and are experimentally defined. Stability of atmosphere is defined through Pasquill-Gifford system of stability classification, which distinguishes six classes of stability, starting from A (highly unstable) to F (highly stable).

		A	a	B	b
Highly unstable	A	0,527	0,865	0,28	0,90
unstable	B	0,371	0,866	0,23	0,85
Slightly unstable	C	0,209	0,897	0,22	0,80
		A	a	B	b
neutral	D	0,128	0,905	0,20	0,76
stable	E	0,098	0,902	0,15	0,73
Highly stable	F	0,065	0,902	0,12	0,67

Table 7. Parameters for calculating dispersion (Lazaridis, 2011)

With analysis of impact of power plants Kostolac A and Kostolac B on air quality (average one-hour concentrations) software of American Agency for Environment protection SSREEN VIEW 3.5.0, licence number E474AA382E2AE61A for calculation of concentration of sulfur oxides and powder materials has been used for this work, and following input parameters are used:

- The smokestack height
- The inner diameter of the smokestack
- Mass flow and velocity of fuel gases at the exit of smokestacks
- The temperature of fuel gases at the exit
- Characteristics of the terrain around the power plant (rural and urban areas, absolute height, topographical characteristics)
- State of the atmosphere referring to wind velocity

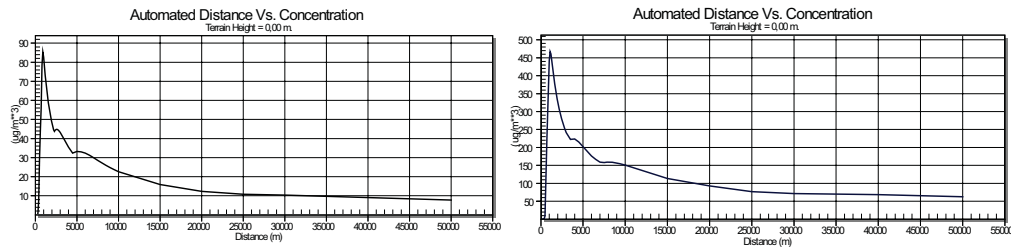
With model for calculating ground concentration of air pollution, climate elements data for period 1990-2009, which are processed at physical-geographic characteristics, have been used. It is known that minimum of monitoring the climate elements is for 10 years in order to correctly determine climate characteristics. That is why with modeling, production parameters for December 2008 have been considered in order to get the real ratio of emission of gases and the state of the atmosphere at that moment.

PARAMETER	KOSTOLAC A1	KOSTOLAC A2	KOSTOLAC B
The smokestack height [m]	105	110	250
The inner diameter of the smokestack [m]	5	6,02	9,5
Temperature of fuel gases at the exit [°C]	190	200	170
Mass flow SO _x [g/s]	24,4	403	1410,8
Mass flow NO _x [g/s]	16,6	33,1	116
Mass flow PM [g/s]	24,4	48,8	170,8

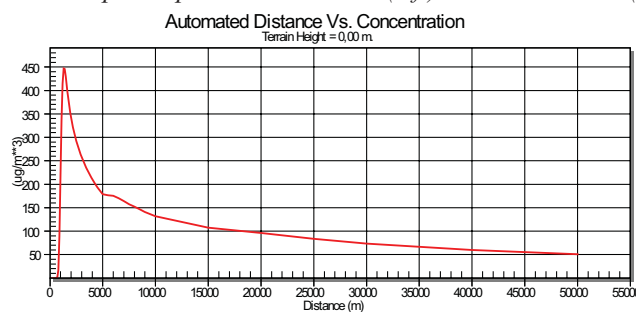
Table 8. Production parameters in power plants Kostolac in December 2008 (J. Djordjevic-Miloradovic, 2012)

According to the annual report of the Republic Hydrometeorological service, we calculated that average monthly temperature in December 2008 in Kostolac basin was 3,3 °C. The same year in December stability class D and stability class F prevailed. During the calculation it is adopted that the terrain is characterized by lowland and plains features. The thermal power plants are in the Mlava valley, known by the name Stig, which is bordered by the Pek valley in the east, and 20 km wide valley of the Velika Morava in the west. The northern border represents area of the Danube which farther towards north leans on Pannonian lowlands. That means that on distances greater than 20km there are no significant rises which would stop or slow down polluting materials from emission sources, that is Kostolac power plants. It is also adopted that thermal power plants Kostolac are situated in rural area.

After the analysis for mentioned parameters have been done, the results are the following.



Picture 4. Concentration of SO_x dependant on distances from the source with thermal power plants Kostolac A1 (left) and Kostolac A2 (right)

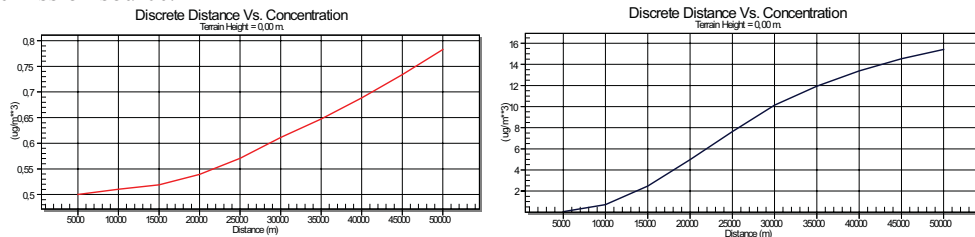


Picture 5. Concentration of SO_x dependant on distances from source with thermal power plants Kostolac B

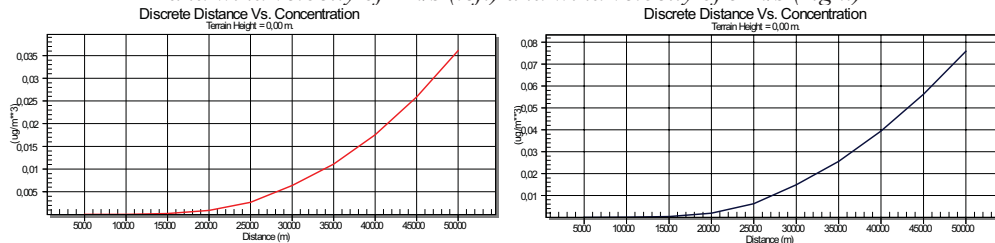
From picture 4 it can be seen that with thermal power plant Kostolac A1, maximum concentration of polluting materials is $85,39 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 906m from emission source, with thermal power plant A2 maximum concentration is $467,5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1122m, while with Kostolac B, (picture 5) maximum concentration is $410,2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1381m. In case of thermal power plant Kostolac A2, concentration of SO_x is above the allowed and is $150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance from 700m to 10000m, and with thermal power plant B at distances from 600m to 7500m. As we pointed out in the introduction, Stig belongs to one of the most windy areas in Serbia. The most common wind is from southeastern direction, the second most common is the wind from eastern direction. These winds also have great vicinity and power. That means that these winds carry polluting materials far away into the west and northwest. In that way big cities such as Pozarevac and Smederevo are endangered. by topographic measurement it can be seen that Pancevo is endangered as well. Emission of SO_x with thermal power plant Kostolac A1 does not exceed allowed limit value. Considering that total concentration of the same type is equal to the sum of individual concentrations, it can be concluded that concentrations of SO_x below the allowed limit of $150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at distances greater than 35km from the source.

If nitric oxides are considered, similar distribution can be noticed as with sulfur oxides. At thermal power plant Kostolac A1, maximum concentration is $12,88 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1144m, thermal power plant Kostolac A2 emits maximum concentration of $29,15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1102m, while at thermal power plant Kostolac B maximum concentration $33,75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1381m. In each case concentration of nitric oxides is below limit value of $85 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Sum concentration of nitric oxides is also below allowed limit value.

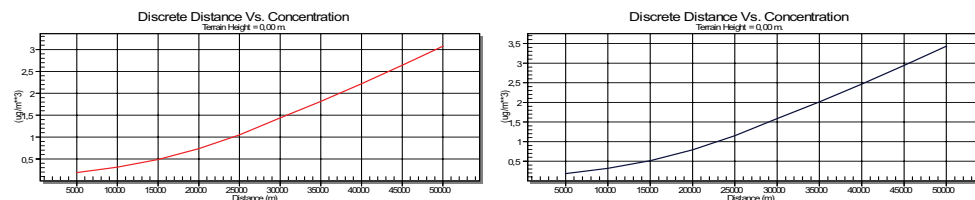
By analyzing powder and suspended particles, it can be noticed that maximum concentration at thermal power plant Kostolac A1 $46,91 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 962m, thermal power plant Kostolac A2 emits maximum concentration of $42,55 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1102m, while at thermal power plant Kostolac B maximum concentration is $49,69 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at a distance of 1381m. The limited value for PM particles is $50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Single values do not exceed limited values. Total concentration of PM particles is less than allowed at distances greater than 7000m from emission source.



Picture 6. Distribution of SO_x concentration for class D at temperature of 3.3°C and wind velocity of 1m/s (left) and wind velocity of 5m/s (right)



Picture 7. Distribution of SO_x concentration for stability class F at temperature of 3.3°C and wind velocity of 1m/s (left) and wind velocity of 4m/s (right)



Picture 8. Distribution of SO_x concentration for stability class D at temperature of 3.3°C (left) and $11,26^\circ\text{C}$ (right)

Comparisons of influences of certain stability classes have on air quality have also been done, for different wind velocity and different temperatures. The comparisons for sulfur oxides have been done since they are contained in the highest percentage in flue gas. In December 2008 class D and F of atmosphere stability were the most contained in percentage, so the comparisons have been done for these stability classes.

In graphs 7 and 8 the increase in air temperature in the environment for the same stability class of atmosphere can be seen, it causes the increase of polluting materials concentration comparing to values at lower temperatures. Although greater wind velocity should cause lower concentrations, (which is the result of equation 1), modeling results show the increase of concentration with the increase of wind velocity for the same stability class of atmosphere. That indicates that other factors which influence the distribution are prevailing. During windy periods Aeolian erosion, rising and spreading of tiny ash fractions occur. The measurements showed that exceeding of sedimentary particles emission are highest in Stari Kostolac and Kostolac, which are closest to the dump. In case of thermal power plant Kostolac B, the greatest

pollutants are surface sources of overburden, open limestone dumps, ash dumps and plaster dump. Particles from dumps mostly pollute direct environment, at graph 6 and 7 it can be seen that hazardous materials concentration under the same conditions is higher for atmosphere stability class D (neutral), than for class F (highly stable).

Distance in km	Concentration C_1 , SOx [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	Concentration C_2 , NO _x [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	Concentration C_3 , PM [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$]	$K_1=C_1/GV_1$	$K_2=C_2/GV_2$	$K_3=C_3/GV_3$	P
1	687,67	52,64	106,8	4,58	0,62	2,14	5,1
2	694,73	55,42	96,94	4,63	0,65	1,94	5,06
3	523,88	41,21	74,46	3,49	0,48	1,49	3,83
4	454,58	35,64	64,25	3,03	0,42	1,28	3,31
5	401,99	31,68	56,17	2,68	0,37	1,12	2,93
6	367,93	28,89	51,41	2,45	0,34	1,03	2,68
7	341,05	26,68	48,61	2,27	0,31	0,97	2,49
8	326,47	25,09	45,79	2,18	0,3	0,92	2,38
9	312,29	24,27	43,41	2,08	0,28	0,87	2,27
10	295,56	23,19	41,31	1,97	0,27	0,83	2,15
15	231,68	18,67	32,78	1,54	0,22	0,66	1,69
20	193,88	15,51	26,84	1,29	0,18	0,54	1,41
25	164,75	13,28	22,9	1,1	0,16	0,46	1,2
30	150,08	12,07	20,93	1	0,14	0,42	1,09
40	133,1	11,06	18,8	0,89	0,13	0,38	0,97
50	116,87	9,9	16,62	0,78	0,12	0,33	0,86

Table 9. Distribution of concentrations of different components dependant on distance from the source

Calculation of total air pollution concentration, which comes from different sources and from different components, is a complex problem. Total concentration of homogenous substances which come from different sources is get by simple summing, which is for different components given in table 10 as C_1 , C_2 and C_3 . Then, for all the components reduced coefficients are calculated. (Vnukov A.K., 1992)

$$K_i = \frac{C_i}{GV_i}; i = 1, 2, 3$$

Here GV_i are the limited values for particular components. Result for atmosphere pollution for simultaneous activity of more components is determined using the complex coefficient.

$$P = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^3 K_i^2}$$

The dependence of complex coefficient P on number of pollutants and the level of pollution is known from the literature (Vnukov A.K., 1992). That dependance is given in table 11.

Level of atmosphere pollution	Number of pollutants			
	2-3	4-9	10-20	Преко 20
I allowed	2	3	4	5
II weak	2,1-4	3,1-6	4,1-8	5,1-10
III moderate	4,1-8	6,1-12	8,1-16	10,1-20
IV strong	8,1-16	12,1-24	16,1-32	20,1-40
Vvery strong	>16	>24	>32	>40

Table 10. Values of complex coefficient P dependant on number of pollutants and the level of pollution

For the analysed case we can see in this work that the level of pollution is moderate at a distance of 3km, weak at distances from 10 to 15km and allowed at greater distances.

The pollution problem from thermal power plants Kostolac is evident. In this work one case is analysed from December 2008 for three most frequent components in flue gas. All modeling results at spreading of polluting materials are derived by screening methods and by using average annual and monthly meteorological data characteristic for Kostolac Basin. It is obvious that the greatest pollution is caused by sulfur oxides components. total pollution exceeds allowed limit values to 15km from the source for the analysed case. The results are not favorable when all the components which cause air pollution are considered since deposited materials of Kostolac basin are present in all phases of coal production and electric energy. Appearance of floating dust is connected to forming overburdens of open pit mines, grinding and combustion of coal, releasing of particles while coal combustion to the huge production of ash and its storage.

CONCLUSION

The application of the law in the area of the environmental protection involves harmonizing of our regulations with regulations of European Union. One of the most important jobs is the adoption of policies and procedures for air protection by decreasing hazardous materials emission on the pollution source. If limit values of emissions of SO₂ in flue gas are considered, thermal power plants Kostolac, concerning the installed power, must decrease exit concentration of SO₂, for more than 94%, in order to reach values lower than 400 mg/Nm³, under full charge of blocks and combustion of low quality coal. The greatest influence on air pollution, concerning spreading of sulfur oxide emission, is in Kostolac power plant vicinity, at a distance of 15km from the source in the direction of the dominant wind. Besides Pozarevac, increased level of pollution is also the problem in surrounding settlements such as Kostolac, Ćirikovac, Bradarac, Klenovik and Petka. (Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B, 2010.)

Nitric oxides emission does not exceed limited values determined by the law so far. However, it should be pointed out that European Union already prepares adopting of stricter regulations by which maximum allowed emission of NO_x from currently allowed value of 400 mg/Nm³ will be decreased to 200 mg/Nm³, starting from January 1st 2016. According to current nitric oxide emission, thermal power plants Kostolac exceed new limitations and hence they must search for solutions to decrease their emission, since current projects for desulfurization of flue gases do not anticipate the decrease of nitric oxides.

Electric Power Industry of Serbia is obliged since 20015 to find the solution for decreasing sulfur oxide emission on existing blocks. A study has been done "Directions for optimal decrease of sulfur oxide emission from thermal power plants of Electric Power Industry of Serbia", and the first power plant in which desulfurization system will be installed is thermal power plant Kostolac B. On existing smokestacks of thermal power plant Kostolac, as a protection measure,

installation of electro filters for filtering particles of flue gases has been done, but measures for decreasing sulfur oxides emission have not been done, so in tables above we can see that they greatly exceed the allowed values. The characteristics of Kostolac lignite which is exploited in open pit mine "Drmno" are low heating power, relatively high content of moist and ash and total content of sulfur of 1,3%. (Selection of optimal technical solutions for desulfurization of flue gases at thermal power plant Kostolac B, 2010). Using this type of fuel is the cause of high concentration of SO₂ in flue gases which in Thermal power plant Kostolac B range from 5000 to 7000 mg/m³, and the specific sulfur emission is around kg/MNJh, which was one of the most important criteria to choose TPP Kostolac B as the first thermal power plant in Electric power industry in which desulfurization system will be installed. Project for desulfurization system have been done by the consortium: The Faculty of Machine Engineering and Faculty of Mining and Geology, University of Belgrade, Worley Parsons a company from the United States of America and Energoprojekt-entel from Belgrade. Desulfurization system consists of plant for purification of flue gases by wet process, so called gas washing with limestone suspension, which is done in the part of the plant called absorber. gas washing is done by introducing flue gas into the absorber into which limestone suspension in the shape of rain or drops is introduced. In that process sulfuroxide connects to limestone calcium and plaster in the shape of suspension is formed. The plaster is then transported on the dump and is prepared for further use, and the purified gases are released into the atmosphere. Plaster suspension which is formed as a product of the desulfurization process, is a potential raw material for producing plaster. For satisfying quality of the plaster it is necessary to install electro filter of high quality in order to reduce the quantity of flue gas particles. The plant is large in size and consists of more units such as: absorber, flue gas heater, limestone suspension preparation system, preparation of limestone, pump stations, waste waters treatment system, plaster drying system, plaster storage system (D. Stojiljkovic and others, 2009). The planned increase in production for 30% will surely influence the increase in pollution adequately.

Besides modern technological solutions, possibility of plants to contribute to so called green technology by absorbing should not be neglected. It includes growing of forests near the pollutants and protection areas near settlements.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS: This work has been done within the project of the Ministry of education, science and technological development of the Republic of Serbia, number TR 34019.

REFERENCES

1. Внуков А.К. (1992) Защита атмосферы от выбросов энергообъектов: Справочник, Энергоатомиздат, Москва, ст. 134-138.
2. Djordjevic-Miloradovic J., Miloradovic D., Savic N.: (2012). Recultivation and greening of landfills, ash and tailing ponds in Kostolac RIO Kostolac pp. 72-84
3. Report of the Department of Environmental Management of Business Association power plants and collieries Kostolac (2009).
4. Jacimovski S., Miladinovic S. Radovanovic R. Ilijazi V. : (2013) Distribution of the concentration of sulphur dioxide into the atmosphere from point source, International conference Ecology of urban areas 2013, Zrenjanin, University of Novi Sad, Technical Faculty „Mihajlo Pupin“ pp. 50-58
5. Jovovic A. et al. : (2009) Analysis of the distribution of pollutant emissions from new wet stack Kostolac B, Termotehnika, XXXV, 2, pp. 177-192
6. Jovovic A. et al. (2010) Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B
7. Kusic D. et al. (2012): Natural radioactivity of coal and floating ash in a power plant "Nikola Tesla B" Electric Power Industry of Serbia, Belgrade,
8. Consortium: The Faculty of Machine Engineering and Faculty of Mining and Geology, University of Belgrade, Worley Parsons and Energoprojekt-entel (2010) :

-
- Study on estimation of impact on environment-Desulphurization of flue gases of thermal power plant Kostolac B, Belgrade, pp. 15-42, 86-114
9. Laziridiš M. (2011). *First principles of Meteorology and Air Pollutant*, Springer, New York, pp.201-232
 10. Malešević and others., (1980): Interpreter for Pozarevac newspaper L34-115. Basic geological map:100
 11. 000, State geological survey
 12. Miletić-Spačić O. (1960): Display of Sarmatian and Pannonian fauna of ostracods in Mlava basin and Sopot beam. *Geological Annals of the Balkan peninsula XXVII*, pp. 253-267, Belgrade
 13. Miljković Lj., Stepanović M, Miladinović S. :((2010), Physical and geographical changes occurred as a result of the exploitation of lignite in open pit mine "Drmno" *UDK 911.2 Proceedings of the Department of Geography, Tourism and Hotel Management no 38*, Novi Sad, pp. 20-34
 14. Stojiljković D. et al., (2009): Selection of optimal technical solutions for desulfurization of flue gases at thermal power plant Kostolac B Professional work UDK: 622.992.84:620.92 Thermo techics, XXXV, pp. 3-4, 231–249, Belgrade
 15. Stepanović D.M.,(2011): Recent geomorphological changes in Stig, dissertation in manuscript, University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Sciences, Geography, Tourism and Hotel Management Department, Novi Sad

MEASURES TAKEN BY BUSINESS ENTITIES IN ORDER TO ELIMINATE OR REDUCE RISK OF ACCIDENTS, EXPLOSIONS AND FIRES INVOLVING HAZARDOUS MATERIALS¹

Professor of Professional Studies **Dejan Bošković**, PhD
Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: Companies which business involves hazardous materials, regardless the nature of their business activity, are facing significant risk of accidents, explosions or fires caused by those materials. Therefore, it is of great importance that business entities, besides Sector for Emergency Management and Directorate for Dangerous Goods Transportation of the Republic of Serbia, constantly take measures to eliminate and reduce risk of accidents, explosions and fires involving hazardous materials. This paper deals with risks involving production, handling, transportation and storage of hazardous materials, but also their specific features and the importance of risk assessment are dealt with. Furthermore, the paper deals with measures that should be taken by business entities in order to provide safe handling of hazardous materials and therefore, more efficient protection of human life and health, property and environment.

Keywords: Business Entities, Hazardous Materials, Accident, Explosion, Fire, Risk, Reduction, Elimination.

INTRODUCTION

The endangering of vital social values with hazardous substances, especially during late XX and on the beginning of XXI century, became one of the important topics which are devoted to many scientific and professional papers in the country and abroad. Present technical-technological expansion, in which hazardous substances occupy a special place, leads to many risks for causing accidents, explosions and fires. This is confirmed by a number of technical-technological accidents caused by hazardous substances that have resulted, besides the destruction of property and environmental pollution, numerous human victims. To illustrate this point, we indicate to the fact that in 1917 the explosion of ammunition in the city of Halifax killed 1.950 people², while in 1984 in India, in the city of Bhopal in the accident at the plant of pesticide killed more than 10.000 people.³ In the first decade of the XXI century, from technical-technological accidents caused by hazardous substances, it is characteristic an explosion that occurred in 2002 in the Nigerian city of Lagos, which killed more than 1.000 people.⁴ In the Republic of Serbia major technical-technological accidents caused by hazardous substances are certainly the ones that have taken place in "Grmeč" in Zemun in 1995 that killed 10 workers, the "Milan Blagojević" in Lučani 1997 that killed eight workers and the "Prvi partizan" in Užice in 2009 that killed seven workers.⁵

Hazardous substances are chemicals and other substances that have harmful and dangerous characteristics,⁶ i.e. the European Agreement concerning the international road transport of dangerous goods,⁷ in the Annex A in the second part determines what is to be considered hazardous substances.⁸

¹ This paper is a result of scientific-research project named *The National Security of Republic of Serbia and Security Integration*. The project is financed and realized by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2012-2014). The project coordinator is prof. PhD Mladen Bajagić.

² *Halifax Explosion Remembrance Book*, Halifax Foundation, Halifax, 2002.

³ Abkovitz, M. D. *Operational Risk Management*, John Wiley & Sons, INC., Hoboken, 2008. 26.

⁴ *Toll in Blast at Nigerian Armory Exceeds 1.000*, The New York Times, 3.2.2002

⁵ According to statistical data MIA – Serbia.

⁶ Art. 3. Para. 1. Item. 21. The Code of Environmental Protection Republic of Serbia, „Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia,” No. 135/04.

⁷ Accord European relatif au transport international de marchandises dangereuses par route – ADR, United Nations, New York and Geneva, 2006.

⁸ According to this Agreement hazardous substances are: class 1. – explosive substances and objects with explosive substances, class 2. – gases, class 3. – flammable liquid substances, class 4.1. – flammable solid substances, self-reactive substances and desensitised explosive solid substances, class 4.2. – self-flammable substances, class 4.3.- substances that react with water and develop flammable gases, class 5.1. – oxidizing substances, class 5.2. – organic peroxides, class 6.1. – poisoned substances, class 6.2. – infectious substances, class 7. – radioactive substances, class 8. – corrosive substances and class 9. – various dangerous substances and objects.

The term accident certainly contains specific damage that manifests as a consequence as a danger to the life and health of people, property and the environment, and which resulted in damage or destruction of commercial plants, machines and other resources. The explosion is a sudden increase of pressure and temperature due to oxidation or other exothermic reactions. It is the rapid expansion of gas which occurs with rapid oxidation or decomposition reaction with or without an increase in temperature.⁹ The fire is the uncontrolled combustion of matter, which means that the fire from burning object may spread to other things and the environment and a fire may be caused by the intentional or negligent act of a man or some natural cause (sun, earthquake, lightning). Accidents, explosions and fires, are included in the concept of technical-technological accidents in accordance with its definition in the Code of Emergency Situations¹⁰, noting that this concept is broader, because, in addition to accidents, explosions and fires, includes other events.

The accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances mostly occur in companies and other legal entities engaged in the production, trade, accommodation and transport of hazardous substances and often include offenses with serious consequences. In this area of work with hazardous substances there are many risks of jeopardizing that are more expressed in cases where hazardous substances are treated and handled in unprofessional manner, contrary to the applicable regulations and standards, when preventive measures are not taken in timely manner and due to outdated technology and worn-out equipment. In the available domestic and foreign literature, as well as in particular laws there are many definitions of risk, among which there are no substantial differences, but mainly because of the differences in approach and in textual definition of the concept of risk. So PhD Z. Keković under the concept of risk means any possibility in a specific system that may with a certain probability cause an unexpected change in the quality, i.e. change or loss of the system, noting that the consequence of risk can be positive or negative.¹¹ Risk means the measure of the probability that the consequences detrimental to the life, health, property and/ or the environment will occur as a result of some specific danger,¹² i.e. risk includes the possibility of a loss, involves undertaking activities that must be associated with the uncertainty of successful realization as well as the existence of danger from realization of selected business decision,¹³ i.e. the risk is exposure to the assumption which includes the uncertainty.¹⁴

Analysing mentioned and other definitions it may differentiate essential elements that are characteristic for the concept of risk:

the probability of event occurrence;

the possibility of loss, i.e. damage;

the uncertainty regarding any unexpected outcome, i.e. when we can not know the outcome of specific event with certainty.

By comparing the contents of definitions of risk, the risk regarding hazardous substances can be determined as the probability to happen unwanted event as accident, explosion or fire with the possibility to occur detrimental effects on human life and health, property and environment. Specific properties of hazardous substances indicate the possibility of mutual influence of risks, which is supported by the opinion according to which „if there is increased exposure to each risks, it can significantly affect to increasing influence of other risks because of their interdependence“.¹⁵

The risk assessment as an integral part of the management process involves establishing the context, identification of potential dangers, analysis and risk evaluation.¹⁶ According to SRPS

9 D. Mlađan, *Sprečavanje i suzbijanja požara, havarija i eksplozija*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2009. str. 27.

10 „Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia,” No. 111/2009.

11 Ž. Keković i dr. *Procena rizika u zaštiti lica, imovine i poslovanja*, Centar za analizu rizika i upravljanje rizicima, Beograd, 2011., 25.

12 A. Sage, *Systems Engineering for Risk management*, Computer supported Risk management, Kluwer Academic Publisher, Netherland, 1995., 3-31.

13 C. Alberts, *Common Elements of Risk*, Pittsburgh: Carnegie Mellon University, <http://www.sei.emu.edu/publication/pubweb.htm>, 3.

14 G.A. Holton, *Defining Risk*, Financial Analyst Journal, br.6. vol.60. 2004., 19-25.

15 J. Bessis, *Risk management in banking*, John Wiley&Sons, New Jersey, LTD, 2004., 40.

16 Z. Keković i dr., 105.

A.L. 2.003 2010¹⁷ risk assessment, in the strict sense, is a comprehensive process of identifying potential dangers, analysis and risk evaluation, and in support of this is the opinion, according to which the risk assessment includes risk identification, risk analysis and evaluation (score) of risk.¹⁸ According to the Code of Emergency Situations, risk assessment is the determination of the nature and degree of the potential danger risk, state of vulnerability and consequences, which can potentially endanger the lives and health of people, jobs, services and the environment.

Considering the activities covered by the risk assessment according to mentioned and other authors, in terms of risk assessment of execution accidents, explosions and fires, by hazardous substances, the most acceptable is a view according to which the risk assessment related to hazardous substances includes the following activities: determination of risk assessment context, identification of potential dangers, risk analysis and risk evaluation.

REVIEW ON RISKS IN PRODUCTION, TRADE TRANSPORT AND STORAGE OF HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCES

Important factors that influence on the risk appearance in production are: the type and quantity of hazardous substances and resources, staff incompetence, disregard of regulations and standards, outdated technology and inadequate facilities, untimely or incomplete information about technological procedures and guidelines for work with hazardous substances, employees indiscipline as well as other factors that are specific to certain types of hazardous substances.

In the trade of hazardous substances risks are especially visible in the sales and usage, especially in accommodation of hazardous substances where conditions are often not adequate to the real needs from the security aspects. Disregard the relevant regulations during the sale and usage of hazardous substances, i.e. incompetence in their handling and usage, as well as their accommodation that does not comply with the regulations and standards, are certainly factors that contribute to the risk in trade of hazardous substances.

In the transport of hazardous substances risks are particularly expressed in combined transport because of various types of transport means and loading and reloading of hazardous substances. The risks in transport of hazardous substances depend on many factors, beginning from the types and quantities of hazardous substances, method of packaging and handling with them, as well as the transport mean with which it is transported, including other objective and subjective factors. From the aspect of the dangers and consequences that may arise in the transport of hazardous substances, which is important for risk assessment and accidents, explosions and fires execution prevention, it is important to point out to the Code of Transport of Dangerous Goods,¹⁹ which classifies the danger of occurrence of the transport consequences into three categories.

The hazardous substances storage area is exposed to various risks, especially risks of coming into unauthorized possession of hazardous substances by committing certain offenses (serious theft, robbery, abuse of authority, etc.), thereby creating the possibility of uncontrolled possession of hazardous substances and their illegal usage. In addition, there are also risks of explosions, fires and leaks of hazardous substances, and the main factors that contribute are unprofessional handling, disregard of regulations and standards and inappropriate space for storing hazardous substances.

In considering the risk of execution of accidents, explosions and fires in the production, trade, transport and storage of hazardous substances it is important that in company all detrimental events caused by hazardous substances are analyzed, especially those who produced harmful effects. In addition to the factors that influence the type and degree of risk of caus-

17 Srpski standard SRPS A. L.2. 003:2010, Društvena bezbednost – Procena rizika u zaštiti lica, imovine i poslovanja, Institut za standardizaciju Srbije, Beograd, 2010., „Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia,” No. 92/2010.

18 S. Karović, N. Komazec, *Upravljanje rizikom na sistematskim osnovama*, Vojno delo, Beograd, 2010., 234.

19 „Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia,” No. 88/2010. The danger of the first category is a danger to the life of people and environmental pollution, with consequences which elimination is longterm and expensive. The danger of the second category is a danger of causing serious bodily injury or substantial environmental pollution and environmental pollution of the larger area, while the danger of third category represents a danger of causing minor bodily injury or low environmental pollution.

ing accidents, explosions and fires in the production, trade, transport and storage of hazardous substances listed above, for the risk appearance the fact whether there has been previously performed risk assessment is significant, whether the internal normative documents are in line with primary and subordinate regulations and standards and whether the inspection was carried out and acted in line with orders of those authorities.

The risks of committing offenses in the production, trade, transport and storage of hazardous substances may vary depending on the previously mentioned factors and other individual factors and circumstances. These risks can be grouped based on the object on which the detrimental consequences are manifested if the probability is achieved and there was an accident, explosion or fire. On this basis, the risks of unwanted events in the field of hazardous substances may refer to the person – the personal risks, to property – the property risks and the environment – the ecological risks.

In addition to the previous classification of risks to the personal, of property and environmental on the basis of protected values, in production, trade, transport and storage of hazardous substances there can be made risk classification based on the sources of risk i.e. causes leading to danger and risk appearance. Typical risks that appear on this basis in operating with hazardous substances can be systematized in the following way: the risks of accidents, explosions and fires, the risks of unlawful activities and legal risks. Surely, it is not possible to mention all the risks that contribute to causing accidents, explosions and fires with hazardous substances and it is logical to expect that the expansion of technological and technical development will lead to new risks associated with these substances.

PROCEDURE AND SPECIFICITIES OF RISK ASSESSMENT OF CAUSING ACCIDENTS, EXPLOSIONS AND FIRES BY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCES

The purpose of the risk assessment of accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances is to identify all the risks that are associated with these substances, their analysis and evaluation in order to take measures to eliminate and reduce risks and achieve greater safety when working with hazardous substances. The risks assessment associated with hazardous substances is a form of prevention aimed at eliminating the causes and conditions that suit to occurrence of accidents, explosions and fires caused by these substances. The risk assessment procedure of causing accidents, explosions or fires with hazardous substances, as well as any other risk assessment procedure, starts with the preparation activities, which include the decision of the leader in charge to initiate the procedure of risk assessment and defining the responsible person and the members of the group for risk assessment, who should be experts in certain fields related to work with hazardous substances. The responsible person, i.e. group leader for risk assessment is required to draw up a plan of realization of the risk assessment process which is an integral part of the documentation of the risk assessment, and as such is included in the content of risk assessment act.

Further procedure of risk assessment involves collecting all the data and information that are important to identify the risk of danger from hazardous substances. This involves obtaining general information about: company, jobs, technological, i.e. manufacturing process of hazardous substances, facilities and method of storage of these substances and the enabling of warehouse, the method and means of their transportation, work process, tools and protective equipment. It is particularly important to accurately describe the technological process where should, in addition to types of hazardous substances and the way in which activity is performed with these substances, be sure to obtain the following information: „Physical and chemical characteristics of substances in the process; toxicological and biological properties of substances in the process; thermal stability, including the characteristics of the products of decomposition; substances reaction in the process of construction materials and flammability and explosiveness substances in the process.“²⁰ As a part of data collection there are descriptions of tools and collection of docu-

²⁰ Pravilnik o metodologiji za procenu opasnosti od hemijskog udesa i od zagađivanja životne sredine, merama pripreme i merama za otklanjanje posledica, „Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia,” No. 66/91, 60/94, prilog br. 2., 6.

mentation that is related to the previously executed accidents, explosions and fires, noting that all identified risks should be documented because they represent basis for subsequent phases of the risk assessment. In the process of risk assessment the measures and the method of their realization should be predicted and the priorities in the elimination and reduction of these risks should be established, with the commitment of management to take all necessary measures in order to achieve a higher level of safety when working with hazardous substances. Risk assessment is conducted as a phase of risk management which relates to the assessment of the risks of accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances and follows the same procedure as the standard risk assessment, i.e. includes determining the context of risk assessment, identification, analysis and risk evaluation.

Determining the context of risk assessment is the first, very important activity in the process of risk assessment of hazardous substances, and involves overview of all relevant and important factors that should enable that risk assessment corresponds to the factual situation and present dangers. The external context of risk assessment is outside of companies and includes all the factors that affect from the outside and which consists of the activities of various entities or manifest in the form of certain events or phenomena that have endangering character. In determining the internal context it is important to include all the factors within the company that operates with hazardous substances, which may have corresponding influence on the process of risk assessment performance. In fact those are the same factors that affect from the outside, just in this case physically located within the company, noting that particular attention should be paid to the type of hazardous substances, way of their usage, number, frequency and consequences of detrimental events with these substances in the previous period and the undertaken protection measures and compliance with them.

Identification of potential dangers includes risk sources, events, characteristic circumstances and their potential consequences, i.e. the identification of all risk factors, danger perception and degree of exposure to risks related to activities involving hazardous substances. In the identification of potential dangers of hazardous substances within the companies that operate with these substances, it is necessary to establish a number of important facts, among which the significant ones are related to: the existence of act of risk assessment of hazardous substances, the existence of appropriate normative acts in accordance with regulations and standards, and expertise of people working with hazardous substances, compliance with technical-technological processes in the production of hazardous substances, maintenance of premises and conditions for the storage of hazardous substances, the technical accuracy and compliance with the required conditions for hazardous substances transport means, maintenance of devices, tools and other equipment for protection against the occurrence of harmful consequences, as well as the conducted inspections and companies activities according to ordered preventive and corrective measures.

Analysis of the risk of accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances includes the analysis of sources of potential dangers, probability of their appearance and consequences. However, when it comes to the probability of appearance of the potential dangers of hazardous substances and the consequences, it is important to establish criteria for their determination. Serbian standard which prescribes risk assessment process which scope of application is in the area of the protection of persons, property and business, contains criteria for determining the probability of appearance of potential dangers and consequences,²¹ which criteria are quite acceptable for the risk assessment of dangers of hazardous substances as well. The probability of the potential danger appearance or occurrence of accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances is a combination of the frequency of such events and the vulnerability of the company, and the probability degree is defined as follows: impossible, unlikely, likely, almost certain and certain.

Probability – P is determined by combination of the frequency – F and vulnerability – V, using the form: $P = F \cdot V$.

The frequency involves accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances repetition or exposure of the protected value to potential danger of such events in a given time inter-

²¹ SRPS A.L 2.003 2010, 29-31.

val. When it comes to the risk assessment of causing accidents, explosions and fire with hazardous substances, the frequency may be viewed in two aspects: first, the frequency where there is a record of these events for a specific time period and the second, the frequency where there is no record of these events. Grading the frequency of these unwanted events caused by the hazardous substances based on the existence of the appropriate records is performed as follows: vary rarely, sometimes, often, mostly, and very often.

If a company does not have such a record, it is concluded that there is no possibility of calculating the frequency of these events based on record. In such a situation the company will determine the degree of frequency based on the obtained time exposure to potential dangers by analysing the time in which the protected values were exposed to certain potential dangers and such grading is performed as follows: negligible, temporary, long, overwhelming and permanent.

The vulnerability reflects the actual state of protection in the company, i.e. the sensitivity of the company to potential dangers and its grading is performed as follows: a very large, large, medium, small and very small.

The risk evaluation of accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances has for the purpose gathering the knowledge whether the risk of these events occurrence is acceptable in that company, and if it is not acceptable which treatment it needs to be determined, with the listing of the risks that should be prioritized. The risk level is determined by the probability of occurrence of accidents, explosions and fires $R = V \times P$. Taking into account the specificity of the risks associated with hazardous substances, we believe that for the quantification of these risks is fully applicable method of quantification of the risks inherent in the The Methodology for Danger Assessment of Chemical Accident and Environmental Pollution.²² This is because the danger of chemical accident and environmental pollution may occur due to the effects of hazardous substances and the relevant provision of the Guidelines prescribes the terms when this methodology can be applied to risk assessment of hazardous substances. The risk is quantified with one of the following: negligible, small, medium, large and very large.

On the score whether there will be an accident, explosion or fire during normal course of work process and devices maintenance, the probability is based on for a certain period of time, noting that the probability of occurrence of unwanted events is: a small, if it is estimated that they will not come, medium if it is estimated that they may happen and large, if it is estimated that there will be accidents, explosions and fires. The quantification of risk is based on the probability of occurrence of accidents, explosions and fires and possible consequences under the provisions of mentioned Guidelines, noting that the consequences are ranked as negligible, significant, serious, large and very large.

THE COMPANY MEASURES FOR ELIMINATION AND REDUCTION OF RISK OF CAUSING ACCIDENTS, EXPLOSIONS AND FIRES BY HAZARDOUS SUBSTANCES

The companies and other entities that operate with hazardous substances are responsible for both those activities which change the state and conditions related to production, trade, transportation and accommodation of hazardous substances, which are not in compliance with applicable regulations and standards, and for not taking the necessary measures to protect hazardous substances as well. On these subjects is the duty of organizing the control function in all phases of work with hazardous substances in order to prevent improper conduct or their alienation, which is a significant preventive contribution to prevention of unwanted events caused by these substances. It is especially important the control activity in the areas of work with hazardous substances when there is a greater risk of causing danger to human life, property and the environment. Also, it is obligation of the companies to inform the authorities in charge about harmful events related to work with hazardous substances and such information should contain all relevant facts and circumstances related to the unwanted event.

Undertaking the preventive measures in order to eliminate and reduce the risk of causing

²² Pravilnik o metodologiji za procenu opasnosti od hemijskog udesa i od zagađivanja životne sredine, merama pripreme i merama za otklanjanje posledica, 15.

accidents, explosions and fires by hazardous substances, i.e. eliminating the etiological characteristics which as risk factors cause the unwanted events, should be an organized, planned and synchronized activity of all entities that are in a position to contribute with its activities preventing such events. The systematic planning of measures for the elimination and reduction of risks from hazardous substances requires a research approach, i.e. prognostic study in relation to accidents, explosions and fires caused by hazardous substances in order to consider all risks, forms of expression and the harmful consequences of these unwanted events, including all its specificities.

After the risk assessment associated with hazardous substances is performed, the company or other legal entity determines appropriate measures and establish the way of its realization in order to reduce risk within the acceptable limits and determines the person who is responsible for the realization of these measures. The basis for determining the measures and deadlines for their implementation is the level of estimated risk, and in particular defined priorities as well as the requirements and opportunities for preventive activities in order to prevent. The preventive measures that are undertaken in production, trade, transport and storage of hazardous substances must be based on appropriate primary and subordinate and internal regulations and recognized standards and therefore activity should be focused on the creating and implementation of appropriate acts and standards referring to the area of these substances.

In addition to specific provisions of the Serbian SRPS A.L 2.003 in 2010, companies in the risk assessment of hazardous substances, should take into account the relevant provisions of the international standard ISO /FDIS 31000:2009 (E)²³, the more that a framework for risk management is inherent in this standard, and this framework enables efficient risk management at various levels and in the context of specific activities. Also, the Guidelines for risk assessment of the European Union²⁴ should be taken into account when assessing these risks, because the primarily purpose of these Guidelines is that with their usage and adaptation States Members provide appropriate assistance to employers, employees and all other interested entities in solving practical problems related to risk assessment. In applying measures of companies for the elimination and prevention of risks associated with hazardous substances, special attention should be paid to preventive measures, in order to prevent the explosions occurrence that could cause fire, which must be implemented in accordance with European Directive 1999/92/EC (ATEX 137). This necessarily implies the recognition of potential dangers i.e. identification and risks evaluation and undertaking of measures to eliminate the causes and harmful consequences of risks.

In the production of hazardous substances measures to eliminate and reduce the risk of accidents, explosions and fires execution must be taken in the phase of construction production and storage facilities of these substances, which includes the appropriate spatial planning of such facilities. For the production of hazardous substances must be done technological project which is a basis which should regulate the technical issues related to their production and this document is important from the point of application of appropriate preventive measures. Its elements clearly indicate to their preventive component in terms of a higher level of security in the process of production of hazardous substances and reduction of the risk of accidents, explosions and fires. Very important preventive measure is one which provides that the facilities in which hazardous substances are produced and held may only built in such places and in such a way that it does not create a risk of fire and explosion for these and other objects. During the construction of such facilities, the analysis of possible dangers of the occurrence of accidents, explosions and fires and other accidents caused by hazardous substances must be performed. In the process of hazardous substances production, it is particularly important that the measures are directed on compliance with regulations and standards, and professional activities of all participants, in order to eliminate or minimize the probability of occurrence of unwanted consequences. The rigorous control of the production process and the final product has a significant preventive function and disables appropriation of resources and final products in the form of various types

23 International ISO/FDIS Standard 31000 - Risk management, principles and guidelines

United Nations Convention on International Multimodal Transport of Goods, Geneva, 2009. This international standard contains eleven important principles which the organization should complied with if it wants to risk management be efficient its important content refers to the foundation of strategy of risk management, establishing internal and external communication, the implementation of risk management, the implementation of risk management process and control activity.

24 Agency for Official Publications of the European Union, Luksemburg, 1996.

of hazardous substances that may later be used for various purposes, including committing offenses. It is important that apparatus, devices and installations, which are used for protection of facilities from fires and explosions, are always in good condition and to be handled with by professionals. Therefore, the effect of these measures is reflected in the elimination of the factors contributing to the risk of causing accidents, explosions and fires by hazardous substances and to reduction of probability that the mentioned unwanted events and possible consequences will happen.

The trade of hazardous substances which includes the purchase, sale, usage and accommodation of these substances also contains certain risks, so companies should pay special attention to control measures at all trade phases of these substances. In the area of accommodation of hazardous substances there must be undertaken appropriate measures to provide adequate accommodation and adequate protection of these substances. Certainly, these measures must be preceded by a risk assessment in this field of activity with hazardous substances, where is particularly important to timely perform their identification and evaluation of the risk level.

The transport of hazardous substances bears a significant amount of risk of an explosion or fire, and if it is a liquid substance to its spill and unwanted consequences as well. Therefore, it is necessary to take constant care of the safety of transportation means, the measures of protection during loading and unloading of hazardous substances and the maintenance of roads within the company, especially the passages that are located between dangerous facilities and installations within the company. The companies, other legal entities, entrepreneurs and individuals who perform transport or sale of certain hazardous substances are required to take the law provided protective measures which enable protection of life and health of human, the environment, facilities and other material well, and does not jeopardize traffic safety. These measures must be specifically aimed at controlling the terms to be met by packaging which contains the hazardous substances that should be transported. In the choice of these measures there must be taken into account type and quantity of hazardous substances being transported, because the properties of certain hazardous substances are directly related with the probability that they may cause the accident, explosion or fire. Therefore, the companies and other entities involved in the transport of hazardous substances are required to organize and conduct control of the implementation of protective measures and fulfillment of conditions prescribed for transport of these substances, in accordance previously performed risk assessment is significant, whether the internal normative documents are in line with primary and subordinate regulations, international agreements and adopted standards.

The storage of hazardous substances includes their accommodation in several places, so it means their adequate accommodation by manufacturers and entities involved in the sale of hazardous substances or just their storage. The entire procedure is provided, from obtaining location to receiving the facility for storing hazardous substances, and analyzing it is easily noticeable, that remains the obligation of undertaking the adequate preventive measures in the field of safety of these substances, and for the prevention of unwanted consequences. Also, special attention should be paid to measures of control and surveillance in all forms of storage.

As a part of the preventive activities of the company or other entity with the aim to eliminate and reduce the risk of causing accidents, explosions and fires by hazardous substances, a significant impact has preventive, corrective and repressive measures which during inspection may impose The Sector for Emergency Situations.

CONCLUSION

The hazardous substances are increasingly present in our daily lives, regardless of whether it is about their production, trade, transportation or storage, certain risks of unwanted events occurrence are related to them, especially if they are treated and handled unprofessionally and contrary regulations and standards which are related to the field of hazardous substances.

Considering the role of companies in the elimination and reduction of the risk of causing accidents, explosions and fires by hazardous substances, it can be concluded that the companies and other entities that operate with these substances have significant tasks in the implementation of prevention in this area. This applies equally to the production, trade, transport and storage of

hazardous substances, although it should highlight the activities of those companies involved in the production of hazardous substances and which through technological processes pollute some segments of the environment. The fact is that preventive activity of companies may significantly contribute to the elimination and reduction of risks associated with hazardous substances, and thus preventing unwanted events with minor or severe consequences for human life and health, property and the environment.

As a part of the measures to be taken by companies to eliminate and reduce the risk of causing accidents, explosions and fire by hazardous substances, it is important that the activities of these companies focus on timely detection of all deficiencies in the technological process, as well as in all other activities with these substances. Attention should be paid to the regularity and proper application of technical resources and the usage of safety equipment, as well as to the control function of the established risk management system. Given the possible consequences of hazardous substances, being informed is very important, not only within the company that operates with these substances, but also the general public, because the timely and accurate information can contribute to a higher degree of protection of all vital values and more efficient security of employees and the population located in the vicinity of such company.

For effective identification, analysis and risk evaluation of causing unwanted events by hazardous substances and for undertaking appropriate preventive measures in timely manner, it is very important that there is appropriate cooperation in internal and external level. Internal cooperation should take place within company, between management, organizational units, and specialized services, while external cooperation should be developed between the responsible in the company with The Sector for Emergency Situations, The Bureau for the Transport of Dangerous Goods and the police.

REFERENCES

1. Abkovitz, M. D. *Operational Risk Management*, John Wiley & Sons, INC., Hoboken, 2008.
2. Alberts, C. *Comman Elements of Risk*, Pittsburgh: Carnegie Mellon University, <http://www.sei.emu.edu/publication/pubwweb.htm>
3. Accord European relatif au transport international de marchandises dangereuses par route –ADR, Ekonomska komisija za Evropu-Odbor za kopneni transport, Ujedinjene nacije, Njujork i Zeneva, 2006.
4. Bessis, J. *Risk management in banking*, John Willey&Sons, New Jersey, LTD, 2004.
5. Biočanin, R. Upravljanje hemijskim rizikom i osiguranje pri transportu opasnih materija, Preventivno inženjerstvo, Beograd, br.1/2002. str. 45-54.
6. Bošković, D. Značaj prevencije u otklanjanju i smanjenju rizika tehničko-tehnoških nesreća-udesa u proizvodnji eksplozivnih materija, Bezbednost, MUP. Republike Srbije, br. 2 /2011. str.274-287.
7. Gavanski, D. Sokola, M. Krnjetin, S. *Kvantifikacija nekih elemenata požarnog rizika na radnom mestu na osnovu ček-liste*, Međunarodno naučno i stručno savetovanje, Bezbednosni inženjering, Visoka tehnička škola, Novi Sad, Fakultet tehničkih nauka, Novi Sad, Zbornik radova, Kopaonik, 2010, str. 376-385
8. *Halifax Explosion Remembrance Book*, Halifax Foundation, Halifax, 2002.
9. Holton, G.A. *Defining Risk*, Financial Analyst Journal, br.6. vol.60. 2004. str. 19-25.
10. Erikson, C.A., *Hazard Analisis Technique for Sistem Safety*, New Jersey: John Willey&Sons, 2005.
11. International ISO/FDIS Standard 31000-Risk management, principes and guidelines United Nations Convention on International Multimodal Transport of Goods, Geneva, 2009.
12. Karović, S. Komazec, N. *Upravljanje rizikom na sistematskim osnovama*, Vojno delo, Beograd, 2010.
13. Keković Ž. i dr. Procena rizika u zaštiti lica, imovine i poslovanja, Centar za analizu

-
- rizika i upravljanje rizicima, Beograd, 2011.
14. Keserović, D., Određivanje konteksta-početna i ključna faza procesa procene rizika korporacija, Zbornik radova, Dani bezbednosti, Fakultet za bezbednost i zaštitu, Banja Luka, str. 239-249.
 15. Marić, P., Tomić, D. *Upravljanje vanrednim situacijama*, Balkanski institut za upravljanje i procenu rizika, Beograd, 2010.
 16. Mlađan, D. *Sprečavanje i suzbijanja požara, havarija i eksplozija*, Kriminalističko-policijska akademija, Beograd, 2009.
 17. Pravilnik o metodologiji za procenu opasnosti od hemijskog udesa i od zagađivanja životne sredine, merama pripreme i merama za otklanjanje posledica, Službeni glasnik RS, br. 66/91 i 60/94
 18. Sage, A. *Sistems Engineering for Risk management*, Computer supported Risk management, Kluwer Academic Publisher, Netherland, 1995. str. 3-31.
 19. Srpski standard SRPS A. L.2. 003:2010, Društvena bezbednost-Procena rizika u zaštiti lica, imovine i poslovanja, Institut za standardizaciju Srbije, Beograd, 2010., Službeni glasnik R.Srbije, br. 92/2010.
 20. Subošić, D, Mlađan, D. *Bezbednost tehnoloških procesa u industrijskoj proizvodnji*, Dani bezbednosti, Fakultet za bezbednost i zaštitu, Banja Luka, 2010. str. 317-327.
 21. Vauglan, R. J. *Risk management*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1997.
 22. *Toll in Blast at Nigerian Armory Exceeds 1.000*, The new Jork Times, 3.2.2002.

PUBLIC-HEALTH THREAT AS THE EMERGENCY SITUATION

Science Associate **Marta Sjeničić**, PhD
Institute of Social Sciences, Belgrade

Spec. **Dragan Miljuš**, MSc
Institute of Public Health of Serbia "Dr Milan Jovanovic Batut"

Abstract: Public-health emergency of international concern (PHEIC) is defined by International Health Regulations (IHR) as an extraordinary event to constitute a public health risk to other States through the international spread of disease and to potentially require a coordinated international response. Through IHR, World Health Organization supports the Member States in the common work aimed to save the lives from internationally spread diseases and other health risks. Member States have their own legal acts which regulate the way of reporting in emergency situations which constitute the public health threat for the country. IHR, however, establish the rules for the global alarming system and response to PHEIC. Through IHR, WHO plans to develop and sustain effective international system of assessment of global context of public-health risks and which would be prepared for the fast reaction to the unexpected events and public health threats. In this way, WHO also provides the support to the Member States in capacity building for active surveillance over the diseases and public-health events. For the purpose of IHR implementation, it is necessary to develop the minimum of national capacities, as well as to define, equip and enable the points of entry into the country: airports, ports and land crossings.

Keywords: public-health emergency, international concern, International Health Regulation, international response, World Health Organisation

INTRODUCTION

Public health is, according to the Serbian Law on Public Health, societal activity which aims to improve health, prolong life and improve the life quality of the population, through promotion of health, prevention of diseases and other activities¹. Public health encompass detection, prevention, and control of communicable, chronic and occupational diseases; the control of vectors of disease; the safe handling of food and food products; the safety of cosmetics; the control of narcotics, barbiturates, and other drugs as provided by law; the sanitation of public and semipublic buildings and areas; the licensure of hospitals; protection and improvement of the health of expectant mothers, infants, preschool, and school-age children; the practice of midwifery, including the issuance of permits to and supervision of women who practice midwifery; and protection and improvement of the health of the people through better nutrition.

Therefore public health has to continually and diligently endeavor to prevent disease, prolong life, and promote the public health through organized programs, including prevention and control of environmental health hazards; prevention and control of diseases; prevention and control of health problems of particularly vulnerable population groups; development of health care facilities and agencies and health services delivery systems; and regulation of health care facilities and agencies and health services delivery systems to the extent provided by law.

Because of the amplexness and complexity of the topic, the authors of this paper are focused on the menace of infectious diseases. Chemical, radiological and other hazards will be given another opportunity.

PUBLIC HEALTH REGULATION

In the national legal framework there are plenty of legal acts regulating the public health issues: Better health for all in the third millennium (2002), Strategy for Public Health of RS²,

¹ Article 2, provision 1, bullet 12 of Law on Public Health, Official Gazette RS, no. 72/2009

² Official Gazette RS, no.22/2009

Strategy for fight against HIV/AIDS in Serbia³, Strategy for development of health of youth in RS⁴, Strategy for tobacco control in RS⁵, Strategy for the development of mental health protection⁶, Strategy for fight against narcotics in RS from 2009 to 2013⁷, Law on Public Health, Law on Health Care⁸, Law on Health Insurance⁹, Law on the Protection of People from Communicable Diseases¹⁰, and other related laws and by-laws.

When it is about international framework, in the first place we should mention “Health 2020-A European Policy Framework supporting action across government and society for health and well-being”, enacted by the World Health Organization (hereinafter: WHO) in 2013. Health 2020 recognizes that successful governments can achieve real improvements in health if they work across government to fulfill two linked strategic objectives: improving health for all and reducing health inequalities and improving leadership and participatory governance for health. One of the priority areas (Priority area 3) of the Health 2020 is “Strengthening people-centered health systems, public health capacity and emergency preparedness, surveillance and response”. In Health 2020 it is emphasized that it is important for policies to reflex to complexities of casual pathways and respond quickly and innovatively to unpredictable events such as in communicable disease outbreaks. The International Health Regulations require countries to implement a multi-hazard, intersectional and cross-border approach to public health emergencies and to be prepared to effectively manage health-related aspects of emergencies and humanitarian disasters.¹¹

The legal framework that underpins the communication of public health threats at the international level has undergone significant changes due to the adoption of the new WHO International Health Regulations (hereinafter: IHR)¹². Having in mind the increased international traffic and travels and the danger of spreading of diseases and other health threats in international surrounding, on 48. Assembly held 1995, World Health Organisation discussed the issue of substantial changes of IHR, adopted 1969. Outbreak of the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in the end of 2002. initiated the foundation of the intergovernmental working group by the WHO Assembly. Through this working group, all Member States were able to revise and propose changes in IHR, to the Assembly. IHR were adopted in 2005. by the 58. Assembly of WHO, and entered into force on June 15th, 2007.¹³

Change has also taken place at the European Union level, where efforts to further cooperation between Member States in the field of epidemiological surveillance have resulted in a Centre for disease prevention and an Early Warning System to monitor information on public health threats¹⁴. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (hereinafter: ECDC) is a European Union Agency which is a member of the European Union family, covers EU 27, EEA/EFTA countries¹⁵, through Neighbourhood Policy reaches out to other countries beyond the EU 27, supports and promotes global health security (role in International Health Regulations) and is financed by budget from the EU.

3 Official Gazette RS, no. 26/2011

4 Official Gazette RS, no.104/2006

5 Official Gazette RS, no. 8/2007

6 Official Gazette RS, no. 8/2007

7 Official Gazette RS, no. 6/2009

8 Official Gazette RS, nos. 107/2005, 72/2009, 88/2010, 99/2010, 57/2011, 119/2012 and 45/2013

9 Official Gazette RS, nos. 107/2005, 109/2005, 57/2011, 110/2012 and 119/2012

10 Official Gazette RS, no. 125/2004

11 Health 2020-A European Policy Framework supporting action across government and society for health and well-being, http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0006/199536/Health2020-Short.pdf, pp. 8-10, 15.12.2013.

12 M'ikanatha et al. (eds), *Infectious Disease Surveillance*, Malden 2007, p. xviii.

13 World Health Organization, *International Health Regulations*, 2005,

<http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en/index.html>, 13.12.2013., pp.1

14 Art. 1 Commission Decision 2000/57/EC of 22 December 1999 on the early warning and response system for the prevention and control of communicable diseases under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council.

15 The European Economic Area (EEA) comprises the member states of the European Union (EU), except Croatia which is set to join once their enlargement agreement is ratified by all EEA countries, plus Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, member states of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA).

PUBLIC HEALTH EMERGENCY OF INTERNATIONAL CONCERN AND WORLD HEALTH ORGANISATION RESPONSE THROUGH INTERNATIONAL HEALTH REGULATIONS

Public-health emergency of international concern (hereinafter: PHEIC) is defined by the International Health Regulations as an extraordinary event which constitutes a public health risk to other States, through the international spread of disease and which potentially require a coordinated international response. Through IHR, World Health Organization supports the State Parties in the common work aimed to save the lives from internationally spread diseases and other health risks. State Parties have their own legal acts which regulate the way of reporting in emergency situations which constitute the public health threat for the country. IHR, however, establish the rules for the global alarming system and response to PHEIC. Through IHR, WHO plans to develop and sustain effective international system of assessment of global context of public-health risks and which would be prepared for the fast reaction to the unexpected events and public health threats. In this way, WHO also provides the support to the State Parties in capacity building for active surveillance over the diseases and public-health events. For the purpose of IHR implementation, it is necessary to develop the minimum of national capacities, as well as to define, equip and enable the points of entry into the country: airports, ports and land crossings.

The purpose of IHR is to prevent, protect, control and provide the public health response to the international spread of disease, in the way which is proportional and limited to public health emergencies, and in the same time, to avoid the unnecessary disturbance of international traffic and trade. IHR contains several innovations, including: (a) a scope not limited to any specific disease or manner of transmission, but covering “illness or medical condition, irrespective of origin or source, that presents or could present significant harm to humans”; (b) State Party obligations to develop certain minimum core public health capacities; (c) obligations on States Parties to notify WHO of events that may constitute a public health emergency of international concern according to defined criteria; (d) provisions authorizing WHO to take into consideration unofficial reports of public health events and to obtain verification from States Parties concerning such events; (e) procedures for the determination by the Director-General of a “public health emergency of international concern” and issuance of corresponding temporary recommendations, after taking into account the views of an Emergency Committee; (f) protection of the human rights of persons and travelers; and (g) the establishment of National IHR Focal Points and WHO IHR Contact Points for urgent communications between States Parties and WHO.¹⁶

The latest version of IHR is, therefore, not limited to specific diseases, which enables the IHR to keep its importance and applicability for future, and to monitor continuous evolution of illnesses and factors determining their emergency and transmission.¹⁷

With the support of WHO, 194 states which signed IHR, should perform different activities in order to implement these rules with the aim to improve national, regional and global public health security. The main objective for the states was to assess the capacities for response and the development and implementation of the action plans which would enable the capacities to start functioning till 2012. After that, States have three years to respond to the IHR requirements related to their national surveillance system and public health response, as well to the requirements related to airports, ports and land crossings. These deadlines can be prolonged for two years, and additional two years, in extraordinary cases.¹⁸

WHO developed the Guidelines in order to help to the State Parties to respond to the obligations prescribed by IHR. Guideline contain sever areas of work for implementation and for meeting the challenges posed through IHR. Every area contains the specific aim which contributes to the realization of public health security and every area should be the object of one

¹⁶ Ibid., pp. 1-2

¹⁷ Ibid., pp.2

¹⁸ World Health Organization, “Alert, response, and capacity building under the International Health Regulations (IHR)” URL: <http://www.who.int/ihr/about/en/>, 15.12.2013.

or more detailed implementation plans. These seven areas relevant for IHR implementation are: a) Foster global partnerships, b) Strengthen national disease prevention, surveillance, control and response systems, c) Strengthen public health security in travel and transport, d) Strengthen WHO global alert and response systems, e) Strengthen the management of specific risks, f) Sustain rights, obligations and procedures, and g) Conduct studies and monitor progress.¹⁹ Out of seven listed areas, four are of substantial importance, having in mind that they require intensive national and global efforts. These are: 1) Strengthen national and international disease prevention, surveillance, control and response systems, 2) Strengthen public health security in travel and transport, 3) Strengthen WHO global alert and response systems, 4) Strengthen the management of specific risks.²⁰

IHR require from the State Parties to report to WHO on specific public health threats and to define own rights and obligations. IHR has three basic requirements from the State Parties.

Firstly, each State Party shall designate or establish a **National IHR Focal Point** and the authorities responsible within its respective jurisdiction for the implementation of health measures under these Regulations.²¹ National IHR Focal Points shall be accessible at all times for communications with the WHO IHR Contact Points. National IHR Focal Points shall: (a) send to WHO IHR Contact Points, on behalf of the State Party concerned, urgent communications concerning the implementation of these Regulations; and (b) disseminate information to, and consolidate input from relevant sectors of the administration of the State Party concerned, including those responsible for surveillance and reporting, points of entry, public health services, clinics and hospitals and other government departments.

State Parties are, further on, required to present that their public health systems are in accordance with the reporting requirements of the public health events and the requirements of their verification.

And finally, State Parties have to assess and to strengthen the appropriate national capacities for revealing, determining and reporting on the events, in line with the IHR.²²

National Focal Points should perform the following activities: a) sending to WHO IHR Contact Points, on behalf of the State Party concerned, urgent communications concerning the implementation of these Regulation; and b) disseminating information to, and consolidating input from, relevant sectors of the administration of the State Party concerned, including those responsible for surveillance and reporting, points of entry, public health services, clinics and hospitals and other government departments.²³

IHR contains the reporting requests related to public health emergency situations. State Parties are required to demonstrate that IHR has been implemented. According to IHR "each State Party shall assess events occurring within its territory by using the decision instrument in Annex 2. Each State Party shall notify WHO, by the most efficient means of communication available, by way of the National IHR Focal Point, and within 24 hours of assessment of public health information, of all events which may constitute a public health emergency of international concern within its territory in accordance with the decision instrument, as well as any health measure implemented in response to those events."²⁴ IHR imposes to State Parties one time limit more: time for establishing of public health emergency which would require reporting to WHO, cannot exceed 48 hours.²⁵ Following a notification, a State Party shall continue to communicate to WHO timely, accurate and sufficiently detailed public health information available to it on the notified event, where possible including case definitions, laboratory results, source and type of the risk, number of cases and deaths, conditions affecting the spread of the disease and the health measures employed; and report, when necessary, the difficulties faced and support needed in responding to the potential public health emergency of international

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ International Health Regulations, Areas of work for implementation, URL: <http://www.who.int/ihr/finalversion9Nov07.pdf>, 15.12.2013, str.5.

²¹ Article 4 International Health Regulations 2005, URL: whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241580410_eng.pdf.

²² WHO, '3 Top priorities for States Parties to implement the IHR', URL: http://www.who.int/entity/ihr/three_priorities.pdf.

²³ Article 4, provision 2 of the International Health Regulations 2005, Ibid.

²⁴ Article 6 International Health Regulations 2005, Ibid.

²⁵ Annex 1, paragraph 6(a) International Health Regulations 2005, Ibid.

concern.²⁶ Annex 2 IHR contains detailed operative procedures related to these notifications. Within the IHR, there is also a detailed deciding instrument (diagram), according to which the authorized national institutions can decide whether to notify WHO, in accordance with IHR, on the public health event. Annex 2 also contains nonobligatory indicative criteria and examples which can help to the national institutions in the implementation of the deciding instrument.²⁷

IHR IMPLEMENTATION IN SERBIA AND SERBIAN RESPONSE TO PHEIC

Prevention and control of communicable diseases in Serbia, is regulated by the *Law on protection from communicable diseases*²⁸ and by the *Rule book on reporting of communicable diseases and other cases determined by the Law on protection from communicable diseases*.²⁹ Law regulates the protection from the diseases, determine the list of diseases threatening to the health of population and whose prevention and suppression are general interest for Serbia. It also regulates measures of protection, etc.

Law and Rule book regulate, however, conventional surveillance over the communicable diseases, which comes out from the structured data, whilst the process of epidemiological reporting is mostly leaned to surveillance, monitoring and revealing of still unstructured data, which indicate the appearance of communicable diseases and illnesses of unknown cause, and which can be potential threat to public health. This form of communication is being considered as informal communication and is consisted of researching of unofficial sources, with the purpose of identification of information on the potential dangers for public health. This way, unofficial communication shortens the time needed for information transfer from sender to receiver. Thus, the fast response to the determined threats is much more efficient.³⁰

Serbia is another State Party to the International Health Regulations³¹. Infectious disease surveillance is carried out by the Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, which forms part of the Institute of Public Health of Serbia. The designated National Focal Point for the purpose of the International Health Regulations is the Communication Centre of the Centre for Disease Prevention and Control³². Whilst Serbia has ratified the regulations and also cooperates with the EU on infectious disease surveillance³³, there is no primary legislation on the International Health Regulations. Communication Centre is established for the purpose of improvement of communication on the national and international level, when it is about the communicable diseases. It is established as a subunit of the Department for Diseases Prevention and Control.³⁴ Communication center is: the communication channel, tool for data collecting, processing and exchange and tool for support to the regional institutes for public health.³⁵ Basic activities of the Communication centre in the process of epidemiological reporting are: a) data collecting, b) assessing and verification of threats, c) archiving and dissemination of information, d) support to the regional institutes for public health throughout Serbia, e) reporting on communicable diseases which can be potential threat, f) communication and cooperation with all relevant institutions (Ministries, health institutions, NGO, media, etc.), g) support in the implementation of IHR.

26 Article 6 International Health Regulations 2005, Ibid.

27 International Health Regulations 2005, Ibid, pp.43 ff.

28 Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, Official Gazette, RS, no. 125/2004.

29 Rule book on reporting of communicable diseases and other cases defined by the Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, Official Gazette RS, no. 98/2005 and 107/2005

30 Seke Kristina, "Neformalna komunikacija u okviru koncepta epidemijskog obavštavanja", March 2011, pp.7-8, Republic Institute for Public Health RS

31 WHO, States Parties to the International Health Regulations (2005), available at http://www.who.int/ihr/legal_issues/states_parties/en/.

32 Public Health Institute Serbia, Information on the Public Health Institute, URL: http://www.batut.org.rs/index.php?category_id=142.

33 Parliamentary Assembly of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation, Observance of Sanitation Standards of the World Health Organization in the BSEC Member States, URL: www.pabsec.org/pabsec/aksisnet/file/9-CC%2036%20REP%20Eng.doc

34 Republic Institute for Public Health RS, "Organizaciona struktura zdravstvenih institucija u Republici Srbiji", URL: http://www.batut.org.rs/download/izvestaji/organizaciona_struktura_2010_12_31.pdf.

35 Seke, Ibid., pp.14

Communication center performs its activities based on the ECDC recommendations, when it is about possible communication channels (ECDC EOC Minimal requirements – version 3.5, Minimal technical requirements for Competent Bodies to communicate with the ECDC EOC, October, 2008). It uses e-mail and phones, as well as *Meet me* audio conference system, enabling simultaneous conversation with six distant participants. Communication center also uses video conference system through *LS Team MP video codec*, enabling four persons participating in the video conference. Communication is also enabled through the *Com Desktop* licenses.³⁶

In the last few years, Communication center of Republic Institute for Public Health of Serbia has published several reports on communicable diseases which were or could be potential threat for public health.³⁷

Regional Institutes for public health have active role in the epidemiologic reporting activities. They nominated the Coordinators for IHR and epidemiologic reporting. This means that, at the level of Republic of Serbia (hereinafter: RS), the network of Coordinators is formed, for the purpose of fast and efficient communication. This network is relevant for communication with the National Communication center in the Republic Institute of Public Health, but also for the contact between regional Institutes. Coordinator reports to Communication center on the occurrence of the certain event on the territory he is competent for. This information flows through the communication channel which is available at the moment: telephone or e-mail. Coordinator organizes epidemiologic reporting of the event, no matter the source he received the information from: local media, rumors, or some formal reporting channel.³⁸

Implementation of IHR is mentioned in the Rule book on immunization and the way of protection by medicines.³⁹ Article 54 of this Rule book regulates that passengers in the international traffic should be immunized, if they travel to lands which require certain vaccination and according to epidemiologic indications, in line with IHR, against following diseases: 1) Yellow fever; 2) Meningokok-meningitis; 3) Typhoid fever; 4) Cholera; 5) Diphtheria; 6) other communicable diseases (acute virus hepatitis B, rabies, tetanus, measles, etc).

Ministry of Health RS has drafted the new Law on protection from communicable diseases (hereinafter: Draft Law) which is still opened to the public discussion.⁴⁰ As a change, Draft Law has in its basic provisions, Article 2 the list of definitions of relevant notions used. One of the definitions is related to Early Warning System, which is defined as: “comprehensive system of surveillance over the communicable diseases with the purpose of fast reavealance of new infected, of warning and undertaking of urgent measures, under the conditions defined by the International Health Regulations”. For the first time, Draft Law also defines the Public Health Emergency of International Concern. It is defined in the following way: “Public Health Emergency of International Concern is the event which constitutes a public health risk to other States through the international spread of disease and which potentially requires a coordinated international response”. This is actually the WHO definition which is overtaken by many countries and will be, by the enacting this Draft Law, also overtaken by Serbia. So, compared to the existing Law on protection from communicable diseases, Draft Law is improved in several parts, by introducing the IHR into its provisions. Although IHR is ratified by RS, it is always good that it is also incorporated into the national legislation. For example, Article 10 of the Draft Law regulates: Early detection of sources, reservoirs and ways of transmission of communicable diseases. Article 10 regulates that “this measure is to be achieved through the active finding of typical and atypical cases of persons with communicable diseases, in line with the case definitions...”. When defining cases, Ministry of Health should have in mind the European Commission Decision of 28 April 2008 which contains detailed case definitions for the communicable diseases and provides a framework as to whether cases are to be classified as possible, probable or confirmed.⁴¹ Also, there are 52 communicable diseases and conditions

³⁶ Ibid, pp. 23

³⁷ Republic Institute for Public Health RS, “Izveštaj o zaraznim bolestima koje mogu predstavljati potencijalnu pretnju po javno zdravlje”, URL: <http://www.batut.org.rs/download/izvestaji/Izvestaj%20o%20zaraznim%20bolestima%202010.pdf>.

³⁸ Seke, Ibid, pp.15

³⁹ Rule book on immunization and the way of protection by medicines, Official Gazette RS, no. 11/2006

⁴⁰ Ministarstvo zdravlja Republike Srbije, Radne verzije i nacrti zakona, URL <http://www.zdravlje.gov.rs/showpage.php?id=185>, 19.12.2013.

⁴¹ Commission Decision of 28 April 2008 (2008/426/EC) Amending Decision 2002/253/EC Laying Down

to be compulsorily reported within the EU. The list of communicable diseases is contained in Commission Decision 2000/96/EC of 22 December 1999⁴². Information on communicable diseases not among those 52 listed shall also be reported through the EU early warning system if doing so is found necessary in order to protect public health in the Community⁴³.

Rules on reporting of infectious and other cases stipulated by the law on the protection of the population have communicable diseases (Official Gazette, No.125/04), which refers to the law on protection of the population from infectious diseases. Regulation, in Article 10 state that the essential elements of the case definition. Some case definitions can be found in the guides of Institute of the Public Health of Serbia, such as: Guides for conducting surveillance of acute flaccid paralysis, measles, congenital rubella and other diseases, provides clear definitions for these diseases.

Article 14 of the Draft Law regulates that epidemiologic surveillance should be done in accordance with the case definitions and that data acquired this way are to be interpreted and exchange with the other states, WHO and other international organisations by the Institute for public health of RS.

Draft Law is much more developed in many segments compared to the existing Law. When it comes to preventing of communicable diseases importation into country and their transmission to other countries, Article 28 of the Draft Law prescribes the following measures: 1. Ban of travelling to the country affected by epidemic of communicable disease, 2. Ban of movement of population, or limitation of movement within the area affected by the communicable disease, or its epidemic, 3. Ban or limitation of traffic of specific kind of good, 4. Obligatory participation of health institutions in the suppression of communicable disease and using of certain objects, equipment and transportation for the purpose of suppression of communicable diseases.

Article 29, further on, defines the way of implementation of IHR and other international acts and recommendations of WHO and European Union, ratified by RS, and which are related to the prevention and suppression and transmission of diseases and other public health emergencies of international concern. This Article regulates that the institution authorised for the implementation of IHR and other international documents, is Institute of Public Health RS as the National Centre for IHR.⁴⁴ It has to be available for communication and relevant information 24 hours, 365 days a year.⁴⁵ Its obligation is processing of received and sending of urgent information on unexpected or unusual events, which can be the threat for public health of international concern.⁴⁶ Submission of urgent data and their exchange with the Focal points of WHO, shall be provided by the National Centre through the separate communication channels.⁴⁷ National Centaur shall forward the data on registered event and collect data from the relevant sectors, respecting multisectoral and multidisciplinary approach and in cooperation with the representatives of relevant sectors shall assess of the registered event, applying the decision instrument for assessing and reporting of the events which can be PHEIC.⁴⁸ Information on the event shall be submitted to the Focal point for IHR of WHO within 24 hours from

Case Definitions for Reporting Communicable Diseases to the Community Network under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, Official Journal L 159/46, 18/6/2008.

42 Commission Decision 2000/96/EC of 22 December 1999 on the communicable diseases to be progressively covered by the Community network under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, as amended by Decisions 2003/534/EC, 2003/542/EC, 2007/875/EC and 2009/312/EC, Official Journal L 28/50 3/2/2000.

43 Art. 7 Commission Decision 2000/96/EC of 22 December 1999 on the communicable diseases to be progressively covered by the Community network under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, as amended by Decisions 2003/534/EC, 2003/542/EC, 2007/875/EC and 2009/312/EC, Official Journal L 28/50 3/2/2000.

44 Article 29, provision 1 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

45 Article 29, provision 2 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

46 Article 29, provision 3 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

47 Article 29, provision 4 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

48 Article 29, provision 5 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

assessment.⁴⁹ Information shall be submitted to the other international organisations or states if this is stipulated by the international agreement.⁵⁰ In the case when National Centre get the information from the European Focal Point of WHO for IHR on the unexpected event in the international surrounding, where there is a risk of international transmission, National Centre shall organise urgent meeting of the multisectoral body for the assessment of risks for public health and propose the measures for preventing of disease or other public health risks. National Centre shall inform the MoH and other relevant institutions on health risk and measures within 24 hours.⁵¹ Minister of Health should enact the Rule book on detailed conditions for conduction of measures for the purpose of preventing of entry of communicable diseases into the country and their transmission to other countries, as well as on the way of work of the National Centre in accordance with IHR.⁵²

Article 32 of the Draft Law regulates the conduction of necessary measures in the emergency situations.

CONCLUSION

An epidemic is the occurrence of cases of disease at a frequency that deviates from the usual or expected for a given region and as such requires extraordinary control measures. The media usually report that epidemics are inevitable when it comes to disasters such as floods, earthquakes and other hazards. However, this may not be true, because there are common patterns in which events occur in such situations and the experience from earlier the same or similar events can be predicted that these are infectious diseases in a particular situation may have epidemic potential. However an increase in the number of cases of infectious disease does not occur spontaneously, and that there are certain factors that allow the spread of the disease in the local environment. Large displacement of vulnerable populations are the key factor that contributes to the spread of infectious diseases especially in the poorer population groups with a marked inability to providing basic needs such as food, shelter, hygienic drinking water, sanitation, access to health services and the control vector. Experience has shown that the risk of increasing the number of infectious diseases and the mortality during hazards as well as a complete disaster situation can be mitigated by the early introduction of high-level surveillance of disease preparedness in case of epidemic, effective measures for prevention and control including management of emergency situations. Early detection, application and effective response are vital to limit the spread of infectious diseases and the emergence of the epidemic.

By forming the National Center for IHR and preparing the new Draft Law on protection of population from communicable diseases, Republic of Serbia is obviously in the right path to introduce IHR and to develop the adequate legal framework for implementation of IHR. This framework will be the good basis for the future development of the next steps that should be undertaken for the purpose of the adequate response to the public health emergencies of international concern. These steps would be developing the minimum of national capacities in the field and defining, equipping and enabling the points of entry: airports, ports and land crossings, in the way which would enable the country to prevent and suppress international spread of communicable diseases.

⁴⁹ Article 29, provision 6 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

⁵⁰ Article 29, provision 7 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

⁵¹ Article 29, provision 8 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

⁵² Article 29, provision 9 of the Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid.*

REFERENCES

1. Commission Decision 2000/57/EC of 22 December 1999 on the early warning and response system for the prevention and control of communicable diseases under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council.
2. Commission Decision 2000/96/EC of 22 December 1999 on the communicable diseases to be progressively covered by the Community network under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, as amended by Decisions 2003/534/EC, 2003/542/EC, 2007/875/EC and 2009/312/EC, Official Journal L 28/50 3/2/2000.
3. Commission Decision 2000/96/EC of 22 December 1999 on the communicable diseases to be progressively covered by the Community network under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, as amended by Decisions 2003/534/EC, 2003/542/EC, 2007/875/EC and 2009/312/EC, Official Journal L 28/50 3/2/2000.
4. Commission Decision of 28 April 2008 (2008/426/EC) Amending Decision 2002/253/EC Laying Down Case Definitions for Reporting Communicable Diseases to the Community Network under Decision No. 2119/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, Official Journal L 159/46, 18/6/2008.
5. Draft Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, *Ibid*.
6. Health 2020-A European Policy Framework supporting action across government and society for health and well-being, http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0006/199536/Health2020-Short.pdf, pp. 8-10, 15.12.2013.
7. <http://www.who.int/ihr/publications/9789241596664/en/index.html>, 13.12.2013.
8. International Health Regulations 2005, URL: [whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2008/9789241580410_eng.pdf](http://www.who.int/publications/2008/9789241580410_eng.pdf).
9. International Health Regulations, Areas of work for implementation URL: <http://www.who.int/ihr/finalversion9Nov07.pdf>, 15.12.2013
10. Law on Public Health, Official Gazette RS, no. 72/2009
11. Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, Official Gazette, RS, no. 125/2004.
12. M'ikanatha et al. (eds), Infectious Disease Surveillance, Malden 2007 Official Gazette RS, no. 125/2004
13. Ministarstvo zdravlja Republike Srbije, Radne verzije i nacrti zakona, URL <http://www.zdravlje.gov.rs/showpage.php?id=185>, 19.12.2013.
14. Official Gazette RS, no. 26/2011
15. Official Gazette RS, no. 6/2009
16. Official Gazette RS, no. 8/2007
17. Official Gazette RS, no. 8/2007
18. Official Gazette RS, no.104/2006
19. Official Gazette RS, no.22/2009
20. Official Gazette RS, nos. 107/2005, 109/2005, 57/2011, 110/2012 and 119/2012
21. Official Gazette RS, nos. 107/2005, 72/2009, 88/2010, 99/2010, 57/2011, 119/2012 and 45/2013
22. *Parliamentary Assembly of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation*, Observance of Sanitation Standards of the World Health Organization in the BSEC Member States, URL: www.pabsec.org/pabsec/aksisnet/file/9-CC%2036%20REP%20Eng.doc
23. *Public Health Institute Serbia*, Information on the Public Health Institute, URL: http://www.batut.org.rs/index.php?category_id=142.
24. Republic Institute for Public Health RS, "Organizaciona struktura zdravstvenih institucija u Republici Srbiji", URL: http://www.batut.org.rs/download/izvestaji/organizaciona_struktura_2010_12_31.pdf.
25. Republic Institute for Public Health RS, "Izveštaj o zaraznim bolestima koje mogu predstavljati potencijalnu pretnju po javno zdravlje", URL: <http://www.batut.org.rs/download/izvestaji/Izvestaj%20o%20zaraznim%20bolestima%202010.pdf>.
26. Rule book on immunization and the way of protection by medicines, Official Gazette RS, no. 11/2006

27. Rule book on reporting of communicable diseases and other cases defined by the Law on the protection of population from communicable diseases, Official Gazette RS, no. 98/2005 and 107/2005
28. Seke Kristina, "Neformalna komunikacija u okviru koncepta epidemijskog obavještanja", March 2011, Republic Institute for Public Health RS
29. The European Economic Area (EEA) comprises the member states of the European Union (EU), except Croatia which is set to join once their enlargement agreement is ratified by all EEA countries, plus Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, member states of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA). URL: <http://www.who.int/ihr/about/en/>, 15.12.2013.
30. WHO, '3 Top priorities for States Parties to implement the IHR', URL: http://www.who.int/entity/ihr/three_priorities.pdf.
31. WHO, States Parties to the International Health Regulations (2005), available at http://www.who.int/ihr/legal_issues/states_parties/en/.
32. World Health Organization, "Alert, response, and capacity building under the International Health Regulations (IHR)"

LEGAL ASPECTS OF ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND ENVIRONMENTAL CRIME¹

Dragan M. Cvetković, PhD

Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, Police Administration in Belgrade

Research Assistant Marija D. Mićović

Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: The environment is the environment from which they derive their many and various capacities for the normal functioning of the life and work of every living being. This environment, in which a man is constantly and actively present, is not a result of his actions, but in terms of a natural phenomenon that existed before the advent of man. Today, the company is becoming more luck with the many complex environmental problems. The range of threat ranges from the mildest forms even within the limits of tolerance, and the most severe forms of vulnerability expressed on a larger scale, where the consequences are manifested in the form of environmental offenses. A wide variety of forms of environmental crime, environmentally negative impacts on the lives and health of living beings. This type of crime compared to other types of crime is far more dangerous, because it can destroy the national economy, the existence of a high risk of spread of many diseases and potential extinction of rare species of flora and fauna.

Keywords: environment, vulnerability, environmental crime, the negative impact of the risk.

INTRODUCTION

Man and nature are the perfect example of the unbreakable bond that is based on the legality of whose importance can be applied to the entire known history of the origin of human society. Civilization is in fact stem from familiarity of the human species in a continuous transformation of the immediate environment, nature, in order to meet their basic needs. The development of civilization is based on the progress of a large number of activities that apply modern scientific and technical achievements, whose functioning is connected with risk and danger of the occurrence of various harmful effects on the environment. Of course, this fact can not be a reason for all this activity prohibition. Society must tolerate certain risks, those who needed it, without which it can normally be carried out streams of life and social progress. It is therefore necessary in such dangerous and high - risk activities to establish certain rules, in order to reduce the occurrence of dangerous and harmful effects to a minimum.

The range of environmental pollution ranges from the mildest forms even within the limits of tolerance, and the worst forms of pollution expressed to a greater extent, where the consequences are manifested in the form of environmental offenses. Environmental crimes and other forms of crime, endanger certain social goods and values, particularly the environment, with a negative impact on human life and health.² Therefore, the need to take legal action in this area is based primarily on the necessity of combating the expansion of cases of serious pollution or endanger the environment.

Endangering environmental crime is a growing problem that causes serious harm to the environment. In recent years, a number of actions that it threatens multiplied. In addition,

¹ This paper is the result of the realisation of the Scientific Research Projects entitled: „*The Development of Institutional Capacities, Standards and Procedures for Combating Organized Crime and Terrorism in the International Integration Conditions*“, financed by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Serbia (No 179045), and carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011–2014). The leader of the Project is Associate Professor Saša Mijalković, PhD; „*Improvement of Forensic Methods and Their Application*“, financed by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Serbia (No 34019), and carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade (2011–2014). The leader of the Project is Assistant Professor Stevo Jačimovski, PhD; „*National Security In The Republic of Serbia and European Integration*“, carried out by the Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies in Belgrade. The leader of the Project is Associate Professor Mladen Bajagic, PhD.

² Boskovic, M. (1993) *Methods - Detecting and resolving environmental crime*, Police College, Belgrade.

this type of crime is susceptible to executives about the possibility of realizing large profits with minimal risk of detection and prosecution, especially when it comes to criminal offenses with elements of organized crime, international. For these reasons it is significantly expanded criminal law protection of the environment.

In Serbia, the environment is a value which is defined constitutional protection. From the constitutional basis these values provided direct protection in the Criminal Code. In addition to direct criminal - law protection, indirect protection is provided and a number of laws and regulations in other areas, which envisages criminal, misdemeanor and penalties for economic crimes in violation of certain human - environmental values.³

Ecological crime is a serious international problem, which manifests itself in various forms and are not limited to, air, water and land or the extinction of plant and animal species to extinction, but also relate to actions that accelerate climate change, a drastic reduction in fish stocks, devastation of forests and the like - even the destruction of natural resources.⁴ While traditional crime poses a threat to social stability, environmental offenses pose a threat to the survival of human society.⁵

ENVIRONMENT - A CONDITION FOR SURVIVAL LIVING BEINGS

The man in order to meet their basic needs continuously changing nature. Changing a man is deformed and degraded, leading, in fact, care mostly about their own interests, needs, and set goals. The environment is every day more and more vulnerable, which imposes a serious problem to further the survival of living things on Earth. What is for sure is the fact that the current situation to an environmental signal and indicates the wide range of potential adverse effects on human health and life.

The air is becoming more polluted, plant life is threatened by the negative effect of acid rain, the vulnerability of the water is getting close to the limits of functional use, and the land is more exposed to degradation. Add to this the fact that everyday industrial production, the use of dirty technologies and disregard for environmental standards, pollution directly affects the basic resources of nature. In addition, there are also various sources of ionizing radiation and the problems of safe removal of radioactive materials, and accommodation of other toxic substances and industrial waste. All this leads to a disproportionate relationship between the more numerous population and a smaller space with a healthy environment for living, living and working.⁶

It should be noted that the environment is not rezultat human activity, but it existed before him. People with their actions affect the quality of the environment, whether polluting or protected. State of the environment is constantly changing, which indicates its dynamics and interplay of environmental factors themselves. Some factors have a higher intensity of expression and influence, while other factors are manifested in a milder degree. This leads to a mutual influence of variability of the internal operation of stronger relative to the lower environmental factors.

Environment is the science called ecology.⁷ In theory and practice to highlight this idea is present in a number of different terms, such as the environment, man's environment, the environment, natural environment, human environment, environmentalism, natural environment, habitat, space and eco - system. For the purposes of this study, we used the term environment, as best suits the content of the work here, because this term implies the overall environment in which they work and live all living beings on earth.

³ Keković, Z., Todorović Z., (2008) *Environmental stress in Serbia - a security aspect*, NBP, No. 3/2008, Criminal Police Academy, Belgrade, p. 32.

⁴ Pisarić, M., (2011) *Suppression of cross-border environmental crime*, Journal of Law, University of Novi Sad, 2/2011, Novi Sad.

⁵ Lukic, T., (2011) *Legal protection of the environment*, Proceedings of the Faculty of Law in Novi Sad, 2/2011, Novi Sad.

⁶ Boskovic, M. (1993) *Methods - Detecting and resolving environmental crime*, Police College, Belgrade.

⁷ Ecology is the study of the environment. Explored the relationship of living beings to the environment in which they live, the relationship environment for living beings and relationship of living things in a particular environment. The term ecology comes from the Greek words oikos - home, household and logos - science research.

In defining the concept of environmental protection must proceed from the fact that the environment is constantly changing, which specifically indicates its dynamic and reciprocal influences of environmental factors. Some environmental factors have a higher intensity of expression and influence, while others occur in a milder degree.⁸ Some environmental factors are favorable to man, his health and life in general, while others again may be damaging to him and his health, whether acting directly or at least indirectly through other factors, and what causes their division into positive and negative factors.

There are two ways of defining the term and to expand and rope. Broader understanding of the environment is considered a complete biosphere, ie. live depleting, no matter what the man is not available this space, but the fact is that his development of modern science and technology provides opportunities to master and this vastness, in the narrow sense, the environment is generally defined as the area in which a man is constantly and actively present. Depending on the definition of the environment (wider or narrower) from the definition there are no substantial differences in terms of the essential elements that determine the content of the environment, in addition to the present differences in the methodological approach and text formation. What is essential is that the environment just by its content reflects the dynamic relation between man and the environment that surrounds him and his various factors and elements creates the conditions that enable living on earth.⁹

To put it simply the environment seemed natural environment, ie, water, air, soil, wildlife, air, ionizing and non - ionizing radiation, vibration noise but also environment man - made it is a settlement, various facilities and infrastructure. In other words, life environment involves the natural environment and the environment that is created by man .

The Law on Environmental Protection, the term environment means a collection of natural and artificial values whose complex interrelationships make the environment, or the space and conditions for life.¹⁰

The development of civilization, the development of industry and agriculture, expansion of transport and modern business people, increase habitants to the extent possible the survival, significantly disrupted the harmonious relationship of man and nature. A such a relationship with the over - use of natural resources, food shortages, global climate change, ozone reduced layer, reduced the protective forest belt on the Earth, increasing the use of nuclear materials for the preparation of the required energy and the accumulation of nuclear weapons and increase in radioactivity, leading to self - destruction of mankind.

Ecological disturbances occur when the environment begins to negatively affect the survival of species change in quality of life. Can be local or global, larger or smaller, to last for months or) millions of years, can be caused by natural or human - induced, can lead to the loss of one or more living species.

Protection of the environment and its improvement is one of the most important problems facing modern society. The rapid scientific and technological development, the use of new and powerful energy sources, construction of a large number of industrial facilities, the creation of large urban areas, led especially in recent decades, a marked degree of pollution¹¹ of the

⁸ Boskovic, M., Banovic B. (2001) *Methodology Crime*, Police College, Belgrade.

⁹ Boskovic, M. (1993) *Methods - Detecting and resolving environmental crime*, Police College, Belgrade.

¹⁰ *The Law on Environmental Protection* ("Off. Gazette of the RS", be. 135/2004, 36/2009, 36/2009, Law 72/2009 - other law 43/2011

¹¹ environmental pollution is the introduction of polluting substances or energy into the environment caused by human activity or natural processes that have or may have harmful effects on the environment and human health, the pollutant is a natural or legal person whose activity or inactivity of polluting the environment. (Law on Environmental Protection, Official Gazette of RS no. 135/04).The content of the concept of pollution in a broader sense includes all negative changes, in whatever form manifested if adversely affect the health of humans and other living beings and the living

basic natural resources, wildlife, disturbed harmony of man - living environment, to very serious threat to the natural conditions necessary for the preservation of the environment, which ultimately calls into question the very survival of the human race. Therefore, the importance of environmental protection is imposed as a global challenge to modern society, with emphasized the question: "How to protect nature from humans, ie. myself from myself?"¹²

ENVIRONMENTAL CRIME – CONCEPT AND CHARACTERISTICS

Today's lifestyle and economy inevitably generate new forms of deviant/delinquent behavior, and a form of modern delinquent behavior are certainly environmental offenses. These offenses are characterized by a specific etiology and phenomenology. Each environmental tort, however coincide with some other similar environmental assaults, and has its own specific situation.

Ecology and crime relevant social facts whose synthesis makes a new term - environmental crime. Ecological crime is a modern form of crime and includes all types of activities that are aimed at the environment and as such incriminated as certain criminal offenses in the Criminal Code of the Republic of Serbia. Thus, the environmental crime we mean a group of offenses that protect the environment. This type of crime is difficult to detect and has a negative impact on the living and working environment.¹³

Ecological crime can be seen in the wider and narrower aspect. Wider significance of environmental crime is defined in the claims that he "is any act committed with the intent to cause damage or potential damage to the environment and / or the world, in order to thus obtain business or personal advantage".¹⁴ The concept of environmental crime emphasizes the deliberate endangering or damaging the environment, therefore a conscious and voluntary act that business and personal (ie, individual interests) assumes the general public interest, which is reflected in a healthy natural environment.

Limited legal aspect perception, environmental crime as determined by any act that is contrary to established norms and environmental legal can be processed. The essence of the exposed concept has been in existence standardized legal codes of conduct in the field of environmental protection, which are generally mandatory character, pre - determined and whose violation is prescribed sanctions.

Environmental crime refers to all activities in violation of environmental regulations and that inflicts significant damage or threat to the environment and human health. The best - known manifestation of this type of crime occurs as illegal emissions or discharges of substances into air, water or land, the illegal trade in animals and plants, illegal trade in substances that deplete the ozone layer, or hazardous waste, etc.¹⁵ Environmental crime brings very high profits, its perpetrators, it is difficult to detect and cause very serious negative consequences for the environment. Today he is considered a serious and widespread problem with which he must fight to the European level.¹⁶

Therefore, this type of crime involves an intentional act or omission which led to environmental degradation and the resulting adverse effects on humans, the environment and natural resources.

conditions. (Boskovic, M. (1993) *Methods - Detecting and resolving environmental crime*, Police College, Belgrade).

12 Bjelajac, F, et al. (2011) *Environmental Policy and its criminal justice framework*, MP 4 / 2011th

13 Blagojevic, M., Et al., *The concept of sustainable development as a function of environmental crime*, Journal of Ecologica, No.63, 2011., p. 544-548.

14 Clifford, M., (2008) *Environmental crime-enforcement, policy and social responsibility*, Aspen Publishers, Gaithersburg

15 Kostic, M., (2009) *Environmental crime and its prevention*, Legal life, the no. 10 Lawyers Association of Serbia, Belgrade.

16 Kostic, M. (2009) *Environmental crime and its prevention*, Legal life, the no. 10 Lawyers Association of Serbia, Belgrade.

Criminal offenses against the environment include all violations of environmental regulations to criminal sanctions.

Ecological crime is a particular type of crime that has resulted in pollution of water, air, and The Land on a larger scale or in the wider area, thereby endangering the lives and health of people or causes destruction of the flora and fauna of larger scale.¹⁷ Ecological crime tends to intense development while gaining more and more features of severe forms of crime that significantly affect basic human values.

Ecological crime, as part of the overall modern crime, possesses a number of features that characterize contemporary crime governance, such as mass, dynamics, adequate level of organization, the continued expansion and the presence of a foreign element, and skillfully adapt to new socio - political and economic relations.¹⁸ A special feature of this type of crime in Victimology aspects, where all the victims that are denied an environment in which no one is a victim.¹⁹

One of the important features of this type of crime is its stealth. It generates risk disclosure of these crimes - the so-called. "dark figure" crime (number of undiscovered crimes and perpetrators, and perpetrators of criminal acts which are not prosecuted). In ecological crimes "dark figure" occupies a prominent place. Latent environmental crime occurs mainly for two reasons. First, as a number of these crimes committed by the consequences of not publicly manifested, or not performed immediately, and the criminal act and its perpetrator remained undiscovered, and others, that regardless of the visible external manifestations of a higher level of environmental pollution are measures taken to establish the existence of specific environmental criminal offenses and the discovery of the perpetrator. In both cases, this made environmental crimes are not discovered or proven and, therefore, are not included in official statistics authorities. That led the statistics indicate only the number of detected and recorded environmental crimes, which can be used to express the activities of the competent authorities in detecting and proving these offenses, but not for the view of the real situation in the field of environmental crimes committed.²⁰

Basic forms of threats to the environment are diverse forms of pollution of water air, soil, acting ionizing radiation, noise, etc. Causes of endangerment above values are very numerous and different. That water is vulnerable to all forms of human activity, ranging from individual actions of man, and the process at the global level (seas, oceans, etc.). The air is endangered especially from industry, heating, motor vehicles, nuclear power, various debris, hazardous materials. The land is also threatened by urbanization, industrialization, where especially hurt agricultural land, forests, natural resources. The forests are endangered by all forms of human activity, ranging from individual destruction, logging, and massive destruction and conversion of forests to other areas, thus reducing the physical volume of the source of life.²¹

Special problems are considered organized crime. Organized crime seeks to establish its diverse activities, maintain and expand to all areas of social life where they can achieve adequate benefit. Environmental crime is by its nature often transnational in character and can appear as a special type of organized crime.²² In these cases manifested as trafficking in natural resources, illicit trade in plants and animals, illegal/unauthorized fishing, illegal exploitation and trafficking of minerals and precious stones, wood or hazardous waste, etc.²³

17 Matijevic, M., (2009) *The specificity of environmental crime prevention*, Proceedings Panevoropskog University "Apeiron", Scientific Conference, "Environmental security in the postmodern period," Banja Luka.

18 Boskovic, M., (1993) *Methods - Detecting and resolving environmental crime*, Police College, Belgrade.

19 Ljuština, A., *Protection of the environment by strengthening the environmental safety of young*, Internet sites

20 Boskovic, M., Banovic, B. (2001) *Methodology Crime*, Police College, Belgrade.

21 Matijevic, M., (2009) *The specificity of environmental crime prevention*, Proceedings Panevoropskog University "Apeiron", Scientific Conference, "Environmental security in the postmodern period," Banja Luka.

22 Siegel, D., Nelen, H. (2008) *Organized crime - Culture, Markets and Polices*, Springer Vol. 7, New York.

23 Kostic, M. (2009) *Environmental crime and its prevention*, Legal life, the no. 10 Lawyers Association of Serbia, Belgrade.

Nature of transnational environmental crime due either to the fact that the effects of cross - border nature of the crime or that there is an illegal movement of goods across national borders. Such cross - border dimension of environmental crime is a result of the globalization of crime due to which criminals operate through “disturbing porous” borders,²⁴ using the ease of communication and movement of goods and money.

Forms of environmental crime can be conditionally divided into two categories:²⁵

1. trade in natural resources, which includes trade in endangered species, illegal logging and illegal exploitation and trade of mineral resources, and
2. trade in hazardous substances, which includes the illegal trade in substances that deplete the ozone layer and delay and trade waste.

Certain forms of environmental crime such as poaching of wild animals, may threaten the existence of entire species and deprive local communities valuable resources for tourism and the economy in general. Effects of certain environmental crimes are global in nature, for example, ozone depletion or throwing hazardous waste that may affect a wide geographic area or contaminate the entire water system.²⁶

Therefore, this type of crime involves crimes against the environment, which make very high profits, its perpetrators and difficult to detect, causing a negative impact on the environment. So today environmental crime has become a serious and widespread problem at the national and international level.

CRIMINAL JUSTICE ASPECTS OF THE ENVIRONMENT IN SERBIA

Ecological crime today is a real social phenomenon in which the company is obliged to respond to imperative legal norms. This type of crime is not observed or can be viewed in isolation from the broader crime as a social phenomenon that is criminalized and socially undesirable. Modern society, including the Serbian society, as one of the most individual and general social values emphasize the health of the individual and the community .

The right to a healthy environment is one of the fundamental rights of man which is in the modern legislation raised to the level of a constitutional right. Constitution of the Republic of Serbia stipulates that a person has the right to a healthy environment, but also established the obligation, in accordance with the law, protect and nurture the environment.²⁷

In the past environment to protect certain crimes, such as crimes against public health, crimes against the economy, crimes against public security and others. In the criminal law of 01.01.2006., beginning the implementation of the new Criminal Code,²⁸ for the first time in one place classified all criminal offenses that are aimed at protecting the environment and which primarily protects the environment.²⁹

In addition to the gradual expansion of the criminal zone, spread the circle of persons who may be responsible for crimes against the environment, the adoption of the Law on criminal liability

24 Brack D. Hayman, *Intergovernmental Actions on Illegal Logging*: Options for intergovernmental action to help combat illegal logging and illegal trade in timber and forest products. UK Department for International Development, London, (<http://www.illegal-logging.info/pdf>)

25 Pisarić, M., (2011) *Suppression of cross-border environmental crime*, Journal of Law, University of Novi Sad, 2/2011, Novi Sad.

26 Pisarić, M., (2011) *Suppression of cross-border environmental crime*, Journal of Law, University of Novi Sad, 2/2011, Novi Sad.

27 Krstic, J., (2012) *Environmental offenses - an analysis of the reality on the example of the Republic of Serbia*, 10 International scientific conference with Synergy 2012^b

28 Criminal Code (“Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia”, no.85/2005, 88/2005, 107/2005, 72/2009 and 111/2009).

29 Stojanovic, Z., Peric, O. (2009) *Criminal law - special part*, of the Faculty of Law, University of Belgrade.

of legal persons,³⁰ and in our legal system introduced the institute of criminal liability of legal persons, which until now could only respond to economic offenses. Also a number of crimes against the environment is regulated by specific secondary legislation and is provided by other laws. Crimes against the environment is not protected as early classical human rights such as life and health, but alone it is a good environment, more precisely, the right man at the well-preserved environment.³¹

As mentioned, we are all crimes are classified into one 's head (XXIV), and are named: Crimes against the environment. The main object of protection of this group of offenses is the environment. It essentially derives from the title of a number of offenses in this group.

- Environmental pollution art. 260 CCRS,
- Failure to measure environmental art. 261 CCRS,
- Illegal construction and operation of facilities and plants that pollute the environment art. 262 CCRS,
- Damage to buildings and equipment for environmental art. 263 CCRS,
- Damage to the environment art. 264 CCRS,
- Destruction, damage and taking abroad of protected natural good art. 265 CCRS,
- Violation of the right to information on the environmental art. 268 CCRS,

In other crimes which are offenses against the environment and which are not in its title the term "environment", protecting the goods that are also part of the environment such as:

- The killing and torturing animals art. 269 CCRS,
- Transmission of infectious diseases in animals and plants art. 270 CCRS,
- Forests devastation art. 274 CCRS,
- Forest stealing art. 275 CCRS,
- Illegal hunting of Article 276 CCRS,
- Illegal fishing art. 277 RSCC et al.

Most of these crimes can be made with the intent and negligence, but some of these offenses may be done only with the intent, and offenses under Article 262, 266, 267, 268, 269, 274, 275, 276 and 277 CCRS.

In all cases, for crimes against the environment, the prosecution is undertaken ex officio by the competent public prosecutor. In addition it is anticipated that in some cases, punish and attempt criminal offenses against the environment regardless of the severity of potential punishment, and it is a crime under art. 265 paragraph 3, art. 266 par. 1 and art. 275 par. 1 and 2.

The specificity of certain crimes from this group how is it different from other crimes in the criminal code is that for some of these criminal offenses, expressly provides for the imposition of a conditional sentence with the obligation of the offender to undertake certain specified time limit specified protective measures, preservation and improvement of the environment and to the offenses referred to in art. 260, 261, 262, 263, 264 and 266 CCRS.

³⁰ The law on the liability of legal persons for criminal offenses ("Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia", no. 97/2008).

³¹ Škulić, M., et al. (2011) *Handbook of Environmental Protection*, Association of Prosecutors and Deputy Public Prosecutors of Serbia, Beograd; Stupar, B., *Basic legal aspects of environmental protection in the Republic of Serbia* (<http://www.besplatnopravnepomoc.rs>)

For certain offenses provided that the means of committing a criminal offense subject to criminal acts consuming in terms of the offenses referred to in art. 276 and 277 CCRS.

One of the most important, fundamental characteristic of crimes against the environment that it is the primary object of a protective environment, and human right to a healthy and relatively well preserved nature and productive life in harmony with it, as one of the fundamental human rights enshrined in national and international law. This right, unlike other human rights concerns and to future generations.³² It is therefore of paramount importance that the environment has grown into an independent and the primary object,³³ of protection, considering that until the mid-twentieth century, protected only by some other protective object, such as health or general safety.³⁴

In addition to the positive legal framework in the field of criminal responsibility of individuals who are, as could be seen, consisting of incrimination contained in Chapter XXIV of the Criminal Code, the Act on the criminal liability of legal persons in our legal system introduced the institute of criminal liability of legal entities,³⁵ which are until now could only respond to economic crimes.³⁶ Therefore, the adoption of the liability of legal persons for criminal offenses, constituted a positive legal framework in the field of environmental criminal liability of legal persons.

Tort actions entities have unforeseen negative consequences in all areas. The greedy desire for profit, individual entities do not have any consideration to the most important assets of individuals and society. Damage caused by criminal acts that are very large for the whole society, especially when it comes to crimes against the environment.³⁷

The consequence of criminal acts in the area of environmental crime consists in the violation or threat to the environment. Consequences in the form of injury consists in the destruction or damage to the environment as a consequence of compromising consists in causing a danger to the environment where the distinction should be made on concrete and abstract danger. In fact, this particular danger to the environment endangers but there has been a violation of a abstract danger is actually only created the possibility that the environment has come to harm, but that did not happen.

ENVIRONMENTAL CRIMINAL ACTS AS A THREAT TO ORGANIC SECURITY IN SERBIA

Social and economic well-being as the goal of modern societies with developed technical and technological potential, achieved through optimal environmental conditions that can not be complete without a preserved environment. On the other hand, has its performance without the constant improvement of the economic and technical development, which inevitably leads to alter nature. These two factors, economic, technical and technological development, on the

32 Criminal Code ("Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia", no. 85/2005, 88/2005, 107/2005, 72/2009 and 111/2009).

33 Stojanovic, Z., Peric, O. (2009) *Criminal law-special part* of the Faculty of Law, University of Belgrade.

34 Gajinovic, T., Vig, M., (2012) *The problem of environmental kriminalai improving the criminal justice system to protect the environment in the Republic of Serbia*, 10 International scientific conference with Synergy 2012th

35 *The law on the liability of legal persons for criminal offenses* ("Off. Gazette of the RS", no. 97/08 dated 27.10.2008. Whatever.)

36 Krstic, J., (2012) *Environmental offenses - an analysis of the reality on the example of the Republic of Serbia*, 10 International scientific conference with Synergy 2012th

37 Crime entities in the professional community and the public in general terms means the corporation crime and criminality, "white collar". Corporate crime includes those crimes that the corporation violated the norms that their operations are regulated. It is a form of crime that carried people to important positions in organizations, institutions and corporations to achieve illicit profit organization, or institution. The bottom line is the careful planning of illegality by business people, with the intention to increase profits by circumventing or direct violation of the law. (Tanjević, N. (2011) *Society as a victim of crime entities*, European University, Faculty of European Business and Marketing, Belgrade, Temida, June, no. 2).).

one hand, and a healthy environment, on the other hand, are in constant contradiction, which makes the creation of many sources and forms of threats to the environment at the macro and micro level.³⁸

Republic of Serbia, burdened with numerous challenges of the transition process, there are adverse ecological security conditions. They are the product of political - economic, regulatory, social, cultural, socio - and other pathological conditions that exist in the with us. On the other hand, the requirement of structuring a reliable system of protection and improvement of the environment is the identification of the causes, as well as individual sources or damaging the environment. Therefore, it is necessary to perceive the environment as a special value and valorize its protection through the security system. Time does not stand a security priority for a healthy environment in comparison to other security values, but emphasizes its importance in maintaining a healthy social and economic base of strategic importance for the functioning of society and the state.³⁹

Due to the security situation which is the Republic of Serbia, it is important to emphasize the theoretical and empirical valuation of the causes, sources and individual forms of threats to the environment, because environmental issues more prominent than before, primarily due to social causes. These are the following factors endangering the environment: importation and use of obsolete technology and technological processes, war activities and destruction of the immediate past and the legal framework for environmental protection in Serbia, which is daily extending the adoption of legislation that is in line with the prevailing concept of sustainable development, but still not adequate real life threats.

The current level and the speed of technological development as well as generators of environmental crime, requiring constant monitoring and registration of new forms of undesirable effects on the environment, to criminal legislation was properly amended.

CONCLUSION

The development of civilization, industry and agriculture, expansion of transport and modern business people, increase population to the extent possible the survival, significantly disrupted the harmonious relationship between man and nature. A kind of relationship with the excessive use of natural resources, food shortages, global climate change, reduced ozone layer, to a large extent calls into question the continued existence of mankind.

Activity which endangers human environment, the result of deliberate omission or failure to implement the rules, technical specifications and standards in the handling of a number of hazardous energy sources and raw materials, and when handling or dealing otherwise dangerous devices, thus creating the conditions for the risk of accidents of various types, volume and dimensions encompassing some space and everything in it found in the area of operations of this risk. Such caused by the activities of individuals and groups, are unauthorized, prohibited and punishable behavior, and environmental assaults. Depending on the scope and intensity caused by the effects on the environment, measures of activity, characteristics of the offender and the offense prescriptive certain behavior in the laws and by-laws of a general nature and types of sanctions imposed by differences of environmental offenses.

Ecological crime as harmful effects on the environment, part of the overall crime and one of its newer components, the product of general social development. Turned against the values of the environment (legal provisions that criminalized detrimental impact on the value of the environment), that modern society emphasizes and protects because the basis for the survival of man and his kind.

Endangering environmental crime is a growing problem that causes serious harm to the environment. In recent years, a number of actions that it threatens multiplied. In addition, this type of crime is susceptible to executives about the possibility of realizing large profits with

³⁸ Keković, Z., Todorovic Z., (2008) *Environmental stress in Serbia - a security aspect*, NBP, No. 3/2008, p.38.

³⁹ Keković, Z., Todorovic Z., (2008) *Environmental stress in Serbia - a security aspect*, NBP, No. 3/2008, p.38.

minimal risk of detection and prosecution, especially when it comes to criminal offenses with elements of organized crime, international.

REFERENCES

1. 1. Blagojević., M. et al. (2011) *The concept of sustainable development as a function of environmental crime*, Ecologica, Belgrade.
2. 2 .Boskovic, M. (1993) *Methods - Detecting and resolving environmental crime*, Police College, Belgrade.
3. 3. Boskovic, M., Banovic, B. (2001) *Methodology Crime*, Police College, Belgrade.
4. 4. Bjelajac., F., et al . (2011) *Environmental Policy and its criminal justice framework* , MP 4 / 2011th
5. 5. Brack D. Hayman, *Intergovernmental Actions on Illegal Logging : Options for intergovernmental action to help combat illegal logging and illegal trade in timber and forest products* . UK Department for International Development , London , (<http://www.illegal-logging.info/pdf>)
6. 6.Vrhovšek, M., (2008) *Legal protection of the environment*, Defender, no. 3-4/2008
7. 7. Gajinov., T. (2011) *Environmental Crime and responsibilities of legal entities in the Republic of Serbia*, Law and Economy, no. 7-9/2011.
8. 8.Keković , Z., Todorovic, Z., (2008) *Environmental stress in Serbia - a security aspect*, NBP, No. 3/2008, Criminal Police Academy, Belgrade.
9. 9.Kostic, M., (2009) *Environmental crime and its prevention*, Legal life, the no. 10 Lawyers Association of Serbia, Belgrade .
10. 10. Krstic, J., (2012) *Environmental offenses - an analysis of the reality on the example of the Republic of Serbia*, 10 International scientific conference with Synergy 2012th
11. 11. Lukic, T., (2011) *Legal protection of the environment*, Proceedings of the Faculty of Law in Novi Sad, 2/2011, Novi Sad.
12. 12. Ljuština, A., (2010) *Environmental offenses and police*, Belgrade: Andrejevic Foundation .
13. 13. Ljuština, A., *Protection of the environment by strengthening the environmental safety of young*, Internet sites.
14. 14. Matijevic, M., (2009) *The specificity of environmental crime prevention*, Proceedings Panevoropskog University "Apeiron", Scientific Conference," Environmental security in the postmodern period," Banja Luka .
15. 15.Pisarić, M ., (2011) *Suppression of cross-border environmental crime*, Journal of Law, University of Novi Sad, 2/2011, Novi Sad.
16. 16.Stojanovic, Z., Peric, O. (2009) *Criminal law - special part* ,of the Faculty of Law, University of Belgrade.
17. 17. Škulić, M., et al. (2011) *Handbook of Environmental Protection*, Association of Prosecutors and Deputy Public Prosecutors of Serbia, Beograd.Stupar, B., basic legal aspects of environmental protection in the Republic of Serbia (<http://www.besplatnapravnapomoc.rs>)
18. 18. Siegel, D., Nelen, H. (Eds) (2008) *Organized crime -Culture , Markets and Polices*, Springer Vol. 7, New York.
19. 19. Tanjević , N. (2011) *Society as a victim of crime entities*, European University, Faculty of European Business and Marketing, Belgrade, Temida, June, no. 2.
20. 20. Clifford . M. (2008) *Environmental crime- enforcement , policy and social responsibility*, Aspen Publishers, Gaithersburg.

REGULATIONS

21. Criminal Code (“Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia “, no. 85/2005, 88/2005, 107/2005, 72/2009 and 111/ 2009).
22. The Law on Environmental Protection (“Off. Gazette of the RS” ,no. 135/2004 , 36/2009, 36/ 2009 - Law 72/2009 - other law 43/2011).
23. The law on the liability of legal persons for criminal offenses (“Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia”, no. 97/2008) .
24. Official Gazette of RS, no. 36/ 09 and 88 / 10th
25. Official Gazette of RS , no. 36 / 09th
26. Official Gazette of RS , no. 41 / 09th
27. Official Gazette of RS , no. 36 / 09th
28. Official Gazette of RS , no. 36/ 09 and 88 / 10th

EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT IN THE SYSTEM OF CORPORATE SECURITY

Lecturer of Professional Studies **Momir Ostojić**, MSc
PhD candidate at the Faculty of Security Studies, University of Belgrade

Full Professor **Milan Milošević**, PhD
Faculty of Business Studies and Law, University "Union Nikola Tesla", Belgrade

Abstract: The paper is devoted to the analysis of integration of safety and security functions and to establish a unified system of corporate security in the context of business continuity and disaster recovery and other extraordinary events, and in relation to emergency management at the national and supranational levels of security. The authors analyze relevant international and national legal and professional documents in field of corporate security, emergency management and the protection of critical infrastructure, with systems analysis of corporate safety and security functions and case studies and examples of effective integrated safety and security management in a corporate environment. At the end, results of this analysis should provide an answer to the research question about the possibilities of more efficient and more rational management of emergency situations by integrating safety and security functions of business organizations in the system of corporate security, or the system of corporate safety.

Keywords: safety, security, emergency, disaster, corporate, management.

INTRODUCTION

The main reason for the existence of corporations and business entities is primarily the acquisition of income, and so when we talk about their security we think, first of all, to protect their human and material resources. In essence it is about protection of corporate property from all forms of harassment, damage to or loss of or reduction in value.

Corporate property can most generally be divided on the basis of a set of rights governing the disposition, as materially and immaterial. Materially property can be divided into so-called tangible property which implies all physical things, buildings, etc., and intangible property by which we mean money and equity. Immaterial property can be divided into intellectual, such as inventions, ideas, expressions of ideas, etc., and the business information of importance for the competitiveness of the corporation and its products in the market.

In relation to these types of property, security mechanisms to protect the various system functions are often fragmented. So it is the protection of tangible physical property with physical and technical security services, protection of the intangible tangible property involved in the financial services, intellectual property protection and business information dealing with the legal and human service systems through legislation to protect the confidentiality and contractual obligations of professional secrecy and development projects and after departure workers and professionals. Protecting business information in electronic form is usually under the jurisdiction of IT services as special units.

Intellectual property is much more difficult to secure of alienation or use as its base are the ideas that grow in the patent, it can't prohibit others to have the same or similar ideas, nor may be prohibited from experts to other corporations in improved and implemented, and that sell their knowledge and skills acquired in earlier. Even harder to protect business information that employees remember and managerial skills acquired and used at the turn of the other corporations. In essence this is a form of internal theft and insider abuse of business information that is very difficult and often impossible to prove, with the most frequently irreparable damage. With the forth and the fact that large corporations develop their own intelligence services for economic espionage, both to protect their own and for the collection of business information about others, we can conclude that they are primarily security problems, and then the legal, economic and human resources problems.

Since we have concluded that this is a security problem, we consider appropriate for the subject prior to entering into the issue briefly look at the theoretical problems of understanding

and defining security. From the multitude of definitions in the literature can be singled out as indisputable that security is: the state, the organization, functions, and science. Security is often in the most general sense is defined as freedom from fear, intimidation and physical violence. However, it can be considered that there has been a scientific consensus on the view that there is no absolute security, so it is defined as the desired state of the system, which is achieved by eliminating the threats and risks that come from outside or inside of the system, we can define security as being in the known and controlled risk, or we can accept the risk as object of a security.

For a multitude of different definitions of security in the literature we could say that „how many scientists - so many definition“. Considering the current undisputed theoretical stances and their upgrades with accepting risk in security, protection mechanism is the security organization; security chores are functions to which we have to add the risk management process which must be scientifically based in order to be able to check the state of the security. Since there is no absolute security, the goal is to minimize the risk to their elimination in a single scientific basis for any subject of protection.

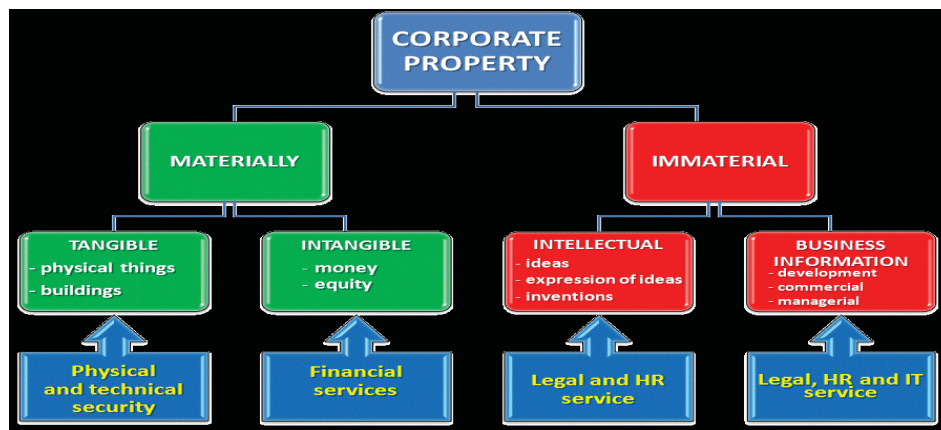


Figure 1: Corporate property and responsibility for protection

Corporation, or enterprise organization we look as a system where risks coming from outside or inside of the system. Risk we want to eliminate, or minimize to such system the most general can be divided into external and internal. The appearance of the most common outside risks include burglary and theft, diversion, attacks on staff and others arising from the immediate and distant environment. Under the internal mean risks of internal sabotage, fires accidents at the plants, all kinds of internal theft by staff, but also all other types of risks arising from the activities. Certain corporation engaged in specific activities (transportation, petroleum and chemical, electrical and nuclear plants, etc.) can cause threats that may have greater consequences of a terrorist attack or sabotage, in itself, so the environment or users of their services. For example, collision of aircraft, vessel or vehicle, and damage to them can have much more serious consequences than hijacking or dangerous devices imputation. In addition to the responsibilities and the need for their own security and safety, these corporations are responsible for the safety of users of their products and services, as well as for the safety of the environment in which they operate. Such corporations are developing a systematic safety management as a separate function and organizational units, and often functionally and organizationally merged with quality management.

The basis for the development of the Safety Management System is a standardized risk management within ISO 31000. Also, all the other stated security and safety functions and standards, such as for example ISO 27000 series for developing information security management system, essentially have a risk management standard ISO 31000. That's the exact same theoretical and methodological foundations develop corporate safety and security management as a distinct

and separate functions in various forms of business and protection of various forms of corporate property. The only difference that can be seen between the safety and security management is just that the safety management focuses primarily on managing internal risks, while security management focuses primarily on managing external risks and confronting the dangers that come out of the system. However, the consequences of endangering are the same, or similar, and the methodology and theoretical approach are identical in both cases.

EMERGENCY SITUATIONS

The literature and documents dealing with emergency situations often use similar terms in the same context, such as **emergency** and **disaster**. The theory strives for clearer definition and delimitation between these two terms.¹ Thus, for example, Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth has defined emergency and disaster as two different situations, in the following manner:

“Emergency is a situation generated by the real or imminent occurrence of an event that requires immediate attention” (key words). Paying immediate attention to an event or situation as described above is important as the event/situation can generate negative consequences and escalate into an emergency. The purpose of planning is to minimize those consequences. Disaster is a natural or human-caused event which causes intensive negative impacts on people, goods, services and/or the environment, exceeding the affected community’s capability to respond” (key words). An emergency is a situation in which the community is capable of coping. It is a situation generated by the real or imminent occurrence of an event that requires immediate attention and that requires immediate attention of emergency resources. A disaster is a situation in which the community is incapable of coping. It is a natural or human-caused event which causes intense negative impacts on people, goods, services and/or the environment, exceeding the affected community’s capability to respond; therefore the community seeks the assistance of government and international agencies”.²

From these definitions is evident that the difference in these terms arise in relation to the ability of communities to cope with such situations, and that the disaster refers primarily to large-scale “natural or human-caused events” and which is necessary to engage national and international resources. Also, there is placing emphasis on “planning in emergency situations to minimize the consequences”. However, the plan of reactions is more necessary if an event of major proportions and it just serves to make the community was prepared and able to cope with large-scale events. From this it can be concluded that we can’t set a clear distinction between these terms, and that the emergency is broader term that includes the disaster, and that disaster shall mean the complex emergency situation including large-scale events that can’t be adequately prevented, which is why planning and preparation done primarily in order to efficiently rehabilitation of the consequences.

When we talk about corporate security in order to protect corporate resources and operations, emergency and disaster also threatens all forms of corporate property, and planning for the effective action in emergency situations in the literature, documents and regulations defined as “Business Continuity” (BC), and the recovery from both emergency and the disaster situation is meant by “Disaster Recovery”(DR) with “Contingency Planning” (CP).

Free markets and integration processes of globalization have led to the creation of multinational corporations that do business around the world, as well as the business of tying a growing number of business organizations, which is why there is increasing their interdependence.

The term of emergency situation is often associated with critical infrastructure (CI) which include those physical resources, services, and information technology facilities, networks and infrastructure assets which, if disrupted or destroyed, would have a serious impact on the health, safety, security or economic well-being of Citizens or the effective functioning of governments. Endangering critical infrastructure automatically causes emergency for several corporations whose business is related to it. Due to the interdependence of the functions of

¹About the delineation of the basic concepts (emergency, crisis, disaster...) view: Kešetović, Ž. (2008). *Krizni menadžment*, Fakultet bezbednosti / Službeni glasnik, Beograd, page 24-29.

²Introduction to Disaster Management, (2008), Version 1.0, Course Manual, Vancouver: Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth (VUSSC), page 14.

national critical infrastructure and their cross-border impact, in European documents is separately defined European Critical Infrastructure (ECI) which include those physical resources, services, and information technology facilities, networks and infrastructure assets, which, if disrupted or destroyed would have a serious impact on the health, safety, security, economic or social well-being of two or more MS.³ Given the breadth of coverage of activities, many corporations are critical infrastructure, making their protection gets a supranational character.

BUSINESS CONTINUITY AND DISASTER RECOVERY

Analyzing business continuity and IT disaster recovery, Witty and Stevens pointed out that planners of BC and DR management should initiate a multipart awareness campaign and should leverage compliance initiatives, industry regulations and recent disaster events. They also recommend working with line-of-business executives on an informal business impact analysis (BIA) or walkthrough test to shore up support. The best approach to getting management's attention and commitment is to make BC management relevant to the business by communicating the business benefits (reputation/brand preservation, revenue preservation, regulatory, legal and contractual compliance, community support, life/safety protection and so forth). Linking key performance indicators (KPIs) to key availability risk indicators is an effective approach for communicating to business management the value of BC management so that they take ownership of BC management plan management and commit to the needed investments year over year to maintain the BC management program. Effective BC management planning requires commitment from all lines of business and all levels of management. They see a serious problem when executive management don't understand the risk and don't support BC management program. In the example of BC program management model they propose a collaborative BC management organizational model in which the Enterprise BC Manager and Enterprise DR Manager coordinate all business lines and across administrative sectors associated physical security, human resource, legal and other functions. Also, there must be a line of co-ordination with the BC regional management coordinator. In each division, line of business, business unit or department, a person must be assigned the responsibility for recovery activities. The role of the enterprise BCM office is to develop the framework, procedures for plan creation and management, and the toolset to be used to develop all BCM plans.⁴

Australian National Audit Office considered that business continuity management is an essential component of good public sector governance. It supports and sustains the entity's business strategy, goals and objectives in the face of disruptive events which may be an acute (e.g. Fire), creeping (e.g. series of minor IT system failures culminating in the failure of a large or primary system), or sustained event (e.g. pandemic).

There are a number of interrelated activities that work together to prevent and manage a significant business disruption event. These include:

- business continuity management (encompassing Information Technology disaster recovery);
- risk management;
- emergency response management; and
- incident management.

The integration of these activities is a success factor for building entity resilience. These activities provide the tactical, strategic and operational response to a business disruption. Figure 2 depicts the relationship between risk, emergency response, incident and business continuity management in managing a business disruption.

These management activities are scalable, depending on the operating context of the entity. It may be that in small, non-complex or less time-critical entities, some or all of these activities are combined. In entities that are large, complex, or geographically dispersed, the use of separate emergency response, incident management and business continuity management teams

³ Green Paper on a European Programme for Critical Infrastructure Protection, Commission of the European Communities, (2005). Brussels.

⁴ Witty, R. J., Stevens, L. (2010). Ten Best Practices for Creating and Maintaining Effective Business Continuity Management Plans, Research, Gartner, ID Number: G00174201, page 6-9.

increases the need for clear roles and responsibilities, and effective communication. Business continuity management is the focus of this guide.⁵

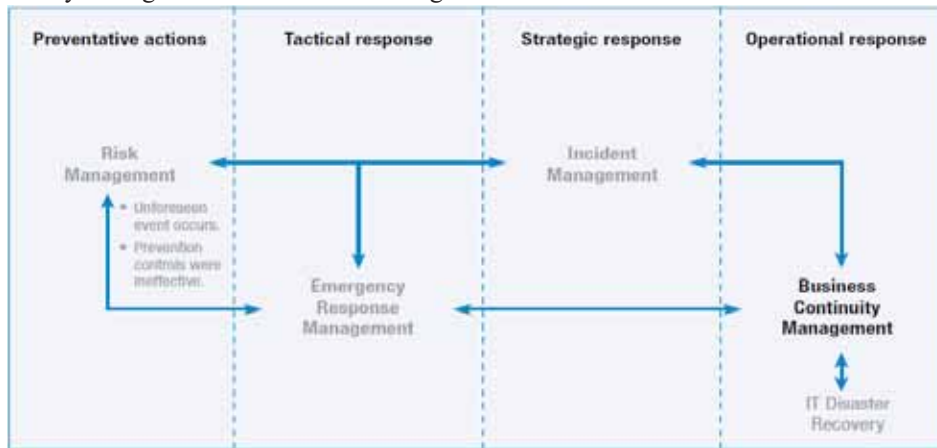


Figure 2: The relationship between risk, emergency response, incident and business continuity management in managing a business disruption⁶

BC and DR basically have planned and systematic action to protect all forms of corporate operation and property from all forms of threats and disruption of business processes, whether caused by natural disasters, errors in the functioning of the system or the violent and illegal activities in the region. Therefore, BC and DR are equally and in the same way indispensable elements of both safety management, and security management as well. The starting point is a preventive action through risk management to predict and analyze the possible types of emergencies that may adversely affect the business and corporate ownership.

Answers to such events should be prepared at the strategic, operational and tactical levels. Adequate strategic response is the incident management through the analysis of previous incidents and prediction of possible future forms. Operational response is manifested by an appropriate BC and DR management. Strategic and operational response should provide adequate tactical response immediately after the occurrence of an emergency event.

CONTINGENCY PLAN

Adequate BC and DR management functionalize the Contingency Plane (CP), which should be the result of a well prepared strategic and operating-response, in order to appropriate tactical responses. A good example is the CP in the Air Navigation System, which was basically set up within the European organizations for the safety of air navigation (Eurocontrol). National air navigation services, which previously were government bodies, are transformed into the corporated organizations with the possibility of privatization, and the preservation and improvement of the achieved safety level is predicted through the establishment of Safety Management System based on the standardized basics of risk management. CP develops within such institutionalized Safety Management System, and this concept of contingency is organized along a "Contingency Life Cycle" composed of the following phases:

- Normal Operations;
- Emergency Situations;
- Degraded Modes of Operation;
- Service Continuity;
- Recovery to Normal Operations;
- and (back to) Normal Operations.

⁵ Business Continuity Management - Building resilience in public sector entities, Better Practice Guide, (2009), Australian National Audit Office.

⁶ Source: Ibid.

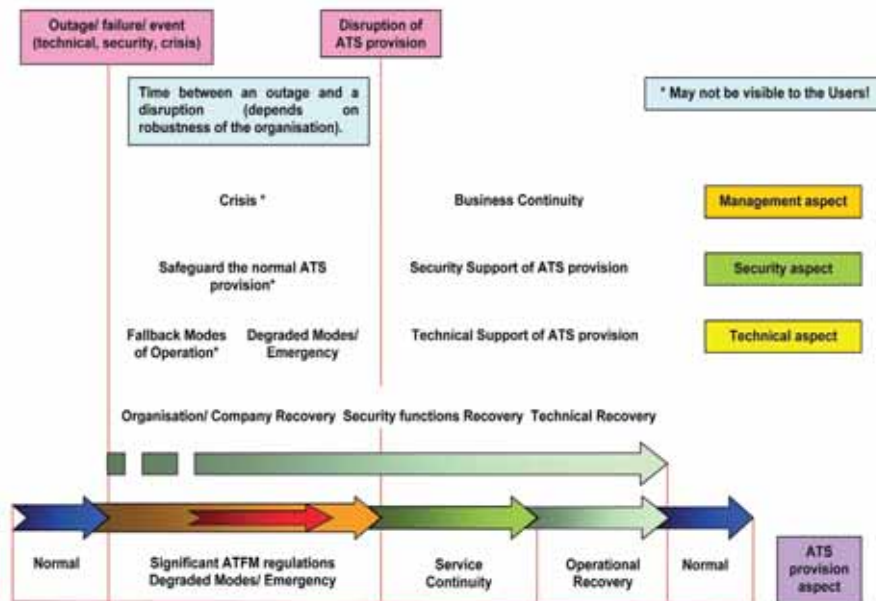


Figure 3: Expanded Contingency Life Cycle⁷

The Contingency Life Cycle described previously is at a very high level of abstraction and is largely seen through the aspect of air navigation services provision in terms of modes of operation. However, it is also possible to view the Life Cycle from a number of other aspects (e.g. Technical, Security and Managerial) to elaborate how outages and other security or crisis events could impact on the provision of air traffic services and the modes of operation.

From the Security aspect a security event could initiate the introduction of specific security measures aimed at safeguarding normal air traffic services provision. Air traffic flow management regulations may also have to be put in place. Both conditions may last until the situation is resolved.⁸

Emergency and Degraded modes of operation are largely covered by current practices, but there is a need to formulate an approach for Service Continuity modes and the transition (Recovery) back to Normal operations.

This shows the level of safety and the service type in function of the time. In Figure 4, the horizontal axis shows the time, the durations of the different phases shown are not representative of the length of those phases. They could be very different from one event to another or from one environment to another. On this figure, 2 vertical axes have been superimposed:

Safety: The Safety Target line shows the minimum level of safety that shall be achieved, it is not a function of time nor a function of the service type provided.

Service Type: This represents the evolution from one Mode of Operations (e.g.: “Normal Mode”, “Service Continuity Mode”...) to another in function of the time. A Service type/mode of operations should have a defined set of minimum/maximum functionalities, availability of key equipments, key staff etc).

Evolution from one mode of operations to another is presented as going from the “Normal Mode of Operations“, until a set of failures or shortcomings appear in the system (failure of some equipment, staffing reduced under a given limit, ...). Those disruptions could appear all at once or one after another (represented by the dotted stairs).⁹

⁷ Source: Guidelines for Contingency Planning of Air Navigation Services (including Service Continuity), (2009), Edition 2.0, EUROCONTROL.

⁸ Guidelines for Contingency Planning of Air Navigation Services (including Service Continuity), (2009), Edition 2.0, EUROCONTROL, page 29-30.

⁹ Ibid, page 169.



Figure 4: Service Types¹⁰

CONTINGENCY PLANNING AND RISK MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Analyzing the relationship of CP and risk management processes in the IT system, Swanson M. and others pointed out that risk management encompasses a broad range of activities to identify, control, and mitigate risks to the system. Risk management activities from the contingency planning perspective have two primary functions.

First, risk management should identify threats and vulnerabilities so that appropriate controls can be put into place to either prevent incidents from happening or to limit the effects of an incident. These security controls protect the system against three classifications of threats:

Natural - e.g., hurricane, tornado, flood, and fire

Human - e.g., operator error, sabotage, implant of malicious code, and terrorist attacks

Environmental - e.g., equipment failure, software error, telecommunications network outage, and electric power failure.

Second, risk management should identify residual risks for which contingency plans must be put into place. The contingency plan, therefore, is very closely tied to the results of the risk assessment and its mitigation process. Figure 5 illustrates the relationship between identifying and implementing security controls, developing and maintaining the contingency plan, and implementing the contingency plan once the event has occurred.

For example, in many cases, critical resources may reside outside the organization's control (such as electric power or telecommunications), and the organization may be unable to ensure their availability.¹¹



Figure 5: Contingency Planning as an Element of Risk Management Implementation¹²

Having identified suitable risk assessment procedures and decided the benchmark test of significance for different classes of risks, it will then be possible to identify the appetite or attitude to that type of risk, together with the capacity of the organisation to withstand that

¹⁰ Source: Ibid.

¹¹ Swanson, M., Wohl, A., Pope, L., Grance, T., Hash, J., Thomas, R., (2001), Contingency Planning Guide for Information Technology Systems, Recommendations of the National Institute of Standards and Technology, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, page6.

¹² Source: Ibid.

risk. Finally, the organisation can determine the overall exposure to the particular type of risk under consideration. Internal and external factors can give rise to risks. Figure 6 is based on the financial, infrastructure, reputational and marketplace - FIRM Risk Scorecard risk classification system and it provides examples of internal and external key risk drivers. Some risk classification systems have strategic risk as a separate category. However, the FIRM Risk Scorecard approach suggests that strategic (as well as tactical and operational) risks should be identified under all four headings.¹³

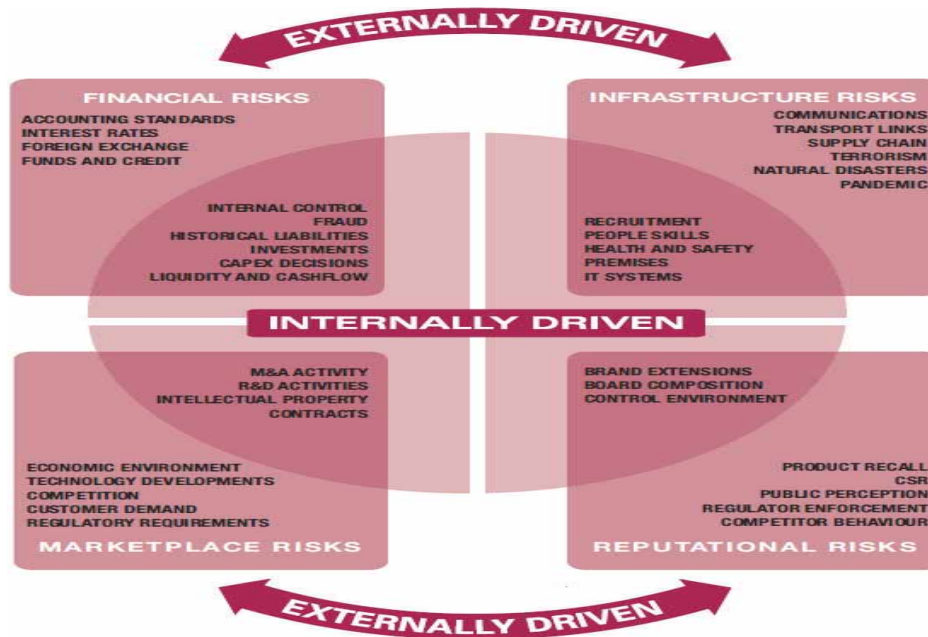


Figure 6: Drivers of risk management¹⁴

CONCLUSION

Business in the open, liberalized and globalized market opens up a whole range of security and safety issues and challenges faced by modern business organizations. Security becomes imperative and prerequisite for efficient operations, but also the obligation of business organizations, with less and less duties and liabilities of the state. Therefore, modern corporations are faced with the need to establish its own security and safety system, as essential elements of the management mechanism. The purpose of these systems is primarily the protection of tangible and intangible property and business. However, corporations are also responsible for the safety of those who provide their services or products, as well as for the safety of the environment in which they operate. In relation to the type of business, corporate tangible and intangible property, external and internal risks, corporations and business organizations establishing more safety and security features that are based on identical standardized methodology of risk management.

Before the analysis in this paper, the authors held several seminars in all areas of corporate security which is attended by a large number of managers at all levels and security managers from various business organizations. In all of them spotted the organizational separation of

¹³ A structured approach to Enterprise Risk Management (ERM) and the requirements of ISO 31000, (2010), London: The Institute of Risk Management, AIRMIC, Alarm, IRM, <http://www.ferma.eu>, page 14.

¹⁴ Source:Ibid.

security and safety functions across sectors and service of organizations. At the suggestion of the authors, only one corporation has made the integration of safety and security features into a single organizational unit, and it has been shown that it is not caused almost no material costs or the need to recruit new staff, but with the increased efficiency of all security functions, while conducting safety and security affairs became better organized and easier.

This analysis also clearly shows that the emergency management based on risk management and can't effectively operate outside the framework of safety and security management. Contingency plan, which should be the result of adequate Business Continuity and Disaster Recovery management, is a unique platform Safety and Security Management, in which encompasses all business processes and organizational units. Therefore, the most effective way of functioning emergency management is within a single system of corporate security with integrated safety and security functions into one organizational entity.

REFERENCES

1. A structured approach to Enterprise Risk Management (ERM) and the requirements of ISO 31000, (2010). London: The Institute of Risk Management, AIRMÍC, Alarm, IRM, <http://www.ferma.eu>.
2. Business Continuity Management - Building resilience in public sector entities, Better Practice Guide, (2009), Australian National Audit Office.
3. Green Paper on a European Programme for Critical Infrastructure Protection, Commission of the European Communities, (2005). Brussels.
4. Guidelines for Contingency Planning of Air Navigation Services (including Service Continuity), (2009). Edition 2.0, EUROCONTROL.
5. Introduction to Disaster Management, (2008). Version 1.0, Course Manual, Vancouver: Virtual University for Small States of the Commonwealth (VUSSC).
6. Kešetović, Ž. (2008). Kriznimenadžment, Fakultet bezbednosti / Službeni glasnik, Beograd.
7. Swanson, M., Wohl, A., Pope, L., Grance, T., Hash, J., Thomas, R., (2001). Contingency Planning Guide for Information Technology Systems, Recommendations of the National Institute of Standards and Technology, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office.
8. Witty, R. J., Stevens, L. (2010). Ten Best Practices for Creating and Maintaining Effective Business Continuity Management Plans, Research, Gartner, ID Number: G0017420.

EMERGENCY SITUATIONS CAUSED BY TERRORIST ATTACK IN THE AIR TRAFFIC

Vladimir Todorović, MSc

Faculty of Legal and Business Studies "Dr Lazar Vrkatić", Belgrade

Abstract: Modern terrorism is a new form of armed struggle which is the ultimate goal of causing fear, compromising human life and material values. Endangerment is directed to a particular state for the demolition or creating distrust in the existing regime and the exercise of power. Civil aircraft used for terrorist purposes, are a device that floats airspace and contains a huge mass and explosive and flammable substance that is a destructive bombs, with which threatens the overall security in certain areas. It terrorist attacks on civilian aircraft led to the creation of emergency situations both on the aircraft, on the part of the airspace where the aircraft is, or at the airport if it is grounded, which involves a set of complex measures of reaction and complex and coordinated action of different security sector.

Keywords: terrorism, aircraft, violence, security, emergency situations.

INTRODUCTION

The motive and commitment to the study of the problem stemmed from the knowledge of the existence of terrorist-kriminalnih forms of domestic air traffic and endangering innocent human life and health, as well as attacks on the material value in this case aircraft, facilities, airport infrastructure and personal property. Modern science is making great efforts to offer acceptable general definition of terrorism. However, despite the fact that terrorism is a real scourge of modern civilization policies of many powerful nations postpone the definition of modern terrorism. These are double standards and at the same time some states used terrorism when they need without hiring their own military forces cause conflicts and instability in the region. So there is no good and bad terrorists, just or unjust terrorism, no matter what ever the great powers to their unprincipled interpretation of these appearances are misleading public opinion in recognition of modern terrorism. , Terrorism will always be a terror, crime will always be a crime, even when they are committed in the name of great principles and high ideals. " 'Bullying in general and armed violence especially with a tendency to increase in the second half of the twentieth century and the beginning of the XXI century, more and more often represent basic security and social problems in most countries of the world. Terrorism as a form of organized and politically motivated violence, regardless of their goals, the more endanger the safety of persons and aviation in general. For a long climb it is a threat to world peace and security of a large number of states, and For the last time, more and more internationalization as a phenomenon and the problem of the entire international community. And most powerful countries in the world are faced with the problem of terrorism. After 11 September in 2001. The attack on the civilian and economic facilities in the United States, the most serious warning and alert the international community to the threat of large-scale and consequences of terrorism in the future. In this regard it should be noted that the fight against terrorism can realistically become one of the most important points of interest of cooperation the most important safety factors in the international community. The reason for the lack of scientific exploration of terrorism and the lack of uniform definitions adopted should look for the following: 1. Složenosti terrorism as a security phenomenon, 2 Inconsistencies and even contradictions in relation to the most important factors of international Communion to the concept and essence of terrorism, 3 Incompleteness and disorganization of national and international mechanisms and inconsistent classification of types and elements of terrorism.

TERRORISM IS A MODERN FORM OF THREAT AIR TRAFFIC

Terrorism is a modern form of threat to aviation safety. From a legal aspekta Aviation Safety first is defined by the Chicago Convention on international aviation from 1944., and

1 Ulof Palme

for 40 years it was necessary to adopt an act defining issues and ways to combat hijacking of aircraft. The United Nations (UN) adopted the Convention on Offences and Certain Other Acts Committed on Board Aircraft in Tokyo in 1963. Year, which is considered one of the first documents to solve problems endangering the safety of air traffic kidnapping. Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of Civil Aviation of Montreal in 1972. The first defines the threats and other forms of air transport forms of terrorism. Forms of terrorist threats to aviation safety that are inkrinisane acts as crimes novelty in our criminal law, and thus in judicial practice. The offense of hijacking an aircraft and other forms of violence in our judiciary appeared 50s of the 20th century greater when derived hijacking aircraft from national airline JAT and executed the kidnapping of passengers in the area the former Yugoslavia.

Failure to adopt a single definition of terrorism as a distinct phenomenon that is different from other crimes, as well as different views on this phenomenon there is a problem in defining terrorism in aviation. Given that such frequent acts of violence pose a threat to human lives and material goods air transport, it was necessary to investigate all forms of threat to air traffic as follows: 1. Kidnapping aircraft (political motivation), 2 Kidnapping people 3. Physical and armed attacks on people, aircraft, facilities and infrastructure, 4 Planting dangerous and explosive devices on aircraft and facilities, 5 Suicidal acts aircraft, 6 Threats, blackmail, extortion and coercion of representatives of the government and the airlines.

But on the practical level, given the salience of conceptual gaps in this territory there are numerous problems related to: assess and identify those actual and potential hazards of the individual manifestations of terrorism in aviation, building adequate organizational structures whose functional elements were directed to the prevention of and the elimination and rehabilitation of the consequences of potential-grown-criminal attacks, defining an effective security policy in this area with the detailed measures and the instrument is sufficiently developed strategy in preventing and combating terrorist threats.

Purpose of determining the causal connection between international terrorism and anti-terrorism measures, basic content elements endangering the safety of air traffic, the research will be only to the extent necessary to deal with the determination of basic characteristics and effects of anti-terrorist measures the international community and individual states, their complex organizational units in response, as the permanent prevention in the fight in combating and preventing terrorism, also in specific emergencies caused by terrorist activities and compromising air traffic by terrorist activity.

The term threat to aviation safety is the application forms of terrorist violence that takes place endangering the safety of people and values. Terrorist forms of violence by which endanger especially human lives, material assets and aviation in general include hijacking aircraft, kidnapping people, armed attacks on aircraft and facilities, planting of dangerous devices, suicidal acts and public acts of racketeering aircraft in flight. Thus the notion of terrorist violence in the form of air transport represents: 1 Hijacking of an aircraft as a terrorist form of violence which is done endangering the safety of human life, aircraft, air and material values, with the ultimate aim to cause fear and panic in order to perform extortion political and material benefits; 2 Kidnapping people at the airport terminal, which is a form of terrorist violence that takes place endangering the safety of human life; 3 Armed attacks on aircraft and facilities as a terrorist forms of violence, use of firearms; 4 Planting dangerous and explosive devices on aircraft and facilities, which is covered and sudden terrorist activity that is damaging and destroying material values and kill people for threats and causing fear among employees and users of air transport; 5 Suicide terrorist acts of domestic air traffic, which represent new forms of threat which is carried out suicide and the killing of people and destruction of material values for causing fear, panic and uncertainty in the air transport; 6 Racketeering civil aircraft from a military facility, which is an act of state terrorism which threatens the safety of air traffic, people and destroying aircraft in causing fear and imposition of political influence on the power of the state to which he belongs aircraft.

Necessary and also to identify and explore appropriate solutions to prevent and combat Terrorism in air traffic, the above models, the following questions: a) Opposition to acts of terrorism in the aviation regulatory bodies, b) Preventing and combating terrorism forces and specialized services, c) the method and content of preventing and combating terrorism in aviation.

Term prevention of terrorist forms of domestic air transport is a set of measures of actions and activities that involve the activity of preventive deterrent enforcement act of violence, preventing the recruitment and training of terrorists, timely detection intentions of terrorist organizations, prevention, enforcement and interception funding violence.

The term suppression of terrorist violence forms a set of measures and repressive activities and the creation of conditions in combating terrorism financiers, undertaking combat operations against terrorists, their defeat global terrorism calculations and isolation from the public arrest of the perpetrators, the principal and the financiers of terrorism.

ORIGINS OF EMERGENCY IN AIRLINE COMPANY AND COUNTRY

For example Israeli commandos carried out an armed attack on the airport in Beirut 12/28/1968, and destroyed it with explosives at 13 aircraft Arabian airlines and this act caused emergency event. Accordingly, causing an emergency as subversive effect of terrorist group can start by being carried out kidnapped aircraft and directed to a state facility with the aim of collapse, a act of murder carried out a large number of people and cause an emergency situation in the company and the State of Registry. The term of an emergency air traffic is considered to be the emergence of threatening act in which there was a threat to human life, casualties and material values due to which subjects were mobilized security and declared an emergency. Created in the new situation, we plan to seduce new security measures with increased activities, based on the assessment of the risk of criminal activities, goals and methods of operation. In any emergency situation at risk of further terrorist activities and organized-crime groups, which can act with more routes and more airports

The airlines, in addition to the above attacks, extraordinary events in air traffic may cause natural disasters in which people can be affected and tangibles. These are large and prolonged rainfall, causes snow and snow storms, massive flooding, severe and long drought which caused fires, and thus the fire disaster.

Also the occurrence of unexpected events must be familiar with the term suvereninteta of airspace and aircraft belonging. Civil aircraft and aircraft under duress (hijack, sabotage, etc.). Use airspace that is under suverenintetom given state. The airspace of the Republic of Serbia is the space above the territory of the Republic of Serbia. The use of the airspace of the Republic of Serbia is free for all aircraft conducting air transport, according to the international laws, the Law of the Republic of Serbian air traffic and other regulations.² Convention regulating air navigation was made 1919th in Paris. This document stipulates that every state has complete and exclusive sovereignty over the airspace above its territory. Each member of the international aviation organization is free to pass into the sovereign airspace and aircraft that have been announced and approved.

During the creation of an emergency, it is necessary to harmonize work of all sectors and services in an emergency situation, whose actions led to the termination of emergency. Professional body for coordinating emergency air traffic in the example of the Republic of Serbia are the following, in the work of the Committee against Terrorism of the Republic of Serbia as a high-level body should participate and the Prime Minister, Interior Minister, Minister of Defence, Minister of Justice, Foreign Affairs, the Commander anti-terrorist unit, director of information security agency and the director of air traffic. In addition to the legislation, followed by other actions taken to prevent acts of terrorism in aviation, such as: 1 Professional and ongoing training for all staff who are engaged in preventive care activities; 2 More research and testing adequacy of plans, programs, equipment, power, as well as the motives and goals of the terrorist organization that carried out the terror in air traffic in those plans based safety training of workers; 3 Adequate training, equipping, and training of members of the anti-terrorist unit to prevent threats from members of terrorist organizations in the facilities or aircraft; 4 Training, training, equipping special teams battle and fight against organized crime and corruption; 5 Organizing, training, equipping, and training of intelligence bodies that can successfully monitor all the activities of terrorist organizations for the timely transmission of information protection bodies; 6 Coordination security entities in the international community, and the like.

² Article 4 Law on Air Transport, published in the Official Gazette of RS No. 73/2010 of 12.10.2010 year

ROLE AND REACTIONS OF NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL AUTHORITIES IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS IN AIR TRAFFIC

Safety in aviation is a condition in which the risk of endangering the lives and health of people and causing damage to property reduced and maintained at an acceptable level, constant spotting hazards and control the risks from the identified hazards. Providers of air navigation services, airlines, airport operators, aviation and technical organizations involved in the maintenance of aircraft and other entities designated by the Directorate is primarily responsible for the safe conduct of their business or services, and to safely conduct transactions within the aviation entity responsible are all individuals in the performance of their duties affect safety. Safety Management System includes the organization, procedures and accountability system to achieve acceptable levels of safety in the work of the aviation enterprise.³

It is from these departments and complex organizational security factors will depend on how timely and properly react upon occurrence of an emergency air traffic. The assumption of success and every police and anti-terrorist unit is a good knowledge of the problems of terrorism and timely Discovers plans of terrorist intentions and their ultimate goal. To the special unit is readily available reliable information they need to actively work and intelligence and cooperation with international intelligence agencies to respond to emergency situations to be successful. Intelligence activity is specific social activity directed towards the external and internal terrorism. Intelligence system of anti-terrorist forces at airports should have clear goals-when, where, and how to monitor and inform, the task: the preparation of plans and programs of action in emergency situations, the collection of specific confidential information, preventive measures to deter terrorism, prevent and combat terrorism, to expose a preparation for carrying out terrorism, coordination with other intelligence agencies within and outside the borders. Special forces (units) are specifically organized, equipped and trained anti-terrorist teams are intended for special operations that are performed in emergency situations in combat overcoming the terrorist groups or individuals.

It also has one of the bodies to act in emergency situations and is specialized police forces at the airport. Airport border forces teams of special interest to the state and air transport, designed to protect air traffic from all kinds of compromising, and are located at the airports.

Flight control includes a series of actions and procedures that are performed in order to prevent collisions between aircraft in flight and on the maneuvering area, preventing the collision of aircraft and obstacles on the maneuvering area, ensuring regularity and expediency of air traffic and air traffic flow, the identification of aircraft and flying objects to inform the aircraft in flight, coordination of work with ATC susetdnih states issuing permits for the launch rocket protivgradinih as well as alerting and initiating action to search for and rescue services.⁴ Air Traffic Control is responsible for flight safety in the sector that it has been awarded that the airspace in which the state has its own sovereignty. Its activities and the activities of air traffic control, in addition to regular civilian control of navigation controls and of civilian aircraft are in danger (kidnapping, technical failure, fire, collision, accident, etc..). Such aircraft flight control first approaches to help, so that gives priority to land in the other, though they received permission to land or take off. From this state authority flight control begins emergency response, is it important that first receives information about an incident involving an aircraft. Rules sprvodi air traffic control at sea are tied at the international level and represent a unique business system in the world. Timely giving permission for landing of aircraft that require the help of air traffic control contributes to the safety of people and aircraft. On the information that the aircraft is in an emergency situation, air traffic control advises all security agencies and other entities related to the occurrence of an emergency (police, anti-terrorist unit, negotiators BIA, fire brigade, security, medical teams). Flight control constantly observe and monitor the aircraft on which the emergency situation and its activities, expertise and equipment of air traffic control authority making major contributions and participate in overcoming the emergency situation.

With the increase in air traffic hijacking of the sixties and seventies, began to impose the question of whether you can put an end to the spread of this phenomenon otherpage.php whether

³ Article 14 and 16 of the Law on Air Transport, published in the Official Gazette of RS No. 73/2010 of 12.10.2010 year

⁴ Article 46 of the Law on Air Transport, published in the Official Gazette of RS No. 73/2010 of 12.10.2010. year

existing resources and sufficient measures to contain the phenomenon internationally. In addition to the Convention have undertaken certain actions through the United Nations, the International Civil Aviation Organization and other specialized agencies. Approached skupljnju international treaties and agreements governing the following measures: a) establishing jurisdiction under existing conventions b) authority to the captain of the aircraft that is taking various measures in the case of the crime during the summer, c) the application of the Convention for the Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft; d) the rights and duties of the state, which is related to permissions emergency landing on its territory and disembarking persons at risk to aircraft. International organizations whose influence in of realization of safe air travel at an international level are as follows: 1 International aviation organizations ICAO⁵, 2. International Organization IATA⁶- legal international association of national aviation and other companies 3. International Federation of traffic pilot IFALPA⁷, 4. International Organization associations traffic controllers IFATCA⁸, 5. International Organization of associations of civil airports ICAA⁹, and of course, the largest organization for security Interpol.

“ SABENA“ - “ OPERATION IZOTOP 1“

An example that will describe konkretizovaću entire pre-exposure. Hijacking of “Sabena” -, 1 Operation Isotope”

One of the spectacular kidnapping - hijacking planes, took place just over the territory of the former Yugoslavia 8 May in 1972. when the Sabenin Boeing 707 that flew in from Vienna to Lod (15km before Tel Aviv), Flight 572 hijacked by terrorist Organization, “Black September” which belonged to the part of the Fatah faction of the Palestine. Four kidnapers, two men and two women of whom two of them already had record hijackers El-Al aircraft in 1968. years and Lufthansa on the route New Delhi - Athens. One was captain Rifat, drug abuse Asis al-Rashid and the two women were transferred explosive device on the plane. The whole organization was made earlier in Beirut, separated in Frankfurt and Rome, and assembled in Brussels and just a week later by the separation of the group were able kidnapping. Captain Rafat above the territory of the SFRY came suddenly in a pilot Kapina, pointed a gun at the head of the captain aircraft Boeing 707, saying that it was a hijacking and kidnapping. The plane landed on runway airport in Lod, Israel 15 km away from Tel Aviv and placed at the end of the runway in order not to endanger the rest of the traffic. The terrorists are immediately presented their demands were very clear and repeated in French and English. They wanted to be free from Israeli prisons and set free 317 Palestinian prisoners and the airlift in Cairo, as a condition for the release of hostages. But the rule is true in Israel and adopted by Prime Minister Golda Meir was, no negotiations with kidnapers and terrorists. It was decided and ordered to negotiations with terrorists until they put on standby elite anti-terrorist unit Sajeret Markal, and that the command then Lt.-Ehud Barak, who would later become Prime Minister of Israel. The first SWAT team was to find a solution to the plane must not leave the runway LOD of the territory of Israel. The unit was done to sabotage the plane dropping the hydraulic fluid from the system, but not enough to notice in the cockpit of the aircraft on board the captain that the oil “leak”, it would be the alarm in the cab and worked to light is that it means. Lt. Col. Barak and his men were dressed in white mechanic kombinizone, as a technical person viewing the aircraft on the apron. They did a lot of things on the board that it prevented the takeoff of discharge of oil from the hydraulic system, the cross sections for navigation and control, and finally let the air out of tires on all aircraft landing clamps. After this, the commandos were prepared to raid the aircraft cabin Boeing 707 While negotiations are reportedly lasted all night is a team of Lieutenant Colonel Berek rehearsed approach the entrance to the plane. The commando teams contained the young

5 ICAO- International Civil Aviation Organization

6 IATA- International Air Transport Association

7 IFALPA-The Internacional Federation of Airline Pilots Associations

8 IFATCA- International Federation of Air Traffic Controllers Associations

9 ICAA- International Civil Airport Association

lieutenant Benjamin Bibi Netanyahu that will be many years later become Prime Minister Izae. At 13:00 09.May in 1972. The terrorists released pilot Levi to convey a final warning with a piece of sample possessing explosives on the plane. If their demands are not met they will rise to the same plane and the hostages (and there were a total of 99 passengers) into the air. This was the most important moment since the pilot Israelis gave very precise details about the weapons of terrorists and their place on the plane, as well as their mental and physical condition. Now the commandos at the last minute changed his decision to raid the plane because they learned the most important thing, that the plane did not have three of the four terrorists two of which are women. When the commander of the special forces 16.29h yelled "Hikone," which translated means "ready" operations commandos called "Izotop1" began. Commandos dressed in airline mechanic clothes their pistols Beretta .22 and slowly three teams of three people climbed on airplane wings and a fourth team was able to open a small hatch below the cockpit cabin. One team was rushed through the door on the left airplane where they immediately faced with Jenda terrorist Al-atras, who was immediately killed. Another team falls out the back door of the plane and alerted the passengers that the terrorist woman who was lying on the floor manage it without a fight and took out of the aircraft without injury. It is now two fewer terrorist on the plane. Most fateful error was made leader of the terrorists Captain Rifat hrabrni fighter PLO faction "Black September", which is removed in the toilet when he heard gunshots but did not know whether to commando was the perfect place for action. The walls of the cabin toilets were sufficiently thin that all the fired bullets passed through the walls as the cheese. Opening the doors of toilets they saw a dead terrorist. But the trap was waiting for them in the fourth terrorist, a woman who had explosives and fuse with the remote activation of explosives placed in front of the cabin. Her name was Tirza a war Samira and quickly mastered a single shot though only wounded, but before he was able to trigger the explosives. Action Lieutenant Colonel Ehud Barak with the unit Sajeret Markal lasted only 90 seconds. Deathly still killed one passenger who was in the time of the shooting up from his seat a few passengers were slightly injured. However operations "Izotop1" is represented then prekretnicu in the antiterrorist struggle, especially in civil aviation, setting the foundations drawn first tactic to free hostages from the plane.

CONCLUSION

Almost all western democracies, and countries in transition, developed within the national security system separate subsystem that deals with the issue of endangering the safety of air traffic, and protecting them from contemporary risks and threats such as terrorism. This subsystem because of the many external influences is not easy to fit in simplified forms as is the case with other subsystems of national security. This feature of the system imposes the necessity of his main subjects objectively perceived factors of its practical function in this sense evaluation capability and efficiency of the subsystems supstavljanju terrorism in various forms through the implementation of defense-protective activities, methods and measures. Conceptually, pursuant normative planning and construction integrated sub-systems of air traffic has been with us in a systematic and integrated under-explored The area particularly in terms of threats and emergency situations in air traffic. Theoretical, methodological and practical aspects of this subsystem are to that extent complex objectively require systematic theoretical and empirical research. As the issues of defense and security and emergency response occurs indisputably complex The area was necessary all its segments thoroughly reviewed and processed. In this paper I mentioned national and international bodies and organs of companies that fulfill their role in these functions, each acting in its scope of work during the occurrence of emergency situations with the aim of elimination and pravovoremenog to react in an emergency situation, the protection of human life and property. All these bodies operate within legal norms, laws, states, international conventions and regulations relating to the safety of air traffic. Only a coordinated response of the security services, choosing the right method based on intelligence information can lead to a timely response to emergency situations to the number of victims and the amount of property damage to a minimum due to the action of the greatest enemies of international terrorism in air traffic.

REFERENCES

1. Branko Habuš, Ljubo Pejanović, Milutin Ateljević, Trilogy of civil aviation accidents, 1-Accidents and disasters aircraft in civil aviation, A-W Case, Beograd 2013.
2. Branko Habuš, Ljubo Pejanović, Milutin Ateljević, Trilogy of civil aviation accidents, 2 - Terrorism in civil aviation, A-W Case, Beograd 2013.
3. Branko Habuš, Ljubo Pejanović, Milutin Ateljević, Trilogy of civil aviation accidents, 3 - Terrorism in civil aviation, A-W Case, Beograd 2013.
4. Džeri Mander, Edvard Goldsmit, Globalization Arguments against, Clio, Beograd 2003.
5. Radoslav Gaćinović, How Terrorism, Mladost, Beograd 1988.
6. Radoslav Gaćinović, Terrorism in political and legal theory, Odbrana, Beograd 2011.
7. Radoslav Gaćinović, Terrorism, Drašlar, Beograd 2005.
8. Vojin Dimitrijević, Terrorism, Radnička štampa, Beograd 1982.
9. Military Encyclopedia, Military Publishing Institute, Beograd 1970.
10. Law on Air Transport, published in the Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia, No. 73/2010 dated 12.10.2010

PRIVATE SECURITY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS: COMPARATIVE EXPERIENCES

Assistant Professor **Saše Gerasimoski**, PhD,
Faculty of Security, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Abstract: The paper elaborates on the comparative experiences of private security engagement in coping with emergency situations. The comparison focuses on the experiences from the Republic of Macedonia, the Balkan countries as well as the countries in the world with most developed private security sector (subsystem). The comparative analysis has been done on three levels (local, regional and global) in order to show the relation between the use of private security in coping with emergency situations as one crucial indicator for the whole development of the private security and to point out to the vast possibilities for future development in this field through the cooperation between public /state/ and private security mainly. Methodologically, we use secondary statistical data, contents analysis as well as theoretical comparison for gathering and elaborating on the data. We consider the use of private security in coping with emergency situations as one of the main features of well developed private security sector (subsystem) with partnership relations being established between public /state/ and private security as well as with civilian security as third security actor. We find significant lack of use of private security in coping with emergency situations on the Balkans, especially Republic of Macedonia, while we see wide-spread engagement of the private security in this field in the countries with most developed private security sector in the world such as U.S.A., Australia, Great Britain and the Nordic countries. The paper also gives some recommendations and proposals of how to encourage and assure much more significant role of private security in coping with emergency situations, especially in Republic of Macedonia.

Keywords: emergency situations, state of emergency, private security, comparison, partnership.

INTRODUCTION

The world has undoubtedly become risky and dangerous place to live in spite of tremendous progress made in almost every aspect of living. The more advantages we experience, the more security risks, dangers and disasters we are facing. It seems as the pace and intensity of risks, dangers and calamities are going hand in hand with the pace and intensity of rapid societal, cultural and especially technological progress. We have learned to live with numerous and fast-growing security risks and completely unexpected dangers and disasters of large magnitude as never before. The overall balance of nature and society are being seriously disturbed since the beginning of the era of globalization and post modernity, so, we have to accept the fact that we have no other alternative than to live with these massive disturbances in order and to find out as sophisticated ways of dealing with them as the very situations are urging.

The emergency situations are among those contemporary security phenomena that gained importance during the last few decades with their severity, intensity and unexpectedness. What is more important, they are directly stemming out as a consequence of the grave nature of security risks, mainly of those so called manufactured or humanly produces security risks. The realization of those risks made the emergency situations grave and complex to deal with, since, they are often a result of numerous factors. The emergency situations that modern humanity is facing with also affect vast territories and populations and require prompt, coordinated and decisive effort made by different security actors, legal and physical entities to be surmounted and successfully resolved. Deep structural changes that affected globalized economies and security systems during the globalization and post modernity have brought the private sector to the fore, mostly because it is the one who possesses world capital, and also, brought the private security sector on the scene, as one of the most important actors in terms of dealing with different security issues, such as with the emergency situations. The systems and objects that are mainly to be affected in an emergency situation are either owned or secured by the private sector, so, each country must rely heavily on the private sector in building their systems for emergency situations management.

It is usually said that the private security entities and private sector in general are among the first respondents, if not the very first, in an emergency situations. That is simply because most of the capital in the modern market neoliberal economies is secured by the private security sector, whether it is through contract or proprietary security. What is most important is that so called critical infrastructure which could be of greatest concern in an emergency situations, in most of the countries, has also been secured by the private security sector. That simply makes the private security key factor and unavoidable actor in any platforms, strategies and plans for dealing with emergency situations almost everywhere in the world.

The other crucial aspect is the importance of the so called private-public security partnership for successful management of the emergency situations. That should be, of course, taken as essential but iconic at the same time, since it is not the only one and exclusive form of partnership concerning the emergency situations and dealing with emergency in a state of emergency. The other crucial partnership is also the one made by state, private and civilian sector. But, as far as we speak in terms of global resources which are privately owned and secured, thus, the role of private-public partnership in dealing with emergency situations appear to be on top. It is equally important to see that successful managing and resolving of the contemporary emergency situations is not an exclusiveness only of most developed capitalist countries, but, the developing countries as well, mostly thankful to the rapid and unprecedented development of private property and private security. In the paragraphs to follow we will closely examine the importance of private security sector and public-private security partnership for dealing with emergency situations. Reviewing the experiences from different countries, the Balkans and the Republic of Macedonia we'll see how important is to have well designed, regulated, coordinated and implemented system of dealing or managing with emergency situations and in what way it is important in relation with other security risks and challenges of the contemporary era.

FOREIGN EXPERIENCES CONCERNING THE ROLE OF PRIVATE SECURITY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS

If we asked the same question of how important is the private security sector for successful emergency situations management a couple of decades ago, the answer would probably be full of surprising and irresolution what to say. But, nowadays, almost everyone, not the scholars, but virtually everyone who sees the omnipresence of private security in the everyday life would affirmatively answer this question. The unprecedented and overwhelming development of the private security sector almost worldwide is a phenomenon of its kind. It is so rapid and extensive, that even one of its most renowned theorists Peter Singer has commented that "it's gone too fast and too far". Its steady development rates of around 10% annually has made it one of the fastest growing industries in the world, with legal transnational and multinational private security entities that are enumerated among the biggest and most influential in the world market (such as Group 4 Securicor and Securitas).

Before we take a look at the role and contribution of private security in dealing with emergency situations, it is necessary to determine what do we understand under the emergency situation and state of emergency. Although every time we want to get the appropriate definitions of these terms and notions we come across to variety of different approaches and definitions, sometimes pretty much confusing and contradictory, nevertheless, we could agree to some frequently cited definitions that actually make difference between emergency, crisis and war, and state of emergency, state of crisis and state of war. This is especially important to be done because these terms and notions are sometimes confused and wrongly used. In this context, we could define the emergency situation as every situation caused by natural or human factors that caused damage and detrimental consequences of considerable proportions to state, society, people and nature, thus paralyzing normal life of people and endangering its property and goods. These damage and detrimental consequences caused by natural or humane endangerments could affect portion of state's territory, or even the whole territory and can happen very abruptly and swiftly (that is why it is called an emergency situation). The emergency situation is basis for proclamation of emergency state or state of emergency, which is a state's proclamation, regulated

and predetermined by almost every modern state with an aim to react towards the emergency situation and deal with its consequences. The state of emergency is proclaimed for a certain period of time, when the state and society function under temporary new rules owing to the need to react to the emergency and recover from the damage caused or bringing the situation under control. We should be aware of the fact that usually state of emergency is proclaimed after there has been a crisis and state of crisis proclaimed, although the seriousness of the crises is usually greater than emergency. However, some authors tend to see crisis as part of emergency or something that precede it, but we usually speak of emergency situation together with war situation as the most dangerous to society and nature on a long term. That is why the crisis situation is usually regulated in a more simple way in terms of procedures, so that in many countries only a government could proclaim state of crisis, which is not the case with the state of emergency or state of war which usually needs parliament or presidential proclamation in order to enter into force. The state of emergency also implies temporary derogation of certain human rights and freedoms. That is why it is always predetermined in time-span (usually one month, but could be extended to two or even three months), in order to avoid the state of emergency to become permanent state with a tendency to turn into dictatorship.

The private security plays vital role and it is of crucial importance in the overall security system as well as in dealing with emergency situations. The omnipresence, preventive function, contracting-out of numerous public policing authorizations and public-private security partnerships have made it almost unavoidable considering any contemporary security issue. Thus, when we speak about the role of private security in managing the emergency situations, we can single out several crucial features:

Private security is usually first respondent to emergency situations;

In most of the countries private security secures significant portion of critical infrastructure of the countries;

Public-private partnerships that are being established make the role of private security in planning, managing and recovering from emergency situations substantial;

Preventive orientation of private security make risk analyses core of successful emergency situations prediction;

The private security participates in emergency situations recovery on contractual as well as on proprietary basis;

Practical engagement of private security in emergency recovery makes its experience valuable for future improvements of system of reaction in case of emergency.

The contribution of the private security in terms of emergency situation management could be viewed at least from two aspects. The first one is related to the direct contribution that this sector makes to their clients providing quality protection in emergency situations and could be either proprietary (in-house) security or contract security. This is actually part of the so called corporate management, the difference being only whether the legal entity organizes itself the security function or hires private security on the market. The second one refers to indirect contribution of the private security for better coping with the emergency situations within the region or state and it is especially valuable for the whole society. This also means successful coordination with other security and civilian authorities and creates the overall picture of the level of preparedness and success of managing with emergency situations and states of emergency.

The experiences concerning the role of private security sector in dealing with emergency situations vary worldwide. Generally, even in the most developed countries there are serious problems and obstacles in creating and implementing successful system and procedures of managing the emergencies. For instance, the U.S.A. started to realize the importance of private security sector for coping with emergency situations only after terrorist attacks in 2001. Therefore, the country even formed separate Department of Homeland Security (DHS) with special emphasis given on dealing with terrorist threats and emergency situations. The importance of cooperation between public law enforcement and private security has never been greater. Yet the difficulties in establishing effective cooperation between the two areas, particularly in the area of emergency planning and response, remain a major obstacle to effective responses.

The importance of the private security in the state for coping with emergency situations is seen through the fact that, by some estimates, 85 percent of today's critical U.S. infrastructure is protected by private security companies.

According to the new legislation that has been passed in U.S.A. after the terrorist attacks in 2001 and catastrophic consequences from other emergency situations (such as the example with the hurricane Catherine), it is unambiguous that the role of the private security in planning, managing and recovering from emergency situations has been strengthened and private security has been placed among the most crucial actors in dealing with such events. But, it seems quite obvious that still has to be done in the future in this field. That's why Peter Ohlhausen laments that for instance, emergency response exercises tend to include police, fire, public health, and other governmental authorities but yet leave out private security.

Some other experiences concerning this issue are not as positive as the one we've mentioned. For example, the Nordic countries, who are commonly known as well organized societies in almost every aspect of societal living and security (one of the biggest private security companies in the world Securitas originates from Sweden), in terms of engagement of private security in dealing with emergencies are not very well placed and cannot praise themselves with some positive experience in this field. This is especially accentuated regarding the lack of cooperation, let alone partnership, between police and private security in dealing with emergencies. Almost none of the Nordic countries have any kind of organized cooperation between the police and security companies that would enable security guards to offer full support in the event of a grave emergency situation. 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.

Among the many interesting forms of cooperation and partnership between police and private security in dealing with emergency situations, we'll mention here the so called "Project Griffin", originally implemented by the City of London Police in 2004 and then also implemented by Victoria Police in Australia in 2005. It is a project where certain privately-based security personnel are 'on call' for emergency responses. These officers remain employed principally in other 'security' occupations, usually as security managers of selected Central Business District (CBD) buildings. The idea of the project was to have, at the ready, a significant number of private security officers, specifically 'Griffin-trained', available to help police if there was a major incident, such as a terrorist attack.

Considering the experience of the Balkan countries in dealing with emergencies and the role of private security in successful dealing, experiences are in some aspects similar, but in other different, especially in legislation and the ways the very systems of dealing with emergencies are designed and implemented in practice. All Balkan countries have witnessed rapid and in some cases, like Bulgaria for example, unprecedented growth and development of private security sector. Bulgaria has even established separate Ministry for emergency situations. Together with significant number of private security entities and private security officers that work within the sector should guarantee quality managing with emergency situations. Serbia has adopted separate and thorough Law on emergency situations in which private security entities are given important place and role in case of emergencies. Republic of Slovenia has also adopted special Law on emergency situations and has also significant number of private security entities and officers who work in the sector. In each of the countries the legal and organizational aspects of dealing with emergencies and the role of private security are well designed, but, it seems that all Balkan countries are facing with one general obstacle, and that is low level of cooperation and partnership between police and private security which may be decisive in successful dealing with these kind of situations. It implies the need to heighten the level to a partnership in the future in order to ascertain that the private security will be appropriately used with all its potential in timely preventing and efficacious dealing when the emergencies happen.

In terms of legal basis for engagement of private security in emergency situations and states of emergency, regulations vary considerably between the countries from different parts of the world, but, there are some similarities and things in common. In this way, dealing with emergency situation in all situations must be legally regulated in a way that assures sound

planning and coordination between many state, private and civilian actors. Without coordinated performance of the numerous actors, the state of emergency could cause even greater damage and catastrophe than the consequences of emergencies by themselves. Usually, legislation on emergencies covers one part of the obligations of each actor in case of emergency (for instance having well envisaged plans; established clear and well worked procedures; crises or emergency headquarters within the legal entity and procedures of communicating with other state and civilian entities). The second part is more complex and covers very subtle and difficult procedures of cooperation and coordination of activities in case of emergencies. This is usually crucial part of successful dealing with emergency situations and unfortunately, part where most of the underperformances and weaknesses take place. The scheme below shows the roles of private security in dealing with emergency situations:



Scheme No.1. The role of private security in dealing with emergency situations

MACEDONIAN EXPERIENCES CONCERNING THE ROLE OF PRIVATE SECURITY IN EMERGENCY SITUATIONS

Republic of Macedonia is a post-transitional Balkan country that constituted new security system with private security subsystem (sector) as its constitutive part. The development of private security followed the global and regional trends of growth and development in the last two decades, so today, we can talk about a significant private security sector which becomes important factor in guaranteeing and providing security in the country. Since the numbers speak about its significance, we can freely say that private security system and especially private securing of persons and property have reached a level of development when they represent an unavoidable and crucial segment of the contemporary security system especially when dealing with emergency situations and state of emergency. The latest official figures talk about 116 private entities who work in private security sector, 111 being in the private security (securing persons and property) activity and only 5 legal private entities in the private detective activity. The number of issued licenses for work has reached 333 of which 195 for contract and 138 for proprietary (in-house) security, but only overall of 114 (55 contract security firms (agencies) and 59 proprietary private security entities) work according to the new Law on private security passed in 26.12.2012 and entered into force in 26.05.2013. The number of private security officers at the end of 2013 reached 5300, which is roughly around half of the police officers in the country and the registered firearms that the agency possess and can use according to the positive legislation has reached total of 1527 (590 in the contract security entities and 937 in proprietary security entities)¹.

¹ Стефановска-Милеска, Верица (2013), *Развојот на приватното обезбедување во Република Македонија: правни, економски и безбедносни аспекти*, Презентација извршена на научно стручната расправа на тема Развојот на приватното обезбедување во Република Македонија: правни, економски и безбедносни аспекти, одржана на Факултетот за безбедност, Скопје, сс: 10-18.

All abovementioned figures tell us about the serious and constantly growing and developing private security sector with a large potential for engagement in emergency situations since great portion of the private business in Republic of Macedonia uses the private security services. The new bylaws to the Law on private security support this claim, especially with the Government Decision concerning the legal entities with mandatory private security (this kind of Decision was also part of the previous first Law on securing persons and property from 1999). This Government Decision states that the legal entities who are registered on the territory of Republic of Macedonia according to the Law on protection from radiation, Law on medicines, Law on protection from flammable liquids and gasses, Law on transport of dangerous materials on roads and railroads, Law on museums and Law on protection of cultural heritage, as well as legal entities registered according to their respectful Laws from the spheres of energetic, water supply, protection of natural environment, Macedonian Radio Television as well as National Bank of Republic of Macedonia and banks within the bank system of the country, must organize physical and technical protection of their assets, or, must have mandatory private security². The mandatory protection could be either provided through the contract private security entity or organized itself as proprietary security³. As we can note, almost entire critical infrastructure and objects of vital security and defense interests of Republic of Macedonia have or must be privately secured. That surely raises the importance of the private security sector in peace times as well as in times of emergencies. The legal entities, according to the positive legislation in Republic of Macedonia concerning crises and emergencies, must have prepared plans for dealing with emergency situations and must be deployable in emergency situations and state of emergency. This means that the legal entities from the sphere of private security and private sector in general must act in a way that it contributes to successful dealing with these situations on their own and within the whole system of safeguarding, protection and recovery from crises and emergencies. Also, as with most other countries, the private security entities are treated as commercial entities of special interest for the country. It means, as it is stated in the system of dealing with crises for instance, that the private security entities are obliged in case of crises and emergencies to offer at disposal to the system and state their resources and to put in place all human and material potential in order to assure successful dealing with and recovery from these situations⁴.

However, some commentators have rightfully remarked that Macedonian legislative and organizational structure concerning critical infrastructure protection is decentralized, government-run and network organized. Since critical infrastructure protection plays vital part of management in emergency situations, the authors suggest that central planning is crucial for private sector involvement in this process. Existing Steering committee for crisis management is good background to expand on. However, for steering the networks indirectly one must have a good knowledge about the structures and tasks of very different networks. The most difficult part probably consists of monitoring all the different networks⁵. In other words, since the competences in emergency situations according to the positive Macedonian legislation are shared among the CMC (Crisis Management Centre) and PRD (Protection and Rescue Directorate), the question of centralized planning and coordination is a crucial one, since a lot of legal and physical entities are involved in dealing with emergency situations. This is also case with the private legal entities, including private security entities, who have to act suitably in emergencies and dispose all their assets for swift and successful recovery. They are obliged with legislation to do so and the Government will compensate the costs after the process of recovery from emergency situation is completed.

According to our opinion this should be done in the future in the Republic of Macedonia to make the role of private security in dealing with emergency situations more efficacious:

² *Одлука за определување на правни лица кои се должни да имаат приватно обезбедување*, во Комора на Република Македонија за приватно обезбедување (2013), *Збирка прописи од областа на приватното обезбедување*, Скопје: Комора на Република Македонија за приватно обезбедување, сс: 93-95.

³ Мојсовска-Петрова, Лидија (2013), *Задолжително приватно обезбедување*, Презентација извршена на Денови на приватно обезбедување Заедно сме сигурни, заедно сме едно, Скопје, с. 7.

⁴ Петревски Владимир и Куцуловски Владимир (2009), *Систем за управување со кризи: Прирачник за граѓаните*, Скопје: Центар за управување со кризи, с. 20.

⁵ Hadji-Janev, Metodi & Slaveski, Stojan (2011), "Corporate Security and Critical Infrastructure Protection in the Republic of Macedonia", *Security dialogues*, Vol. 2., No. 2, Skopje, pp: 77-93.

Developing strong and sustainable partnerships between police and private security especially concerning the emergency situations;

Strengthening the preventive function of private security seen through developing quality risk analyses;

Implementing Business Continuity Plans (BCP) especially in proprietary (in-house) private security entities;

Developing plans for dealing with emergency situations for critical infrastructure protection (CIP);

Performing frequent and all-embracing internal and common exercises for successful managing with emergencies.

CONCLUSION

The role of private security in coping with emergency situations has long been neglected since the rapid growth of the sector in the last few decades. Almost everywhere in the world large amount of privately as well as state owned resources are nowadays secured by the private security entities, so, it is logical that they play substantial role in successful dealing with emergencies. Although almost each country worldwide has developed legal framework and designed system of dealing with emergency situations in state of emergencies, the successful implementation is yet serious challenge, even for the most developed countries. The U.S.A. negative experiences have proven that in practice. But, nevertheless, speaking in global, regional and national terms, we can conclude that the role and successful contribution of the private security in dealing with emergencies is primarily dependable on two dominant factors: the scope of private security in terms of capital and resources secured (especially critical infrastructure) and the level of cooperation established between public /state/ and civilian security sector on one and private security sector on other hand. The experiences so far have shown that the Republic of Macedonia and the Balkan countries in general lack these two factors, especially the needed partnership relations between security sectors to keep pace with the best systems and practices of dealing with emergency situations in the future. Legal framework is a good start towards achieving that goal, but, it seems that more time is needed in order for the sector to develop to a level when it could be prepare for partnership relations and full realizations of its potential in this complex sphere.

REFERENCES

1. Dempsey, John D. (2011), *Introduction to Private Security*, Belmont CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning
2. Доревски, Зоран (2013), *Управување со ризици, обезбедување и кризни ситуации како елементи на безбедносниот менаџмент во компаниите во Република Македонија*, (необјавена одбранета докторска дисертација), Скопје: Факултет за безбедност
3. Kešetović, Želimir (2010), "Pravni okvir sistema za reagovanje u vanrednim situacijama: komparativna iskustva", *Pravni bilten*, Br. 1., ss: 21-32.
4. Комора на Република Македонија за приватно обезбедување (2013), *Збирка прописи од областа на приватното обезбедување*, Скопје: Комора на Република Македонија за приватно обезбедување
5. Law, David & Powers, Jason (2005), *States of Emergency*, Geneva: DCAF
6. Мојсовска-Петрова, Лидија (2013), *Задолжително приватно обезбедување*, Презентација извршена на Денови на приватно обезбедување Заедно сме сигурни, заедно сме едно, Скопје
7. Ohlhausen, Peter (2004), *National Policy Summit: Building Private Security/Public Policing Partnerships to Prevent and Respond to Terrorism and Public Disorder*, Alexandria VA: ASIS International

8. Петревски Владимир и Куцуловски Владимир (2009), *Систем за управување со кризи: Прирачник за граѓаните*, Скопје: Центар за управување со кризи
9. Sarre, Rick (2008), "The Legal Powers of Private Security Personell: Some Policy Considerations and Legislative Options", *QUTLJJ*, Vol. 8., No. 2., pp: 301-313.
10. Спасески Јордан, Николовски Марјан, Герасимоски Саше (2010), *Безбедносни системи: Прилог кон учењето за националните безбедносни системи*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет
11. Стефановска-Милеска, Верица (2013), *Развојот на приватното обезбедување во Република Македонија: правни, економски и безбедносни аспекти*, Презентација извршена на научно стручната расправа на тема Развојот на приватното обезбедување во Република Македонија: правни, економски и безбедносни аспекти, одржана на Факултетот за безбедност, Скопје
12. Tsifakis, Nikolaos (2012), *Contracting-out to Private Military and Security Companies*, Brussels: Centre for European Studies
13. Fischer Robert J., Halibozek Edward & Green Gion (2008), *Introduction to Security*, Burlington MA: Elsevier
14. Hadji-Janev, Metodi & Slaveski, Stojan (2011), "Corporate Security and Critical Infrastructure Protection in the Republic of Macedonia", *Security dialogues*, Vol. 2., No. 2, Skopje, pp: 77-93.
15. Hess, Kären M. (2009), *Introduction to Private Security*, Belmont CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning
16. CoESS (2011), *Private security Services in Europe: Facts and figures*, Wemmel: CoESS
17. CoESS (2010), *Critical Infrastructure Security and Protection: The Public-Private Opportunity*, Wemmel: CoESS
18. CoESS & ALMEGA (2008), *Private and Public Security in the Nordic Countries*, Wemmel & Stockholm: CoESS & ALMEGA
19. Štrbac, Katarina (2007), "Vanredne situacije", *Zbornik predavanja sa IX škole reforme sektora bezbednosti*, Beograd: ISAC, ss: 137-155.

ANALYSIS OF GEOSPATIAL AND TEMPORAL DISTRIBUTION OF FLOODS AS NATURAL EMERGENCIES

Teaching Assistant **Vladimir Cvetković**, MSc¹
Academy of Criminalistic and Police studies, Belgrade

Abstract: Floods as hydrological emergencies, every day increasingly threaten the safety of people and their property. As such, they intensely attract the attention of researchers in the field of geospatial, technical, natural, information and other sciences, but also experts in the field of emergency who want to better understand it. Bearing in mind that this is a mass phenomenon, which consists of multiple units, most preferred method of scientific research and drawing conclusions about the phenomenology of flood is a statistical method. Guided by this fact, the subject of this paper is a descriptive statistical analysis of geospatial and temporal distribution of flood in period from 1900 until 2013 at the global level. Thereby, a statistical study was conducted in such a way that in the first step it was taken raw (unprocessed) data in format of "Excel" file from the international database on disasters (CRED) in Brussels, which were then analyzed in the statistical SPSS data processing. Within the temporal analysis it is examined the distribution of the total number and impacts of floods on an annual, monthly and daily basis, with a special focus on the top 5 countries by the number of different effects (killed, injured, affected, homeless). On the same principle, within the geospatial distribution it is analyzed the total number and consequences of floods by continents and countries, with special emphasis on the top five states in terms of total number and variety of consequences. Therefore, for more effective and efficient protection and emergency response caused by the deleterious effect of flooding, it is needed to comprehensively explore specified natural phenomena, so that the subject of the paper will be form, consequences, temporal and geospatial distribution of manifestation of flooding. In addition, it is important to mention that geospatial and temporal analysis of floods gives meaning, content and value to a comprehensive effort to better understand natural hazards and their effects, in order to timely protect people from them, and in this case, adjust to the flood risk.

Keywords: security, floods, emergencies, statistical analysis, protection and rescue.

INTRODUCTION

Natural emergencies increasingly endanger the safety of modern mankind. Not only that the past decades it is obvious increase in the number, but there is increase in their destructiveness.² This results in a higher loss of life, material and non-material damage. Therefore, natural emergencies are events that have a large and tragic impact on society, damaging the common ways of life, hinder economic, cultural, and sometimes political conditions of life and slow the development of the community and require special measures taken by emergency and rescue services in emergency situations.³ It can be said that natural emergencies are the consequences of mutual influence of natural events (geophysical processes and other processes in nature) and human systems (socio - economic, cultural and physical).⁴ According to Mohamed, natural emergencies can be classified as: natural phenomena of complex physical origin of the Earth's surface (earthquakes, tsunamis, volcanic eruptions), natural phenomena of complex physical origin of the Earth's surface (landslides, avalanches), meteorological/hydrological phenomena (storms, cyclones, typhoons, hurricanes, tornadoes, snow storms, sea surges, floods, drought, heat wave/cold wave), and biological phenomena (invasion - swarms of locusts and bugs, epidemic or infectious diseases - cholera, dengue fever, Ebola, smallpox, meningitis, malaria,

¹ Teaching assistant of subject „Security in emergency situations”.

² Mijalković, S., Cvetković, V.: *Vulnerability of Critical Infrastructure by Natural Disasters*. Belgrade, In Procesiding „National Critical Infrastructure Protection, Regional Perspective“, 2013, crp. 93

³ Cvetković, V.: *Intervetno-spasilačke službe u vanrednim situacijama*. Beograd: Zadužbina Andrejević, 2013. godine, str. 9.

⁴ Mladan, D., Cvetković, V.: *Classification of Emergency Situations*. Belgrade: Thematic Proceedings of International Scientific Conference "Archibald Reiss Days", Academy of criminalistic and police studies, 1-2. march 2013, pp. 106.

yellow fever, AIDS, SARS, avian flu).⁵ They differ from natural hazards, which generate natural emergencies only after endanger people and their material goods. ⁶More specifically, they occur due to the impact of natural hazards on people, property, infrastructure and natural resources. These events have a large and tragic impact on society, damage the common ways of life, hinder economic, cultural, and sometimes political conditions of life and slow the development of the community. ⁷In principle, they are of polymorphic character (two instances of the same origin and intensity usually produce different overall effects), accompanied by the phenomenon of parallelism (affecting only certain geospatial areas where significant change living conditions and environment) and have specific, usually massive consequences (social, health, physical and environmental).⁸

One of the most important natural emergencies certainly is the flood. Risk of flooding only exists as part of the relationship between water and human habitation (activities). For most of the world's population, flooding is regular seasonal phenomenon that ensures the growth of crops as it brings danger. Floods are important to the ecology of many areas. They fertilize and irrigate river valleys and fill reservoirs of water. Floods are a normal part of the regime of every river, and flood of water can come from the oceans, large rivers, smaller tributaries, urban runoff, snowmelt, and dam or levee failure.⁹ Flooding can be caused by weather conditions, away from areas affected by floods.

It can be said that the flood as a natural emergency is difficult to define. It can be said partly because there are no natural boundaries in the global geographic space, and the fact that the threshold values of flood are selected based on human criterion, which may vary. Flooding is usually defined as a result of overflow of the river over its levees and spreading over nearby valley.¹⁰ The term flood can be defined as the water on the earth, which is not usually submerged.¹¹ This can be extended to a large increase in the amount of water in areas such as wetlands and lakes. Flooding is a natural part of the process, but only becomes a "threat" when happens a hazard or an impending danger or harm to humans, their activities or the things that

5 Mohamed, S. I.: *Disaster types. Disaster Prevention and Management*, Vol. 16, Iss: 5, 2007, str. 706.

6 Wisner, B.: *At Risk: Natural Hazards, People's Vulnerability and Disasters*. London: Routledge, 2004. year, str. 134. There is a significant difference between emergency, hazard and risk. The risk is the result of a combination of hazards, conditions, vulnerabilities and insufficient capacities or measures to reduce the potential negative consequences of risk. However, when hazard or threat becomes reality, ie. when it materializes, the risk becomes an emergency. For example, a river valley may be prone to flooding. The risk exists only if the affected community or assets are located in the area that is prone to flooding. If the risk materializes, ie. the flood actually occurs, it will cause a loss in the affected population or property, creating an emergency situation. Edward, B.: *Natural Hazards, Second Edition*. Cambridge, University Press, 2005, str. 103.

7 According to the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction, these are "serious disturbances in the functioning of a community or society causing widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses which exceed the capabilities of the affected community to deal with them using their own resources". See for more details: UN - ISDR United Nations - *International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction*, 2004, p. 5. Similarly, according to the UN Center for Human Settlements Research "Natural emergency situation is the interplay of natural hazards, caused in most cases by sudden and unexpected natural events, and the conditions of vulnerability, which cause serious losses to human and his environment (built and natural). These losses create suffering and chaos in the normal frames of life, socio-economic, cultural, and sometimes political. Such situations require external assistance from international and national institutions, as a contribution to independent and joint responses. See for more details: UNCHS (United Nations Center for Human Settlements) (1994) *Sustainable Human Settlements in an urbanizing World, including Issues Related to land policies and mitigation of natural disasters*. 15th Session of the Commission on Human Settlement. Unpublished Draft Paper Theme.

8 Jakovljević, V., Đarmati, S.: *Civilna zaštita u Saveznoj Republici Jugoslaviji*, Beograd: Studentski trg, 1998, str. 35

9 For example, in the geographic space of Serbia, precipitation in July, 1999 caused flooding on smaller rivers in Great and Western Morava river basin (where the high water on some tributaries occurred 2-3 times in a period from 10 to 20 days), and in December of the same year, there have been high water in Drina and Sava river basins. On Tisza and Tamis rivers in March and April, 2000, the floods have occurred due to the rapid melting of snow and the simultaneous occurrence of precipitation. In June 2001 again a large amount of rainfall caused flooding in the Drina river (the Ljubovidja, Jadra, Stiri). In April 2005, the simultaneous melting snow and intense rainfall caused the flooding of the Tamis, Tisza and Danube rivers, right tributary of the Drina and South Morava. Milojković, B., Mladan, D.: *Adaptivno upravljanje zaštitom i spasavanje od poplava i bujica – prilagođavanje poplavnom riziku*. Bezbednost, Year LII, 1/2010., str. 175.

10 Marlene, B., Carmichael, R.: *Notable Natural Disasters*. California: Salem Press, Inc, 2007., 122.

11 Schumann, A.: *Flood Risk Assessment and Management*. Bochum, Germany: Springer, 2001., 43.

they value.¹² They can be caused by climatic conditions and factors.¹³ Climatic conditions include heavy rains from tropical storms and hurricanes, severe thunderstorms, cyclones, frontal winds, rapid melting of snow and ice. Climatic factors consist of tides and storms in coastal areas. Other factors that can cause floods have earthquakes, landslides and dam failures. Conditions which increase flooding include fixed basin characteristics such as size, shapes, slope, and elevation. Variable characteristics of the basin are water storage capacity and portability in soil and rocks, soil infiltration rate and extent of wetlands and lakes. Channel characteristics such as length, slope, roughness and shape, can also enhance the flood, as can the human effects of river regulation: joint use of groundwater, transfer among watersheds, wastewater discharge, water diversion and irrigation, urbanization, dams and land drainage. Generally, there are the following types of floods: floods caused by rain and melting snow, icy floods; flooding due to the coincidence of high water levels, flash floods, and floods caused landslides, floods caused by dam failure, etc.

Because of an ability of a flood to cause a lot of damage to human health, material and cultural resources and the environment, knowledge of causes, frequency, regularities of geospatial and temporal distribution and the possibility of the return of these phenomena would be very useful for flood control, and for the organization and implementation of protection and rescue measures based on the concept of "adjustment to flood risk."¹⁴ It is, therefore, hydrologists use statistical methods for calculating authoritative probability of high water, or in order to get an assessment of the probability that a flood of a certain size will happen in a given year, one in a hundred, five hundred or thousand.¹⁵

Since this is a really extensive matter, the subject of this work will be analysis of forms of expression, number, temporal and geospatial distribution of floods only. Phenomenology of other types of natural emergencies will be the subject of future research.

METHODS

The survey was conducted based on extensive material of the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED). It was realized in such way, as in the first step the raw – unprocessed data in format of "excel" file with 25,552 registered events, were taken from the center (www.emdat.be).¹⁶ The download is made 5/6/2013. Subsequently, the data were processed by the program for statistical analysis of data, "IBM SPSS Advanced Statistics 20.0". Frequencies and percentages of the considered variables were calculated by program operations. Also, tables and charts were made by the program made, which were further processed in, "MS Word 2013". Results of processing of quantitative data are displayed text, tables and graphics in the form of cartographic visualization by method of thematic mapping - volume cartography.¹⁷ The results of processing these data are displayed in text, tables and graphics.

The meanings of terms that are used in the paper are: the death toll - the number of people with confirmed death and the number of missing, apparently dead people, the number of injuries - the number of people suffering from psychological injury, or trauma requiring immediate medical attention; the number of affected - the number of people requiring immediate assistance during and after a disaster, including deployed or evacuated people, homeless - the number of people who need emergency accommodation because they ran out of his house, the affected toll - a summary of injured, homeless and affected, the total damage - a global picture of the economic impact of flooding, given in U.S. dollars.

¹² Stoltman, J., Lindston, J., Dechano, L.: *International Perspectives on Natural Disasters: Occurrence, Mitigation, and Consequences*. The Netherlands.: Published by Springer .O. Box 17, 3300 AA Dordrecht, 2007., str. 78.

¹³ Proverbs, D., Soetanto, R.: *Flood Damaged Property A Guide to Repair*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd., 2004, str. 31.

¹⁴ Milojković, B., Mladan, D.: *Isto*: str. 172.

¹⁵ Rao, A., Hamed, K.: *Flood frequencyanal analysis*. Washington: CRC Press, 2000, pp. 24.

¹⁶ Natural event will be recorded in the database as a natural emergency situation if it the following criteria are met: there are ten or more people killed, 100 or more people affected, declared an emergency and call for international assistance.

¹⁷ Filipović, I., Milojković, B.: *Osnovi kartografije sa topografijom*, Niš: Prirodno-matematički fakultet – Departman za geografiju, 2010., str. 165.

ANALYSIS OF GEOSPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF FLOODS

To understand geospatial and temporal distribution of floods it is important to know the basic qualitative and quantitative indicators of natural emergencies at the global level and in the long run. Namely, in the period from 1900 to 2013, there were 25,552 natural emergencies. Most of them were hydrological and meteorological, geophysical, climatic and biological disasters.¹⁸ Therefore, in this period there were 9,557 hydrological emergencies. They killed 13,987,140, 2,655,118 were injured, 6,891,172,180 were affected, 185 223 183 homeless. Therefore, the total affected were 7,079,050,481 people, while the total damage amounted to 1,200,003,042 U.S. dollars. Also, looking by the number of events, hydrological emergencies are in the first place, then meteorological, geophysical, climatic and biological in the end (Table 1).

Disaster sub-group	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Meteorological	7149	2766859	2641153	1742924832	105054916	1850620901	1872273246
Geophysical	3037	5331007	5177147	309279694	45930226	360387067	1522543792
Hydrological	9557	13987140	2655118	6891172180	185223183	7079050481	1200003042
Biological	2820	19152311	968153	90325323	0	91293476	460264
Climatological	2989	23772449	3779656	4532945549	903962	4537629167	471765608
Total	25552	65009766	15221227	13566647578	337112287	13918981092	5067045952

Table 1. Overview of the world's natural disasters in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

At the annual level was happening 85 annual, 7 monthly and 0.6 per day hydrological emergency situations. Generally speaking, after atmospheric, hydrological emergencies are the most common (Table 2).

Disaster sub-group	Annual	Month	Day
Atmospheric	90	7.5	0.25
Geophysica	27	2	0.07
Hydrological	85	7	0.6
Biological	24	2	0.06
Total	226	18.5	0.98

Table 2. Overview of natural emergencies in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified by annual, monthly and daily distribution. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

In percentage terms, of total number of natural emergencies, due to the consequences of hydrological emergencies, 54.94% of people were homeless, 50.79% were affected, 21.52% died, and 17.44% were injured (Figure 1).

¹⁸ Cvetković, V., Mijalković, S.: *Spatial and Temporal distribution of geophysical disasters*. Serbian Academy of Sciences and Arts and Geographical Institute Jovan Cvijić, Journal of the Geographical Institute "Jovan Cvijić" 63/3, pp. 346.

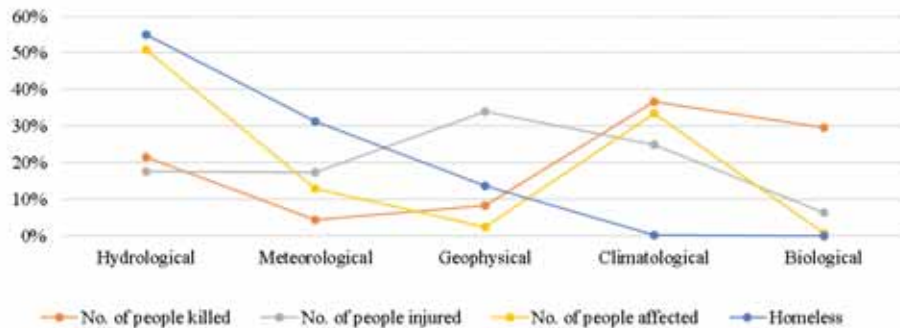


Figure 1. Share of the consequences of natural emergencies to people in period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Also, to understand these issues it is important to bear in mind the results of previously conducted and published research. After examining the large number of foreign papers about floods, it can be concluded that a large number of authors dealt with the problem of geospatial and temporal distribution of floods: Chow¹⁹ (1964), Yevjevich²⁰ (1972), Haan²¹ (1977), Kite²² (1977), Singh²³ (1987), Potter²⁴ (1987), Bobee i Ashkar²⁵ (1991), McCuen²⁶ (1993) and so on. They are all in different ways wanted to examine the frequency of their occurrence. In the period between 1946-2006 in geographic space of Serbia the following historic floods happened: 5/14/1965 and 5/14/1979 on the West Morava river, 11/19/1979 on the Ibar river, 6/26 and 6/27/1988 on the Lužnica river (left tributary of the Vlasina river) and the Vlasina river and 4/17/1996 on the Ribnica river.²⁷ The research results undoubtedly point to the fact that floods occur every day around the world. The causes of their occurrence are varied. Based on the collected and processed data on geospatial distribution from specified base it can be said that the highest number of floods in period from 1900 to 2013 occurred in Asia with 3427 floods, and the lowest number in Oceania with 258. Bearing in mind all the continents, by number of flooding in the first place is Asia, then America, Africa, Europe and Oceania in the end (Table 3).

Continent	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Africa	1669	50557	55947	119555483	11910538	131521968	14630498
America	1943	208047	88300	165740994	7133925	172963219	195930880
Asia	3427	13589418	2438303	6560968177	153660678	6717067158	722929790
Europe	1034	18148	51712	23873756	3835628	27761096	220657128
Oceania	258	1016	184	2126518	214970	2341672	28954750
Total	8331	13867186	2634446	6872264928	176755739	7051655113	1183103046

Table 3. Overview of the total number and impacts of floods to people from 1900 to 2013, sorted by continents. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

19 Chow, T.: *Handbook of Applied Hydrology*. New York: McGraw- Hill, 1964

20 Yevjevich, V.M.: *Statistical and Probability Analysis of Hydrologic Data, Part II, Regression and Correlation Analysis*, Sec. 8-II, *Handbook of Applied Hydrology*, V.T. Chow, editor-in-chief, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, NY, 1964.

21 Haan, T.: *Statistical Methods in Hydrology*. Iowa State University Press, Ames, IA, 1977.

22 Kite, G.W.: *Frequency and Risk Analysis in Hydrology*. Water Res. Publications, Fort Collins, CO, 1977.

23 Singh, V., Singh, K.: *Parameter Estimation for TPLN Distribution for Flood Frequency Analysis*, Water Resources Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 6, pp. 1185-1191.

24 Potter, W.: *Research on Flood Frequency Analysis, 1983-1986*, Reviews of Geophysics, Vol. 25, No. 2, 1987., pp. 113-118.

25 Bobée, B., Ashkar, F.: *The Gamma Family and Derived Distributions Applied in Hydrology*, Water Resources Publications, Littleton, CO, 1991.

26 McCuen, H.: *Microcomputer Applications in Statistical Hydrology*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1993.

27 Milojković, B., Mladan, D.: *Isto*: str. 176.

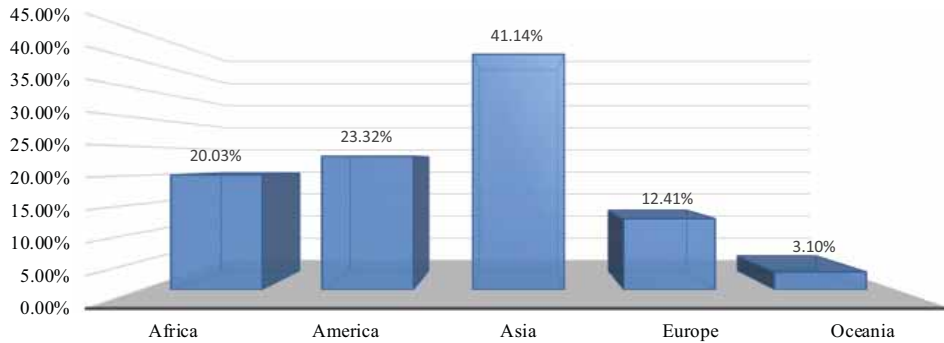
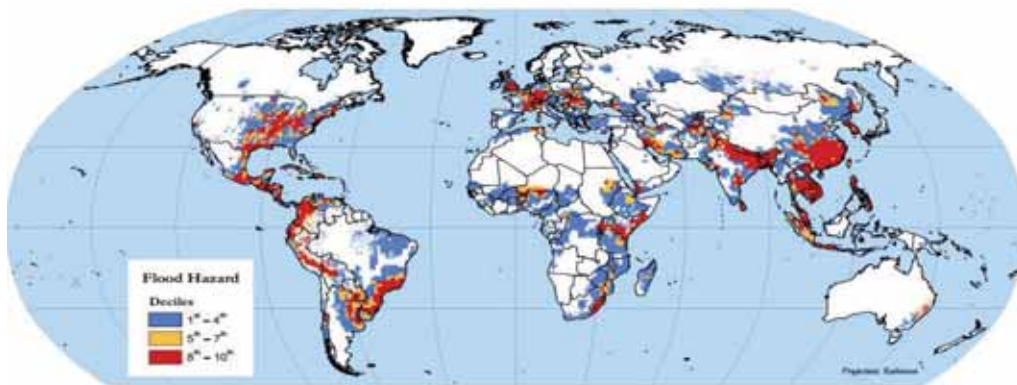


Figure 2. Percentage overview of the total number of floods in period from 1900 to 2013, sorted by continent. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.



Picture 1. Global view of distributions of floods in the period from 1985 to 2003.²⁸

In percentage terms, in the period from 1900 to 2013, Asia had 41.14%, America 23.32%, 20.03% Africa, Europe 12.41% and Oceania 3.10% of floods. Therefore, if we take into account the average value of flood occurrence, it can be concluded that in Asia, they occur above average, compared with Europe and Oceania, where the number is below the average. Of course, in Africa and the United States they occur within certain average in relation to the total number of floods in the world (Figure 2 and Picture 1).

²⁸ Dille, M., Robert, C., Uwe D., Arthur L., Margaret A.: *Natural Disaster Hotspots: A Global Risk Analysis*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2005, str. 21.

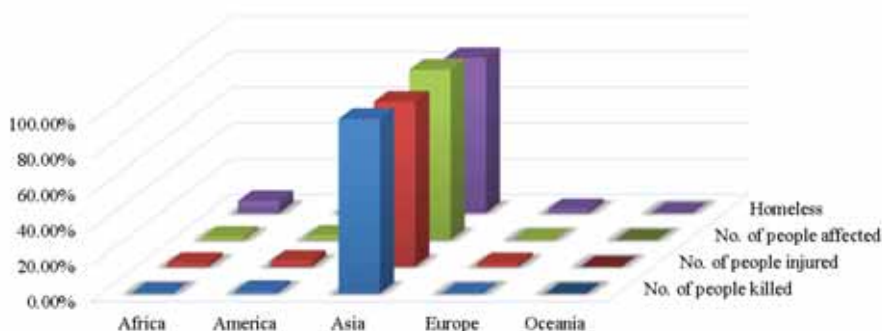
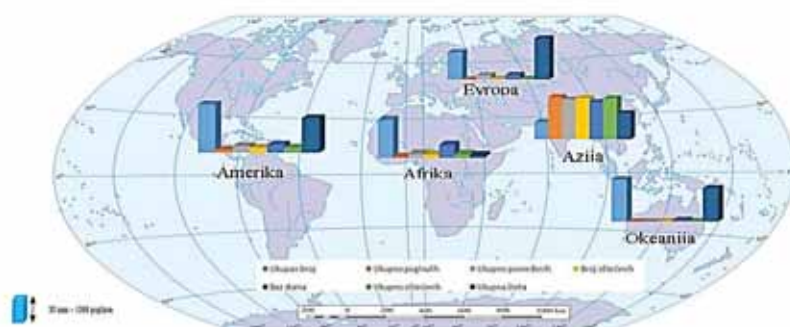


Figure 3. Percentage overview of the consequences of flooding to people in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified by continent. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.



Picture 2. The cartographic representation of the total number and impacts of floods in the world in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

In comparison to percentages of flood events, it is clear that the highest percentage of the killed (98%), injured (92.55%), affected (95.47%) and homeless (86.93%) has remained in Asia. While on the other hand, all percentages were the lowest in Oceania (Figure 3 and Figure 2).

Country	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Avganistan	499	8010	2256	2376836	121390	2500482	792000
Albanija	452	38	0	273968	0	273968	49346
Algerija	318	9728	2410	1272300	267340	1542050	3087834
Samoa	309	12	6	0	0	6	100000
Angola	264	975	94	2170574	223580	2394248	20000

Table 4. Top five states by the floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest number of floods happened in Afghanistan 499. Thus, by the number of floods in the first place is Afghanistan then Albania with 452, Algeria 318, Samoa 309 and Angola 264 (Table 4).

Country	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Kina	70	13196986	1653752	3845305864	86704258	3933663874	372685592
Indija	32	122416	3588	1598677710	32178000	1630859298	72092376
Bangladeš	130	104466	204784	626545924	8510724	635261432	24076800
Gvatemala	38	81816	760	1786398	8540	1795698	360826
Venecuela	2	60792	6496	1463832	330556	1800884	6994252

Table 5. Top five states by the number of the killed by floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest number of the killed due to the impacts of floods was in China 13.196.986. Thus, by the number of the killed due to the impacts of floods in the first place is China, India 122 416, Bangladesh 104 466 81 816, Guatemala and Venezuela 60 792 (Table 5).

Country	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Kina	70	13196986	1653752	3845305864	86704258	3933663874	372685592
Indonezija	32	12885	510394	17518374	356060	18384828	11302094
Bangladeš	130	104466	204784	626545924	8510724	635261432	24076800
Sudan	4	1546	38076	9389204	2906960	12334240	1102400
El Salvador	55	1356	36000	822684	0	858684	2563000

Table 6. Top five states by the number of the injured in floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest number of the killed due to the impacts of floods was in China 1,653,752. Thus, by the number of the injured due to the consequences of the floods in the first place is China, then Indonesia 510 394, Bangladesh 204 784, Sudan 38 076 and El Salvador 36 000 (Table 6).

Country	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	Broj pogođenih	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Kina	70	13196986	1653752	3845305864	86704258	3933663874	372685592
Indija	32	122416	3588	1598677710	32178000	1630859298	72092376
Bangladeš	130	104466	204784	626545924	8510724	635261432	24076800
Pakistan	12	31854	17466	138922014	8468830	147408310	34936356
Tajland	4	7668	7382	103461510	322966	103791858	89602816

Table 7. Top five states by the number of the affected by floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest number of the affected due to the impacts of floods was in China 3.845.305.864. Thus, by the number of the injured due to the consequences of the floods in the first place is China, then India 1.598.677.710, Bangladesh 626.545.924, Pakistan 138.922.014 and Thailand 103 461 510 (Table 7).

Country	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Kina	70	13196986	1653752	3845305864	86704258	3933663874	372685592
Indija	32	122416	3588	1598677710	32178000	1630859298	72092376
Bangladeš	130	104466	204784	626545924	8510724	635261432	24076800
Pakistan	12	31854	17466	138922014	8468830	147408310	34936356
Šri Lanka	4	2592	2183	18562323	7733748	26298254	1961128

Table 8. Top five states by the number of the homeless by floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest number of the homeless due to the impacts of floods is in China 86.704.258. Thus, by the number of the injured due to the consequences of the floods in the first place was in China, then India 32.178.000, Bangladesh 8.510.724, Pakistan 8.468.830 and Sri Lanka 7.733.748 (Table 8).

Country	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Kina	70	13196986	1653752	3845305864	86704258	3933663874	372685592
SAD	2	5582	720	24222342	70600	24293662	112822520
Tajland	4	7668	7382	103461510	322966	103791858	89602816
Indija	32	122416	3588	1598677710	32178000	1630859298	72092376
Italija	30	2134	424	2736300	2996300	5733024	46711200

Table 9. Top five states by the assessed value of property damage by floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest assessed value of property damage due to the impacts of floods is China 372.685.592. Thus, by assessed value of property damage due to the consequences of the floods in the first place are China, then USA 112.822.520, Thailand 89.602.816, India 72.092.376 and Italy 46.711.200 (Table 9).

ANALYSIS OF TEMPORAL DISTRIBUTION OF FLOODS

A number of researchers every day have fear of confirming the fact that the number of natural emergencies increases every year. In order to eliminate uncertainty, it is important to consider their temporal distribution. The aim of such analysis is certainly influencing certain prognostic plans. That is why it is very important to perform temporal analysis of flooding. Accordingly, in the period from 1900 to 2013 8,331 floods happened, with 13,867,186 of the killed, 2,634,446 of the injured, 6,872,264,928 of the affected and 176 755 739 of the homeless. Observed annually, it can be said there were 74, 6 floods per month, 0.20 floods per day (Table 10).

Type	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
Flood	8331	13867186	2634446	6872264928	176755739	7051655113	1183103046
Yearly	74	122718	23313	60816503	1564210	62404027	10469938
Monthlz	6	10226	1942	5068041	130350	5200335	872494
Daily	0.20	340	65	168934	4345	173344	29083

Table 10. Overview of the total number and impacts of floods in the period from 1900 to 2013, with reference to the annual, monthly and daily distribution. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

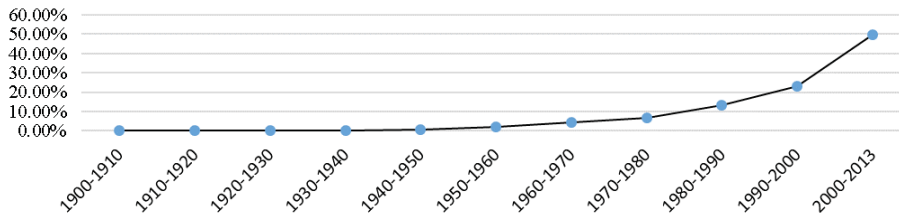


Figure 4. Percentage overview of the total number of floods in period from 1900 from 2013 year, classified by decades. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Up until 1980 the floods have occurred within a certain average of 10%. After this period it can be noticed a significant increase in the number of floods, and the culmination is the period since 2000 to 2013 when it happened 49.85% of the total number of floods for the period. The minimum number of floods occurred in the period from 1900 to 1910 and it is 0.17% (Figure 4).

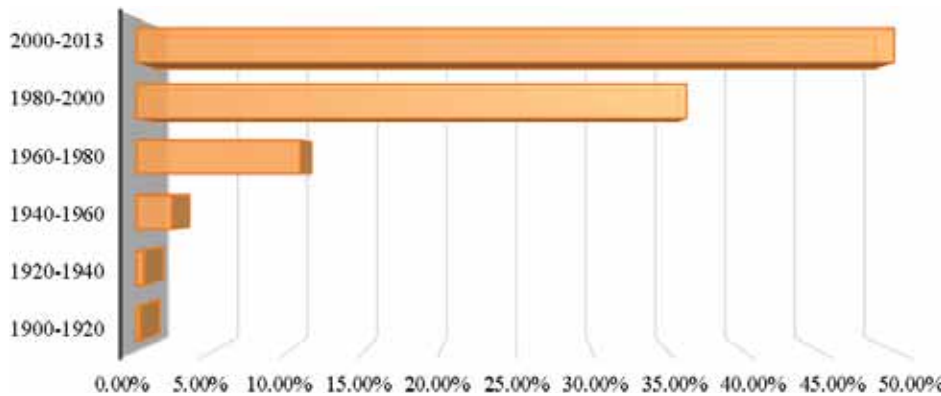


Figure 5. Percentage overview of the total number of floods in period from 1900 to 2013, classified by twenty years periods. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

In the periods of twenty years, the largest number of earthquakes occurred in the period from 2000 to 2013 (49.85%) and lowest in the period from 1900 to 1920 (0.26%) (Figure 5).

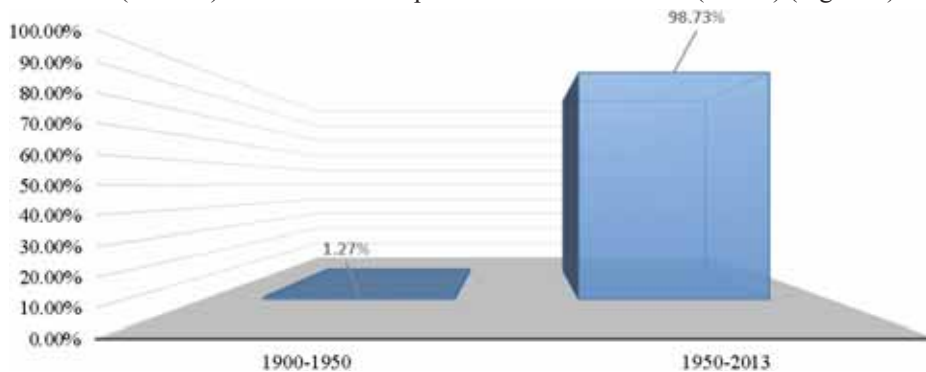


Figure 6 Percentage overview of the total number of floods in period from 1900 to 2013, classified into two periods: from 1900 to 1950 and from 1950 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Based on the graph shown above, one can clearly notice that most of the flooding occurred in the period since 1950 to 2013 and it was 98.73%, in contrast to the period from 1900 to 1950 (1.27%) (Figure 6).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1900-1910	14	4014	0	0	0	0	960000
1910-1920	8	200000	0	7270000	0	7270000	40000
1920-1930	20	8564	0	12000	4000	16000	100460
1930-1940	24	8723180	0	20060000	7204000	27264000	3676000
1940-1950	40	209430	0	20264000	0	20264000	2030000
1950-1960	156	4136934	0	5917768	509000	6426768	3358000
1960-1970	358	50126	250346	133860212	6690926	140801484	12606358
1970-1980	542	115990	80466	427578276	22108188	449766930	17180318
1980-1990	1090	86676	173416	923911336	15626140	939710892	93326142
1990-2000	1926	198522	1634260	2828933946	97143650	2927711856	466065314
2000-2013	4153	133750	495958	2504457390	27469835	2532423183	583760454

Table 11. Overview the total number and consequences of flooding to people and property in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified by decades. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the largest number of 4153 floods occurred in the period since 2000 to 2013 and a minimum of 8 floods from 1910 to 1920. The largest number of the killed were from 1930 to 1940 872,318 and the lowest one, 4014, occurred in the period from 1900 to 1910. By the number of the affected due to the consequences of floods in the period from 1900 to 2000 the highest number was 2,828,933,946 and minimum without consequences from 1900 to 1910. In the period from 1900 to 2000, there was the highest number of the homeless, 97,173,650 (Table 11).

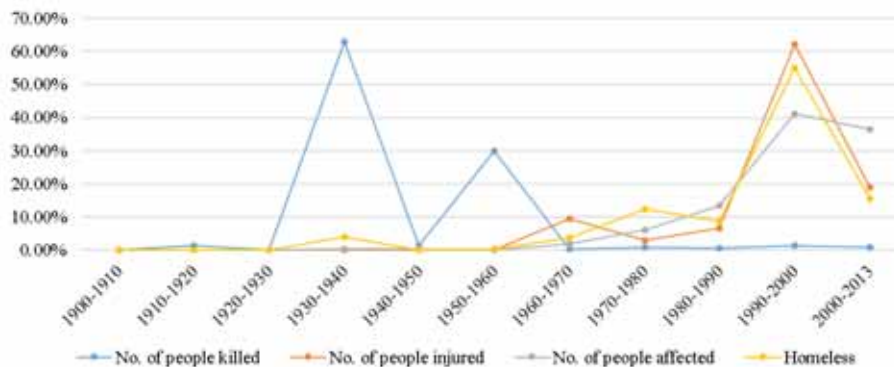


Figure 7. Percentage overview of the consequences of flooding to people and property in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified by decades. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

In percentage terms, most people were killed in the period from 1930 to 1940 (62.91%) and the lowest percentage from 1900 to 1920 (1.47%). In the period from 1990 to 2000 the highest number was the injured (62.03%), affected (41.16%) and homeless (54.96%). The lowest percentage was injured (0%) in the period 1900-1960, the affected in the period from 1900 to 1910 (0%), and the homeless in the period from 1900 to 1930 (0%) (Figure 7).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1900-1920	22	204014	0	7270000	0	7270000	1000000
1920-1940	44	8731744	0	20072000	7208000	27280000	3776460
1940-1960	196	4346364	0	26181768	509000	26690768	5388000
1960-1980	900	166116	330812	561438488	28799114	590568414	29786676
1980-2000	3016	285198	1807676	3752845282	112769790	3867422748	559391456
2000-2013	4153	133750	495958	2504457390	27469835	2532423183	583760454

Table 12. Overview of the total number and impacts of floods to people in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified by twenty years periods. Source of data: EM - DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the largest number of 4153 floods occurred in the period since 2000 to 2013 and a minimum of 22 floods from 1910 to 1920. The largest number of the killed was from 1920 to 1940 8.731.744 and the lowest one, 133.750, occurred in the period from 2000 to 2013. The highest number of affected was in the period from 1980 to 2000 and the lowest number was 7.270.000 from 1900 to 1920. In the period from 1980 to 2000, there was the highest number of the homeless, 97,173,650 (Table 11).

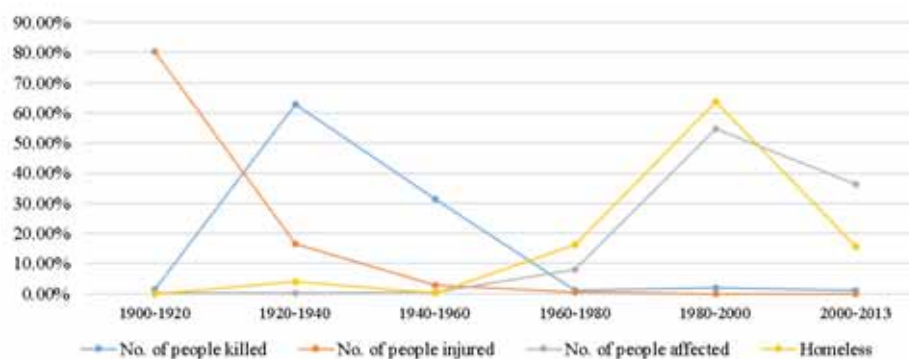


Figure 8 Percentage overview of the consequences of flooding to people in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified by decades. Source of data: EM - DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

In percentage terms, most people were killed in the period from 1920 to 1940 (62.97%) and the lowest percentage from 1900 to 1920 (1.47%). In the period from 1980 to 2000 there was the highest number of the injured (62.62%), affected (54.61%) and homeless (63.83%). The lowest percentage was injured (0%) in the period 1900-1960, the affected in the period from 1900 to 1910 (0%), and the homeless in the period from 1900 to 1920 (0%) (Figure 8).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1900-1950	106	9145188	0	47606000	7208000	54814000	6806460
1950-2013	8225	4721998	2634446	6824658928	169547739	6996841113	1176296586

Table 13. Overview of the total number and impacts of floods to people in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified into two periods from 1900 to 1950 and from 1950 and 20013. Source of data: EM - DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

Looking at a period of fifty years, it is noted that after 1950, there was a significantly higher number of floods. Thus, the total number of floods from 1900 to 1950 amounted to 106, and from 1950 to 2013 8225 (Table 13).

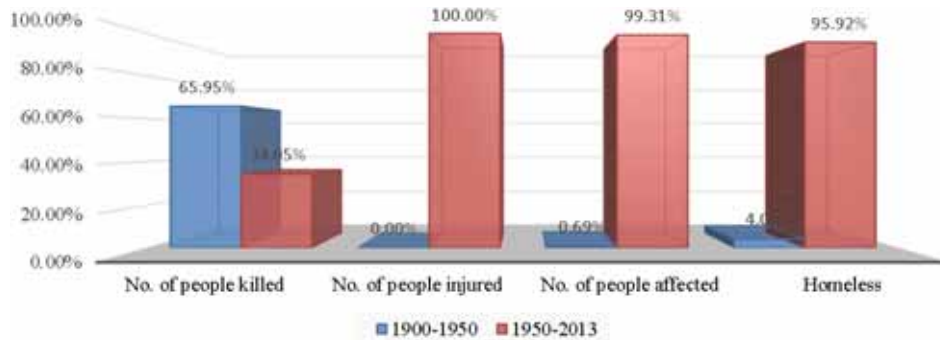


Figure 9. Percentage overview of the consequences of flooding to people in the period from 1900 to 2013, classified into two periods: from 1900 until 1950 and since 1950 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

In percentage terms, the highest number of the killed (65.95%), injured (100%) and affected (99.31%), as the number of people left homeless (95.92%) was in the period from 1950 to 2013, and the lowest number in the period before 1950. (Figure 9).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
2006	452	11686	4398	51336414	9277884	60618696	15611884
2007	436	17214	13300	353718102	1940494	355671896	49172134
2005	386	11508	3842	148649078	1400698	150053618	35879340
2010	366	16892	20766	375605606	1341440	376967812	96052294
2002	344	8472	77790	335269752	193904	335541446	53651022

Table 14. Top five years by floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, in 2006 most floods happened, 452. So, in the first place by flooding is 2006, then 2007, 2005, 2010 and 2002 in the end (Table 14).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1931	2	7400000	0	0	0	0	2800000
1959	26	4006792	0	26000	0	26000	0
1939	4	1000020	0	0	0	0	0
1935	2	284000	0	20060000	0	20060000	0
1911	2	200000	0	0	0	0	0

Table 15. Top five years by the number of deaths due to the consequences of floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, in 1931 most people were killed due to the consequences of floods and the number was 7,400,000. In the first place by the number of deaths due to the consequences of the floods is 1931 then 1959, 1939, 1935 and 1911 in the end (Table 15).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	Broj pogođenih	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1996	184	16094	505654	354835800	10012572	365354026	56994000
1992	118	10630	504240	30700328	7991020	39195588	15725326
2003	318	7772	306304	335095952	3520902	338923158	41731296
1998	188	21306	247922	551071240	36006208	587325370	87858302
1968	40	14612	200400	47668384	1789168	49657952	834362

Table 16. Top five years by the number of the injured due to the impacts of floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, in 1996 most people were injured due to the consequences of floods and the number was 505.654. In the first place by the number of the injured due to the consequences of the floods is 1996 then 1992, 2003, 1988 and 1968 in the end (Table 16).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1998	188	21306	247922	551071240	36006208	587325370	87858302
1991	154	11704	64854	444466296	11067628	455598778	25035276
1995	188	15912	142148	381295332	5445014	386882494	55111588
2010	366	16892	20766	375605606	1341440	376967812	96052294
1996	184	16094	505654	354835800	10012572	365354026	56994000

Table 17. Top five years by the number of the affected due to the impacts of floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, in 1998 most people were affected due to the consequences of floods and the number was 551.071.240. In the first place by the number of the affected due to the consequences of the floods is 1998 then 1991, 1995, 2010 and 1996 in the end (Table 17).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
1998	188	21306	247922	551071240	36006208	587325370	87858302
1994	176	13542	45570	245092526	14428246	259566342	41005612
1975	34	1696	186	64098410	14160300	78258896	2272486
1991	154	11704	64854	444466296	11067628	455598778	25035276
1996	184	16094	505654	354835800	10012572	365354026	56994000

Table 18. Top five years by the number of the homeless due to the impacts of floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, in 1998 most people were homeless due to the consequences of floods and the number was 36.006.208. In the first place by the number of the injured due to the consequences of the floods is 1998 then 1994, 1975, 1991 and 1996 in the end (Table 18).

Year	Occurrence	No. of people killed	No. of people injured	No. of people affected	Homeless	Total affected	Estimated damage (\$)
2011	310	12308	4048	270468184	2418572	272890804	141514094
2010	366	16892	20766	375605606	1341440	376967812	96052294
1998	188	21306	247922	551071240	36006208	587325370	87858302
1993	168	12300	3140	297750036	748670	298501846	65735886
1996	184	16094	505654	354835800	10012572	365354026	56994000

Table 19. Top five years by estimated value of property damage due to the impacts of floods in the period from 1900 to 2013. Source of data: EM-DAT: The OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database.

During the period from 1900 to 2013, the highest estimated property damage due to the consequences of floods was in 2001 and the number was 1.414.514.094. Thus, by estimated property damage due to the consequences of the floods in the first place is 2011 then 2010, 1998, 1993 and 1996 in the end (Table 19).

CONCLUSION

Managing the security and rescue of the flood is one of the oldest civilization heritages of human. As such, it has always exercised by good forecasts of meteorological phenomena and elements, water level and flow, good hydraulic engineering interventions on water regulation, construction of dams, dikes, retention ponds and clear water management interests. It is, therefore, geospatial and temporal distribution of floods in the world for the period from 1900 to 2013, provides a general overview, which can certainly be directly/indirectly used as an argument to advocate for the implementation of certain policies and procedures to protect and save people and their property from flooding based on the principle of “living with a flood” or steady and investment projects and reducing the exposure of the population relation of non-investment and attributes of the environment flood risk.

It is, therefore, analyzing numbers, trends, impacts and temporal and geospatial distribution in the flood period from 1900 to 2013, we came to the following conclusions in relation to the total number of flood events by continent, in this period, the highest number happened in Asia, then in America, Africa, Europe and the lowest number in Oceania. Compared by continents, the highest percentage of the killed due to consequences of flooding was in Asia (98.00%) and lowest in Oceania. Most of the injured, affected, and homeless were in Asia, and the lowest number of injured, affected and those who were left homeless was in Oceania. Compared by states, the highest number of floods happened in Afghanistan, followed by Albania, Algeria, Samoa, and Angola, by the number of deaths in the first place is China, followed by Haiti, India, Bangladesh, Guatemala and Venezuela, by the number of people injured due to the consequences of flooding in the first place is China, followed by Indonesia, Bangladesh, Sudan and El Salvador, by the number of affected people due to the impacts of floods in the first place is China, followed India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Thailand, by the number of people who were left homeless due to the consequences of floods in the first place is China, followed by India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, in the period from 1900 to 2013 there were 8331 floods, There were 13,867,186 of the killed, 2,634,446 were injured, 6872264928 affected, and 176755739 homeless, the highest number of floods occurred in the period from 2000 to 2013, a minimum from 1900 to 1920, most of those killed were from 1920 to 1940, the lowest number, in the period from 2000 to 2013, most people have been affected during the period from the 1980 to 2000, and the lowest number was, in a period from 1900 to 1920, most of the homeless in the period from 1980 to 2000.

Processed and analyzed data indicate a potential threat to national geographic space, despite the fact that Europe is in fourth place by the stated indicators of vulnerability to flooding. Also, research results indicate higher frequency and greater human and material losses in the last 14 years compared to other similar time equivalents in the observed period. Therefore, it is expected this trend will continue in the future, especially given the level of climate change and less material resources of society. The floods that have occurred in the geographic space of Serbia in the last 14 years, largely confirmed the specified possibility, because in that period of time were historical high water levels on the Danube, Sava, Tisza, Tamis, Morava, Lim and other waterways.²⁹

Therefore, sound and organized record keeping of floods and their impacts and consequences gives us the information necessary to create an effective and efficient system of early warning and risk assessment, and all this in order to reduce their consequences. By collecting and analyzing data on floods to study the probability of occurrence of maximum flows and water levels significantly improves prevention and preparedness of the state to respond to these types of emergencies that cannot be completely prevented.

From the above, it is necessary to continue ongoing research phenomenology and monitoring methodology and forecasting floods as a kind of natural disaster, to normatively improve the system of preventive care especially in the area of more consistent compliance with urban planning standards of construction of buildings according to the risk assessment of vulnerability by floods and flash floods (e.g. prohibition of construction in the area of 20-year high water levels). Also, it is necessary to create conditions for greater proactive action through regulation of critical waterways, safe and high quality construction of hydroelectric plants (dams, reservoirs, retention basins), decision support systems subjects for subjects of protection and rescue system from national local level, awareness of the potentially affected population and higher level of training and equipping of forces for action in terms of elimination and mitigation of catastrophic flooding - specialized units of civil defense, fire and rescue units of the Serbian Army, Red Cross Mountain Rescue and authorized and qualified entities for the protection and rescue in emergency situations such as water management, construction, utilities and other enterprises. Finally, special emphasis should be placed on improving the monitoring system of national, transnational watercourses and waterways that have torrential hydrological regime, and promoting international cooperation and action of national rescue forces outside of national geographic space, from the regional to the global level.

REFERENCES

1. Bobée, B., Ashkar, F.: *The Gamma Family and Derived Distributions Applied in Hydrology*, Water Resources Publications, Littleton, CO, 1991.
2. Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (2003), "EM-DAT: the OFDA/CRED International Disaster Database", available www.cred.be/emdat/welcome.htm (pristupljeno 05.06.2013. godine).
3. Chow, T.: *Handbook of Applied Hydrology*. New York: McGraw- Hill, 1964.
4. Cvetković, V., Mijalković, S.: *Spatial and Temporal distribution of geophysical disasters*. Serbian Academy of Sciences and Arts and Geographical Institute Jovan Cvijic, Journal of the Geographical Institute "Jovan Cvijic" 63/3, 345-360, SASA: Special issue: International Conference Natural Hazards Links Between Science and Practice.
5. Cvetković, V.: *Intervetno-spasilačke službe u vanrednim situacijama*. Beograd: Zadužbina Andrejević, 2013. godine.
6. Dilley, M, Robert, C., Uwe D., Arthur L., Margaret A.: *Natural Disaster Hotspots: A Global Risk Analysis*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank, 2005.
7. Edward, B.: *Natural Hazards, Second Edition*. Cambridge, University Press, 2005.

²⁹ Milanović, A., Urošev, M., Milijašević, D.: *Poplave u Srbiji u periodu 1999-2009 godine – hidrološka analiza i mere zaštite od poplava*, Glasnik Srpskog geografskog društva, sveska XC, br. 1, 2010., str. 106.

8. Filipović, I., Milojković, B., (2010). *Osnovi kartografije sa topografijom*, Niš: Prirodno-matematički fakultet – Departman za geografiju.
9. Haan, T.: *Statistical Methods in Hydrology*. Iowa State University Press, Ames, IA, 1977.
10. Jakovljević, V., Đarmati, Š.: *Civilna zaštita u Saveznoj Republici Jugoslaviji*, Beograd: Studentski trg, 1998.
11. Kite, G.W.: *Frequency and Risk Analysis in Hydrology*. Water Res. Publications, Fort Collins, CO, 1977.
12. Marlene, B., Carmichael, R.: *Notable Natural Disasters*. California: Salem Press, Inc, 2007.
13. McCuen, H.: *Microcomputer Applications in Statistical Hydrology*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1993.
14. Mijalković, S., Cvetković, V.: *Vulnerability of Critical Infrastructure by Natural Disasters*. Belgrade: In Procesiding „National Critical Infrastructure Protection, Regional Perspective“, 2013, pp. 91-102.
15. Milanović, A., Urošev, M., Milijašević, D.: *Poplave u Srbiji u periodu 1999-2009 godine – hidrološka analiza i mere zaštite od poplava*, Glasnik Srpskog geografskog društva, sveska XC, br. 1, 2010., str. 93-121.
16. Milojković, B., Mladan, D.: *Adaptivno upravljanje zaštitom i spasavanje od poplava i bujica – prilagođavanje poplavnom riziku*. Bezbednost, Year LII, br. 1/2010., str. 172-237.
17. Mladan, D., Cvetković, V.: *Classification of Emergency Situations*. Belgrade: Thematic Proceedings of International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days“, Academy of criminalistic and police studies, 1-2. march 2013, pp. 275-291.
18. Mohamed, S. I.: *Disaster types*. *Disaster Prevention and Management*, Vol. 16, Iss: 5, 2007, pp. 704 -717.
19. Potter, W.: *Research on Flood Frequency Analysis, 1983-1986*, *Reviews of Geophysics*, Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 113-118, 1987.
20. Rao, A., Hamed, K.: *Flood frequencyanal analysis*. Washington: CRC Press, 2000.
21. Schumann, A.: *Flood Risk Assessment and Management*. Bochum, Germany: Springer, 2001.
22. Singh, V., Singh, K.: *Parameter Estimation for TPLN Distribution for Flood Frequency Analysis*, *Water Resources Bulletin*, Vol. 23, No. 6, pp. 1185-1191.
23. Stoltman, J., Lindston, J., Dechano, L.: *International Perspectives on Natural Disasters: Occurrence, Mitigation, and Consequences*. The Netherlands.: Published by Springer .O. Box 17, 3300 AA Dordrecht, 2007.
24. UNCHS (United Nations Center for Human Settlements) (1994) *Sustainable Human Settlements in an Urbanizing World, including Issues Related to land policies and mitigation of natural disasters*. 15th Session of the Commission on Human Settlement. Unpublished Draft Theme Paper.
25. UN-ISDR United Nations – *International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction*, 2004.
26. Wisner, B.: *At Risk: Natural Hazards, People’s Vulnerability and Disasters*. London: Routledge, 2004. year.
27. Yevjevich, M.: *Statistical and Probability Analysis of Hydrologic Data, Part II, Regression and Correlation Analysis*”, Sec. 8-II, *Handbook of Applied Hydrology*, V.T. Chow, editor-in-chief, McGraw-Hilll Book Company, New York, NY, 1964.

NORMATIVE REGULATION OF FIRE PROTECTION IN THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Dragan Kulić

*Directorate for Police Education, Professional Training, Development and Science,
Section for Specialised Training, MoI of the Republic of Serbia*

Spec. Marina Milošević

Sector for Emergency Management, MoI of the Republic of Serbia

Spec. Dragana Marković

Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract: The paper points to the need for establishing a normative regime for procedures in emergencies, i.e. fire protection in the Republic of Serbia, since both people and assets are threatened in such situation. For these reasons, same as in other countries, normative regulation for procedures in emergencies is established in Serbia by the existing Law on Emergencies, the Law on Fire Protection and the applicable bylaws, stemming from the Law on Fire Protection, but within the Fire Protection Strategy. The Law on Police of the Republic of Serbia also obliges police officers to perform the duties of fire protection, because in this way they eliminate the direct threats to people and assets.

Keywords: protection, fire, fire-fighting unit, control, supervision, fire protection.

INTRODUCTION

By passing the Law on Fire Protection, this sphere was regulated in a unique way. The entities, competencies, measures, control and responsibility of the bearers of fire protection, were defined. Fire protection system includes a set of measures and actions for planning, financing, organizing, implementation and control of fire protection measures and actions, for preventing the outbreak and spread of fires, detection of fire and fire fighting, rescuing of people and property, protecting the environment, identification and elimination of the causes of fire, as well as for assisting in eliminating the consequences caused by fire¹. From the legal definition alone, it stems that fire protection includes a wide range of different functions in a rounded system containing all the above mentioned activities.

Methods for achieving fire protection are defined in the Law on Fire Protection. Fire protection is achieved through:

- (1) organizing and preparing fire protection subjects for the implementation of fire protection;
- (2) providing conditions for the implementation of fire protection;
- (3) undertaking measures and actions for the protection and rescue of people, material assets and the environment during a fire;
- (4) supervision of the implementation of fire protection measures.

The implementation of administrative control, which in this field is performed by the Ministry of Interior, and in a way, volunteer fire companies and their associations, provides undertaking of preventative measures in order to raise the level of fire protection, and it also ensures monitoring of the situation in this area by the competent authorities.²

In order to determine the appropriate organization and other measures needed for the successful functioning and implementation of fire protection measures, organizations and bodies are classified into three categories of fire risk, depending on the technological process, type of material that they produce, process or store, type of material used for the construction of a building and the importance of that building. Depending on the established categorization,

¹ Article 2 of the Law on Fire Protection, "Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia", No. 111/09.

² In the fire protection system, there are the following principles: protection, prevention, continuity, raising of awareness, transparency, cooperation, solidarity and accountability.

obligations regarding the implementation of fire protection are defined, such as fire protection plan, the number of employees in charge for organizing and implementing preventive fire protection measures, forming of fire-fighting units or the introduction of 24 hours shifts, a list of necessary equipment for fire-fighting etc.

FIRE PROTECTION SUBJECTS

Fire protection subjects are: state bodies, bodies, of autonomous province and of local self-government, companies, other legal and physical entities³. Fire protection subjects are required to comply with the obligations established by law and other regulations, to ensure the implementation of fire protection plans and other legal documents and are responsible for any activity that may change the situation and conditions for fire protection. Fire protection subjects are obliged to engage the available human and material resources and thus participate in extinguishing of fire and rescuing people and property endangered by fire, if it can be done without endangering themselves or others.⁴

The Ministry of Interior, within its scope, performs tasks important for the implementation of fire protection. The Ministry carries out tasks related to:⁵

- 1) planning, organization and implementation of fire prevention measures;
- 2) preventive measures for prevention of fire and mitigation of the consequences of fire;
- 3) supervision over the implementation of the provisions of laws and regulations, as well as fire protection plans and other documents relating to this matter;
- 4) professional training of members of fire and rescue units;
- 5) education and professional development of persons dealing with fire protection;
- 6) designing the Strategy and the Recovery Plan;
- 7) cooperation with other fire protection subjects;
- 8) other activities in the field of fire protection determined by the law.

In order to determine the appropriate organization and take measures necessary for the successful functioning and implementation of fire protection, the Ministry of Interior carries out the categorization of buildings and other constructions, activities and lands according to the fire risk, depending on the technological process that takes place in them; the type and quantity of material produced, processed or stored; types of materials used for construction; significance and size of a building or a construction and type of vegetation cover. Buildings and other constructions, activities and lands are classified into the following categories:⁶

- 1) with a high risk of a fire outbreak – the first category of fire risk;
- 2) with an increased risk of fire outbreak – the second category of fire risk;
- 3) with a certain risk of fire outbreak – the third category of fire risk.

The Ministry of Defence carries out activities related to fire and explosion protection within that ministry.⁷

The autonomous province and local self-governments, within their jurisdiction, provide the conditions for the implementation of fire protection measures and assistance in the elimination or mitigation of consequences of fires, and pass documents to improve the fire protection situation.

Companies and other legal entities, as fire protection subjects, are obliged to, under their jurisdiction, and according to the categorization of their activities, take appropriate measures and actions in the field of fire protection. The owner or user of a building or land and a company or other legal entity classified in the first category of fire risk, is required to provide technically equipped and trained fire-fighting unit with the necessary number of fire-fighters. The owner or user of a building or land and a company or other legal entity classified in the second category of fire risk, is required to organize the implementation of preventive measures for fire protection

³ Article 3 of the Law on Fire Protection.

⁴ Млађан, Д.: Спречавање и сузбијање пожара, хаварија и експлозија, Београд: Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, 2009, р. 38.

⁵ Article 17 of the Law on Fire Protection.

⁶ Article 23 of the Law on Fire Protection.

⁷ Article 18 of the Law on Fire Protection.

and 24 hours shift with the required number of persons qualified to implement fire protection. The owner or user of a building or land and a company or other legal entity classified in the third category of fire risk, is required to organize the implementation of preventive measures for fire protection with the required number of persons qualified to implement fire protection.

A company or other legal entity that meets the requirements and is authorized by the Ministry to carry out these tasks, can be hired to perform fire protection activities.

Basic provisions of the Law on Police stipulate that police have the protective and rescue function. Police take urgent measures necessary to eliminate direct danger to people and property, when these measures cannot be timely undertaken by other competent authorities, on which the police should immediately notify those authorities. Police assist the government authorities, bodies of territorial autonomy and local self-government, legal and physical entities in the case of general public danger caused by natural disasters, epidemics or other forms of threats.⁸

The tasks of fire protection and rescue, in addition to the police, in many countries are performed by a number of government and non-government subjects whose "leader", as a rule, is a separate specialized body, specific ministry, department, directorate for emergencies etc. In the Republic of Serbia, by the act on internal organization passed by the minister of interior, the Sector for Emergency Management was formed, which may be defined as an institutional carrier of tasks related to fire protection and rescue, natural disasters, catastrophes, accidents related to trade and transport of hazardous materials and other disasters.⁹

PLANNING AND ORGANIZING OF FIRE PROTECTION

The Fire Protection Strategy is passed by the Government. The Strategy defines the situation in the field of fire protection and measures to be taken.¹⁰ The Strategy is adopted for a period of at least five years and it should include:¹¹

- (1) description and assessment of the situation in the field of fire protection;
- (2) basic objectives and criteria for the implementation of fire protection in general, by fields and spatial units with priority protection measures;
- (3) conditions for the implementation of the most favourable economic, technical, technological, and other measures for fire protection;
- (4) long-term and short-term measures to prevent fire outbreaks, mitigate the consequences of fire and control the implementation of fire protection measures;
- (5) way of providing funds for fire protection.

Based on the categorization of subjects, and starting from the adopted Strategy, fire protection subjects must pass their individual plans within the established deadlines. The subjects' plans must be harmonized and synchronized in terms of jurisdiction, control, required resources, time, and other activities in the field of fire protection. In the fire protection plan, data on the number of fire-fighters, technical equipment, training of fire-fighting units, organization of preventive measures for fire protection, 24 hours shift and on the number of qualified persons for the implementation of fire protection, are presented in detail.

Autonomous province, local self-government units, subjects in the first and second category of fire risk are required to pass the Fire Protection Plan, which includes in particular:

- 1) overview of the current status of fire protection;
- 2) assessment of fire risk;
- 3) organization of fire protection;
- 4) proposed technical and organizational measures to eliminate shortcomings and improve the condition of fire protection;
- 6) calculation of the required funding;
- 7) stipulated spreadsheets and graphic appendixes.

The Ministry of Defence, in accordance with its jurisdiction, carries out the categorization

8 Article 1 and 2 of the Law on Police, "Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia", No. 101/05.

9 Југовић, С.: *Правни режим ванредних ситуација у Републици Србији*, Бања Лука: Правна ријеч: часопис за правну теорију и праксу бр. 31, 2012, рр. 237-248.

10 Fire Protection Strategy 2012-2017, "Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia", No. 21/2012.

11 Article 15 of the Law on Fire Protection.

of military installations and facilities of special importance for the defence. Fire protection tasks in special purpose facilities, used by the Ministry of Defence and the Serbian Armed Forces, are performed by competent military authority, under the conditions stipulated by the Minister of Defence, in accordance with the provisions of the law.

Fire protection subjects, in addition to a fire protection plan, must also adopt a recovery plan for the elimination of the consequences of fire. Recovery plans include: state, measures, assessment of the impact on human life and health, assessment of the impact on the environment, methods, dynamics and resources for implementation of the plan.

A company or other legal entity passes a recovery plan for the elimination of the consequences of fire. A local self-government unit passes a recovery plan for the elimination of the consequences of fire on its territory. Autonomous province passes a recovery plan for the elimination of the consequences of fire on its territory. The Government passes the Recovery Plan of the Republic of Serbia for the elimination of the consequences of a fire, if the consequences of a fire exceed the possibilities of recovery by a local self-government unit or autonomous province, if fire threatens buildings and spaces of great importance for the Republic of Serbia, or causes major consequences, and in case of accidents.

The owner or user of commercial, industrial and public buildings, block buildings and underground parking lots and buildings in the third category of fire risk, and the building's assembly or building's council in residential buildings, pass Rules on fire protection which include:

- 1) the organization of technological processes in a way that the risk of fire outbreak and spread is removed, and that in the event of a fire outbreak, safe evacuation of people and property is ensured, and spreading of fire is prevented;
- 2) fire protection, depending on the purpose of the building or other construction, with required number of persons qualified to perform fire protection;
- 3) adoption of the Evacuation Plan and guidelines for procedures in case of fire;
- 4) method of training of employees to implement fire protection.

PRINCIPLES OF FIRE PROTECTION¹²

The principle of protection - The main objective of fire protection measures is the protection of human life, bodily integrity, material assets and the environment

The principle of prevention - Prevention of fire protection is provided by planning and implementing preventive measures and actions so as to effectively prevent the outbreak of fire, and that in the event of a fire, risk to human life and health and threat to material assets as well as to the environment, is reduced to a minimum, and fire confined to the site of the outbreak.

The principle of continuity - Fire protection is organized and continuously implemented in all places and in all buildings that are exposed to the danger of fire.

The principle of raising awareness - Fire protection subjects encourage, guide and provide raising of awareness on the importance of fire protection through a system of education, scientific, research and technological development, professional development, as well as through informing the public.

The principle of transparency - State authorities, bodies of autonomous province and local self-government, companies and other legal entities, are obliged to inform the public about the state of fire protection and make available the necessary information, in accordance with the law.

The principle of cooperation - Fire protection subjects are required to exchange the information relevant to fire protection and harmonize activities important for fire protection. The Republic of Serbia is cooperating in the field of fire protection with other countries and international organizations.

The principle of solidarity - Fire protection subjects are obliged to assist each other in eliminating the consequences of fire.

The principle of accountability - Responsible persons in state bodies, bodies of autonomous

¹² Articles 7-14 of the Law on Fire Protection.

province and local self-governments, companies and other legal and physical entities, are responsible for the implementation of fire protection measures.

FIRE PROTECTION MEASURES

Fire protection measures essentially represent a set of procedures and actions to ensure the protection of people and property. It is hard to sublimate all fire protection measures in one place, but the following: should be pointed out:

Spatial and urban development plans provide for and define a number of measures in the field of fire protection, such as sources of water supply, water supply network plan, layout of residential and industrial buildings, routes of the roads, layout of fire-fighting units, etc.

When designing and constructing residential and public buildings, conditions for the evacuation of people and installation of necessary equipment for fire fighting, are provided.

When designing and constructing buildings in which technological processes of high fire and explosions risk are carried out, flammable and explosive materials are processed and stored, or installations for the distribution of flammable and combustible liquids and gases are installed, prescribed rules in the field of construction as well as in the field of fire protection are applied. Within the fire protection measures, a special place belongs to standards, technical norms and fire protection plans, which regulate a number of issues in this area. In such buildings and premises, devices that allow the timely detection, alarming and extinguishing of fires are placed.

Special measures to protect forest areas, agricultural lands, as well as measures for protection during the harvest, are undertaken.

Installation of equipment and tools for fire fighting (which correspond to the prescribed standards) is required, in all manufacturing, public and residential buildings, as well as provision of passable roads, passages and stairs in case of evacuation of people.

Legal entities, institutions and other bodies are required to adopt the Program of training in the field of fire protection and at least once every three years carry out the training for all employees, and at least once a year carry out the practical knowledge checks.

During the construction of water supply system, sufficient amount of water and pressure required for effective fire fighting and supply of fire engines must be provided.

FIREFIGHTING UNITS

Fire-fighting units are formed with the aim of fire protection. Mandatory existence of fire-fighting units is stipulated by law. The main tasks of these units are:

- prevention in the field of fire protection,
- implementation of fire protection,
- rescuing people and property,
- prevention and suppression of other technological disasters, and
- prevention and suppression of natural disasters.

Fire-fighting units can be professional and voluntary.¹³ Professional fire-fighting units are fire and rescue units of the Ministry, fire-fighting units of the Ministry of Defence and the Serbian Armed Forces, fire-fighting units of local self-governments and fire-fighting units of legal entities classified in the first category of fire risk. Volunteer fire-fighting units may be established by local self-governments, legal entities and associations. Local self-government units establish professional fire-fighting units when adequate facilities for the accommodation of personnel, equipment, as well as personal protective equipment, fire-fighting equipment and devices by current standards and norms are provided.¹⁴

Fire-fighting units, according to their affiliation and jurisdiction, can be territorial and

¹³ Article 49 of the Law on Fire Protection.

¹⁴ Млађан, Д.: Спречавање и сузбијање пожара, хаварија и експлозија, Београд: Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, 2009, pp. 42-43.

corporate. Territorial fire-fighting units are organized in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, within the tasks and duties of the Sector for Emergency Management.

Territorial fire-fighting units are organized as fire-fighting groups, departments, platoons and companies managed by commanders, and brigades managed by commandants. For their normal performance, these units must have a minimum of necessary equipment, tools and devices. The organization of activities and tasks in the units is such as to permit continuous operation and continuous mobility for faster and effective interventions. If necessary, fire-fighting units are obliged to assist the unit in another municipality and jointly act based on established procedure, taking care not to endanger the level of safety at these territories.

Legal entities and organizations classified in the first category of fire risk must have a fire-fighting unit. In order to ensure optimal organization of these units, criteria defining the size of the unit, number of employees and the structure of technical equipment, were defined. Procedure in case of fire, intervention, operational and technical procedures for extinguishing fire, the command system etc., are defined by special regulations.

For persons working in fire-fighting units, in addition to the general requirements during the process of employment, special requirements in terms of age, education, mental and physical health and abilities, as well as specialized training, are prescribed.

FIREFIGHTING ASSOCIATIONS

Civil associations can, in order to take preventive measures in the field of fire protection, education, advocacy and popularization of fire-fighting, and participate in fire-fighting and rescue of people and assets, organize fire companies and associations, as organizations in the field of fire protection.¹⁵ They can include permanent or temporary fire-fighting units, which, when required, are included in the work and fall under the command of territorial fire-fighting units.

Volunteer fire-fighting companies may be organized for the needs of a municipality or a legal entity, or institutions. They are obliged to cooperate and assist each other in cases of fire and emergency, in accordance with a special law. The role of these companies is particularly expressed in the implementation of fire protection during a harvest, organization of fire guards during large public meetings and events, as well as organization of fire-fighting competitions for all ages. In order to strengthen the functional links in the field of fire protection, volunteer fire companies can associate into fire-fighting associations.

THE FIRE EXTINGUISHING

In case of fire, every citizen is obliged to extinguish it if the conditions allow it, making sure not to endanger themselves or others, or cause adverse consequences. When fire is such that it cannot be immediately extinguished by an individual, their duty is to inform the nearest fire-fighting unit or duty officers or law enforcement agencies. Fire-fighting units may be notified on fire by telephone or radio, or a system for transferring calls from the fire alarm panel, which is stationed in a protected building.

In cases of fire, it is very important who receives a notification on fire. Information required in order to send to the place of intervention necessary forces and means are: exact address of a fire or other intervention; the shortest and alternative itinerary of movement; type and quantity of combustible material; existence of danger to human life and name of the person who notifies and phone number, to verify the data.¹⁶

Besides citizens, all persons of legal entities and institutions are required to report any fire that occurs in their facilities. The main reason for reporting procedure is to enable territorial

¹⁵ Article 65 of the Law on Fire Protection.

¹⁶ Млађан, Д.: Спречавање и сузбијање пожара, хаварија и експлозија, Београд: Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, 2009, р. 196.

fire-fighting units to quickly come to the scene and effectively extinguish the fire. The records are kept on every fire, regardless of the size and level of material damage.¹⁷

The success of fire extinguishing depends on the organization of operational fire and rescue service. In the process of fire extinguishing, and if necessary, besides territorial fire-fighting units, fire-fighting units of legal entities and volunteer fire-fighting units and associations can also participate. It is important to hire for these purposes only people who are professionally trained in fire fighting.

Fire-fighting unit is required to immediately upon notification of a fire take all measures to ensure the rapid and effective fire extinguishing. When a fire-fighting unit is not able to localize or extinguish fire all by itself, the leader of the fire-fighting action is obliged to seek assistance from other units from the territory of a municipality or from the territories of other municipalities.

In order to extinguish fires and rescue people and property endangered by fire, legal entities and institutions, as well as physical entities, are required to participate with: workforce, technology, equipment and machinery, based on the commands and directives issued by the leader of the fire fighting operation. Fire-fighting units are required to mutually cooperate and provide each other assistance in fire extinguishing and emergencies. In order to extinguish fires and rescue people and property endangered by fire, fire-fighting units may assist fire-fighting units in neighbouring countries, or seek assistance from them, according to the Government's decision and concluded agreements on international cooperation.¹⁸

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION IN THE FIELD OF FIRE PROTECTION

Supervision in the field of fire protection is carried out by the Ministry of Interior through fire protection inspectors. The said inspectors have the status of authorized officials.

The role of fire protection inspector is to by inspection on the scene determine the level of implementation of regulations in the field of fire protection and preventively order measures that companies, bodies, institutions and other legal entities must implement. In addition to standard fire protection measures, a fire protection inspector may determine the following measures:

- 1) prohibition of the use of tools and resources that pose a direct threat of fire, until the danger is eliminated;
- 2) prohibition of certain work in a building, part of a building or area, if there is obvious danger of the outbreak and spread of fire, and if by other fire protection measures (building renovation, part of a building or area by setting fire barriers, etc.) this imminent threat cannot be eliminated;
- 3) adaptation or rearrangement of the building to prevent the outbreak and spread of fire and endangerment of people and property;
- 4) prohibition of smoking, the use of open flames or devices in certain places where there is a danger of fire outbreak;
- 5) acquisition of necessary fire-fighting equipment and fire extinguishers, as well as their maintenance in good condition;
- 6) other measures that aim to prevent the outbreak and spread of fire.¹⁹

Besides these activities, inspectors review the technical documentation for buildings under construction and their technical approval. Inspector is required to make a report on completed inspection. Inspectors participate in determining the causes of fires and disasters, and in cases of complaints by citizens on the issues in this field.

¹⁷ Article 69 of the Law on Fire Protection

¹⁸ Млађан, Д.: Спречавање и сузбијање пожара, хаварија и експлозија, Београд: Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, 2009, р. 43.

¹⁹ Article 77 of the Law on Fire Protection.

INSTEAD OF A CONCLUSION

The Ministry of Interior, as one of the bodies of state administration, carries out a wide range of activities, precisely defined by a series of legal norms, contained in the Constitution of the Republic of Serbia, the Law on Ministries, the Law on Police and other regulations. The tasks performed by the Ministry can be grouped in several ways, depending on the methods, tools and procedures applied aimed at their efficient and full performance. Starting from the common definition that applies to all ministries and administrative bodies that states that their jurisdiction and constitutional obligation is “to enforce laws and regulations and ensure their implementation in the areas for which they are formed“, it implies that the Ministry of Interior is responsible for the performance, above all, of those jobs with security content, and those are jobs of protection of the security of the Republic and its citizens, and activities related to facilitating the realization of constitution and legal rights of citizens. Safety of citizens, protection of their lives and property are the duties and responsibilities of each state. Accordingly, activities of fire protection are clearly within the security function of the state.

Most countries have delegated security fire protection to a certain operational authority, and in Serbia this is the Sector for Emergency Management. One of the priority tasks of the said Sector is fire protection as a necessary condition for achieving the security of life, personal and property safety of citizens. The safety of people in the field of fire protection should be understood as a state of protection of citizens from fire and all those elements that in any way endanger their lives, tranquillity, right and property. The phenomenon of endangerment of vital values of the society in this area involves the social, natural and technical hazards that harm the integrity, property and health of people. The fire protection system protects the lives and property of people as well as other vital values of the community.

Endangerment of safety due to fire and other related phenomena is a problem faced by all societies and countries. Hence, these phenomena and challenges of endangerment of safety affect all decision makers who are carriers of fire protection. Only a well-organized system of security and protection and common action of all fire protection subjects can represent a long-term safety.

REFERENCES

1. Закон о полицији, „Службени гласник РС“, бр. 101/05.
2. Закон о заштити од пожара, „Службени гласник РС“ бр. 111/09.
3. Аврамовић, С., Симовић, Д. : *Ванредно стање и ванредне ситуације у Републици Србији - (не)оправдани дуализам*, Београд: Култура полиса : часопис за неговање демократске политичке културе, 2012, стр. 503-515.
4. Југовић, С. : *Правни режим ванредних ситуација у Републици Србији*, Бања Лука: Правна ријеч: часопис за правну теорију и праксу бр. 31, 2012, стр. 237-248.
5. Млађан, Д.: *Спречавање и сузбијање пожара, хаварија и експлозија*, Београд: Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, 2009.
6. Милетић, С., Југовић, С. : *Право унутрашњих послова*, Београд: Криминалистичко-полицијска академија, 2012.
7. Стратегија заштите од пожара за период 2012-2017. године, „Службени гласник РС“ бр. 21/2012.

SECURITY HELICOPTER RIDES IN EMERGENCIES

Aviation officer-pilot **Robert Vulić**
Graduated criminologists-specialist, professional pilot
The Armed Forces of Bosnia and Herzegovina

Assistant Professor **Slaviša Vlačić**, PhD
Lt. Col.- pilot, Head of the Military Force Department,
Military Academy, University of Defence in Belgrade

Abstract: The author is dealing with certain specific features of flight safety, especially helicopters, in emergencies dominated by large forest fires of open spaces. Analyzing the period of the last ten years it can be concluded that for the fire fighting from the air helicopters from the Army and Police have been used mainly. Flying of military and police helicopters is regulated by internal documents (the Armed Forces flight rule and similar) whose primary intention, among other things, is the prevention of aircraft accidents. In addition to these documents, former practice of firefighting from the air, in addition to general and special measures, imposed specific measures to prevent aircraft accidents that function as to avoid adverse events and increase the level of flight safety. Recommended specific measures are the result of years of practice of extinguishing fires from the air, especially on the territory of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and as such, have been implemented so far in some of the documents governing this issue.

Keywords: emergencies, helicopters, flight safety.

INTRODUCTION

Contemporary understanding of the aircraft flight security system is a complex activity whose main goal is the prevention of accidents of aircraft in the air and on the ground, which is achieved by applying the regulations at the national or international level. The regulations contain measures, actions and procedures of the overall personnel involved in air traffic as well as regulations related to the operation of automatic devices in the aircraft and on the ground. All commands, agencies, authorities and persons in any way involved in organizing, conducting and securing air traffic, are obliged to take all measures to prevent the aircraft accident.¹ Personnel, depending on the job and level of responsibility in the performance of their duties and tasks implement various measures to prevent the aircraft accidents, but, regardless of the complexity of the job and level of responsibility, the aircraft crews are those who bear the greatest burden for safe aircraft flight.

In addition to the flight safety, the subject of this research are also emergencies. There are many definitions of emergencies. A large number of scientists, researchers, government and non-government institutions, etc. deal with definition of emergency. For the purposes of this paper the following definition of emergency is stated:

An emergency is a condition where the risks and threats or consequences of disasters, emergencies and other threats to the population, environment and material assets are of such a scale and intensity that their occurrence or effects cannot be prevented or remedied by regular action of the authorities and agencies, due to which it is necessary to use special measures, forces and resources with enhanced operating mode for their mitigation and elimination.²

Forest fires fall under natural emergency situations. Emergency situations dealing with large forest fires and open space big fires are particularly demanding. In addition to many different

¹ The Federal Secretariat of National Defense: Flight rules of the armed forces, Belgrade, 1979.

² Act on Emergency Situations, („Official Gazette of the Republic of Serbia“ no. 111/09).

definitions of emergency, there are several different definitions of large forest fires in open spaces. This paper lists several definitions of forest fires:

Large forest fires and fires in open spaces appear at the end of a period of long-term and severe drought. In these conditions they are rarely individual, occurring in strong wind at the time of drought, when the fire spreads over a large area in a short time and its quenching becomes more difficult. Fires that affects an area larger than 100 ha are very difficult to extinguish. If the fire caught area of more than 1000 ha, its important feature then is not its type, but its scale and continuous increase in the volume of works on the extinguishing.³

Huge fire of open space is each fire in open space, with respect to the affected area and rate of expansion, directly endangering people and property of greater value, and possibly causing considerable material damage, requires major intervention of bigger, primarily fire fighting forces from the wider area.⁴

In some references, the huge fires are considered the fires that spread over area from 0.4 – 400 km².⁵

SPECIFIC MEASURES OF FLIGHT SAFETY

Specific security measures of helicopters flight that belong to the Armed Forces on fire fighting tasks from the air were implemented through SOP⁶ for firefighting from the air which is based on the following monography: Tactics and techniques of fire fighting from the air. Throughout the Monography and stated SOP and based on the experiences of the author and other helicopter crews from Bosnia, the Army of Serbia and Serbian Ministry of Internal Affairs the specific measures that directly or indirectly affect the safety of flight are as follows:

Evaluation of fire site– is a specific measure in the system of security measures of flight safety which involves the assessment of fire site (forest fire, fire in open space or any other fire) made solely by the competent civilian authorities and persons authorized and trained for making these assessments. Evaluation involves assessing the degree of risk, assessment of the size of the fire site, assessing the possible directions of expansion, estimate of the intensity of fire, etc. Based on these estimates, helicopters crew (crews) get familiar with the situation on the ground and, depending on the configuration of the terrain and the general conditions of the relief (availability of the water intake surface, etc.), propose one or more locations for firefighting where purposeful or potential use of helicopters for firefighting from the air exists. In coordination with civilian authorities, based on an initial assessment of the fire site and the assessment for helicopters' use possibility, a decision is made on priority location for firefighting from the air by helicopters from the Armed Forces or the Police.

Specified, specific security measures of helicopters' flights in firefighting tasks from the air, is the result of experiences in the field. In fact, most emergencies are characterized by a complex condition that causes a decision making process to be confusing. Unsuitability of the decisions is especially pertinent in situations where there is a lack of accurate and timely information. However, flying itself is a complex human activity and every aircraft flight (helicopter or airplane) is a flight for itself where there is no routine. So, flying helicopters in firefighting tasks in confusing conditions of person making decisions regarding firefighting is highly undesirable phenomenon.

3 Kurbacki, N.P. *Tehnika i taktika gašenja šumskih požara*, Firefighters Association of Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1966.

4 Intervention plan for large fires of open space on territory of Republic of Croatia, Croatian Government, 2001.

5 <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wildfire>

6 SOP – Standard operating procedures of helicopters' firefighting from the air BiH AF.

The practice of firefighting has shown that, if there are 5 minutes of available time for fire fighting, it is fully purposeful and justified to use the first 3 minutes to review the situation, plan and organize fire extinguishing and to use the remaining two minutes for fire fighting and control of extinguishing.⁷ Analogously, the practice of fire fighting from the air has shown that it is always more suitable to deploy total available time in a manner so that a portion of time is used for the analysis and understanding of fire situations, prioritizing points for firefighting from the air, organization of fire fighting from the air, etc. Fire fighting alone (“throwing” water onto the fire) is more purposeful in conditions when organized in the described manner.

Cooperation with firefighters on the ground– is a specific flight security measure that indirectly affects the performance of flight tasks and tasks of firefighting. The highest number of helicopters in our area, extinguishes the fires from the air using water that is brought to fire site by flexible helicopter fire-fighting buckets, usually with a fire-fighting flexible bucket PPV 2000.⁸ A flexible fire fighting bucket PPV-2000, was specially constructed and intended for firefighting actions from a helicopter, at smaller initial forest fires and other fires in rugged terrain, final fire extinguishing after activities of fire-fighting planes, creating “water obstacle” on the edges of the fire to prevent the spread and for combined cooperation in fire fighting combat with fire fighting units on the ground.⁹

Although the Instructions for the use of PPV-2000 bucket stated that it can be used to extinguish smaller initial and final forest fires, the current practice of fire fighting from the air in our region has shown that, however, this is not possible. Namely, the diagram of water scattering during action from the air shows that this scattering is not even and the extinguishing surface is treated differently by water. Approximate percentages are: 29% of the area is “poured” by the ideal amount of water, is not enough water was dumped over 43% of the area and 28% of the area is “poured” with more water than necessary.¹⁰ So, effective fire fighting from the air without cooperation with ground fire fighting units is *not possible*.

In practice of extinguishing forest fires, it is a common phenomenon that inaccessible and “difficult” terrains for extinguishing fire are extinguished only by helicopters from the air. Exactly under the pretext of inaccessible terrain there is no coordination and interaction with the ground fighting units. Based on the above, and as in some cases, current practice has shown, it is considered that this method of extinguishing forest fires is extremely unsuitable and inefficient. In addition to being inefficient, almost as a rule, firefighting efforts are “transferred” onto the helicopter crews and responsibility for the “success” of the extinguishing and a “miracle” is expected from them, that is, to extinguish the fire which, objectively cannot be done under any circumstances. In addition to some sort of “pressure” on the crews, this attitude contributes to the extraordinary stress and “spending” of helicopter crews, which in the above case, are spending their positive energy on “Sisyphean task”. In addition to the extraordinary stress on the crew, a waste of helicopter’s resources¹¹ become questionable and since the fire fighting from the air, almost as a rule, is done with the “limited” helicopter’s resources. Limited resources cause unit commander to put pressure on flying helicopter crews in the sense that they should “save”, which is, again, contrary to the needs on the ground.

The choice of priorities for fire – implies that the civilian government structures or competent lumber camp in the assessment the fire site determine priorities for the extinguishing from the air. In fact, not all forest areas are of the same economic value and therefore conifers are economically more valuable than deciduous, young plantations have a “top” priority for fire

⁷ Kurbacki, N.P. *Tehnika i taktika gašenja šumskih požara*, Firefighters Association of Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1966.

⁸ The Federal Secretariat of National Defense: *Korišćenje i održavanje Protivpožarnog vedra PPV-2000*, Belgrade, 1988.

⁹ *Ibid.*

¹⁰ More in: Vulić, R. *Taktika i tehnika gašenja požara iz vazduha*, Faculty of Security and Protection Banja Luka, Banja Luka, 2011.

¹¹ Helicopter resource is the number of helicopter’s flying hours until occasional larger or smaller scale works. During the works the helicopter is on the ground.

fighting, etc. In addition to certain priorities based on economic feasibility, capabilities of fire fighting helicopter, along with the interaction of ground fire fighting units, are different for different types of forest fires on the basis of structure conditions. In addition, in firefighting from the air, from the viewpoint of a helicopter crews, there are three basic types of forest space. According to the height of trees (bushes) forests are classified into the high forests, low forests and low vegetation (open spaces).¹²

This segmentation of forests was made on the basis of the ratio of water ejected from the air that stays on vegetation (trees) and water that goes to the ground. It is important to note that the fire gets extinguished from the air by the water that reaches the ground, while the water that remains on the weeds and trees due to high temperatures evaporates and it has no effective impact on extinguishing of fire.¹³

The high forests are classified as forests where the average height of trees is between 30-40 m, with dense and connected treetops that prevent the passage of water and sunlight to the ground. The approximate ratio of water that drops to the ground and the water ejected from the air that remains in the treetops is 30:70. Thus, about 70% of water thrown from a helicopter in order to extinguish the fire remains in the trees and does not “participate” in firefighting. These fires belong to the kind of fire in the crowns, or in the elevated (high) fires with average speed of spreading 2-5 km/24 hours, with the influence of wind and up to 15.25 km/24 hours which decrease at night.

The low forests are classified as forests where the average height of trees is 10-12 m, where there are no dense and intertwined treetops and are usually thinner and more jagged. These trees are covered with low vegetation with lots of dry leaves and bushes. The approximate ratio of water ejected from the air for fire extinguishing is 30:70 in favor of the water that drops to the ground. Thus, about 30% of water remains in the treetops and 70% of the water drops to the ground and “participate” in firefighting.¹⁴

Low-growing vegetation (“open spaces”) consists of underbrush, bushes, low pine, spruce, etc. The height of vegetation is 2-3 m; the terrain is mostly undulating and rugged so they are called “open spaces”. It is most appropriate (vegetation) for the formation and rapid spread of fire in all directions. It spreads frontally, it is of ground type, it encompasses large areas and the terrains under this type of vegetation are generally difficult to access. The ratio of water ejected from the air in for firefighting is the most favorable since about 80% water drops to the ground while 20% of the water remains on the vegetation. Some authors call them “fires of open spaces,” including the author of this paper; they spread at an average speed of 2-4 km/24 hours, with the wind influence of up to 10-12 km/24 hours that decrease at night. The fire of open spaces is extinguished most efficiently by modern firefighting helicopters in conjunction with ground firefighting units.¹⁵

Fire extinguishing of high forests from the air using firefighting helicopters, proven through practice, is completely ineffective and uneconomical. The effectiveness of firefighting planes is often questionable too. In the event of fire in low forests, efficacy of firefighting helicopters was occasionally proven, but with the interaction with the firefighters on the ground; while the firefighting planes are rather effective; with low vegetation fire, firefighting helicopters with the firefighters on the ground are very effective while the efficacy of firefighting planes is questionable. Firefighters can extinguish fires at the same time with firefighting helicopters while during operation of firefighting planes they must not be “under” the plane, or in the area of water operations.

12 <http://www.hrvatski-vojn timer.hr/hrvatski-vojn timer/732001/pozar1.asp>

13 Vulić, R. *Specifičnosti upravljanja poslovanjem gašenja požara u zavisnosti od angažovanja helikoptera*, Specialist paper, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2009.

14 <http://www.hrvatski-vojn timer.hr/hrvatski-vojn timer/732001/pozar2.asp>

15 Džidara, M. Basically technologies firefighting open space planes, Croatian soldier internet - <http://www.hrvatski-vojn timer.hr/hrvatski-vojn timer/732001/pozar1.asp>

Adequate organization of fire fighting from the air – implies the use of helicopters on tasks (firefighting jobs from the air) in period from 5 a.m. to 8.30 a.m. and period from 6:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m. The specified time periods of the day when it is purposeful to use helicopters on firefighting activities and tasks from the air is conditioned by different types of factors/influences. The most influential factors are meteorological factors that affect organization of firefighting work from air as follows:

The maximum air humidity will be from 5:00 a.m. to 7:00 a.m., after which it decreases until 3:00 p.m. when it starts growing again from 6:00 to 7:00 p.m. to the maximum humidity from 5:00 a.m. to 7:00 a.m. Taking into account this development of air humidity, it is purposeful to use firefighting helicopters for firefighting operations from the air between 5:00 a.m. to 8:30 a.m. and from 6:00 p.m. to 9:00 p.m. Increasing humidity further increases the efficiency of firefighting from the air as it reduces the temperature of the fuel (that is the matter that burns), increases the percentage of water vapor at the expense of oxygen - which is more favorable for extinguishing fire and reduces the contact surface of fuel and oxidizers (oxygen in the air);¹⁶

Second meteorological factor of influence is the wind whose daily movement should also be purposefully taken into consideration when planning the use of helicopters. Wind significantly increases the intensity of forest fires, and it is appropriate to take advantage of reduced severity of wind at night and during early morning hours. Reduction in the intensity of wind is caused by equalizing air temperature over various surfaces. Specified favorableness should be appropriately utilized in planning the use of helicopters;

Noticeable enhancing or weakening of the fire strength falls short of meteorological phenomena so that morning amplification of fire strength occurs in the period from 9:00 a.m. to 10:00 a.m. and evening reduction of fire strength occurs at the time from 6:00 p.m. to 8:00 p.m. This natural phenomenon should be utilized purposefully in planning fire fighting from the air.

Alternative use of helicopters for firefighting – implies the use of helicopters in different ways, except in a manner to drop water from the air to the fire site. Most helicopters that extinguish fires in our area are, basically, transport helicopters, which have certain capabilities of transporting personnel and cargo in the cargo cabin of the helicopter and below the helicopter as hooked external load.

In conditions when the use of helicopters is unsuitable for extinguishing fire from the air (the impossibility of cooperation with firefighters on the ground, very distant water intake area, etc.) it is valid to think about different ways to use the available helicopters. Instead of inefficient dropping of water, a number of firefighters with the equipment and the necessary water for firefighting can be transported to the fire site. It is believed that, in many cases of forest fires, firefighters are more effective for extinguishing forest fires than firefighting helicopters.¹⁷

Additional water for fire, reinforcements, resources and equipment, etc. can be delivered to firefighters on the ground. However, this method of helicopters use requires previous training of firefighters in terms of loading, residence (at transporting) and disembarking from a helicopter. Described manner of helicopter use has been applied, so far, to a lesser extent but helicopter crews avoid it due to lack of training of personnel being transported because helicopter crews are the ones that are responsible for the security of personnel to be transported. In addition to the training of personnel, it is essential that the helicopter gets “tied” to the firefighters and that it is only available to them in order to avoid adverse events.¹⁸ In addition to adverse events, the helicopter has to be available to firefighters for possible evacuation, medical transport, delivery of new quantities of water, etc. Only with the return of all firefighters from the field the helicopter is no longer “tied” to the firefighters.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Kurbacki, N.P. *Tehnika i taktika gašenja šumskih požara*, Firefighters Association of Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1966.

¹⁸ For example tragedy on the Kornati islands.

Complex of general meteorological conditions for the emergence and development of forest fires operates unevenly throughout the day, with all the complex factors acting simultaneously in all directions. Starting from 7:00 a.m. to 8:00 a.m. the increasing of air temperature is followed by reduction of its relative humidity, thus creating favorable conditions for the development of fire. The above process continues until 5:00 p.m. - 6:00 p.m. at an accelerated pace, with the appearance enhancement of local winds at noon whose influence is most pronounced in the period from 1:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. After 6:00 p.m. due to the effect of temperature drop and rise in relative humidity and decrease in wind speed, comes period with weak conditions for the development of fire. Noticeable amplification or attenuation of fire intensity lags somewhat behind the meteorological changes. Evening attenuation of fire intensity starts at 6:00 p.m. – 7:00 pm and the morning amplification from 9:00 to 10:00 a.m.. The day is most suitable for the formation and development of the fire.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, a large forest fire was chosen to be a hypothetical emergency situation as a basis for research. Each emergency situation is characterized by an entire series or system of security measures all actors in the management of emergency situations. The above system of security measures is further complicated by deployment of firefighting helicopters in firefighting operations from the air, the. System of flight security measures, in that case, coexists with the general system of security measures in the emergency situations management system and becomes one of its subsystems but with a big “autonomy”.

Part of the measures of security system in an emergency is conducted by helicopter crews and supporting personnel (on the ground or in the air) and these measures are prescribed by internal documents of the Army or Police and are independent from the system of security measures in an emergency situation. For firefighting helicopter crews and supporting personnel, these “internal” security measures are the priority and the same must be adhered to during the engagement in activities and tasks of firefighting from the air, that is, during the execution of the flight, irrespective of the type and scope.

The paper describes the part of the security measures in the emergency situations security system, which refers to the activities of emergency situations’ management, and indirectly, to the flight safety of firefighting helicopters. These are in response to the numerous experiences of flight crews of firefighting helicopters from BiH and Serbia as a direct contribution to the overall firefighting efforts with maximum safety for all participants in firefighting. Described security measures are often difficult to understand the management running emergencies dominated by a huge forest fire, and this leads to, a sort of, evasion of their implementation which in the end has negative impact on the overall firefighting efforts and the implementation of security measures.

These measures are kind of a challenge (burden) to the Management running emergency, which, in most cases, consists of representatives of civil structures, which, in principle, operate on principles “looser” than those of military structures and military (police) organization. However, this kind of “looseness” cannot be the cause of the neglect of the above specific security measures of firefighting helicopters flying since their application affects the effectiveness and efficiency of fire fighting from the air, where the ultimate goal of all firefighting efforts is extinguishing a large forest fire.

The time and manner of engagement of firefighting helicopters, as described above as an integral part of the system of flying security measures, is explained as cause and effect and there is no justifiable reason for not adhering to them. Although it is, often, questionable for civil structures, however, they have to adapt to the manner and time of use of firefighting helicopters in their best interest as, until now, this has largely been proven in practice.

REFERENCES

1. Ministry of Defense BiH: Standarde operative procedure gašenja požara iz vazduha helikopterima OS BiH, Banja Luka, 2012.
2. N. P. Kurbacki: Tehnika i taktika gašenja šumskih požara, Firefighters Association of Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1966.
3. Intervention plan for large fires of open space on territory of Republic of Croatia, Croatian Government, 2001.
4. The Federal Secretariat of National Defense: Korišćenje i održavanje Protivpožarnog vedra PPV-2000, Belgrade, 1988.
5. The Federal Secretariat of National Defense: Pravilo letenja oružanih snaga, Belgrade, 1979.
6. Vulić, R. Taktika i tehnika gašenja požara iz vazduha, Faculty of Security and Protection Banja Luka, Banja Luka, 2011.
7. Vulić, R. *Specifičnosti upravljanja poslovima gašenja požara u zavisnosti od angažovanja helikoptera*, Specialist paper, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2009.
8. Act on emergencies, ("Official gazette of Republic of Serbia" no. 111/09).
9. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wildfire>
10. <http://www.hrvatski-vojn timer.hr/hrvatski-vojn timer/732001/pozar1.asp>
11. <http://www.hrvatski-vojn timer.hr/hrvatski-vojn timer/732001/pozar2.asp>
12. Džidara, M. Basically technologies firefighting open space planes, Croatian soldier internet - <http://www.hrvatski-vojn timer.hr/hrvatski-vojn timer/732001/pozar1.asp>

SECURITY ASSESSMENT OF SYRIAN CRISIS

PhD student **Ivan Ristov**, MA
Faculty of Security, Skopje, Macedonia

Abstract: The subject of this paper is the security assessment of Syrian crisis, especially the systematical analysis of the ongoing social conflict. The security assessment will be indented in four segments: Geopolitical and geostrategic importance of Syria; Systematical analysis of Syrian crisis; Analysis of foreign factors in Syrian crisis and Predictions and versions of possible development of the security situation in Syria.

Design: From methodology aspect we used content analysis, comparative-historical research method, induction and deduction and descriptive method.

Findings: Russia has military-economic (arm sales) and historical (Russia appears as a patron country of Syria) interest towards Syria; In the period 2008 - 2012 Syria imported weapons from: Russia (71%), Iran (14%), and Belarus (11%); USA's interest towards Syria is strictly strategic petroleum. The strategic goal of USA is to independent Western Europe from Russian energy by building a pipeline that will go through UAE - Saudi Arabia - Kuwait - Iraq - Syria (Latakia, Tartus); The security situation in Syria is not expected to be normalized in the next 6 months; President Al-Asad will remain unwilling to negotiate himself out of power and he intends to remain the ruler of Syria and plans to win a new seven-year term in presidential elections that might occur in 2014¹; Destroying Syria chemical weapons will be a long and expensive procedure that won't come to an end in the next few months.

Keywords: Syria, Geopolitics, Systematical analysis, Crisis, Security assessment

INTRODUCTION

In the essence of Syrian crisis there is a social conflict caused by politically-ideological, ethnic-religion and geostrategic reasons. Security assessment of the ongoing social conflict must be thorough, permanent and multidisciplinary, answering three basic questions: Is there a danger and at what level this danger is affecting social security related to specific social conflict; What is the capacity of the institutions in resolving the conflict and What legal activities and specific measures are necessary to resolve the specific conflict.²The security assessment must determine the creation, genesis, territorial variety, objective reasons, subjects, structure, manifestation forms and conflict tendencies.³ The security assessment contains 6 different parts: Geostrategic analysis of the territory; Systematical analysis of the social conflict; Influence of international factors; Security sector; Forecasts and versions; and Conclusion. The systematical analysis of the social conflict contains 10 different parts: Defining of the conflict; Determine the beginning and the path of the conflict (timeline); Determine of the subjective and objective side of the conflict; Determine the structure of the conflict; Determine of the function of the conflict; Notice the tendencies of the conflict and its segments; Determine the territorial distribution of the conflict; Determine influence of international factors; Determine the most extreme subject; Determine the subjects who openly threat with violence.⁴

This paper contains part of the security assessment of Syrian crisis (with a special emphasis of the systematical analysis of the ongoing conflict) seen through the lenses of US-Russian relations and geostrategic games.

1 Worldwide threat assessment of the US intelligence community, James R. Clapper, Director of national intelligence, January 2014.

2 Batkovski Tome, Security Assessment of National and International conflicts as element of strategic approach in terrorism prevention, Međunarodna naučnostručna konferencija, Suprotstavljanje terorizmu - Međunarodni standardi i pravna regulativa, Kozara, 29-30 marta 2011 godine.

3 Ibid.

4 Ibid.

SYRIA'S ID

Syria (Official name: Syrian Arab Republic) is a country of the Middle East, bordering the Mediterranean Sea (coast line 193 km), Iraq (605 km), Israel (76 km), Jordan (375 km), Lebanon (375 km) and Turkey (822 km). Total area of Syria is 185,180 sq km (land: 183,630 sq km [including 1,295 sq km of Israeli-occupied territory] and water: 1,550 sq km), 89 country compared with the rest of the world. Syria has 14 administrative divisions (provinces called "Muhafazat"). Damascus is the capital city and Aleppo is the biggest. Population of Syria is 22.457.336 people (54 country compared to the world). Dominant ethnic group in Syria are the Arabs (90.3%), rests are Kurds, Armenians, and others. Islam is the official religion in Syria from which Sunni Muslim (74%) and other Muslim (includes Alawite, Druze) (16%). Other religious groups include Christians (various denominations) (10%) and Jewish (tiny communities in Damascus, Al Qamishli, and Aleppo). Syria is very important for Christians, mainly because Apostle Paul accepted Christianity traveling to Damascus, and he built the first church in Antioch (now Turkish territory). Arabic is the official language of Syria. Other spoken languages are: Kurdish, Armenian, Aramaic, Circassian (widely understood); French, English (somewhat understood). Crude oil production of Syria is 333,900 bbl/day (33 country compared with the rest of the world), crude oil - export is 152,400 bbl/day (34 country), crude oil - import 0 bbl/day, and crude oil reserves are 2.5 billion bbl (1 January 2013). Syria produces 7.87 billion cu m of natural gas (46 country), and imports 250 million cu m. Natural gas - proved reserves of Syria are 240.7 billion cu m (1 January 2013) (45 country compared to the world)⁵. Historically Syria is one of the oldest countries in the world. By the years Syria has been a center of many historical events, resulting with constant wars and occupations by diverse ethnic groups (Jews, Aramaeans, Armenians, Persians, Greeks, Babylonians, Romans, Byzantine, Arabs, Turks etc.). Ottomans rule over Syria ends with the end of WWI in 1918, when the Arabs concur Damascus and throne their king. In 1920 Syria is occupied by the French. Syrians gain independence from France in 1946. In November 1956, as a direct result of the Suez Crisis, Syria signed a pact with the Soviet Union. This gave a foothold for Communist influence within the government in exchange for military equipment. On 1 February 1958, Syrian President Shukri al-Quwatli and Egypt's Nasser announced the merging of Egypt and Syria, creating the United Arab Republic, which ended in 1961. In 1970, Hafez al - Assad (father of today's President Bashar al - Assad) took the power in Syria by coup, and ruled until 2000, when he was inherited by his son Bashar al - Assad.

RUSSIAN - USA'S RELATIONS AND THE GEOSTRATEGIC AND GEOPOLITICAL INTEREST TOWARDS SYRIA

Russian - USA's confrontations concerns 6 different cases:

1. NATO's anti missile defense system;
2. Iran's nuclear program;
3. North Korea's nuclear program;
4. Edward Snowden;
5. Human rights in Russia; and
6. Syrian crisis

The aim of this part of the paper is the analysis of US - Russia relations through the prism of Syrian crisis.

RUSSIA AND SYRIA

- Russian interest towards Syria as strategic-military-economical (arms sales) as historical, mainly because Russia appears as some kind of patron country of Syria;

- In 1970, the father of Bashar Al-Assad, Hafez Al-Assad stage a coup, and later in the 1980's signs an agreement for partnership (military cooperation) with USSR;

⁵ <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/sy.html>

- Since the beginning of the Cold war until 1980, 75% of all arm sales from USSR, fluctuate towards 5 country clients: Angola, India, Iraq, Libya and Syria. 3 of them (India, Iraq and Syria) had a signed agreement for partnership with USSR⁶;

- During 2008–12, Russia supplied 71% of Syria's imports of major weapons, Iran supplied 14% and Belarus 11%. Russia's arms supplies included an estimated 24 96K9 Pantsyr-S1 and 6 9K40 Buk SAM systems and 2 K-300P Bastion-P coastal defense missile systems.⁷

- Russia has a naval facility in Tartus. Russian official usage classifies the installation as a Material-Technical Support Point and not a "base". Tartus is the last Russian military facility outside the former Soviet Union, and it is the only Mediterranean repair and replenishment spot, sparing Russia's warships the trip back to their Black Sea bases through the Turkish Straits;

- In Syria today lives more than 20.000 civilian and military Russian experts.

US AND SYRIA

- USA has a strictly economical oil strategy interest towards Syria;

- The route of the future pipeline: UAE-Saudi Arabia-Kuwait-Iraq goes through Syrian territory (Latakia and Tartus) towards Mediterranean Sea and Cyprus with final destination Western Europe. None of the mention countries will accept this pipeline to go through Israel. That's the main reason for the importance of Syrian territory.

- Strategic goal of the US is to independent Western Europe from Russian energy by building an inexpensive pipeline. This pipeline will totally derogate Russian South stream pipeline.

- Syria is a secondary issue for the US, main issue is Iran.

SYSTEM ANALYSIS OF THE CONFLISCT IN SYRIA

DEFINING THE SYRIAN CRISIS

The conflict in Syria is a classic civil conflict with religious elements. The closest definition is religious-political crisis.

TIMELINE OF SYRIAN CRISIS

Protests against President Bashar al-Assad broke out in March 2011. Similar to other Arab spring movements, they peacefully demanded removal of an autocratic ruler and greater freedoms. From the outset, the government's reaction was heavy-handed. Protestors were beaten, shot and disappeared without trace. Street protests quickly turned into an armed rebellion, with a loose coalition of groups fighting under the broad banner of the Free Syrian Army⁸. The armed conflict is spread through the hole territory of Syria. Certain areas are occupied by the rebels. On August 21, 2012 an attack with chemical weapons was carried out. In the attack 1429 people were killed. After the attack, European countries (mainly France), Turkey and later US took the lead, issued a statement that the attack was carried out by Al-Assad regime. Syria allowed UN inspectors for chemical weapons. After the threat with military air strike by the US administration and an intensive diplomatic struggle between Russia and US, under an agreement between the US and Russia, Syria agrees to destroy or remove all chemical weapons by mid-2014 under watch of international community. Till December, 2013 more than 100.000 people were killed in Syrian crisis.

OBJECTIVE AND SUBJECTIVE SIDES OF SYRIAN CRISIS

The reasons that led to emergence and future development of the Syrian crisis are mainly political with religious background and geopolitics.

- On one side of the conflict are the legitimate security forces and the army of Syria, led by

⁶ Anthony Sampson, *The arms bazaar: From Lebanon to Lockheed*, New York Viking press, 1977

⁷ Trend in international arms transfers, SIPRI, March 2013

⁸The Telegraph, *Syrian crisis explained - Q and A*, Alex Spillius, Diplomatic Correspondent, available at: [<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/middleeast/syria/10120350/Syrian-crisis-explained-QandA.html>]

President Bashar al-Assad, who is Alawit. Most of the members of the state apparatus, including the security and intelligence services and the military are Alawits.

- On the other side of the conflict are the rebels. Heterogeneous rebel group, mainly Sunni, (100.00 people) composed by several fractions. Early on, most were ordinary Syrians who abandoned their normal lives to take up arms. They repeatedly appealed for military aid from the West. But concerns about their chaotic power structure delayed any decisions. By mid-2012, significant numbers of Sunni jihadist fighters from the Arab world and European countries (including Balkans) began arriving.⁹

“The National Coalition for Syrian Revolutionary and Opposition Forces”¹⁰ commonly named as the “Syrian National Coalition”, as a coalition of opposition groups, was founded in Doha, Qatar, in November 2012.

The most aggressive and successful arm of the rebel force is the Al-Nusra front (15.000 - 20.000 fighters), a branch of Al Qaeda operating in Syria. The group announced its creation on 23 January 2012. The group was designated by the United Nations and the United States in December 2012, Australia in June 2013, and the United Kingdom in July 2013 as a terrorist organisation.

Certain data indirectly suggest that over 4000 jihadist from Bosnia, Serbia, Kosovo and Macedonia are fighting on the side of rebel groups in Syria.

THE STRUCTURE OF SYRIAN CRISIS

a) Al-Assad regime military and financially is helped by Russia and Iran. Syrian President Bashar al-Assad’s regime is being supplied through the legal arms market by Russia. At the same time, they are being supplied by Iran, but since Iran is forbidden from exporting weapons under U.N. Resolution 1747, these transactions are illegal or occurring on the black arms market¹¹. As we previously said during 2008–12, Russia supplied 71% of Syria’s imports of major weapons, Iran supplied 14% and Belarus 11%. Russia’s arms supplies included an estimated 24 96K9 Pantsyr-S1 and 6 9K40 Buk SAM systems and 2 K-300P Bastion-P coastal defence missile systems.¹² Iran and Syrian provide weapons to the al Assad regime’s ally, Hezbollah. These sales are illegal under U.N. Resolution 1701. Also, data (Jordanian authorities in several occasions seized weapons and drugs from Syria) suggest possible smuggling of weapons from Syria and Iran via Jordan to the West Bank in order to strengthen Fatah, as a threat to Israel.

b) Financially rebels are mostly helped by Saudi Arabia and Qatar. The rebel groups in Syria are quite fractured. The weapon flows to these groups reflect this diversity, as do the number of different actors arming them.¹³ United States and EU countries have resisted directly arming the rebels, but covert efforts facilitate the flow of arms from other parties to the rebels have been going on for well over a year now. One of the functions of the U.S. presence in Benghazi, Libya, was to help facilitate the flow of Libyan arms to Syrian rebels. Even though the U.S. and Turkish governments are involved in the process of passing arms from Libya to Syria, it is nonetheless a black arms channel. The Austrian Steyr Aug rifles and Swiss-made hand grenades in rebel hands were purchased by Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates through legal channels but then diverted to the Syrian rebels several years later via black market channels. I have not seen any of the documentation pertaining to the Croatian weapons sold to Saudi Arabia and then channeled to the Syrian rebels via Jordan. The weapons supplied by the Islamic State of Iraq to Jabhat al-Nusra and other jihadist rebel groups is another case of black arms transfers. But some rebel groups have purchased weapons with cash on the black market in Lebanon and Turkey¹⁴. In support of this claim, data shows that on November 7, 2013 Turkey seized a truck loaded with

⁹The Telegraph, Syrian crisis explained - Q and A, Alex Spillius, Diplomatic Correspondent, available at: [<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/middleeast/syria/10120350/Syrian-crisis-explained-QandA.html>]

¹⁰ <http://www.etilaf.org/en/about-us/goals.html>

¹¹ **Scott Stewart**, Global Arms Markets as Seen Through the Syrian Lens, Stratfor, Security Weekly, Thursday, July 25, 2013

¹² Trend in international arms transfers, SIPRI, March 2013

¹³ **Scott Stewart**, Global Arms Markets as Seen Through the Syrian Lens, Stratfor, Security Weekly, Thursday, July 25, 2013

¹⁴ Global arms markets as seen through the Syrian lens, Scott Stewart, Stratfor, Security Weekly, 25.07.2013

1,200 rocket warheads and other weapons near the border with Syria. The truck, which was also carrying bazookas, explosives and guns, was seized in Turkey's southern province of Adana.¹⁵ Some rebel groups have even purchased weapons from corrupt officials in the Syrian regime. The rebels have also captured some sizable arms depots from the government.¹⁶

DETERMINING THE FUNCTIONING AND THE TENDENCY OF THE CONFLICT

Although the initial reaction after the diplomatic victory of Russia over United States (the deal with al-Assad for destruction of the chemical weapons) is that al-Assad is on track to win the civil war, however, he will lose on the long run. Failure to achieve a peaceful solution or win the war in the next 5-6 months al-Assad loses the long run.

TERRITORIAL DISTRIBUTION OF THE CONFLICT

Local conflict (only on the territory of Syria), with great chance to become regional conflict.

ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL FACTORS (EXTERNAL INFLUENCES)

Through careful statistical analysis, the chance that any two countries will get into a serious military dispute can be estimated if one knows what kinds of governments they have, how economically independent they are, and how well connected by a web of international organizations.¹⁷

US RED LINE ON THE USE OF CHEMICAL WEAPONS AND OBAMA'S BLUFF

The United States did not have any overriding national interest in Syria. It has been hostile for a long time to al Assad's regime mainly because Syria has a good relations with Russia and Iran. It has sympathy for the Sunni insurgents but has drawn the conclusion that the collapse of al Assad is not likely to lead to a democratic regime respecting human rights, but to an Islamist regime with links to al Qaeda¹⁸. Aside the strategic oil interest, the American attitude toward Syria has been only to express deep concern while staying as far away as possible, much as the rest of the world has done. What started to draw the United States into the matter was a statement made by the president in 2012, when he said that the use of chemical weapons would be a red line.¹⁹ From that moment is not just Syria as a territory in stake, but a whole set of geopolitical games. When Obama drew the red line he didn't mean he wanted to intervene. He set the red line because he figured that it was the one thing al Assad wouldn't try. It was an attempt to stay out, not an announcement of interest. The red line had only one purpose, to satisfy the Washington's so-called Human rights faction lead by the National Security Adviser Susan Rice, who favored the use of military force in the events of war crimes and human rights violations on a major scale.²⁰

¹⁵ <http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/11/07/us-syria-crisis-turkey-border-idUSBRE9A60LI20131107>

¹⁶ Global arms markets as seen through the Syrian lens, Scott Stewart, Stratfor, Security Weekly, 25.07.2013

¹⁷ Russett, B. and Oneal, J. Triangulating peace: Democracy, Interdependence, and International organization, New York: Norton, 2001

¹⁸ Obama's tight rope walk, **George Friedman**, Geopolitical Weekly, Stratfor, Tuesday, September 3, 2013

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Ibid.

THE ATTACK WITH CHEMICAL WEAPONS - CROSSING THE RED LINE

NO DOUBTS THAT POISON HAS BEEN USED

Concerning this question Russia and US has a relatively aligned statements. Putin in his column "A Plea for Caution From Russia" published in the New York Times on September 11, 2013 wrote: "No one doubts that poison gas was used in Syria"²¹. US president Obama and Secretary of State John Kerry clearly made a statement that there has been a chemical attack and 1429 people were killed.

WHO CARRIED OUT THE ATTACK WITH CHEMICAL WEAPONS?

Russia and US have a diametrically opposed positions concerning this question. In the mention above column Putin wrote: "There is every reason to believe it was used (the poison) not by the Syrian Army, but by opposition forces, to provoke intervention by their powerful foreign patrons, who would be siding with the fundamentalists"²². On the other hand, The US with no doubts claims that the attack was carried out by al Assad regime. Secretary of State, John Kerry, on his remark on August 30, 2013 gave a statement that the regime carried out the attack, but the evidence (statements) that he gave were very poor²³. The president Obama, also believes that al Assad carried out the attack and in his remark, he underlined the claims of Turkey, France and the statement of the Prime minister of Australia.

WHO HAS A DIRECT BENEFIT BY THE USE OF CHEMICAL WEAPONS?

The rebels has a direct benefit from the use of chemical weapons, because with the attack the red line is crossed and an intervention on al Assad is provoked. The rebels has a direct benefit by showing them self on the international stage as victims.

RUSSIAN POSITION IN KOSOVO - GEORGIA - LYBIA

When analyzing the current position of Russia regarding the Syrian issue, three (3) previous events must be taken into account and from that point of view drawing the logic of today's action and positioning of Russia. These 3 events are: a)the attack on Yugoslavia by the United States (Kosovo issue) , b)Russia's intervention in Georgia , and c)the Libyan crisis

Putin is bluffing that Russia has emerged as a major world power. In reality, Russia is merely a regional power, but mainly because its periphery is in shambles. He has tried to project a strength that he doesn't have, and he has done it well.²⁴ Even the Putin's statement that Russia will military help Syria in case of attack without confirmation of the Security council (Previously Putin made a statement that if the UN inspectors find evidence that al Assad's regime carried out the attach, Russia wont veto the decision for intervention by the UN), although lucid, is a good political bluff, which was backed up by the whole diplomatic arsenal. Shooting the missiles would have meant the moment of truth for the US, Syria and mostly Russia.

KOSOVO CRISIS

Twenty years ago, after the Soviet Union had collapsed, the Russian Federation was in ruins and it was not taken seriously by the United States. The breaking point came during the Kosovo crisis. Slobodan Milosevic, leader of what was left of Yugoslavia, was a Russian ally. Russia had a historic relationship with Serbia, and it did not want to see Serbia dismembered, with

²¹ A Plea for Caution From Russia - What Putin Has to Say to Americans About Syria, Vladimir Putin, The New York Times, September 11, 2013

²² Ibid.

²³ Statement on Syria, Remarks, John Kerry, Secretary of State, Treaty Room, Washington, DC, August 30, 2013

²⁴ George Friedman, Syria, America and Putin's bluff, Geopolitical weekly, 10.09.2013

Kosovo made independent²⁵. Russia opposed the attack for 3 reasons: First, the Russians denied that there was a massacre of Albanians in Kosovo; Second, the Russians did not want European borders to change; and Third, and most important, they felt that an attack without U.N. approval and without Russian support should not be undertaken both under international law and out of respect for Russia²⁶.

GEORGIA

In the Russo-Georgian, Russian tanks entered a U.S. client state, and defeated its army and remained there until they were ready to leave. With the Americans bogged down in Iraq and Afghanistan, no intervention was possible. The Russians took this as an opportunity to deliver two messages to Kiev and other former Soviet states. First, Russia, conventional wisdom aside, could and would use military power when it chose. Second, he invited Ukraine and other countries to consider what an American guarantee meant.²⁷With this move Russia regained power and reputation in the global arena.

LYBIA

Syrian drama has a foreplay in Libya. When the rebels stand against the Gaddafi regime in Libya, Russia had already invested in Libya's economy around 6-7 billion, and China around 4 billion. Both countries had promises by the West that after the intervention and the regime change their economic stakes and interests in Libya would remain unchanged. But, as we see none of that was true.

PUTIN'S MOVES

Putin's strategy was Russia to be seen as an equal of the United States. It wins if it can be seen as a protagonist of the United States.²⁸The statements that he gave, and the moves that he pulled, made Syria a key question for Russian foreign policy. The whole strategy was based on a bluff (If US attacks, Russia will military help Syrian government), constantly backed up with statements in a form of treats and diplomatic maneuvers, but the facts on the ground said that Syria is just not that important to be a milestone. Putin risked If the United States chose to hit Syria, Russia couldn't do nothing about it and be made to look weak. If the Syrian army was hi, and no aircraft of the US air fleet was destroyed with Russian missile, the reputation of Russian state in the Middle east and the rest of the world would be brought to question. The alliances with different countries and the sales of Russian arms would have been also jeopardized.

Key questions that Putin considered and analyzed before he made his moves, were:

UN inspectors conclude only if poison was used on the ground or not, they don't have mandate to say who used it;

Obama doesn't not wish to take military action against Syria;

Obama is bluffing that he will attack Syria;

Seeking support by the US Congress, for Putin was an indicator for stalling time;

US are tired from the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan;

Obama doesn't have a support for the attack by American people;

There was very small probability that he would get support by the Congress;

Moves that he pulled:

After the attack with chemical weapons, Putin made a statement that if it is proved that al Assad's regime carried out the attack, Russia will vote for intervention in the UN's Security Council;

He calls for peace talks between the rebels and al Assad

After Obama's speech (calling for intervention), Putin wrote a column in The New York Times, in which he calls for "preserving law and order in today's complex and turbulent world

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Ibid

²⁷ George Friedman, Syria, America and Putin's bluff, Geopolitical weekly, 10.09.2013

²⁸ Analytical guidance: The Syrian crisis, Stratfor, Analysis, 12.09.2013

as one of the few ways to keep international relations from sliding into chaos.”²⁹He also said “Russia is not protecting the Syrian government, but international law”³⁰, positioning himself as a peacemaker .

After John Kerry’s comment (which many estimate as a gaffe) in London, suggesting Syria could avoid a US military strike by turning over its stash of chemical weapons³¹, Russian Foreign Minister Lavrov checkmates over his offhand remark, saying that they “called on the Syrian authorities not only agree on putting chemical weapons storages under international control, but also for its further destruction and then joining the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons”. Lavrov also said that they have passed their offer to Al-Muallem (Syrian Foreign Minister) and they hope to receive a fast and positive answer. Rest is history.

US POLICY

Although the United States was not the first country (France, Turkey and Britain were among first) calling for military intervention in Syria after pictures of what appeared to be the dead from a chemical attack surfaced, soon they became the leaders of that initiative. After a while US started to lose the initial support from his allies. Britain and Canada withdraw, the only leftovers were France, Turkey and a few Arab countries.

John Kerry’s testimony in front of the House Foreign Affairs Committee in which he remarks that the Arab countries have agreed to pay for the entire overthrow of Syria’s President Assad³², reveals US base on interest policy. On the question, how much these Arab countries (probably Saudi Arabia and Qatar) would contribute, John Kerry responded: “In fact, some of them have said that if the United States is prepared to go do the whole thing the way we’ve done it previously in other places, they’ll carry that cost. That’s how dedicated they are at this. That’s not in the cards, and nobody’s talking about it, but they’re talking in serious ways about getting this done.” This statement is a revelation about what the real intentions with and in Syria are and who is behind it. Also answers the question of how the United States will be able to afford another war in the Middle East? The answer is the money comes from totalitarian Arab regimes (e.g. Saudi Arabia and Qatar). This statement puts US military in a position *for sale as a private firm, and any state willing to pay the cost for any military adventure can buy its services*.

Obama knew that if US hit Syria, Russia probably would not do nothing.

Based on these facts Obama made a decision to launch an attack that would be fast, effective and from the air “No boots on ground”. He said that after careful deliberation, he decided that the United States should take military action against Syrian regime targets.

WIN - WIN SITUATION

After the entire set of events each actors, except the rebels sees themselves as a winner:

Russia pulled a bluff proving its global power and positioning on the world geopolitical stage, ensuring future arms sales and respect;

US claim that if not threatened with attack, al Assad would never give away his chemical weapons;

Chemical weapon deployed at 40 different locations in Syria guarded by strong military unit was just a burden. By giving up the CW al Assad will be able to redeploy strong military units where necessary;

Agreed destruction of Syrian Chemical Weapons is a win situation for Israel to. Israel is the only nuclear power in the Middle east, and Syrian SW was counterweight of Israeli nuclear arsenal.

²⁹ A plea for caution from Russia - what Putin has to say to Americas about Syria, Vladimir Putin, New York Times, 11.09.2013

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ John Kerry’s statement: “We **challenged** the regime to turn them over to the secure control of the international community so that they could be destroyed. And that, of course, would be the ultimate way to degrade and deter Assad’s arsenal, and it is the ideal weapon – ideal way to take this weapon away from him”.

³² John Kerry’s statement in front of the Senate: “With respect to Arab countries offering to bear costs and to assess, the answer is profoundly yes. They have. That offer is on the table”

FORECASTS AND POSSIBLE VERSIONS

We'll underline several different key points and possible outcomes:

Syrian crisis is not expected to be the milestone in history, meaning purpose for 3rd world war;

Al Assad may achieve a military victory in the ongoing conflict. But if he fails to reach an agreement for peace with the opposition groups, or doesn't defeat them in next 6-7 months he will lose the war on the long run;

President Al-Asad will remain unwilling to negotiate himself out of power. He will try to win a new 7 year presidential mandate in the elections that might occur as early as mid-2014;³³

According to a detailed timeline agreed upon earlier, the most toxic chemicals in Syria's weapons program - including precursors for Sarin nerve gas - were to have been removed from the country by 31.12.2013 and Syria's entire chemical weapons program should be history by mid-2014. But those deadlines have been cast into doubt by poor security in Syria, as well as mundane logistical issues like getting trucks through customs and even through the severe winter weather in the Middle East³⁴. The use of Field Deployable Hydrolysis System to process the most toxic chemicals by the US will cost a severe money, and will be a long quite difficult process;

Humanitarian conditions in Syria in the upcoming year will almost certainly continue to deteriorate;³⁵

The flow of refugees in the neighboring countries will continue and in the 2014;

The Balkan will also face with a flow of Syrian refugees and returns of home jihadist who fought on the side of Syrian rebels.

REFERENCE

1. Anthony Sampson, *The arms bazaar: From Lebanon to Lockheed*, New York Viking press, 1977
2. Analytical guidance: The Syrian crisis, Stratfor, Analysis, 12.09.2013
3. A Plea for Caution From Russia - What Putin Has to Say to Americans About Syria, Vladimir Putin, *The New York Times*, September 11, 2013
4. Богдана Кољевић (Факултет за медије и комуникације), Сирија више од Сирије, *Политика*, 28.10.2013
5. George Friedman, Syria, America and Putin's bluff, *Geopolitical weekly*, 10.09.2013
6. <http://www.cbsnews.com/news/plan-in-place-but-destruction-of-syrias-chemical-weapons-likely-delayed/>
7. <http://www.reuters.com/article/2013/11/07/us-syria-crisis-turkey-border-idUSBRE9A60LI20131107>
8. <http://www.etilaf.org/en/about-us/goals.html>
9. <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/sy.html>
10. <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/middleeast/syria/10120350/Syrian-crisis-explained-QandA.html>
11. Russett, B. and Oneal, J. *Triangulating peace: Democracy, Interdependence, and International organization*, New York: Norton, 2001
12. **Scott Stewart**, Global Arms Markets as Seen Through the Syrian Lens, *Stratfor, Security Weekly*, Thursday, July 25, 2013
13. Obama's tight rope walk, **George Friedman**, *Geopolitical Weekly*, Stratfor, Tuesday, September 3, 2013

³³ Worldwide threat assessment of the US intelligence community, James R. Clapper, Director of national intelligence, January 2014.

³⁴ <http://www.cbsnews.com/news/plan-in-place-but-destruction-of-syrias-chemical-weapons-likely-delayed/>

³⁵ Worldwide threat assessment of the US intelligence community, James R. Clapper, Director of national intelligence, January 2014.

14. Peter Hough, *Understanding global security*, 2nd edition, Routledge, London and New York, 2008
15. Tome Batkovski, *Security Assessment of National and International conflicts as element of strategic approach in terrorism prevention*, Međunarodna naučnostručna konferencija, Suprotavljanje terorizmu - Međunarodni standardi i pravna regulativa, Kozara, 29-30 marta 2011 godine.
16. *Trends in international arms transfers*, SIPRI, March 2013
17. *Statement on Syria, Remarks*, John Kerry, Secretary of State, Treaty Room, Washington, DC, August 30, 2013

PRISON RIOTS AS AN EMERGENCY SITUATION IN COUNTRIES IN TRANSITION – CASE OF SERBIA

Full Professor **Želimir Kešetović**, PhD
Faculty of Security Studies, University of Belgrade
Associate Professor **Irena Cajner Mraović**, PhD
Croatian Studies, University of Zagreb

Abstract: Regim of personal rule of Slobodan Milosevic was overthrown in massive demonstration of more than half million people on the streets of Belgrade on October 5th 2000. Transition towards establishing democratic government lasted for three month. In this interregnum one of the major challenges for new political leaders were synchronized prison riots in several Serbian prisons. The main request of prisoners in this violent riots was amnesty. Managing of this crisis was very complex due to very sensitive political circumstances. Very similar scenario of prison riots happened six years later, but in different sociopolitical context, and prison management that have learned some lessons from previous events. Paper is dealing with those two crisis situations and critical analysis of the way they were managed by the prison authorities, police and the government. Authors are analyzing mentioned riots in the framework of threshold model proposed by Arjen Boin and William A.R. Rattray stating that prison riots are the products of administrative and institutional decline, intertwining processes that typically stretch over considerable periods of time.

Keywords: Prison riots, crisis situation, countries in transition, Serbia

INTRODUCTION

Prison riots are old as prisons itself. In 150 years long history of Serbian prisons (Stevanović, 2003: 480), a number of riots occurred, but this issue was not researched in details by scholars. Prison riots are often linked with important social and political changes. The most significant event in recent Serbian history was the overthrow of the regim of personal rule of Slobodan Milosevic in massive demonstration of more than half million people on the streets of Belgrade on October 5th 2000. Only after this event Serbia finally left behind authoritarian policy and started to build democratic society. However the formal transition of power between Milosevic structures and Democratic Opposition of Serbia (DOS) lasted for three month. During this period each ministry was headed by three co-ministers.¹ In this interregnum one of the major challenges for new political leaders were synchronized prison riots in several Serbian prisons. The main request of prisoners in this violent riots was amnesty. Managing of this crisis was very complex due to extremely sensitive political circumstances. Very similar scenario of prison riots happened six years later, but in rather different sociopolitical context, and prison management that have learned some lessons from previous events. Paper is dealing with those two crisis situations and critical analysis of the way they were managed by the prison authorities, police and the government. Authors are analyzing mentioned riots in the framework of threshold model proposed by Arjen Boin and William A.R. Rattray stating that prison riots are the products of administrative and institutional decline, intertwining processes that typically stretch over considerable periods of time. Focus of the analysis will be on closed prison Sremska Mitrovica as it was a trigger to initiate an explosion of dissatisfaction of prison staff and prisoners in 2000 and 2006 that spill over to other prison institutions in Serbia.

Theory and method

Although the prison riots have high media profile and serious consequences, research on this phenomena remains sparse.² Generally, most explanations of prison riots fall into one of

¹ One from Milosevic Serbian Socialist Party, one from opposition Serbian Renewal Movement and one from DOS.

² Wilsnack, 1976; Useem and Kimball, 1989; Adams, 1994

two categories. The first type of approach, taken directly from deprivation theory, presents riots as a natural response to poor prison conditions.³ According to this approach, prisoners will revolt in the face of food shortages, overcrowding, oppressive custodial discipline, sadistic staff or other unpleasant circumstances. However, in practice prisons with terrible conditions have remained free of riots, whereas riots did occur in prisons in which conditions had been recently improved.

The second type of approach, in line with classic sociological breakdown theories, locates the roots of trouble in the social texture of prisons. Such explanations build on the observation that prisoners and prison administrators typically enter into some sort of working relationship. This relationship is, of course, not entirely voluntary in nature and therefore rather precarious. But as long as it works for both groups, the accompanying set of behavioural guidelines helps to keep the peace in prison. When the accepted status quo is threatened or altered, prisoners will be motivated to riot according to this type of explanation.

Useem and Kimball formulated a theory that brings the various explanations together, concluding that riots take place in prisons that 'sap the ability to contain disturbances' and 'convince inmates that conditions are unjust'.⁴ These two conditions emerge in 'prisons with a particular sort of pathology,' a type of organization they describe in terms of administrative breakdown or 'systemic crisis'.⁵ The authors thus explain riots as a function of eroding or evaporating administrative structures.⁶ The authors remain vague when it comes to defining this crucial concept of administrative breakdown, but its effects are clear. However, Boin and Rattray note that Useem and Kimball leave us with two key questions that remain unanswered. First, we do not know what causes administrative breakdown. The second question asks why and how conditions of breakdown lead to a prison riot. There are many poorly managed prisons, but, in fact, there are comparatively few riots.⁷

Boin and Rattray in answering these questions distinguish administrative breakdown from institutional breakdown. In their framework, administrative breakdown refers to the development of administrative pathologies that undermine a prison administration's ability to responsibly adapt well-functioning institutional structures in the face of imposed change. Institutional breakdown refers to the development of dysfunctional interaction patterns between prisoners and staff. They argue that a sustained period of institutional breakdown sets the stage for a prison riot to occur. But it takes a state of administrative breakdown to sustain (if not fuel) the process of institutional breakdown.⁸

A well-functioning prison is characterized by an institutionalized pattern of interaction between staff and prisoners, which prescribes an effective way of dealing with the normal stress of total institutions. A set of rules, procedures, customs and routines – accepted by both staff and prisoners as legitimate – then defines a way of interacting that makes it possible for prisoners to deal with their confined living environment; it also helps to make prison officers feel safe and act in a more 'relaxed' way. The institutional structure is essential to the stability of a prison: it provides the 'social glue' that keeps the place together.⁹ Any variance in these patterned ways of interaction may create instability and assume proportions not easily understood by outsiders.¹⁰ Change, whether promoted externally (e.g., political ideology; parole policy) or internally (e.g., movements of prisoners; changes to staff's working arrangements) affects the nature of the interaction between staff and prisoners. In well-managed prisons, any type of change is therefore carefully explained, in a timely fashion, to the prisoner population. Moreover, seasoned administrators know that changes are best implemented in a gradual way, allowing both staff and prisoners to adapt to the new situation.

According to Boin and Rattray as long as prison administrators manage to absorb challenges to the institutional structure, adapting it where necessary and taking into consideration the interests of prisoners, imposed change does not have to create problems, let alone cause riots.

³ See Scraton, Sim and Skidmore, 1991

⁴ Useem and Kimball, 1989: 218

⁵ Useem and Kimball, 1989: 218–19

⁶ See also Goldstone and Useem, 1999

⁷ Boin and Rattray, 2004

⁸ *Ibid*

⁹ Sparks, Bottoms and Hay, 1996

¹⁰ Fox, 1973; Mattick, 1973; Flynn, 1980

The inability of prison administration to cope with change they consider as administrative breakdown.¹¹

The pathological prison administration has two defining characteristics. First a rift has developed between organizational leaders and staff; an 'appreciative gap' separates the front office from the cell blocks. This gap is widened when leadership strategies to deal with change do not match staff perceptions of the appropriateness of the proposed measures. As dissension between higher and lower-level staff develops, grievances among the uniformed staff mount. A second characteristic is an organizational culture of 'collective neglect' (Turner and Pidgeon, 1997: 44). Effectively functioning organizations observe that something is going wrong, but the pathological organization has lost its ability to appreciate these signals. This state of administrative breakdown is the result of leadership failure rather than external contingencies.

Central agency/department is usually responsible for policymaking, co-ordinating and oversight tasks of all the prison administrations and facilitating safety-enhancing processes at the organizational level. The central failure to do so usually takes one of two forms. The first failure type is the imposition of reform plans that not only upset the precarious balance within a prison, but also fail to provide either time or resources (usually both) to reach a new balance. The second failure type pertains to a lack of central oversight.

Authors consider that prolonged state of administrative breakdown sets the stage for institutional breakdown. This process of institutional decline is initiated by a perception of impending change. A seemingly small event, e.g. alterations to the menu, delays in admitting visitors, unexpected lock-ups, or short-notice cancellation of programmes, can easily upset the delicate balance between the keepers and the kept, creating the possibility of aggressive conflictual reactions. In the absence of effective administrative interventions, the perception of impending change will undermine the institutional structure of a prison organization. When previously effective rules and routines are not adequately fitted to a newly emerging situation, their legitimacy erodes. Their dependability to regulate the process is undermined with consequent confusion over how the prison is run). The delicate balance between staff and prisoners is disturbed. Conflicts are emerging but in the absence of legitimate rules, officers are not sure how to resolve emerging problems. They do not know how their colleagues resolve these same problems. Prisoners then become confused as to what is expected from them and what type of behaviour will be tolerated. They will play individual prison officers off against each other, in the same vein as kids can play their parents. Prisoners, who are completely dependent on their 'bosses' to grant permission to do things that those outside prison take for granted, such as placing a telephone call or taking a shower, also seem to prefer a living environment in which rules and expectations are uniform and clearly spelled out.¹² A disrupted institutional structure thus directly affects the well being of most prisoners. This helps to explain why a substantial number of prisoners join in a riot. In other words, it is less relevant whether prisoners live under 'intolerable conditions' than whether or not prisoners accept these conditions. When prisoners unify behind an ideology that explains their living conditions as illegitimate, a small incident can take on meaning totally disproportionate to the nature of the incident.¹³

Finally Boin and Rattray explain how the combination of administrative and institutional breakdown increases the odds of a 'normal riot'. An organization's vulnerability to accidents and disasters is a function of the complexity and interdependencies of its parts.¹⁴ Where a system is both complex and the components are tightly coupled, a small defect can quickly spiral out of control. A prolonged state of institutional breakdown increases the complexity and tightens the interdependencies within an organizational system. The blurred mix of ill defined and shifting goals, idiosyncratic practices, confusion and tension makes the prison atmosphere difficult to 'read' and even more difficult to manage. Moreover, the prison organization becomes more tightly coupled. Short-fused and short-staffed, prison officers unwittingly contribute to a widely felt sense of deprivation. The last barrier between a tense prison and a riot – effective crisis management – has eroded as a direct consequence of administrative and institutional

11 Boin and Rattray, 2004

12 Seymour, 1977; Sheehan, 1978; Rideau and Wikberg, 1992

13 Boin and Rattray, 2004

14 Perrow, 1999

breakdown.¹⁵ Crisis management, in this particular context, pertains to all the hardware and software needed to prevent the escalation of collective violence and, if necessary, to return the situation to normalcy. Routine procedures must make way for critical decision-making, flexibility and innovative thinking. But prisons are typically geared towards facilitating routine processes, making use of the bureaucratic model for organizational structure. Effective crisis management thus requires preparation. Unprepared prison organizations allow small incidents to escalate into serious riots.

In the light of presented theory we will analyse riots in Serbian prison of Sremska Mitrovica in 2000. In the overview of the riots we will use official reports of Prison administration, media reports and the “view from the inside” presented by master candidate engaged in research project on the Faculty of Security Studies in late 2008.¹⁶ View that can not be find in any textbook of Criminology or Penology.¹⁷

FINDINGS

Several important events preceded riots in 2000. Upon the proposition of the Ministry of Justice (MoJ) Government of Serbia released of duty then governor in 1999, but two weeks later put him back in the position entrusting him four years mandate. This caused strained relations between the prison administration and MoJ. The governor took powers concerning personal appointments in prison that belong to the Minister of Justice. He was favorizing and encouraging loyal and punishing disobedient employees. The prison become totally isolated. At a time prison was often presented in the news as a successful enterprise, producing a lot of qualitative goods, with big sanatorium and re-socialization capacities. Penologist criticized the governors behavior, while the public approved it. Parallel the governor strongly criticized the Minister of Justice and his assistant for penal sanctions execution. In the press there were information about criminal and other suspicious activities of the MoJ top management.

In the night on November 6th, 2000 after the regular morning meeting of the staff, a group of employees took the keys of governor’s official vehicle and a breakfast that the waiter-convict was bringing to the governor. In the hall of administrative building gathered a group of employees insisting to meet with the governor and give him a list of their demands. Later on they accused him for abuse of position, misuse of finances and economic devastation of the institution, preventing him to come back to his office. Prison administration informed MoJ about the events. Minister of Justice had no other choice than to release the governor from duty again and appoint his deputy until the choosing the new governor. Syndicate of employees sent a list of questions and demands concerning the management practice and work conditions to the MoJ. Deeply divided employees of the prison Sremska Mitrovica were waiting for the reaction of MoJ, having no idea that very soon they will face violent riots.

In the same time prison administration acquired information on forthcoming riot. However, due to the leak of information, prisoners learned that their plan was discovered and managed to prevent an attempt to take out the organizers, locked them self in the room and started to demolish windows and furniture, shouting “Riot, riot”. Violent disorder spill over to other prisoners lodgings. Later on they broke the doors between the cells, so the different groups of prisoners merged and occupied large part of the prison. All the prison staff was withdrawn from the closed part of the prison, locking all doors. Guards at the watchtowers shot the warning bullets when some prisoners tried to climb the prison walls using the provisional ladder they had constructed. Their attempt to broke the prison walls with tractors, cranes and other vehicles was prevented by using chemical ammunition (tear gas). Later on they set fire in one administrative part of the prison and destroyed or disabled the machines in the industrial plant. The risk was very high as in the industrial plant of the prison facility there were radioactive lightning rods, 86 kilos of cyanide, 200 liters of petrol, number of bottles with gas and acetylene. Prisoners requests refer to the better living and working conditions in the prison and brutal behavior of the

15 Useem and Kimball, 1989; Boin and Van Duin, 1995

16 Jokić, 2008, - Candidate was at a time prisoner officer in the prison Sremska Mitrovica.

17 Marić and Radoman, 2001.

prison staff and management. Later on, request for amnesty emerged as the main one.

Although prisons had plans for emergency situations, they have not been implemented due to surprise and decision to resolve the riots as peaceful as possible. Crisis management of prison administration was confused and full of improvisation. Thanks to professionalism of certain individual more serious consequences are avoided.

This riot was a trigger for subsequent violent riots following the similar pattern in prisons in Nis and Pozarevac. Three co-ministers of justice visited Pozarevac prison and reached an agreement, that resulted in public announcement of the MoJ. Nevertheless, prisoners continued to destroy the property in the facility.¹⁸ In the Government, due its composition, there was no unique perception of the situation and solutions. There were proposals to suppress the riots by use of force, but after further analysis this was assessed to be an operation of high risk, due to political circumstances. Another attempt to negotiate had pacified the situation for a moment. But the prison staff went on strike, refusing to enter into closed part of the prison and demanding higher salaries and better working conditions. After co-ministers met their demands they went back to work. There were other similarities in the demands of the staff and prisoners. Employees compose list of corrupted colleagues, and the prisoners the list of guards, doctors and other staff they dislike, the first request revision of disciplinary procedures against them, while the latter prisoners request revision of their verdicts. Both demand unpaid salaries and demission of the prison management.

More than a half of total prison population took part in this riots. They were very violent and caused considerable damage. Prisoners were misused in showdown between political parties. Riots organizers communicated with political leaders and media without obstacles. Soon they bypassed prison administration, demanding to contact with party leaders, state officials and NGOs. Institutional order was totally broken. (Politika). Then Federal minister of Interior Zoran Zivkovic stated that riots are not spontaneous but organized to make troubles for new government. There were also speculations that Serbian prisons were organized by people in the secret police still loyal to Slobodan Milosevic's fallen regime.¹⁹

Serbian society was sharply polarized on those that supported granting amnesty (lawyers, convicts and penologists) and those that opposed it (legal experts and criminologists).

Finally an agreement was reached with riot leaders on November 16th. After ten days acute phase of the riots was finished when special police entered the prison. Prisoners refused to go back to their cells until the prisoners guard from the "negative list" were removed.²⁰ The Government accepted to prepare Law on amnesty. Riot leaders established new rules of the game, converting prison guard into their service for addressing the demands and complains to the prison management.

As Law on amnesty was not adopted, in prison Sremska Mitrovica was on February 6th 2001 organized general strike of all the prisoners. Besides that, prisoners learned from the media that in draft law prisoners convicted for serious crime and recidivists will be granted amnesty of 15%, and to the rest 25% of the sentence. They were against this "discrimination", insisting that it should not be an act of mercy, but rightful political act of new democratic government. And dilemma emerged in public opinion what might be the benefit from amnesty, when fight against crime was one of the most important promises of the new government. Under the public pressure the government additionally tightened conditions for amnesty. The Law on amnesty was adopted in February 2001 and situation in prisons was soon normalized.

Result of the prison riots in 2000 is six lost lives, a number of injuries, rapes and other crimes, and destruction around 1000 m² prison facilities, machines and equipment, and disturbance of functioning of three major prisons in country. Organizers of riots were abolished responsibility. The overall impression is that state reacted in defensive manner, conniving prisoners. Co-ministers named the riots as protests in order not to process the leaders of protest. This mistake had consequence on riots in 2006.²¹

Serbia government promised adoption of the new Law on amnesty after adoption of the new Constitution in 2006. Around 80% of prisoners voted on referendum for the new Constitution.

18 Pozarevac prison report, 2000

19 Serbian prison riots "organized by secret police", 2000

20 Kovačević and Stojković, n.d.

21 Lopusina, n.d.

After government failed to fulfill the promise, new riots started in three major Serbian prisons (Sremska Mitrovica, Pozarevac and Niš). The prisoners considered they were manipulated by promising the amnesty in order to vote for the new Constitution. They were driven by their families to the voting places, and claimed to have provided, together with their friends and relatives 100.000 votes for the Constitution. Later on, minister did not fulfil his part of the deal, so the riots were legitimate.²²

However, this time the reaction of the state was resolute. Several hundred of policeman from Special brigade and Gendarmerie suppressed the riots by using force. Several media accused Gendarmerie for excessive use of force that resulted in 44 injured prisoners, but situation was rather soon under control. Head of Central Prison Administration Dragoljub Lončarević was removed from his position. After the riots in only four days draft Law on amnesty was presented to the Government which accepted it and addressed it to the Parliament. When minister of justice realised that MPs from other political parties are not in a hurry, insisting on adoption the law after new elections, he threaten the prisoners that if they continue with the riots, there will be no amnesty. (Srećković, 2008)

DISCUSSION

Many aspects of Serbian prison riots in 2000 can be explained by threshold theory. Great external change – overthrown of autocratic regime, sometimes referred as Belgrade's version of Czech “velvet revolution” had significant impact on prisons. Collapse of social and political order in the society had its aftermath in Serbian prisons. Prisoners tried to take an advantage of social coup, challenging the legitimacy of the prison order. They considered themselves in a certain way as victims of autocratic regime and its cognition of justice.

However, prison administration already had a number of problems. The gap between management and staff had widened for a long time. Incompetent and autocratic governor of prison Sremska Mitrovica divided the employees in two groups and confronted them. Removal and new re-appointment of the governor by the MoJ eroded what was left of his legitimacy and caused confusion and uncertainty between the staff and the prisoners. Due to mismanagement leak of crucial information occurred, and crisis management plans were not implemented. Links with the Prison administrations were cut, and the institution was isolated. On the other hand oversight over the prisons was poor, due to the politically inconsistent composition (three co/ministers) of the MoJ and lack of awareness of its Department for execution of penal sanctions (Central Prison Administration) and insufficient number of experienced and motivated employees that would carry out imposed measures, as well as obstruction of prisons management. For a long time prisons management had been appointed on the political basis (partisanship), not on the basis of their performance, experience and professional qualities. Mutual accusations between the governor and Prison administration undermined the authority of both, and were perceived as a chance by prison staff and prisoners to achieve their goals. This *administrative breakdown* set the stage for following *institutional breakdown*.

In complex systems, as prison, with tightly coupled components, those defect and uncertainties spill over quickly. Instead of standard division on us (prison administration and staff) and them (prisoners), division were made between the staff itself on those loyal to the governor and those that confronted him. On the other hand prisoners themselves differentiated the prison guard on inhumane and oppressive on one hand and professional on the other. In certain way protesting prison officers and prisoners were allies opposing the governor. Besides that, their demands were pretty similar. Treatment of prisoners differ from one prison officers to another. Some prisoners were untouchables as governors informants, or due to their ties to political leaders. Routine roles and standards were disturbed, so the existing system of governing the prison was not perceived as legitimate anymore, which helped prisoners to justify their actions.

Besides this there was a number of *supporting factors* such as overcrowded, bad living conditions as old and neglected facilities, bad quality of food, low level of medical treatment provided, and the fact that in closed-type prison Sremska Mitrovica were mainly “returnees” and other hard to manage prisoners, sluggishness in reform of the system of executing

²² Specijalci ugušili pobunu

of penal sanctions etc. They were also system problems asuch as chronic lack of people interested in full-time jobs in detention facilities, absence of highly professional security officers is additionally burdened by recruitment of officers who have not been given any kind of training in their general and specific duties.²³

This prison riot lasted for almost three month, with varying intensity, which is not recorded in world criminological practice. What is unique for Serbian prison riots 2000 is its coincidence with political overturn or uncertainty. Riots in 2000 sctually they started one month after Milosevic recognize his defeat and lasted during three month interregnum till new democratic government was elected. Those in 2006 coincided with referendum for adoption of the new Constitution, and soon coming elections. There were a number of factor that complicated resolution of this crisis situation. First of all divisions among the politicians and among the professional public, reckless statements of public officials and other influential individuals and the amibalent role of the mass media and NGO`s representatives.²⁴

One additional case should be described in order to support the threshold theory. In this prison in 1990 occurred demonstrations that were in a certain sense the model for the riots in 2000. Just before the dissolution of the SFR Yugolsavia parliemants of western republic of Slovenia and Croatia decided to declare an amnesty for persons convicted upon laws on those republics. A number of prisoners that served their sentences in Serbian prisons were among this category. This was an incentive for all other prisoners, convicted upon Serbian laws, to demand an amnesty. Unrest stared in prison Sremska Mitrovica on the 01.08.1990 with prisoners strike. They refused to go into their pavilions, to work and to take food. The number of prisoners in protest was growing. As the prison management convey the position of the government that at the moment there is no possibility to meet their demands, but that MoJ will start to work on the Law on Amnesty, the number of protesting prisoners slightly, and later on significantly decreased. From the very beginning prisoners were under the strongly secured by prisoner staff equipped with means of protection, chemical weapons and trained dogs, so direct clashes were avoided. Prisoners from the semi-closed and open department of the prison facility did not join the protest. Due to the given promise that Law on Amnesty will be adopted in an urgent procedure, and additional heating of the atmosphere by the media, prisoner management and staff had hard times, waiting for the law to be adopted. The management held a number of meetings with the prisoners striking committee assuring them that the law will soon pass the Parliament. Finally, the Law on Amnesty was adopted on 26.11.1990. and first prisoners upon this law were released from prison on 28.11.1990.²⁵ It is obvious that in this case both prison management and political establishment played much better role in terms of crisis communications and decision making.

Finally, the prison riots in 2006 were handled much more efficiently, due to consolidation of government. They also were caused by external change - promise of the Law on amnesty, and seen as legitimate by prisoners that felt been manipulated. However, many of the problems from the previous period remained proving the thesis that the riots are an effect of overall management of prison system.

23 Jelić et al., 2004

24 Jokic, 2008

25 Marić and Radoman, 2001.

REFERENCES

1. Adams, R. (1994) *Prison riots in Britain and the USA* (2nd edition). London: Mac-Millan Press
2. Boin, A., and Rattray, W.A.R., (2004) "Understanding prison riots – towards a threshold theory", *Punishment and Society*, 6(1). pp.47-65
3. Flynn, E. E. (1980) "From conflict theory to conflict resolution: Controlling collective violence in prison", *American Behavioral Scientist* 23(5): 745–76.
4. Fox, V. (1973) *Violence behind bars: An explosive report on prison riots in the United States*. Westport: Greenwood Press.
5. Goldstone, J.A. and B. Useem (1999) "Prison riots as microrevolutions: An extension of state-centered theories of revolution", *American Journal of Sociology* 104(4):985–1029.
6. Jelić, M., Kiurski, M., Novaković, N. and Obradović, M., (2004). *HOW TO ATTAIN EUROPEAN STANDARDS - the Situation of Serbian Prisons 2002-2003*, Helsinki Committee for Human Rights in Serbia: Beograd.
7. Jokić, M., (2008), *Pobune u zatvorima kao krizna situacija – studija slučaja/Prison riots as a crisis situation - case study*, Faculty of Security Studies: Belgrade
8. Kovačević, R., Stojković, P., „Rušili, palili, ginuli i silovali **Pobune i protesti u srpskim zatvorima od 2000. do 2006**”, *Revija 92*, available on <http://www.revija92.rs/code/navigate.php?Id=194>
9. Lopušina, M., *Haos ili organizovana pobuna - Zatvori: Šta se dešava u srpskim kaznionicama* available on <http://www.serbianna.com/columns/lopusina/100.shtml>, accessed on February 10th, 2010.
10. Mattick, H. (1973), „The prosaic sources of prison violence”, *Society* 11(1): 13–22.
11. Pozarevac prison report, 2000
12. Scraton, P., J. Sim and P. Skidmore (1991) *Prisons under protest*. Buckingham: Open University Press
13. Serbian prison riots “organized by secret police”, (2000) <http://www.unmikonline.org/press/unmik/dpi/press/html/wire/im0911pm.html>
14. Sparks, J.R. and A.E. Bottoms (1995) “Legitimacy and order in prisons”, *British Journal of Sociology* 46(1): 45–62.
15. “Specijalci ugušili pobunu” <http://www.naissus.info/vest.asp?vest=79>
16. Srećković, N. (2008), “Život iza rešetaka”, *Zamrzline*, August 4th 2008, <http://www.zamirzine.net/spip.php?article6655>
17. Stevanović, Z.(2003), „Penitencijarni sistem u funkciji državne reakcije protiv kriminaliteta” in Radovanović, D. (ur), *Strategija državnog reagovanja protiv kriminala*, pp. 473-486, IKSI/ VŠUP/Udruženje za kriminologiju i krivično pravo Srbije i Crne Gore:Belgrade
18. Turner, B. A., and N. F. Pidgeon (1997) *Man made disasters*. (2ndedition). Oxford:Butterworth-Heinemann.
19. <http://www.uizs.mpravde.gov.rs/cr/>
20. Marić, V. and Radoman, M. (2001). *Pobune u zatvorima Srbije / Riots in Serbian Prisons*, Institute for sociological and criminological research: Belgrade.
21. Useem, B., and P. Kimball (1989) *States of siege*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
22. Wilsnack, R.W. (1976) “Explaining collective violence in prisons: Problems and possibilities”, in A. K. Cohen, G. F. Cole and R. G. Bailey (eds) *Prison violence*, pp.61–78. Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath

**SITUATION AND PERSPECTIVES OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT
IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA:
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE POLICE**

Tenured Professor **Marina Mitrevska**, PhD
Faculty of Philosophy, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia
Institute for Security, Defence and Peace Studies

Teaching Assistant **Marjan Gjurovski**, MA
Faculty of Security, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Abstract: In the recent years, crisis management has been a priority topic of the security agendas of many Western democracies, democracies in transition, post-conflict societies and international and regional organizations and institutions. This time, unlike the priority for managing crises between the actors of the Cold War, it is caused by the new security environment filled with non-classical security threats. In these conditions, as a legitimate issue and a prerequisite for the successful realization of security, managing crises has become part of the agenda of post-conflict Macedonia as well. Experiences from the 2001 crisis, and the aftermath, note the need for effective crisis management system. Therefore, the elaboration contained in this paper is moving in two lines: first of all, an analysis is made of the conditions in the crisis management system. The second line of analysis is concerned with the perspectives of the crisis management system in Macedonia.

Based on the management of crisis there is a possibility for the police to take certain measures and activities in cooperation with the army in order to deal with crisis situations. Thus, in a crisis situation when the security of the state is threatened, the state bodies have adequate resources and means for its prevention and management. For example, part of the army participates in support of police and other bodies of state administration involved in this process. The police have a major role in the performance of security functions in the country.

In conclusion, this analysis indicates that the crisis management system in Macedonia has a future provided it meets several conditions, which would lead to efficient and effective system for managing crises.

Keywords: crisis, crisis management, system, police

INTRODUCTION

Crises are present in every society. They can occur intentionally, unintentionally or due to different crisis situations. Namely, crisis is a reality that can happen anytime and anywhere. That is why in recent years, crisis management has become a priority topic of the security agendas of international organizations, governments and non-governmental organizations. Hence, several crucial issues are raised. First, whether this condition is caused by changes that have been brought by new security environment filled with non-classical threats and challenges to security. Second, why has crisis management as an instrument of international security institutions and as an instrument of government become a current issue. Third, whether this instrument, will help governments to strengthen security, primarily in transitional democracies and post-conflict societies. Fourth, whether the processes in Europe which in this period are complex and accompanied by phenomena that brought new forms of uncertainty (such as crime, corruption, illegal trafficking, migration, etc.), are the source where one can acquire an answer to the question why the search for a crisis management model is established as an urgent issue. Fifth, today's threats require very rapid and more coordinated response and strategy for managing crises that must exceed the capacity of exclusively military crisis management. Sixth, whether this situation requires greater engagement in early warning, prevention and management, and post-conflict peace-building in Macedonia. Seventh, why managing crises has become part of the agenda of post-conflict Macedonia.

POST-CONFLICT DILEMMAS AND CRISIS MANAGEMENT IN MACEDONIA

Today, thirteen years after the outburst of the ethnic armed conflict and signing the Ohrid Framework Agreement, the Republic of Macedonia is in a phase of post-conflict peace-building. This is one of the reasons why recovering from the consequences from the conflict depends on the success of this phase but also determines the same to be repeated. From those reasons, the ending of the armed phase of a conflict should and must be seen as a beginning of a new phase in prevention of a new repeated wave of violence through active social peace-building. Post-conflict peace-building is facing a number of challenges and problems. Thus, the question appears, whether establishing a national crisis management system will help in timely and efficient addressing of risks and threats that exist in the process of post-conflict peace-building in Macedonia. As a reminder, Macedonia disintegrated from the federal unity in the least painful possible way, physically speaking, without any armed violence. However, it did not serve as a key and unique advantage for further democratic development. At expense of avoiding the possible conflict, the problems that the newly created state faced internally in that period were postponed and put in second plan. From this time distance one can conclude that marginalizing unsolved issues had created accumulation of conflict potential which was easily provoked in 2001. Since the beginning of the process of independence, Macedonia has been fighting the image of a successful case of prevention. This characteristic emerged from the relatively successful strategy of the international actors by implementation of preventive diplomacy and preventive deployment of peace forces on the north-western border of the country, in order to prevent the spillover of the conflict from Bosnia and Herzegovina towards Kosovo and Macedonia. The message that UNPREDEP was sending abroad was more of a symbolical political and psychological message of concern for the security of Macedonia, rather than a classical message of deterring the peace-support forces. (Georgieva, 2004: 62). The UNPREDEP mission became a paradigm of preventive peacekeeping and source of great pride of the international community. This gratis period enabled by the presence of the UN forces and continuous attention of the international community due to the possibility of spillover of the conflict from former Yugoslavia into a regional conflict, created a state of hibernation of the Macedonian society. (Georgieva, 2004: 63).

For ten years, the Republic of Macedonia represented a successful case of conflict prevention in the centre of the turmoil region, characterized by ethnic cleansing, massacres, refugees, destruction and so on. However, at the end Macedonia as well fell under the pressure of accumulated and unresolved regional conflicts in former Yugoslavia, without redefining personal problems at all. (Vankovska 2002: 11-12)

External prevention by the domestic actors was perceived as a sufficient defence mechanism, which in combination with some confidence building measures among domestic political actors would guarantee peace. In addition, there was a lack of initiating an essential approach for building mechanism which would reduce the conflict process or institutionalize ways for solving the problems. Thus, informal meetings for confidence building between the political parties of Macedonians and Albanians primarily concerned the leading positions of the parties, but not the inter-ethnic confidence. They seemingly filled the institutional gaps and shortcomings for channelling the political process. Macedonian society, as most other post-communist societies did not evade the process of structural embedding of potentials for conflict. Such thing would be too much to expect in a situation of a classical post-communist society where political dilemmas and discrepancy for the prospects of the future state were promoted by some leaders from the Macedonian political block and by Albanian political representatives, where economic potentials were limited, and the valves that connected them with the economic partners from former Yugoslav republics closed due to the armed conflicts or the embargo from the UN; in which multi-ethnicity turned into a process of seeking balance of forces among the biggest ethnic groups; where social inequality and poverty was deepening more and more.

For example, "the transition shock", experienced by the Macedonian economy, was extremely strong and resulted in high negative rates of the gross domestic product (GDP) motion. The

GDP decreasing tendency was particularly emphasized in the first four years of the transition (1990-1993) and was kept until 1995. Since 1996 onwards the Macedonian economy has been accomplishing positive GDP growth rates, which, however, are basically relatively low and unstable. If 1989 (1989=100) is taken as the basis, the percentage level of the real GDP of Macedonia in 2002 equals 77. (EBRD, 2002: 58).

Macedonia, as it is the case in many other countries in transition, after many years of transition, i.e. in 2002, had not yet achieved the level of the gross domestic product from the period before the beginning of the transition.

Hence, the concern of the Macedonians was completely justified. Namely, if the percentage of the unemployment rate and the high inflation rate are added to these data, it is evident that the progressing of the Macedonian economy as a whole up to 2001 was difficult. Confirmations to this are the following data:

Macedonia is a country with an extraordinary high unemployment rate. It is more than obvious that the economy with an unemployment rate higher than 30% is faced with enormous economic, social and governmental budgetary expenditures, with underlined socio-political tensions.

From 1990 to 1994 the Macedonian economy was faced with a three digit inflation rate. That period coincides with high negative rates of GDP motion. Thanks to the successfully implemented disinflation policy in the period from 1993 to 1995, as of 1996 the Macedonian economy has been accomplishing low, one digit inflation rates.

The reasons for the bad performances of the Macedonian economy can be located in three groups:

- The strong effect of the non-economic factors (embargos and Kosovo crisis);
- The big social expenditures that the country actually bore with the disinflation policy in the period from 1993 to 1995 when the inflation rate at average annual level from over 1660% in 1993 was brought down to 2,5% in 1996;
- The quality of the conducted reforms. (Fiti, 2004: 72-73)

Second, it is a paradox that in conditions of "relaxed interethnic relations" the state is exposed to risks and threats to its basic values (territorial integrity, sovereignty, and independence) and to its basic functions directed towards strengthening its capacities. Moreover, the risks and threats that the country faced were not a linear process but the result of a number of inter-dependent and dynamic structural factors. Furthermore, basic structural characteristics should be taken into consideration, such as:

- Historical background (constantly present idea or fiction of "Greater Albania");
- Presence of armed conflict (in the neighbourhood);
- Political stability and capacity for effective ruling (put into question);
- The level of militarization (large quantities of weapons found in the village of Radolishte);
- Heterogeneity of the population, demographic stress (Kosovo refugee crisis); index of human development and so on.

All these indicators influenced the assessment of the Republic of Macedonia's exposure to risk, and later to an escalation of the conflict. Thus, one can justifiably conclude that the reasons for the conflict in 2001 were in many ways interconnected and emerged from the structural aspects of the conflict within Macedonian society; the enhancement of risks which continually emerged from regional security dynamics and, specifically, the resolution of the Kosovo crisis; and the presence of instigators who sought to escalate the conflict.

In this crisis, political and security dimensions at great extent induced escalation one toward other. It opened all vulnerable questions of the functioning of the political and security institutions in conditions when urgent and coordinated response is required. Actually, the crisis showed that government institutions failed in the attempts to recognize their powers let alone coordinate joint activities or realize unique strategy. The attempt to coordinate and legitimize political response of the crisis started with the insistence of the Parliament to pass resolution on condemning terrorism, but it ended as condemnation of extremism and violence. Further attempts to coordinate the political response were the meetings of the party leaders at the President of the state, a forum that was transformed into a process for consultations of the party

leaders in the crisis period and then establishment of a government of national unity. None of the forms succeeded to create efficient and coordinated political process which would terminate the crisis. (Vankovska B. Democratic Control over Defence and Security between Defence and Security in Trapans J.A. And Fluri P.H. Eds: Defence and Security Sector Governance, Vol.1: 39 and Vankovska B. Post-conflict Reconstruction of the Security Sector in the Oasis of Peace, Conference paper DCAF, 2002)

The analysis has shown that coordinated response was lacking by the security forces, police and the army. The problem occurred in several different phases. On one hand it turned out as inefficient command with the armed forces because the relation of the President, the minister of defence and the chief of the General Staff in the chain of command was practically confusing. On the other hand the problem emerged as vague relationship between the key security institutions, the army and police and division of responsibilities between them. These problems created an impression of bad simulation of the crisis in which the actors participated, but unfortunately, with concrete victims and consequences.

In those circumstances, the state reacted 'ad hoc' and in the clang of the crisis organized a Coordination body for crisis management, within which the Crisis Management Centre was established.

The primary task of the Coordination body for dealing with crisis was to coordinate, direct and unite activities of the state institutions in dealing with crises, including the Army and police forces and propose utilization of the unit for combating terrorism.

Moreover, in interest of efficient crisis management, the Government of the Republic of Macedonia formed a Crisis Management Working group, that is a Crisis Management Centre.

Ohrid Framework Agreement put a formal end to the crisis but not to the problem. Post-conflict period opened a new page from the list of problems. Apart from the traumas from the consequences from the armed violence, Macedonian society emerged from the crisis both psychologically and politically devastated. These problems required a way how to attain a possibility for fast and comprehensive action. Namely, in order to obtain possibility for fast and comprehensive act, that is, for proposal of decisions and ensuring constant consultations, coordination, timely reaction, efficiency and appropriate utilization of available resources in case of emergencies, as well as ensuring timely, quality and real assessment of security hazards of the country, the Law suggests the following organization of the Crisis Management System:

Steering Committee – according to the Law, it is a Government body for coordination and governing the crisis management system. The Steering Committee comprises the ministers for interior, health, transport and connections, defence, foreign affairs and the head of the Assessment Group. Control mechanism is performed by the fact that in the work of the Steering Committee participate one representative from the Committee for Security and Defence of the Parliament of the Republic of Macedonia and one representative from the Cabinet of the President of the Republic of Macedonia.

Assessment Group - is a Government body that carries out permanent assessment of security risks and perils of the country and proposes measures and activities for their prevention, early warning and dealing with emergencies. The Assessment Group is comprised of the Directors of the Public Security Bureau, Administration for Security and Counterintelligence, Intelligence Agency, directors and deputies of the Crisis Management Centre and Directorate for Protection and Safeguard, deputy head of General Staff of the Army as well as the Head of the Section for Security and Intelligence in the Ministry of Defence.

Directorate for Crisis Management – is an independent body of state governance. In performing things related to crisis management, the Centre performs the following things: ensuring continuity in inter section and international cooperation, consultations and coordination in crisis management, filing up and updating of unique assessment of security risks and perils in the country, proposition of measures and activities for emergencies resolution.

Important novelty in the Law on crisis management is the possibility of the crisis management system to organize prevention at local level. Namely, the Law assumes to be organized and accomplished prevention, early warning and dealing with crisis that poses risk for the goods, health and life of people, emerged from dangers which directly jeopardize the constitutional order and security of the Republic of Macedonia or part of it. Furthermore, the

crisis management system also encompasses collection of information, assessment, analysis of the situation, establishment of aims and tasks, development and execution of necessary acts for prevention, early warning and dealing with crises.

Thus, the municipalities, in the frames of their authorities have duty to assess risks and perils at local level, for efficient prevention and early warning from potential crisis situation.

For prevention at local level, the crisis management system performs the following duties:

Monitors the situations and appearances that can lead to emerging crisis on the area of the municipality;

Announce assessment of risks and perils for emergency rising on the area of the municipality

Approve programme for revitalization of the municipalities;

Execute decisions of the Government regarding the crisis management on the area of the municipality (which means established coordination, which needs to give good prevention);

In dealing with the crisis the mayors ensure coordination of participants in the crisis management system at local level;

According to the offered solution, the municipalities have obligation in their acts for organization and systematization to establish working places for preparation and performance of working tasks related to prevention and dealing with crisis situations.

Therefore, one can conclude that all important aspects of such established organization and coordination of the crisis management system can give positive effect in accomplishing the security and defence in the Republic of Macedonia.

ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN BY THE POLICE IN CRISES MANAGEMENT

Based on the provisions from the Law on Police of the Republic of Macedonia, in regard to which one of the principal tasks of the police is protection of life, personal security and citizens' property, as well as providing assistance and protection to citizens when needed, the police take preventive measures, providing early warning first reaction in cases of risks, danger and crises. The task of the police is to develop an efficient prevention strategy, early warning, as well as resolve security risks, fight natural disasters, technological disasters, various forms of terrorism, radiological and biochemical incidents, various types of crime, etc. In terms of preventing risks and threats developing into a crisis, as well as early warning as a principal prerequisite for taking preventive measures, it should be taken into consideration that each particular risk or threat can be analyzed and evaluated, upon which respective model for early warning can be developed in accordance with the particular characteristics.

Due attention should be paid to the early warning process, which is of particular importance in the conducting of the prevention process of the occurrence and development of crisis. Early warning serves as the basic prerequisite on which measures and instruments for crisis prevention can be undertaken, and its basic aim is to determine the variation in occurrences, which significantly deviate from the normal function and have a tendency to cause crises. "Due to the specific influence on the complexity of crisis by the risks or threats that are mutually interconnected, models of early warning should enable timely warning for a particular risk and they can be directed at particular needs. In theory there are many models for early warning and they are the following:"¹

Models designed for particular problems trying to determine the connection or to provide prevention (crises, conflicts, etc.);

Models enabling short-term and long-term warning, and anticipating incidents in a period not longer or shorter than two years;

Models using qualitative methodology by isolating the factors that contribute to the escalation of crises or quantitative methodology the analysis of which rely upon the manners of data collection, to be more precise, the structural models that explore the structural states in which crises might occur and the process models that define the instigators of crises in certain time periods;

¹ Marina Mitrevska, "Crisis Management", Faculty of Philosophy, Skopje, 2008, p. 30

Models relying on sources of information, i.e. use of public information from media and expert analyses;

Models that use structural information in order to enable long-term prediction in a period of three to five years, these models use: indicators (variables describing in particular the explored state); accelerators (events that might lead to deterioration of the state in the country without causing a crisis).

In regard to Article 36² from the Law on Crises Management, the Minister of Defense in coordination with the Minister of the Interior (MoI) has adopted a manual on operational and other procedures of the Armed forces of the Republic of Macedonia (ARM) in support of the police in case of a crisis. The manual refers to the following cases:

- collaboration of ARM and MoI in fighting terrorism;
- collaboration of ARM and MoI in providing buildings of importance for the defense;
- collaboration of ARM and MoI in coping with asymmetric threats;
- collaboration of ARM and MoI in border security.

As mentioned before, prior to the emergence or developing of a crisis, the police have the opportunity, in case the prevention model is implemented properly, to prevent the occurrence as well as the development of a crisis situation. For that purpose, the police take particular activities. The police take the following activities aimed at crises prevention:³

- blocking roads and highways;
- control, redirection and introduction of an alternative traffic flow in a certain area;
- physical safety;
- introduction of control check points, control of vehicles, persons and passengers, deploying patrol and guard services;
- providing information to the special services within the authorities as well as the public;
- organizing transportation, securing and escorting sensitive and hazardous materials;
- confiscation of materials for which there is a reasonable suspicion that they were used in crimes or profits made of crimes;
- as well as securing objects taken from persons who have suffered loss; sharing information and examining and investigating areas and rescue.

The second case is when police and the rest of the entities in the crisis management system fail to prevent the occurrence, i.e. development of a crisis, in which case it is necessary to take activities for crisis management. The actions taken by the police for crisis management are the following:

- actions against international and urban terrorism, serious forms of organized crime, including kidnapping, extortion, assassinations, murders, attacking people on their property;
- actions related to natural disaster and catastrophes, technological disasters, epidemics and other diseases among humans or animals;
- securing national borders;
- establishing public order and peace in cases of larger disturbance of peace that pose the risk of escalating in rebellions;
- enhanced security of buildings of great importance to the security of the state, buildings of importance for the defense, residencies and apartments of VIPs, diplomatic and consular offices, international organizations, political summits and high-level conferences.

However, the methods of early warning and prevention of crises situations do not always function flawlessly and there are cases when crisis situations arise. If a crisis situation occurs or develops, nevertheless, i.e. the crises management system fails to prevent the emergence of a crisis, in this case the necessity arises to engage the police with all, or as much as needed in the given situation, available resources and capabilities in an intervention in order to deal with the crisis situation at hand accordingly and to prevent the possibility of spreading of the crisis. The crises situations where the police are engaged are the following:⁴ assistance in localization and extinguishing fires, and rescuing people and property in cases of floods, landslides and other local disasters;

² "Law on Crisis Management", Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, № 29/2005, p. 5

³ Toni Stankovski, "The Role of Police in Risk and Crises Management", International Scientific Conference Security and Euroatlantic Perspectives of the Balkans, Faculty of Security, Skopje, Vol. II, 2012, стр. 272

⁴ Toni Stankovski, "The Role of Police in Risk and Crises Management", International Scientific Conference Security and Euroatlantic Perspectives of the Balkans, Faculty of Security, Skopje, Vol. II, 2012, стр. 274

diverting and introduction of an alternative traffic flow on local roads and highways, streets and other infrastructure in the event of traffic accidents of trucks transporting hazardous materials;

flammable and explosive materials; assistance in the case of deteriorating of road conditions due to landslides, mudslides and snow drifts;

in case of deteriorating of security in certain regions, caused by criminal terrorist groups;

evacuation, rescue and enhanced protection of vital facilities in the country, facilities for keeping confidential materials and documents, shares and documents of importance to the security of the state;

diplomatic and consular offices in the country, international agencies and organizations with a diplomatic status; providing transportation and security in case of epidemics, quarantine, or other diseases of animals and humans;

intervention when the environment, property, and the material goods are being destroyed.

The aim of managing crises situations is to provide preventing, decreasing, neutralizing and eliminating of the security risks and crises, which means preventing or reducing the damage to material goods and human lives. The process of crises management includes a complex sum of functions and tasks, implemented by the entities in the system for crises management, including the police of the Republic of Macedonia, aiming at preventing the emergence and development of a crisis situation. Furthermore, if a development of a crisis situation eventually does emerge, the system, i.e. the entities are supposed to appropriately deal with the situation and take all steps to successfully assist society, including all individuals on the territory of the country, to recover from the consequences caused by the crisis situation. In regard to the stated actions and tasks that the police of the Republic of Macedonia takes in order to prevent crises situations, a clear picture was formed of the importance, magnitude of the police in the system for crises management. Furthermore, it is worth noting that all the actions taken by the police in order to prevent crises are taken in cooperation and coordination with the other entities of the system for crises management. The success or failure of crises management relies solely on the mutual cooperation of the entities.

RESOURCES OF THE MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR FOR PREVENTION AND DEALING WITH CRISES

Upon defining the place and role of the police within the security system of the Republic of Macedonia and within the system of crises management of the Republic of Macedonia, as well as the activities that the police undertake aimed at prevention, dealing and managing of crises, it is worth mentioning the resources available to the Ministry for prevention of crises situations. According to Toni Stankovski, "The Ministry of the Interior has at its disposal organizational units for prevention at central level (the Ministry), at regional level (the sectors of interior) and at local level (the police stations), by which it continually and systematically undertakes preventive measures in order to neutralize the causes for crises situations. These measures are to enable the members of the Ministry to implement methods by which they would influence the citizens in the most appropriate way aimed at their education for timely understanding of the causes, early warning and initial response to a possible emergence of crises situations."⁵

After defining the organizational units at disposal to the Ministry for prevention of crises situations, the following step is to define the resources available to the Ministry for prevention of crises situations in carrying out the tasks in accordance with the Law on Police. "The Ministry of the Interior, especially the police, founds the acting in the area of prevention on the provisions from the Law on Police, according to which the basic task of the police is to protect the life, personal security and property of citizens as well as providing assistance and protection to citizens in case of an urgent need. The police should develop an efficient strategy for prevention, initial response, fight and resolution of security risks, natural disasters and technological

5 Toni Stankovski, "Capabilities of MoI for Dealing with Crisis Situations", p. 3

disasters.”⁶ In this area, the Ministry employs the existing resources for undertaking appropriate measures of prevention, in order to successfully prevent the emergence of crises situations. For the implementation of these tasks, the police undertake operational-tactical measures and implement material-technical means.⁷

The next step is to define what the basic goal of crises management is. “The goal of crises management is to provide prevention, reduction, neutralization and elimination of the security risks and crises, which means prevention and reduction of the damage to material goods and human lives. Aiming at implementation of the activities for management of crises situations, the police take a number of operational-tactical and special measures (operations). In order to take operative-tactical measures for the implementation of the tasks, police officers and authorized officials from several organizational units are engaged. In the process of implementation of the tasks by the members of the Ministry of the Interior, appropriate material-technical means are utilized.”⁸

By enhancing the operation of the police and the acceleration and efficiency of prevention, early warning and dealing with crises, slowly but surely, Macedonia builds, strengthens, and establishes a system for crises management, which offers appropriate protection for all citizens, institutions, bodies, and the society in general. The enhancing of the operation can be best achieved by providing access to the police to appropriate and modern resources, which would enable easy, fast and efficient measures for prevention, dealing with and management of crises. As stated, this requires appropriate material and technical means, which will be at disposal to the police during the daily activities in accordance with the Law on Police and the Law on Crises Management. Certainly, the quality of performance of the tasks, to a large extent depends on the quality of the resources available to the police. Modern resources will provide appropriate access to dealing with modern crises. Outdated resources, on the other hand, would mean setback in the operation of the police.

CONCLUSION

The role of the police in managing risks and crises is of vital importance for the crises management system both in prevention and taking appropriate action to deal with risks that can result in crises that continue to cause additional deployment of efforts, resources and manpower by the whole society. The role of the police in managing risks and crises is consistent with the national platform and the newly drafted standardized procedures for communication, coordination and cooperation among the entities within the system of crises management, and their role differ depending on the type of risks and crises.

The issue of crisis management for Macedonia poses a relatively new issue. From the analysis one can conclude that for Macedonia the key reason for this issue to gain significance and a challenge is of different motive. Namely, since its independence (1992) Macedonia has encountered numerous crises. Yet the issue of crisis management was current even before 2000 but only for the expert community. However, more serious articulation of the idea the crisis management system to become real necessity was the crisis in 2001, when the weaknesses in anticipation and prevention of crisis and in managing it became visible and the state reacted ‘ad hoc’. Furthermore, in the clang of the crisis it organized a Coordination body for crisis management, within which the Crisis Management Centre was established. This was an example from which Macedonia learned the lesson that is, an example for raising the crisis management problem at higher level and on the basis of own needs and own national solution. Namely, a civilian crisis management was established which provided civil and democratic control on the activities. A system which needs and can achieve efficiency so as to prevent, limit and resolve future crises.

6 Ibid., p. 4

7 Ibid.

8 Ibid., p. 6

REFERENCES

1. Brown M.E. (1996): *The International Dimension of Internal Conflict*, The MIT Press, Cambridge.
2. Georgieva, Lidija (2004): *Krizen menaxment: regionalno iskustvo I dilemi za Makedonija*, *Sovremena makedonska odbrana*, Ministerstvo za odbrana na Republika Makedonija, br.10.
3. Mitrevska, Marina (2005): *Krizen menaxment*, Makedonska riznica, Kumanovo.
4. Mitrevska, Marina (2008): *Krizen menaxment-vtoro izdanie*, Evropa 92, Kocani
5. Mitrevska, Marina, Anton Grizold, Buckovski, Vlado, Entoni Wanis (2009): *Prevenција I menaxiranje na konflikti: slucaj Makedonija*, Bomat grafiks, Skopje
6. Vankovska, Biljana (2002): *Democratic Control over Defence and Security between Defence and Security in Trapans J.A. And Fluri P.H. Eds: Defence and Security Sector Governance, Vol.1: 39 and Vankovska B. Post-conflict Reconstruction of the Security Sector in the Oasis of Peace*, Conference paper DCAF
7. Fiti, Tahi (2004): *Ekonomskata filozofija na MMF-osnova za ekonomski rast ili pogresen concept?*, Makedonija vo globalizacija, Ekonomski fakultet, Skopje.

MEDIA AND SECURITY SECTOR AS A PART OF ENDLESS CORRUPTION CHAIN

Assistant Professor **Zoran Aracki**, PhD
Faculty of Philosophy, University in Niš

Abstract: Corruption is the problem the whole world is confronted with as of the first days of its existence. Years back, its forms has been changing and as well as the ways of fighting against this plaque, but it does not disappear, especially in the so called countries in transition, the whole of Balkan Peninsula belong to. Consequences and the traces of corruption are visible in almost all social segments and reflect, first of all in the institutions lack of trust, violation of the value system, disorientation and insecurity.

The Serbian corruption chain is extremely long. All studies show that on the top of the most corrupted people list are politicians, powerful business people, and members of judicial and police authorities, therefore almost all who are expected to influence decrease of this social evil by their activities. Mass media, after transformation of their ownership are expected to be the leaders in the fight against corruption. However, it is shown that their transition from the one party period into multiparty system has not turned media into the supervisors of the authorities, but into total obedience of the new owners. Close connections of the members belonging to structures of power, even force, are everywhere visible.

In this work, reminding on the actual message of Archibald Reiss and relying on numerous researches on the corruption state and media, the author analyze a little unexpected “symbiosis” of the corruptive evil and those who are supposed to fight against it.

Keywords: corruption, media, security, transition, Archibald Reiss

INTRODUCTION¹

Corruption plaque, very quickly spread over the whole of the Balkan territory. There is no country around here without corruption and fight against it as the primary issue in everyday activity of both ruling and opposition elites and as well as ordinary citizens. The European Union member countries are not different, and also those wishing to join this union of the countries.

Such a situation is, of course greatly contributed by media that fill their pages and screens by great affairs revealed, allegedly, by their own research or comments given by omniscient analysts and public workers, and also often started, and mostly not completed actions of authorized officials of Security Sector which are, by their nature, in charge of fight against corruption.

The public generally believes that it is usually “hastily spoken and written about corruption when two conditions are fulfilled. The first is that there is enough freedom which allows writing about it, and the second is when it becomes mass, when it penetrates all institutions of the society and state impeding the normal functioning of the legal and moral order”². It seems that these two conditions were completed long ago on Balkans, but the corruptive evil, foremost is found from completely different reason. In the big noise raised regarding the issues connected to corruption, the protest of impoverished citizens living in the increasing poverty without any hope that it will soon be better are almost not heard. Through media, public is told the story which everyday corruption from consequence turns into cause of hard condition in which almost all society segments are endangered – economy, health, judiciary, education and culture. Physicians, teachers, customs officers, teller workers, traffic police are impacted. However, nothing is told about “real extent of corruption in the state bodies, especially in those authorized by the law to stop, reveal, prosecute and punish the producers and participants of the corruption”³

¹ This work is a part of the Project No. 179074, completed by the Center for Sociological Research at Faculty of Philosophy University in Niš financed by the Ministry of Education of Republic of Serbia

² Micunovic, D. (2001): Corruption in Serbia, in: Antonic, D. et al., Center for Liberal Studies, Grafeks Ljig, Belgrade, pg.7-8

³ Hadzic, M. (2013): *Whirlpools of corruption in the Security Sector*, Belgrade Center for Security Policy, Belgrade, pg.7

Something similar happens in media, too. Those, by definition of their origin and survival determined to be the controllers of the authority are silent loudly on the situation in the society, tone in the lividness and indifference, transfer uncalled-for based promises of better life in the near future, of the hope that everything will be better when we absolve corruption, which is to be blamed for everything. There is no word about pressure on politicians, on symbiosis of the owners and political elites, on corruption in own ranks. Instead of neutral and steady role, thanks to close connections with political and business power centers, media on Balkan, specially in Serbia, take over the role of investigators, prosecutors and adjudicators in corruption affairs. Thus, the ethic norms of journalist profession are betrayed, and media become the part of corruption octopus.

That is why the topic of this work is media and relation with corruption. Our aim is, based on clear theoretical attitudes and available empiric material pointing to causes, manifestations and mechanisms of corruption in these fields, and also to some of the possible ways of its limitation. Corruption chain, which is obvious, is extremely long, almost endless, and media and security sector from many reasons, among which special place takes close connection of their "tops" and ruling elite, have in it important position.

CORRUPTIN AS A SYMBOL AND STRATEGY

It is not needed to be courageous to claim that the corruption has become almost everyday, integral part of economic and social life in the majority of world countries. Numerous financial affairs and scandals that shocked the world in recent decades, undoubtedly point to the increase of corruption both of leading politicians and those powerful and influential businessman. Neither are ordinary people immune from corruption, that is "small illegalities: from tax and fees evasion to bribing of different state officials and people on positions who are in position to make everyday life easier than usual.

The fact that corruption is not any special disease of modern society should be remembered because it has been existing ever since of the beginning of the world. "*Hands drenched into dirt and mud, at least as much as the clean hands of moralists, have for ordinary mortals essentially discrete attraction, so are various Neros and Caligulas became part of the history, as well as the saints (much more than average honest)*"⁴ Carlo Alberto Brioschi⁵ writes that the Egyptians for the description of the phenomenon such as offer/bribe used expression *fega*, Mesopotamians *tatu*, Bible *šohadh*, Arabs *rašwa*, Greek *daron*, Latin *munus*... French money for bribe call *pots de vin* (literally „ *bottles or barrels of wine*“, which referred to the custom of giving small gift for the service), English talk of *bribe* and *sleaze*, while German name for corruption is *bestechen* (from *stechen*, "stab, nail") or *schmieren* (from *Schmiere*, „ fat/lubricant, oil“), which gives the term responding to term „bribe“: *Schmiergeld* (literally „ gold that lubricates“).

As for Serbia, there is no doubt: for long time ago the corruption has been is called "bribe". Many writers wrote about it such as Milovan Glisic in "Sugar Loaf" or Branislav Nusic in his numerous comedies, but very serious warning came from Archibald Reiss, who in his testamentary message dedicated to Serbian people under the title of "Hear the Serbs! Beware of Themselves" pointed that " your ordinary man, peasant, uncorrupted by the influence of professional politicians is not venal" but, " the intelligence is from the smallest clerk with or without Diploma as far as to Minister". Reiss justified the high level of corruption by five century long Serbian life under Turkish authority, that is " many century presentation of Turkish Eastern bribery", but he also pointed that this "justification... is not enough to forgive excessively spread bribery, which very often gets the form of robbery. During the War I believed that that Bulgarian Minister for several months, who for that short time became a millionaire is a sort of Bulgarian specialty and that your ministers are very great patriots to get rich at the expense of the state and by abuse of the position. I was naïve and I realized that there was no difference between ministers on "ov", "ev" and "ic". Except for several rare exclusions, I observed how your Excellencies from poor, even miserable people became millionaires".⁶

⁴ Brioschi, K.A. (2007): *Brief History of Corruption, From Antiquity to the Present Day*, Mate, Belgrade, pg.182, pg.12

⁵ Carlo Alberto Brioschi is the editor of non-fiction in Rizzoli. Italy, author of many works about corruption.

⁶ Reiss, A. (2005): *Hear the Serbs! Beware of Themselves*, Serbian Economic and Cultural Club, Belgrade, pg.17

Searching explicitly leads to the explanation that corruption causes are in the economic sphere.⁷ *People who are engaged in economic relations have legitimate right to get to maximization of personal welfare through that relation*, Adam Smith, the creator of modern economic science once told. There is nothing negative in it, the trouble is when on this way, the person tries to use illegal or morally unjustifiable things, such as bribery, giving of improper advantage to the one who helps him on that way and similar, and specially when such behavior is expended on all social segments. *” Endemic corruption points to mass society failure in order to use personal interest in productive purpose”*.⁸

To corruption, in fact, first of all leads discretion of civil servants decision making. Where these right are extensible, the space for different forms of corruption is opened, with unavoidably present nepotism, careerism and sycophancy, as well as the descend of all moral and professional norms written in different codes. The greater the level of decision making is, the higher are the levels of corruption. The highest, so called system corruption actually is in governments of different countries when deciding for different state projects, such as concessions and public procurements and similar.

According to American organization named Global Financial Accuracy price of corruption in the world is staggering. *It is estimated that in the decade from 2001 to 2010 of 150 developing countries was illegally drawn even 5,800 billion dollars. China is at the forefront of that list, with 2.750 billion of illegal capital outflow in the period. Mexico is the second, with more than 476 billion dollars spent on corruption, whereas Russia is ranked fifth, with \$ 152 billion.*⁹ It is so called “high corruption”, that one done by the peaks of government when certain big state businesses are concluded. Here, however, should be noticed that “expressing corruption damage is almost impossible, because it is not possible to write down and compute all material damage caused by low corruption in any of the state bodies. Money amount damage remains unknown, because money is directly and secretly flown into the pockets of bribed civil servants. It should be taken into consideration that the step from low corruption to a robbery, and then to organized crime is extremely small. It is also impossible to compute the damage made to state bodies by so called “social corruption”, which refers to, first of all, to today called “human resources”, that is staffing or more directly employing in state agencies”(Hadzic, 2013:36). Such corruption is expressed in partocracy, and there is no remedy for it unless there comes the change in the consciousness that on the managerial positions should be people who know and are able and not party cronies.

Corruption seriously damaged democracy all over Europe. The warning on lack of the trust in institutions, politicians and authority came from many countries and also from the EU top. The extent of this plaque is examined by European Research Center for Anticorruption in Berlin. Recently the Center evaluated that “European Union knew that the funds allocated for infrastructures were misused in many of 27 EU members¹⁰, but this abuse was tolerated, with the estimation that Euro-crisis awoke public and made it very sensitive to corruption”. Center also evaluated “ that in Greece, Ireland, Portugal and Spain the elective body does not bear corruption any more due to strict meritorious savings measures. What was the tradition of South Europe, managing of the politicians and business people by transferring their companies and banking accounts to fiscal paradise islands, will not be acceptable any more for electors, whose existence is endangered by the crisis. This is confirmed by the recent study results of European Commission according to which three quarters of the citizens in the member states include corruption among biggest problems of their countries.”¹¹

Former SFRY countries are facing corruption, and problems in Ljubljana, Zagreb and Belgrade are more or less identical, although they have various forms and names. At the beginning of last year, Slovenia was seriously shook by political crisis caused by publishing of the Report on Corruption Risk determined by property checking of the two biggest parliamentary parties

7 Serbian economy has been devastated long time ago: first by breakdown of SFRY, then by NATO Pact bombing in 1999 and then by non critical turn towards ideology of Neoliberalism and privatization robbery, which created ideal conditions for corruption growing.

8 Rose-Ackerman, S. (2007): *Corruption and Government- Causes, Consequences, and Reform*, Official Gazette, Belgrade, pg 15

9 Source: Voice of America 26.02.2013

10 At the time of the report writing Croatia was not EU member, yet.

11 Source: Politika, Belgrade, 08.02.2013

heads, which was made by the Anti-Corruption Commission. Croatia, immediately prior to joining EU was facing remarks of the European Parliament referring to fulfillment of pre-election condition on conflict of interest prevention.¹²

NGO Serbia Transparency acquainted, by the end of last year (3rd December) that in Serbia was noted the corruption perception index rise from 39th to 42nd, which made shift to 72nd position of total of 177 countries, together with B and H, Brazil and Sao Tome and Principe. In the previous year, Serbia was at the 80th position, and then it was estimated that even the third of gross domestic product of Serbia goes into corruption flows, that is instead of state coffers goes into the pockets of different brokers. Communicated information in December told that anti-corruption fight during 2013 made certain move, but it is obvious that low index and the placement indicate on still rather spread corruption. In comparison to countries in the region, the place of Serbia is quite bad, only Albania is below, on 116th position, whereas Croatia is on 57th place, Montenegro and Macedonia are on 67th position.¹³

According to the Victimology Society of Serbia research, citizens of Serbia think that there is the most corruption in political parties (76,7% of examinees), health care (73,6%), judiciary (69,3%), customs (65%), public administration and assembly (63,3%)....about half of the examinees pointed that education as one of the most corrupted activities.¹⁴

Anyway, Serbia is shaken by numerous corruption affairs. On the last days of 2013, there was announcement that the research work on 24 big privatization affairs which was EU interested for was completed. Some of affairs actors are prosecuted, some spent more months in the remand prison, some are expected indictment, while some will be completely freed of any suspicion of participating in dishonorable, corruption action. Media, police and authority marked these events as a great victory of anti-corruption fighters, but the final end of these activities is still open, at least until the first validly adjudicated proceedings.

Without doubt, for the increase of corruption on Western Balkan, and thus in Serbia, extremely important are privatizations of big companies which were done accompanied by apologetic ovation of neoliberal economy model. This model in big financial crisis, which culminated in USA in 2008, experienced collapse, and turbo privatization where there was neither auditing of the origin of the capital, nor controlling of real intentions of those who bought these big state companies, which real values actually have never been determined, brought the catastrophic consequences to this part of the world. Instead of reducing the space for corruption by companies transfer from state to private, it actually during this process fully developed. For, skillful speculators who are almost everywhere on Western Balkan called tycoons or even worse- controversial businessman used so called insiders in state authorities, from them received information which was not available to public, crumbled companies and then bought them cheap. This created illusion that everything was legal, actually, it was getting obvious to ordinary people that it was the crime and corruption becoming slowly the life model irresistible to many.

Joseph E. Stiglitz, Nobel laureate in economics, rightly claimed that the economics in nineties of the last century was distorted cocktail full of corruption in which was *"three quarters of lies and one quarter of greed"*.¹⁵In fact, everyone lied to everyone."Main managers give inflated information on companies they are leading, analysts pretend they believe, reselling that enthusiastic descriptions to investors, auditors confirm that pretending"....¹⁶ That is how on immoral basis was entered into great world financial crisis, in which inequality and corruption increased to outrageously. Corruption, actually became the symptom and also the strategy.

New owners were satisfied with "swimming" in deficiently defined law provisions, specially those referring to their tax and other financial liabilities. Many market transactions were based on personal contacts, bribing of civil servants. Real market mechanisms were not performing, but their imitation was acting, which in the long run lead to destruction of the vital prepositions for the society economic development. Even today, *companies profited from bribing confront*

12 The term "conflict of interest" is actually euphemism for the term corruption risk and that is why its elimination very important in civil service

13 On the List of Transparency International there is unrecognized country Kosovo at 111 position.

14 Source: Vecernje novosti, Belgrade, 09.12.2012

15 Stiglitz, J. (2002): *"Contradictions of Globalization"*, Social Thought, Belgrade

16 deto

the tendency of making laws and rules more clear (Rose- Ackermann 2007:79), because they still see the space for beneficitation of their owners in muddy market waters. So, today we have destroyed, de-industrialized states where those ones who contributed this situation are still in power advocating, thereat, for reindustrialization, and “big businessmen” from transitional period offer solutions for economic recovery which is supposed to be suitable only to them. *People do not punish neither of them, because police and prosecutor and courts are mostly silent about everything, media do not use their power to uncover their real activities.* It seems that the corruption octopus tentacles spread throughout.

As for the citizens, the last public opinion researches, among which the one we shall adduce is that one titled “Serbian citizens attitude on corruption”¹⁷ CeSid and UNDP Serbia published by the end of last year, and in which on the list of the most important problems Serbian citizen were faced with was corruption on the second position, right behind chronic unemployment. The examiners concluded that citizens greatly lost patience and trust in institutions of police, prosecution and judiciary, therefore in institutions which jobs description are sanctioning participants in the corruption process. Even 60% of examinees expressed the opinion that there is the corruption in police and judiciary, which was at the level of research in 2012, and even 10% of the examinees less than previous year expressed belief that the police and judiciary generally are able to deal with corruption. On the top of the list of most corrupted professions, even 47% of examinees placed physicians, and also on the top were policeman and employed in state administration.

It is interesting that in relation to the previous year for 3% increased the number of citizens who have had the direct experience with corruption, whereas the number of those who for the cases of corruption heard from close persons in the previous three months increased for 6%. *Research showed that main source of information and key means of communication with citizens on corruption are media.* This was stated by 60% the examinees. Talk “from ear to ear” as the source of information relied 38% of the examinees whereas personal experience with the corruption had 13% of examinees.

Citizen recognized political parties as the most corrupted (72%), then health care (68%), judges (67%), prosecutors (65%), police (65%) and so on. Estimating the level of corruption perception in the key system institutions examinees put on the first place Parliament and legislation (48%), then government (47%), State President (29%) and army (16%). What is specially interesting for us in this research is the fact that almost half of the examinees (49%) talking about the level of corruption perception in other system institutions estimated that media are on very high position, above education institutions, municipality administration, tax administration and other.

Especially interesting is the finding of this research which writes that 69% of citizens think that within state bodies in charge of anti- corruption fight there is enough coordination and cooperation.

Based on this and other results the research team, headed by Ivo Colovic, estimated “ *that main obstacles in anti-corruption fight in Serbia are inadequate control of state services (two fifths of the examinees) and spread corruption in law enforcement bodies (30%).* Both of these factors are connected to corruption perception in different system institutions. Since citizens believe that state services, bodies for law enforcement, those ones who should implement the law are corrupted themselves, it is logical that without independent control of these institutions is impossible to expect the results in corruption reduction level in Serbia.

¹⁷ CeSID and UNDO performed “ Public Opinion Research – Jun 2013” as of 1st to 8th Jun 2013, the random sample, representative sample of 610 adult Serbs on territory of Republic of Serbia without Kosovo and Metohija. Questionnaire was used as the research instrument, formed in cooperation with a client, composed of 112 questions. Base for the research was Transparency International Corruption Barometer, and the research in comparable countries. The examinees were averagely 48 years and 51% were women and 49% men. Examinees were in nationality: Serbian 86%, Hungarian 5%, Bosnians 2%, Albanians 2%, Roma 1% and the rest 4%.

SUPPRESSED DEONTOLOGY

Further in this text, we shall point to some specificity of the work, and to possible differences and consequences of the corruption in security sector, while we shall give greater attention to the situation in media and ways of their anti-corruption fight. Both sectors are equally important, because each is expected with their activities to contribute efficient corruption detection, which by itself or, later, in interaction with judicial authorities should deduce damage occurred due to corruption activities.

There is no reason to doubt that situation in these sectors may be different from general society situation. If Serbian society is deeply saturated by corruption, which is constantly repeated, almost as leitmotif of all who appears in the public, it is then almost inevitable for corruption to be present in the army, police, security services or media, from the top itself to the lowest level, but it is not spoken about.

*“Virtuous rulers with special care and love are silent whether by any chance military, police and security services and their employees are affected by corruption. Instead of it finally and publicly speaking, they continue spreading and renewing myths according to which the main symbols and carriers of corruption evil in Serbia are street and traffic policemen, military logistics, customs officers, teachers, professors, doctors, clerks and so on.”*¹⁸ As for media, there is the impression that they are closed too, extended between power, often invisible owners and concern of journalists for basic existence and that is why they are silent despite obvious examples from their everyday work which have characteristics of corruption.¹⁹ Certainly, there is an effort in security sector and media to talk openly about corruption within own ranks, but this, for now does not give right results. *“Public, because of this do not get reliable knowledge on whether those who are supposed by Constitution to protect them among other things, of corruption as well, may be corrupted themselves”*(Hadzic: 2013:8).

It is certain that the corruption in the army, police and security services comes from the same source, the same as in other society parts. It conquers these sectors by the same principles as done in health care, courts, education and other areas. *“Hence, there is no essential differences between forms, ways and means for corruption in the state part of security sector and those used in community civilian zone or other departments of public administration”*(Hadzic: 2013:25).

In relation to the rest of society, anyway, there are some specificities concerning the work of security sector and they, first of all refer to secrecy in work, as well as discretionary powers of different head officers. It is well known that complete work system in these offices is based on the hierarchy and subordination, and also significant part of their work remains hidden from the public that opens the space for corruptive activities as decisions are made in narrow circle of people. Of course, there are other risks of corruption in security sector and they are, first of all in *“the material and financial performance of that sector actors (so called financial risks); then risks in the area of work relations and activities of the employees (human resources risks); then risks appearing in the line of duty (operational risks) and finally, risks caused by defective control mechanism in security sector.”* This time we shall not deeply analyze these risks.

Corruption damage in security sector may be connected to economics, but more important is the one referring to total morality and state of trust in the society. In the security sector a lot of tax payer’s money is spent as it is financed from the state budget, so uncontrolled this money spending leads even to general financial instability of the country, but much more important is that by corruption in this sector the integrity is collapsed and the capacity of security institutions is reduced, thus the trust and of the citizens in political system is totally depraved. This is, at the same time, the most important reason due to which there has to be opened the talk on behavior of highest ranked heads of security sector- army, police, security service. For now there have not been such talks and public announcements. A lot of remains hidden, either because direct

¹⁸ Hadzic, M. (2013): *Whirlpools of corruption in the Security Sector*, Belgrade Center for Security Policy, Belgrade.pg.7

¹⁹ The only important document that may be used when talking about media and corruption is actually the Report on Pressure and Control the Media done by Anti- Corruption Council Republic of Serbia 2011. The document was written clearly and bravely and represents the first and the last analysis of money flows in and around media and trade mechanisms influenced by media, which is necessary to know in order to talk about this topic.

cooperation of political elite in power in society and the top of security sector itself and also due to widely defined provisions of the law on state and military secret.

On the other side, media sector does not provide rightly the support to anti – corruption fight. Media are, after all expected when reporting on corruption to “*inform citizens on how they may react*”, to “*pick the responsibility of the citizens for corruption*”, to “*acquaint the citizens with corruption consequences*”, to “*support government programs for corruption prevention*”, to “*act preventively: to create surrounding where corruption is not welcomed*”.²⁰

However, in many of transition countries this is not possible. While in consolidated democracies corruption at all levels is suppressed by independent media and civil society institutions, in countries, such as Serbia and other Balkan states, these institutions are weak, and media do not free quickly enough from the “embrace” of the politicians. *Problem arises from the conception of the authority itself that media are its extension in the society*²¹. As much as they have good intentions in the anti-corruption fight, authorities, after all unwillingly recent old habits to create and direct public opinion.

Instead of contributing performance transparency of numerous administrative state apparatus, and also security sector, Serbian media mostly serve individual lobby groups on which demand publish data on corruption businesses of confronted groups, no matter they are economic or political – it is all the same. That is why there are in media more often different discoveries of “corruptive affairs”, numerous announcements of arrest and judgment, which, unfortunately, are not the result of editorials’ and journalists’ research effort, but first of all as all served on the spoon information, received from “above”, from the circles that wish to impose themselves as uncompromising fighters in anti corruptive fight. Later, it turns out that nothing comes of that big media uproar and everything is finished by “covering with thick layer of dust”. This turns the fight into show, and media are misused for the purpose of personal individual affirmation. After long exposing to corruption affairs, without particular consequences, citizens get tired and frustrated, and finally lose interest for anti -corruption fight. Instantaneous benefit through rating increase gets party in power and also media, specially so called tabloids which increase circulation.

The Report Pressure and Control the Media in Serbia²² issued in September 2011 by Anti-Corruption Council of Republic of Serbia which is still talked about unwillingly in Serbia confirms that media are in favor of the state of turning anti- corruption fight into show, at the same time neglecting the ethic principles of the profession. This report, which key message is “that it is difficult to expect serious anti- corruption fight when media are in a way, even indirectly, corrupted – that is paid to be silent” actually confirmed the story that Serbian media scene is ruled by monopolies. Written in completely clear language, offered numerous mostly unknown data, discovered money flows which circulated between off- shore companies, state and media, clearly pointing that everything is done in order to hide real ownership and prevent control of illicit concentration, thus influencing critical media work.

Researching cooperation with media in about 50 state institutions, based on collected data of the Council concluded that the biggest three problems of media in Serbia are:

Non transparency of media ownership

Economic influence of the state on media work by different ways of budget giving

Problem of RTS that instead of public service it has the role of political parties and ruling elite service²³

It is totally clear that the Report on Pressure and Control the Media hit the target directly, because it was not talked about, and such behavior describes the character of the authority which is not in favor of too much disturbing although it is easy to come to the evidence on the fact that media represent the serious link in corruption chain. “*This intricate bundle of money and influence tells about high level of corruption in commercial and public media and about*

20 See: Armao, R. (2010): *Covering Corruption: The Difficulties of Trying to Make a Difference*, Center for International Media Assistance, National Endowment for Democracy, Washington, USA, pp 1-37

21 Aracki, Z. (2008): *New elites and the impact on the media*, in: *Balkan in the process of Euro Integrations – 20 years of transition* edited by Bozic, M., Faculty of Philosophy Nis and Center for sociological Research in Nis, pp.229-237

22 See web: www.antikorupcija-savet.gov.rs

23 Report of Pressure and Control the Media, Anti Corruption Council of Republic of Serbia, Belgrade, 2011, pg.3

high level of political parallelism that is copying of political and financial influence of power center on media. In such a frontal attack, one by one financially exhausted media remit. Despite highly polarized society, and split public during 90ties, and in spite of non democratic regime, in Serbia were several media which spread the glory of independent journalism and were the pillars of critical public. The Report on Media Control showed how far this media past was and that almost there are no media ready for such a role".²⁴

Since the time of Report adoption till now, in Serbian media has almost nothing changed, except that its findings have been great deal confirmed in practice. Media ownership is still not totally transparent (situation in Vecernje novosti), owners are hiding behind different companies from abroad (Politika) or relatives in Serbia, state still via different institutions support those media in which has the greatest influence (advertisements in chosen media), RTS is more and more the service of political parties and ruling elite, and this will most probably increase after abolition of TV subscription and transfer to Serbian budget coffers.

On the same line there is the last year report of American Non Government Organization "Freedom House" which estimated that most of Serbian media "are classified to particular political parties, whereby there is self censorship due to influence of a few political and economic actors on total advertizing space."²⁵

Several years before, journalists in the research of the Strategic Marketing confirmed for themselves that they are most corrupted profession.²⁶

The greatest victim of such a situation in media is public, but it must also be recognized that journalist are not in any better situation. Apparently, they are main actors of media, but situation of journalist profession has almost never been in the history worse than at present. This is obvious in the Proclamation of the Association of Journalists of Serbia issued to public on the occasion of last year's World Day of Free Media.²⁷ The Proclamation says, among other things, that in the research of this association even "49,2% of our members replied that journalists pressed by poverty go to self censorship fearing of job losing or part time status, and that 27,4% resort to self censorship greatly". If this is true, and there is no reason for doubt, then it may be concluded that of expected media contribution to anti-corruption fight shall not be any results. Those who fight to survive are prone to corruption very much.

The way authorities and politicians look on journalism may be concluded from the speech of ex Serbian President Boris Tadic, held 2011 in Belgrade, who from the assembly rostrum of European Federation of Journalist promoted new view of this profession. According to his words journalists and media should be "partners in authority". This, of course, is absolutely in contrast to real role of the journalists in the world who always represent, not partners, but controllers of the authority. If not so, the authority would revolt from people, and media would become its real servants. For, levers of power, first economic, and then also those of censorship introduction are in the hands of the authority.

It is completely certain that many journalists forgot deontology duties, that is ethic norms of the profession they belong to, and that there are in media more and more ordered texts. The consequence of this situation is endangering human rights of people who are suspected of corruption. In the run for exclusivity, the presupposition of innocence is almost not respected. Upon order of the politicians and media owners, very often it is researched, accused and judged to people, which, in fact is the misuse of journalist profession. Journalist must be aware of the power they have, it is not small, and that is why they are not allowed to violate Constitution rights of those they are writing about.

In search for responsible in journalist profession, editors must not be avoided. Negative selection done in recent years contributed that instead of the best to have most obedient on these posts – either those who obey their masters or those who obey different mighty people in authority. They transfer this obedient characteristic to journalists, and all together are involved in the corruption circle of silence or ordered noise. Due to all this, media report on corruption

²⁴ Writes: Milivojevic S. (2012): *The First and last Report on Corruption and Media*, Media Network, No. 42, Peace Institute, Ljubljana, pp 19-20

²⁵ Freedom House: Serbia free, the problem of corruption, Tanjug report, 2nd May, 2013

²⁶ In more detail in the research of Strategic marketing: "Journalists and Journalism in the Eyes of Journalist and Serbian", Belgrade, 2007

²⁷ May be seen on UNS website: www.uns.org.rs

is more than endangered, and it may be freely “said that in Serbia there is no basic pillar of efficient anti corruption fight: free media”.²⁸

INSTEAD OF CONCLUSION

This work showed that corruption chain is very long, almost endless. Members of numerous professions equally participate in it. Everything starts with civil servants who misuse their discretion rights and illegally charge their services to ordinary people who spent time in front of administrative counters, continues to high business and political circles, and also in those society parts which had to be dedicated against this social evil – security sector, judiciary and even media.

Our starting thesis on the need of open approach to corruption in security sector and media has been multiply confirmed. Because of the specificity of work (secrecy, hierarchy, sub-organization) that is, nature of their existence and status they have in society, specially because of close connections to authority, i.e. political elite - army, police, and different security services are prone to corruption, which source is at the same places as in the other parts of the society. Media are, from many reasons, due to influence of the state, not clear ownership structure, endangered material situation of the journalists and dictating of new authorities, in position to, at the same time reveal, imprison, judge and adjudicate those who power centers entitle as corruption bearers. In this way, they also turn into one of the links in the corruption chain, and at the same time there are no right results in the fight of this appearance which is present in all regimes as of the beginning of the world until present days.

As consequences of corruption, in media – hiding of the perpetrators, lack of the control role and other in the security sector – economic damage, inadequate use of human resources, operational risk and other, multiple, it is completely clear that, this problem should be dealt with much more than till now. Moral, deontology dimension of the media work and members of security sector has to be affirmed to the highest limits. At the same time, control role of self regulated bodies of media, such as Press Council and Courts of Honor has to be more prominent that it is.

It is necessary to work on return of dignity to two honorable professions – media and security, on development of those institutions which shall allow professionals to fully complete their tasks. In the answer to the question who should work on this, it is without doubt concluded that they themselves have to work on, but for their successful engagement it is necessary to have created social conditions, which first of all refer to different understanding of the world, break up with neo-liberalism ideology which pushed the whole of the world into hard global crisis, not only of economic character. In the model we are interceding the profit will still have important activating role of the most of activities, but shall not be the only guide. Return to ethic principles and full transparency of the all institutions work, even security, as well as media guarantee that the corruption shall start reducing, that social justice shall be on higher level than at present.

REFERENCES

1. Antonic, D et al. (2001) *Corruption in Serbia*, Belgrade: Center for Liberal-Democratic Studies
2. Aracki, Z. (2008): *New elites and the impact on the media*, in: Balkan in the process of Euro Integrations – 20 years of transition edited by Bozic, M., Faculty of Philosophy Nis and Center for sociological Research in Nis
3. Armao, R. (2010): *Covering Corruption: The Difficulties of Trying to Make a Difference*, Center for International Media Assistance, National Endowment for Democracy, Washington, USA
4. Brioschi, K.A. (2007): *Brief History of Corruption, From Antiquity to the Present Day*, Mate, Belgrade

²⁸ Radomirovic, V. (2012): *Role of Media and Journal in Creating and Preserving of Corruption Ambiance*, <http://www.nadzor.org.rs/dosije%20korupcija%203/Uloga%20medija%20i%20novinara.pdf>, pp. 34

5. Hadzic, M. (2013): *Whirlpools of corruption in the Security Sector*, Belgrade Center for Security Policy, Belgrade
6. Milivojevic, Š. (2012): *The First and last Report on Corruption and Media*, Media Network, No. 42, peace Institute, Ljubljana
7. Radomirovic, V. (2012): *Role of Media and Journal in Creating and Preserving of Corruption Ambiance*, <http://www.nadzor.org.rs/dosije%20korupcija%203/Uloga%20medija%20i%20novinara.pdf>.
8. Reiss, A. (2005): *Hear the Serbs! Beware of Themselves*, Serbian Economic and Cultural Club, Belgrade
9. Rose-Ackermann, S. (2007): *Corruption and Government- Causes, Consequences, and Reform*, Official Gazette, Belgrade
10. Stiglic, J. (2002): “*Contradictions of Globalization*”, Social Thought, Belgrade

CIP - Каталогизacija у публикацији
Народна библиотека Србије, Београд

005.96:351.74/.75(082)
351.78(082)

MEĐUNARODNI naučni skup “Dani Arčibalda Rajsa” (2014 ; Beograd)

Thematic Conference Proceedings of International Significance. Vol. 2 / International Scientific Conference “Archibald Reiss Days”, Belgrade, 3-4 March 2014 ; [organized by] Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies ; [editors Srđan Milašinović, Darko Simović, Biljana Simeunović-Patić] = Tematski zbornik radova međunarodnog značaja. Tom 2 / Međunarodni naučni skup “Dani Arčibalda Rajsa”, Beograd, 3-4. mart 2014. ; [organizator] Kriminalističko-policijska akademija ; [urednici Srđan Milašinović, Darko Simović, Biljana Simeunović-Patić]. - Belgrade : Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies ; Bonn : German Foundation for International Legal Cooperation (IRZ) = Beograd : Kriminalističko-policijska akademija ; Bon : Nemačka fondacija za međunarodnu pravnu saradnju (IRZ), 2014 (Belgrade = Beograd : ArtGrbić Illustrated Studio). - 444 str. : ilustr. ; 24 cm

Tiraž 200. - Preface: str. 9. - Napomene i bibliografske reference uz tekst. - Bibliografija uz svaki rad.

ISBN 978-86-7020-279-5 (ACP)

ISBN 978-86-7020-190-3 (za izdavačku celinu)

1. Up. stv. nasl. 2. Kriminalističko-policijska akademija (Beograd)

a) Полиција - Менаџмент људских ресурса - Зборници

b) Безбедносни сектор - Зборници

COBISS.SR-ID 206899468