

**МЕЃУНАРОДНА НАУЧНА КОНФЕРЕНЦИЈА
БЕЗБЕДНОСТА И ЕВРОАТЛАНТСКИТЕ
ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ НА БАЛКАНОТ**

**ПОЛИЦИСКИТЕ НАУКИ И ПОЛИЦИСКАТА
ПРОФЕСИЈА (СОСТОЈБИ И ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ)**

**INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE
SECURITY AND EUROATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF
THE BALKANS**

**POLICE SCIENCE AND POLICE PROFESSION (STATES
AND PERSPECTIVES)**

МЕЃУНАРОДНА НАУЧНА КОНФЕРЕНЦИЈА

**БЕЗБЕДНОСТА И
ЕВРОАТЛАНТСКИТЕ
ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ НА БАЛКАНОТ**

**ПОЛИЦИСКИТЕ НАУКИ И
ПОЛИЦИСКАТА ПРОФЕСИЈА
(СОСТОЈБИ И ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ)**

25-26 Мај 2012, Охрид

Том I

СКОПЈЕ, 2012

INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC CONFERENCE

**SECURITY AND EUROATLANTIC
PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKANS**

**POLICE SCIENCE AND POLICE
PROFESSION (STATES AND
PERSPECTIVES)**

25-26 May 2012, Ohrid

Volume I

SKOPJE, 2012

Издавачи:

Универзитет „Св. Климент
Охридски“ Битола
Факултет за безбедност –
Скопје

За издавачите:

проф. д-р Златко Жоглев, ректор
на Универзитетот „Св. Климент
Охридски“ – Скопје
проф. д-р Снежана
Никодиновска _ Стефановска,
декан на Факултетот за
безбедност – Скопје

Уредник на изданието:

Проф. д-р Цане Мојаноски

Преведувачи:

Анче Белада
Александра Тодору

Компјутерска обработка:

Проф. д-р Цане Мојаноски
Корица: Кире Лазаревски

Печати:

АД „Ван Гог“ - Скопје

Адреса на издавачите:

Факултет за безбедност
1000 Скопје
П. Фах 103
tel: ++389(0)22546211

**Универзитет „Св. Климент
Охридски“**

1vi Maj б.б.
7000 Bitola,
tel: ++389 (0) 47223788

Publishers:

University “St. Kliment
Ohridski”- Bitola
Faculty of Security- Skopje

For the Publishers:

Zlatko Žoglev, PhD, rector of the
University “St. Kliment
Ohridski”- Bitola
Snežana Nikodinovska _
Stefanovska, PhD, dean of the
Faculty of Security- Skopje

Editor in Chief:

Cane Mojanoski, PhD

Proofreading:

Anche Belada
Aleksandra Todoru

Layout design:

Cane Mojanoski, PhD
Kire Lazarevski

Print:

AD “Van Gog” - Skopje

Address of the Publishers:

Faculty of Security
1000 Skopje
P.O. Box 103
tel: ++389(0)22546211

**University “St. Kliment
Ohridski”**

1vi Maj b.b.
7000 Bitola
tel: +++389(0) 47223788

ПРОГРАМСКИ ОДБОР

д-р Јанко Јакимов, декан, Факултет за безбедност – Скопје, Република Македонија

д-р Цане Мојаноски, Факултет за безбедност – Скопје, Република Македонија

д-р Горан Милошевиќ, декан, Криминалистичко-полициска академија, (КПА), Србија

д-р Лука Иаманди, ректор на Полициска академија "Alexandru Ioan Cuza", Романија

д-р Туту Пислеаг, декан на Факултет за полиција, „Alexandru Ioan Cuza“, Романија

д-р Горзд Мешко, декан, Факултет за безбедносни студии, Словенија

д-р Звонимир Дујмовиќ, Висока полициска школа на МВР, Хрватска

д-р Јордан Пенев, Ректор на Академијата на МВР, Бугарија

д-р Злате Димовски, продекан, Факултет за безбедност – Скопје, Република Македонија

Република Македонија

д-р Росе Смилески, декан, Воена Академија „Генерал Михајло Апостолски“, Република

м-р Љупчо Тодоровски, директор, МВР, Република Македонија

д-р Димитар Мирчев, ФОН, Република Македонија

д-р Трпе Стојановски, директор, МАРРИ регионален центар

м-р Горан Амиџиќ, директор, Висока школа за внатрешни работи, Република Српска, БиХ

д-р Миле Шикман, началник, Директорат за полициска едукација, МВР, Република Српска, БиХ

д-р Жељко Никаќ, продекан, КПА, Србија

д-р Срѓан Милашиновиќ, продекан, КПА, Србија

PROGRAMME COMMITTEE

Janko Jakimov, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Security – Skopje, Republic of Macedonia, President

Cane Mojanoski, PhD, Faculty of Security – Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Goran Milošević, PhD, Dean of the Academy of Criminalistics and Police Studies (ACPS), Serbia

Luca Iamandi, PhD, Rector of the Police Academy "Alexandru Ioan Cuza", Romania

Tutu Pisleag, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of the Police "Alexandru Ioan Cuza", Romania

Gorazd Meško, PhD, Dean of the Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, Slovenia

Zvonimir Dujmović, PhD, Higher Police School, Police Academy, MoI, Croatia

Yordan Penev, PhD, Rector of the Academy of the Ministry of Interior, Bulgaria

Zlate Dimovski, PhD, Vice Dean, Faculty of Security – Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Rose Smileski, PhD, Dean of the Military Academy, "General Mihajlo Apostolski", Republic of Macedonia

Ljupčo Todorovski, MA, Director, MoI, Republic of Macedonia

Dimitar Mirčev, PhD, FON, Republic of Macedonia

Trpe Stojanovski, PhD, Director, MARRI Regional Centre

Goran Amidžić, MA, Director of the Higher School of Internal Affairs, Republic Srpska, BiH

Mile Šikman, PhD, Head of the Directorate for Police Education, Ministry of Interior, Republic Srpska, BiH

Željko Nikač, PhD, Vice Dean, ACPS, Serbia

Srđan Milašinović, PhD, Vice Dean, ACPS, Serbia

СЕКРЕТАР

д-р Стојанка Мирчева, Факултет за
безбедност – Скопје, Република
Македонија

ОРГАНИЗАЦИОНЕН ОДБОР

проф. д-р Цане Мојаноски,
претседател
проф. д-р Оливер Бачановиќ
доц. д-р Марина Малиш Саздовска
доц. д-р Стојанка Мирчева
доц. д-р Никола Дујовски

СЕКРЕТАР

асс. м-р Марјан Ѓуровски

Медиумски покровител:

МАКЕДОНСКА
ИНФОРМАТИВНА АГЕНЦИЈА

SECRETARY

Stojanka Mirčeva, PhD,
Faculty of Security-Skopje, Republic of
Macedonia

**ORGANIZING
COMMITTEE**

Prof. Cane Mojanoski, PhD,
President
Prof. Oliver Bačanović, PhD
Prof. Marina Mališ- Sazdovska,
PhD
Ass. Prof. Stojanka Mirčeva ,
PhD
Ass. Nikola Dujovski, PhD

SECRETARY

Fel. Marjan Gjurovski, MA

Media Sponsor:
**MACEDONIAN INFORMATION
AGENCY**

Table of Contents

THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA, PRESIDENT Djordje Ivanov, Ph.D	5
SPEAKING NOTES of the Minister of the Interior H.E. Gordana Jankulovska, MA	7
SPEAKING NOTES of the Minister of Defence, H.E. Fatmir Besimi, Ph.D.	9
SPEAKING NOTES Vice-rector of the University „St. Kliment Ohridski“ - Bitola Pere Aslimoski, Ph.D	13
POLICE SCIENCE OR SCIENCE ABOUT POLICE? Cane Mojanoski, Ph.D	15
EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATIONS AND PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKANS	
THE JUDGMENT OF INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE (REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA V. GREECE) AND THE NAME ISSUE Vladimir Ortakovski, Ph.D.	29
NATO'S NEW STRATEGIC CONCEPT AND TRANSFORMATION OF THE DEFENSE-SECURITY SECTOR IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA Snezana Nikodinovska-Stefanovska, Ph.D., Marjan Gjurovski, M.A.	47
THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATION FOR REGIONAL PEACE AND SECURITY Trajan Gocevski, Ph.D.	61
THE BALKAN GROUP: MYTH OR A REAL CHALLENGE OF THE EURO INTEGRATION PROCESS Goran Ilik, Ph.D.	74
BALKAN'S PERSPECTIVES IN THE MIDDLE OF NATO EMERGING SECURITY CHALLENGES Rose Smileski, Ph.D., Metodi Hadji-Janev, Ph.D	85

TURKISH – GREEK RELATIONS AND THE SECURITY IN THE BALKANS

Slavejko Sasajkovski, Ph.D., Ljubica Micanovska,..... 101

THE CULTURE OF PEACE AS A PRECONDITION OF THE EURO-ATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKAN REGION

Zoran Matevski, PhD 114

THE IMPACT OF UNITED STATES FACTOR WITHIN EU INTEGRATION PROCESS OF TURKISH STATE AND THE MAIN CHALLENGES OF TURKEY – EU RELATIONS AT THE BEGINNING OF 21ST CENTURY

Muhamed Ali, MA..... 122

EUROPEAN INTEGRATION AND LONG TERM PERSPECTIVES OF TRANSPORT INTEGRATION OF THE BALKANS

Stevco Jolakoski, MA., Darko Spiroski..... 133

CHALLENGES TO BE FACED BY COMMUNICATION SECURITY IN THE CONTEXT OF EURO-ATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKAN COUNTRIES

Nikolay Palashev, Ph.D. 141

EDUCATION FOR POLICE AND OTHER SECURITY AGENCIES, POLICE SCIENCES: THEORETICAL, EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES OF THE SCIENCE AND THE SYSTEM OF POLICE SCIENCES

PHILOSOPHICAL ASPECTS OF INTERPRETING OF THE SECURITY

Jordan Spaseski, Ph.D..... 149

THE MODERN CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY POLICING - EXAMPLE: THE NETHERLANDS

Boban Simić, LL.D., Željko Nikač, Ph.D., Marija Blagojević, LL.D..... 158

THE IMPORTANCE OF ETHICS IN REALIZING THE PRIVATE SECURITY

Pere Aslimoski, Ph.D., Sase Gerasimoski, Ph.D. 174

PRIVATE SECURITY AS A PROCESS: POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITS

Sase Gerasimoski, Ph.D..... 187

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LEGISLATION GOVERNING
EDUCATION FOR PRIVATE SECURITY IN THE WESTERN
BALKANS

Duško Vejnović, Ph.D., Marjan Gjurovski, M.A., Gojko
Pavlović, M.A. 201

ROLE OF THE SECURITY MANAGER IN MANAGING WITH
RISKS, THREATS AND EMERGENCIES IN TOPLIFIKACIJA A.D
SKOPJE 217

Ljupco Stankovski 217

EFFECTIVE TRAINING OF STAFF IN THE PRIVATE
SECURITY AGENCIES IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA-
IMPORTANT FACTOR FOR SAFETY OF THE CITIZENS AND
THEIR PROPERTY

Borce Petrevski, M.A., Aleksandra Dimitrovska, M.A. 226

THE INFLUENCE OF THE SPECIAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION
OVER THE CHANGES OF THE ANTHROPOMETRIC
CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDENTS AT THE FACULTY OF
SECURITY

Jonche Ivanovski, M.A., Aljosha Nedev, M.A., Angel
Vitevski 239

INTEGRATING SPECIALIZED VOCABULARY IN
MATERIALS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE AREA OF
SECURITY

Vesna Trajkovska, M.A. 253

PERSONALITY AS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR FOR
SUCCESSFUL TRAINING IN POLICE AND OTHER SECURITY
PROFESSIONS

Dimitrovska Aleksandra, M.A. 267

EVALUATION OF THE BASIC TRAINING FOR POLICE
NEGOTIATORS AT THE MINISTRY OF INTERIOR OF THE
REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Zeljko Mojsilovic, MA., Nevena Gavric 283

POLICE ACTIVITIES IN THE FUNCTION OF ACHIEVING
THE RIGHT TO SECURITY AND FREEDOM OF THE CITIZENS OF
THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA 298

Temelko Risteski, Ph.D., Sejdefa Džafče, M.A. Emrah
Mihtaroski 298

SOME VIEWS OF TRAFFIC SAFETY AND PREVENTION OF ROAD TRAFFIC TORTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA Boris Murgoski, Ph.D.	308
POLICE PROFESSION IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA IN THEN CONTEXT OF EUROPEAN STANDARDS AND PERSPECTIVES Frosina T. Remenski, Ph.D.	321
POSITION OF POLICE SCIENCES WITHIN THE SYSTEM OF SCIENCES.....	331
Rade Rajkovcevski, M.A., Mirceva, Stojanka, Ph.D.....	331
POLICE AND CRISIS INTERVENTION: COMMUNICATION IN CRISIS SITUATION Dragana Batic, Ph.D.,	345
LAW PROTECTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS ON THE PART OF THE POLICE OFFICERS Tatjana Gerginova, M.A.	356
NEW CHALLENGES OF THE REGIONAL POLICE COOPERATION WITHIN MARRI INITIATIVE Sergej Uljanov, LL.M., Dragan Djukanovic, Ph.D.	368
DEVELOPING SKILLS FOR CRITICAL THINKING IN THE PROCESS OF SOLVING OF SECURITY PROBLEMS Slavko Angelevski, Ph.D., Metodi Hadzi Janev, Ph.D., Orce Popovski.....	379
THE IMPACT OF THE MULTIDISCIPLINARY EDUCATION TO THE EFFICIENCY OF MANAGERS FROM DIFFERENT LEVELS OF THE SECURITY SYSTEM – WITH SPECIFIC REVIEW IN THE FIELD OF DEFENCE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA Kemo Djozo, Katerina Mitkovska-Trendova, Nikola Kletnikov.....	391
THE POLICE PROFESSION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF IMPLEMENTATION OF FINANCIAL INVESTIGATIONS Oliver Lajić, Ph.D., Nenad Milić, Ph.D.....	405
POLICE DIPLOMAT - EXAMPLE OF THE EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATIONS’ GOOD PRACTICE Obrad Stevanović, Ph.D., Steva Jaćimovski, Ph.D., Dalibor Kekić, Ph.D.....	418

HOW TO APPROACH THE CRISES IN THE WESTERN BALKANS?	
Sergej Cvetkovski, M.A.....	433
COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT IN THE FIGHT AGAINST TERRORISM AND RESPECT FOR HUMAN RIGHTS	
Goran Amidžić, M.A., Gojko Šetka, M.A	444
THE STEPS OF THE COUNCIL OF EUROPE IN COMBATING TERRORISM	
Nenko Doykov, Ph.D.....	455
SOME ASPECTS OF THE TRUST AMONG MACEDONIAN CITIZENS RELATED TO SECURITY AND SAFETY ISSUES	
Antoanela Petkovska, Ph.D., Konstantin Minoski, Ph.D., Mihajlo Popovski, Aleksandar Jovanoski,	466

Dear,

The international scientific conference “Security and Euro Atlantic perspectives of the Balkans” is an annual conference organized by the Faculty of Security Skopje, member of the University Ss Kliment Ohridski from Bitola. The main goal of the conference is to contribute to the clarification of issues related to the security and Euro Atlantic integration of the Balkans region, police science and police profession, through presentation of scientific papers and discussions in the context of contemporary Balkan and Euro-Atlantic integrations.

The specific objective of the Conference is the theoretical conceptualization of topical issues, with the task of encouraging and giving impulse to the evaluation of practice, with emphasis on opening discussions on theoretical and epistemological problems of police science and police profession, especially the need for defining the scope and the development of research methodology for security phenomena and security in general, its structure and forms of occurrence and the relationships between them.

The contemporary (global) security is focused on the issues of security and transition, building democratic relationships, open society, i.e. communities of free citizens, which inevitably requires synergy of science, politics and practice in addressing and solving systemic and acute problems of the contemporary society.

Closely related to the problems of security are also issues related to the Police as a service with specific needs of training and education.

In the last two decades the Balkans has been in the process of defining its reform processes and building institutions and institutional structure able to meet the requirements for Euro-Atlantic integration. The countries from this region have achieved the objectives set by the Euro-Atlantic integration, with different levels of efficiency and dynamics. Bulgaria and Romania are EU Member states since 2007 and Slovenia since 2004. Croatia has finished the negotiations and expecting to become a Member state in 2013. Montenegro starting with the negotiations in a few month, and Republic of Macedonia is leading a high level political dialog with EU representatives. Serbia becomes candidate country in 2012, and Bosnia and Herzegovina and Albania are aspirants. This speaks about the commitment of all countries towards Euro Atlantic integrations.

In the last few years, normative conditions were created in the Republic of Macedonia for increasing and deepening the reform process of its security systems, particularly of the police and the sector for internal affairs in general. That is why it is important to consider the experiences from the reforms of the security systems, especially the transformation of

police systems and organizations. In this sense, the exchange of experiences in EU member and candidate countries is of great importance. Also important are issues related to risk and crisis management, particularly in the Republic of Macedonia in the period when the country has made a visible step forward in reforming its security systems and has become part of Euro-Atlantic integrations. Bearing in mind all this, a need has emerged for the analysis of the preparations, the fulfillment of the conditions imposed by the European Union, and especially the definition of the legal framework and the functioning of the political system.

Taking into consideration the fact that the Faculty of Security functions within the system of higher education institutions of the University “St. Kliment Ohridski”, as well as its tasks of continuous organized efforts for theoretical conceptualization and re-evaluation of security practice, the organization of the Conference is a serious challenge for contemporary science, whose task is to open dilemmas and debates about the Police science and their importance in the system of science, as well as for police as a service. In this aspect, it is of great significance to evaluate the constitution and the development of police sciences, as organized and systematized knowledge of the police as a phenomenon, its organization and relations, as well as its activities, which impose the need for critical revalorization of scientific and research efforts.

The Conference will host scientific workers from eight countries, mainly from the Balkan region.

		Macedonia	Serbia	Croatia	Slovenia	Bosnia and Herzegovina, Republic of	Bulgaria	Romania	Total
Authors	1 author	38	0	1	1	3	2	2	47
	2 authors	13	8	1		1			23
	3 authors	9	8	1		1			19
	4 authors	3	1		1				5
	Abstracts	80	20	4	1	6	2	2	115
	Papers received	71	16	3	1	5	2	2	100
Reviews	Positive reviews	63	15	3	1	5	2	1	90
	Negative reviews	8	1	0	0	0	0	1	10

Conference topics:

- ❖ Police sciences: theoretical, epistemological and methodological issues of the science and the system of police sciences;

- ❖ Education for police and other security agencies;
- ❖ Euro-Atlantic integrations and perspectives of the Balkans;
- ❖ Risk and crisis management as a security challenge;
- ❖ Sciences of security, criminology, police, criminalistics and other affiliated sciences: theoretical, epistemological and methodological issues of the science and the system of sciences;
- ❖ Challenges to the criminal justice reforms through the perspectives of Euro-Atlantic and European integration processes.

ORGANIZING COMMITTEE
Cane Mojanoski, Ph.D

THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA, PRESIDENT

Djordje Ivanov, Ph.D

Skopje, May 23th 2012

Dear,

On the occasion of the International Scientific Conference on the subject of "Security and the Euro-Atlantic Perspectives of the Balkans", it is my special honour and pleasure to greet the participants and congratulate the organizers of this significant event. We are especially proud that The Republic of Macedonia hosts this international conference once again, which we understand as a great acknowledgement for Macedonian academic institutions in the area of security studies and the science of security.

The so far experience puts an accent on the significance of a partnership between the state and the science. Such collaboration is essential for making quality, scientifically-based and examined decisions supported by adequate methodologies, decisions whose consequences reflect on the security of the citizens and the order in each country as well as in the whole region. In this direction, we recognize the significance of this conference which becomes a platform for collaboration of this kind, since it encourages the synergy between the state and the science, among the decision-makers and among the experts at national and regional level.

Challenges are numerous. In the essence is the issue of advancement of the safety of our citizens, our countries and the region of South-East Europe in times of intensive globalization of contemporary risks. The grounds for establishing security have already been set. Led by the desire for European and Euro-Atlantic future, the Balkan countries conduct reforms which alter the image of our region. The last decade of 20th century was marked by divisions, conflicts and transition. The first decade of 21st century was with the omen of democratic consolidation, expanding of the zone of security, stability and peace in Europe. In this direction, the European and Euro-Atlantic integrations have crucial influence over the transformation of our societies and our region. But, this process is still going on.

The future of the Balkans depends on Europe, but European future also depends partly on the Balkans. My motto is: „*Peace in Europe is elusive without peace on the Balkans*". Through maintenance of peace, security and stability of our region, we contribute towards the European peace project.

This is the point in which I observe the meaning of this conference, at which a new, authentic Balkan aspect, interpretation and comprehension of the Balkan security potential is offered through numerous productive scientific discussions and papers. With this thought, at the very end, I would like to express my desire for productive and beneficial work of the conference, as well as personal welfare, prosperity and progress to every one of you.

SPEAKING NOTES
OF THE MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR
H.E. GORDANA JANKULOVSKA,MA

Dear attendants,
Ladies and gentlemen

First of all, I would like to express gratitude for the invitation and emphasize that it is a special honour and pleasure to be here today - at this imposing international scientific gathering at which various security observations, equally important for the national as well as the broader regional stability and security are to be discussed from both expert and academic perspective. The theme of the conference "Security and the Euro-Atlantic Perspectives of the Balkans" elaborates one imperative issue for the whole region which has experienced various serious and radical challenges in the last period, promoting in the first place the priority which we all share today - the Euro-Atlantic integrations.

For the Republic of Macedonia the most important concern is the goal towards which we all strive, put all our efforts and work devotedly - our thorough social standardization, i.e. harmonization in accordance with the priority which I noted above: complete realization of the Euro-Atlantic perspectives.

In this sense, it is clear that the sphere of security, as a segment of the social transformation in which we have deeply penetrated, is not set aside. On the contrary - in the years behind it was a subject of particular significance for the state institutions responsible for its implementation; for its redesigning in accordance with the standards, values and norms of the Euro-Atlantic association, time and means have not been spared.

Security is not an issue of a given moment or trend. It is a universal subject which requires a long-term conceptual founding, constant adjustment and upgrading of its systems, infrastructure, human and technical resources. Thus, the various challenges and threats are not flat themselves. On the contrary - they are changeable and quite dynamic and their aim is to detect and utilize the weaknesses of the system, always and everywhere. Furthermore, the risks of security crises caused by the natural factors for which we also have to be constantly prepared are also present.

One of the primary tasks and responsibilities of each country is to establish a strong and all-embracing security system which will be

completely functional and efficient, regardless of the type and degree of the threat. In the same time, such system has to be flexible to the highest degree, and cooperative for all kinds of collaboration и co-effect with other systems of this kind, since it is clear that the challenges we are facing today are not always marked as national, i.e. the problems that we all meet, may equally be felt by everybody in the broader region.

In this sense, our efforts must always be bidirectional: national and international. The institutions in the Republic of Macedonia have always been unison in this aspect: guarding our own security, we actually contribute for maintenance of the common, i.e. the regional security.

In the context of the issue of security, I have to emphasize that in the last period a quite solid regulatory and institutional base has been constituted, a base for further upgrading of the security system which will thoroughly meet the needs and the requirements of the state and its citizens, as well as the needs and the requirements of the international community of which the Republic of Macedonia is one consistent member. This has always been an important mission through which we are offering one solid argument not only for our responsibility and maturity as a country, but also for our sincere readiness for Euro-Atlantic integration.

For all these reasons, I am convinced that this scientific conference, which will certainly produce some new expert inputs in the practical implementation and upgrade of the security system, is one additional indicator in this direction. It is sufficient to mention the abundant list of respectable discussions in the area of security, which is the strongest argument of my previous statement. Eventually, it is clear that practice is impossible without theory, as the product is impossible without the idea.

Finally, allow me to express my desire for successful and productive work of this conference, and thank you for your extremely significant contribution in the sphere of security.

SPEAKING NOTES
OF THE MINISTER OF DEFENCE,
H.E. FATMIR BESIMI,PH.D.

at the international scientific conference entitled “THE SECURITY AND THE EURO –ATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKANS”,
25 - 26 May 2012, Ohrid

Distinguished guests,

Allow me at the beginning to thank the Dean of the Faculty of Security for the invitation to attend and speak on a very current topic “THE SECURITY AND THE EURO –ATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKANS”.

The challenges linked to the security of the Euro –Atlantic region, including the Balkans, is a very current issue, both in the political and academic circles. The Balkans of today is a much safer and better place for living compared to the period of 20 years ago. NATO and the EU are the key factors to maintaining and enhancing regional security, stability and prosperity. However, the issues of national security and their implications to regional security are still prevailing in the Region. The answers to the question how the Region of the Western Balkans can become only a contributor to security vary from a country to a country. In this context, I would like to share my views of the political security scene in the Region, as well as on the Euro –Atlantic perspectives of the Republic of Macedonia and the Western Balkan countries.

- The democratic changes and the integration to NATO and the EU create the contemporary political ad security scene in the Western Balkans, where peace, cooperation, the economic and democratic development are being visibly improved contributing, thus, to the progress of the entire Region. The political security scene in the Balkans is characterized by many significant changes that may affect the Euro – Atlantic perspectives of the Western Balkans. The challenges related to the functionality of the institutions, the good governance, the rule of law and the respect of human rights are still significant in the Western Balkans.

- In the strategically important Balkans, the development of democratic values, regional cooperation and good neighbourly relations are the most important elements on the path towards lasting peace and stability. The progress made by all countries towards their full

integration in the Euro –Atlantic structures should be commended. There would be nothing better than expanding the area of freedom and democracy in our Region.

- The Declaration of the EU Council outlines the promises for the Western Balkans that “The future of the Balkans is in the European Union. The preparedness for integration in the European structures and the EU membership, by adopting the European standards, is a huge challenge today. The pace of moving forward is at the hands of the countries from this Region”. In 2005, in its Enlargement Strategy, the Commission underlined the importance of the conditioning and states that “the enlargement policy should prove its power for transformation in the region where the states are weak and the societies are divided. The political perspective of a possible integration in the EU is of key importance for the countries and it is necessary that they keep their reforms on the right track. However, it is clear that these countries will be able to accede to the EU and NATO on the sole condition that they fully meet the criteria”.

- In parallel with building the democratic and political institutions, the respect of human rights, the development of inter-ethnic and inter-religious tolerance, as well as the transformation into a market economy, are the most important parameters to measure the Euro – Atlantic perspective of the Balkan countries.

- The Republic of Macedonia set off on its journey to Euro – Atlantic integration immediately after its independence guided by its vision that our future lies in NATO and the EU. On this road, we have encountered numerous challenges and given the large commitment of the citizens of the Republic of Macedonia and its state leadership, we believe that our integration in these two organizations – NATO and the EU – will be accomplished in the near future. What is very important for us is that the entire Region is moving in the right direction. NATO and the EU have played a key role for over two decades in maintaining and enhancing security and stability of the Western Balkan countries and their development.

Distinguished guests,

- If they want to become EU and NATO members, the Balkan countries will have to develop much greater understanding among each other in the long term in order to use all the benefits arising from the membership. The close and fruitful regional cooperation in A-5 format is a very successful format for involving all countries in the Region, including Kosovo. We are convinced that the promotion of the A-5 cooperation is a win-win approach to providing peace, stability and greater prosperity for our citizens. The 2003

Adriatic Charter is constantly guiding us towards clear and positive steps for integration in Europe by close cooperative relations between our countries and the neighbours, as well as by promoting regional cooperation.

- Since 2002, the Region has started contributing to security. Today, Albania, Macedonia, Croatia, Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina have troops deployed in the ISAF, EU ALTHEA and other missions. More specifically, these countries have their national contingents deployed in the ISAF with a total of **860** strength, which is a considerable effort for small countries. In addition, it should be noted that last year the A-5 countries undertook the responsibility to establish and maintain the Military Police School in Kabul and deployed a joint contingent of military instructors. In the period 2002 – 2012, only the Republic of Macedonia deployed about **3000** strength (men and women) in international operations.

- The Balkan countries can do more together by applying the new NATO concept - SMART DEFENCE. The regional defence cooperation is getting increasingly intensified and expanded. It involves constant political consultations on all levels, joint training, building regional training centres, building joint military units, building joint military capacities (for instance BRAAD), and joint participation in international operations.

- Europe cannot be at peace, whole and united without the integration of all countries from the Balkans. I am convinced that all countries in this Region will achieve this goal in the near future: Macedonia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Montenegro and Serbia. The two organizations – NATO and the EU – are continually committed to the building of strong democratic institutions and improving the general situation, guaranteeing the economic development and growth through a guarantee of stability and peace, providing capital and promoting human rights and values.

- I wish you a challenging debate on this current topic and a successful conference.

SPEAKING NOTES

VICE-RECTOR OF THE UNIVERSITY „ST. KLIMENT OHRIDSKI“-BITOLA

Pere Aslimoski, Ph.D.

Dear participants of the International Scientific Conference, dear friends and guests,

I'm honoured to have such an opportunity to greet you all on my behalf and on the behalf of the University „St. Kliment Ohridski“-Bitola, our rector, professors and students and to express our strong support to your scientific and research efforts.

It is a great pleasure for me to be part of this scientific event in which many renown and affirmed professors, scientists and researchers from several countries take part. Also, there's a greater expectation that the reflective potential with which the Faculty of Security is honoured today, has capacity to give significant contribution in scientific revealing of numerous actual states and open questions concerning organizing and functioning of security.

Within the contemporary societal climate of the Balkans and wider basic processes are taking part, the ones that bring substantial changes in the economic, political, cultural and other aspects of living.

The society in which we are living today is a modern, communicative, informatic, but risky one at the same time. In reality, numerous risk factors of various origin exist, but, to what extent they'll endanger us depends on the human factor and its capability to act appropriately and in an organized manner to these security phenomena through its state and societal mechanisms.

Security represents fundamental value without which human being cannot realize its human contents and sense of the life. The security phenomena fill in significant part of societal life and express strong influence not only to the societal, but also to personal life of the humans. The security systems and functions are also very complex in their understanding as well as in their practical implementation. Therefore, the security phenomena, processes and states cannot evolve without serious scientific background. Science, especially security science, has very responsible role-it is expected to produce knowledge that will give directions for building the security institutions, policies and in realizing the desired security state. On the contrary, these complex processes and relations within security can get

out of the desired developmental route and can bring about serious, sometimes even irrecoverable detriments in mutual human relations.

Therefore, it is not exaggerated if we say that the stabilizing, humanistic and overall flow of the developmental processes to a great extent depends on science.

In order for the security sciences to respond to their expected function, it is indispensable:

- ▲ to enhance the international cooperation in scientific and research work, to develop international scientific centres and institutions and international scientific and research teams;
- ▲ to think of in a „new way“, i.e., to make progress in the methodological development within the science itself as a prerequisite to scientific research of the security and societal environment in which it is realized;
- ▲ to create new scientific views and practices in organizing the security in an era of integration and globalization;
- ▲ to develop the economic and democratic capacity of the society as a general form of prevention;
- ▲ to create a societal climate to overcome the societal division and polarization on ethnic, political, social and other grounds;
- ▲ to humanize the overall relations and relations within security;
- ▲ to affirm the prevention as basic principle in realizing the security;
- ▲ to affirm professionalism, competency and other similar values as precondition to efficient realizing of security;
- ▲ to develop international cooperation and integration as a concept of rational and indispensable answer towards the complex political, economic, cultural, scientific, ecological and other processes within the contemporary society. This is especially important since these processes have overcome the frontiers of the economic and political competency of the states and cannot be successfully controlled and directed only with a single intervention, irrespective of how much the state is powerful and dedicated to its functions and so on.

The security issues are too complex and responsible ones to be left only to the politicians and other centres of political power. In this sense, this Conference should be valued as a tool for developing of the cooperation and internalization of the scientific and educational activity as a precondition to development of the security.

POLICE SCIENCE OR SCIENCE ABOUT POLICE?

Cane Mojanoski, Ph.D.

One of the most significant features of the social life of the modern epoch, are both increasing of the political factor and the role of the scientific knowledge of the society in guiding social processes. It is an affirmation of two independent tendencies. These processes are mutually intertwined. Among them there are numerous of close ties and mutual influences with different effects for each of them separately and for the social movement as a whole.

In the relationship between politics and science there are several different situations. In some conditions arise mutual incentives; the other comes up to tensions, disagreements and even confrontation. Politics and social-scientific though are playing one of the most important role mainly through the direct facing, interacting or colliding, dealing with one other, so that their mutual behavior becomes a significant social problem.

We could be able to identify a numerous relationships, but the two views are polarized and opposing. One of them is that the relationship between politics and social knowledge's, including the police sciences, are established in a way that politics are having sovereign rule over social-scientific knowledge, by placing science under umbrella of politics and in its service. In this case, the policy seeks to arbitrate with the establishment of standards or conditioning the need of specified occupations and staff. The second is the reverse: Science is sovereign in the full sense of the term meaning the highest and unlimited power, absolutely free, there is nothing above it, both nor to attack or to restrict. Politics should simply serve to the science, becoming a technical tool in implementing its results. Politics with it's simply existence affecting science as an integral part of social being; act by performing its function as protector of the structure, streamlining the processes in it. Policy affects directly through the regulatory system, introducing acts that determines the network, and through the enrollment quotas, and particularly through the issuance of work permits making direct intervention in the area of science. The next mechanism is economic power of the state, through the budgeting can affect the creation, channeling or destruction of material preconditions of scientific work. Last but not least, the political factor can directly intervene in the scientific creation with the power which it has, can occur as a tutor, judge, or to perform censorship, prohibits, isolating or closing.

Therefore it is difficult to defend the view that science can be "free" from politics as it can not be "free" of society. Demand for "freedom of science" of politics is rational only in a relative sense, as a demand for the

release of scientific creation of some ways and forms of behavior of politics to science. Such a request is always political, demand for a change in policy performance, in a given social direction whose character can be evaluated according to the specific situations. Experience shows certain behavioral tendency of politics to the social-scientific thought, which can be expressed schematically as follows:

1. Favors and encourages the development of certain social sciences, institutions or areas;
2. Encourages those branches of science and researches that are used for improving and maintaining the established social structure;
3. It is in a conflict and prevents the development of scientific thought in society;

It influences various types of research in the following way:

1. First, impact on getting data for processes (they are usually enveloped by the veil of secrecy, and their use in the final instance is conditioned by the approval of those who are responsible for the situation). In the very beginning of the scientific work, collecting data phase, are implementing relations with practice, and that creation is in the framework determined by the politics.
2. Second, policy affects explanation of social appears, and on a different ways it explains those appears. Social system is protected by appropriate ideological system, but politics may require the ideology sanctioning with the instruments of political monopoly. Political factors in this case insist that scientific explanations are moving within the ideological system they defend. In such circumstances, the opportunities for the development of social-scientific thought is limited by the nature of the ruling ideology, and the process of the development of science, with the constant scrutiny of existing knowledge and its modification and changing with new ways closed prospects for progress.
3. Third, the role of practice in the development and verification of scientific knowledge. Practice has far-reaching influence of social-scientific thought and its development. The practice is an experimental laboratory for social, as well as police sciences, field of social activity through which is realized and verified theoretical knowledge about social challenges and tendencies of development.

In our linguistic practice, the terms "hoots", "science", "instruction", "learning", "counseling", have the same or similar meaning.¹ There are

¹ Contemporary expression that is in particularly frequent use here is the term "education", which is used as a synonym for education, in particular forms of teaching or counseling.

several definitions for science. Neither one of them is such to satisfy every critic, but at the same time is neither such, we can say that is completely wrong. One of the most simplified definitions of the science is: Science is knowledge and systematization of facts and phenomena that surround us and finding relationships between them.¹ The term science involves coherent (synchronized + understandable + transparent + consistent) system of knowledge of an area or network of disciplines. This system involves and previous knowledge (known scientific facts, scientific laws and principles, scientific hypotheses and their testing methods) and new knowledge (new facts and rules in the related field and reality).²

Some more definitions: Science is thoughtful integration of objective reality, based on the facts of that reality.³ Science is an attempt chaotic diversity of our experience of sensory aligns with logical single system.⁴ Meaning of general science - science means human knowledge of nature, human beings and society, relatively corresponds to objective reality and from it derive the following three main features:

- a) that it is a human act, the result of his thoughtful and practical activity;
- b) that knowledge is objective, because it corresponds to objective reality;
- c) that scientific knowledge is relative, because this correspondence is never complete, but always partial and approximate;⁵

Science differs from everyday opinion because it is selectively directed cognition in a certain area; she is more systematic, more objective and more controlled than the everyday opinion and is more cautious when generalizing.

There are numerous definitions and different understandings of the concept of science especially in philosophic and methodological literature. They could be classified as science conceptions which consider:

- a) system of knowledge about the world that surrounds us;
- b) specific forms of human activity;

More precise is attitude towards the concept of "science". It presents a variety of organized procedures, which we call "learning", and it would be a set of opinions or doctrines of a "school", political party, religion etc, means there would be important for the meaning of "teaching" (eg: talk about "Christian teaching" and not "Christian Science").

¹ Boris Pertz: *Metodologija sigurnosnih pojava*; MUPH, Zagreb, 1996; p.10;

² Milorad Banjanin: *Naucnoistraživačka metodologija*. Dispublic, Beograd, 2006, p. 25;

³ Miroslav Vujević: *Uvođenje u znanstveni rad u području društvenih znanosti*; Školska knjiga; Zagreb; 2006; p. 6;

⁴ Boris Pertz: *Metodologija*...cit. p. 10;

⁵

<http://www.crnarupa.singidunum.ac.yu/ARHIVA/godina%202006%20%202007/FPI/Sociologija%20%20prof.%20Zarko%20Seslija/> [7.08.2009]; p. 5;

- c) general method consists of a variety of procedures;
- d) one of the basic forms of social consciousness;
- e) systematized experience of common sense; and
- f) process;

There are certainly numerous witty "definitions" of science, such as: Science is eternal search of truth and knowledge; Science is our "destiny" etc.

The tree of knowledge and the tree of life seems to be from a different world. But the spirit of time, principles of a civilization founded on the principles of power, profit and prestige are leading the positivist-oriented science and cultural patterns, deeply intertwined, its canons, governing paradigms, professional mentality and the way of forming the experts, or shortly the subculture. That are the relationship and criteria according to which the perceived of what is scientific knowledge, and what is not.

Regarding science very interesting positions we can read at Tofler researches. According to him, established science with its dogma, hierarchy, and heresy became a church. It has its own popes and cardinals, and the power of excommunication. That power experienced by a numerous Scientifics only because of their courage to argue with the leading scientific orthodoxy, were placed on the pillar of shame.

Traditional methodology lives in strange paradox. It presents itself as a spiritual tool for obtaining objective truth, and shows reluctance and inability to re-examine their own content, principles and canons, how they provide complete truth or limit cognition. There is an illusion of the methodology as a set of procedures which, if well known, can become an automatic machine for real truth promotion. It is similar to the belief that it is enough to learn how to compose to be able to create a symphony. This illusion is not random and is an integral part of forgetting critical awareness. But, it is hardly to find any area of science which is so canonized, dogmatized and converted into a set of rigorous rules. Especially in one area of human activity that can not be missed - in the act of creation that occurs as a result of the ability to break with the canonical procedures. With it can not be underestimate the importance of science as a profession, knowledge of the procedures and techniques of research, normative, logical and pedagogical role of the methodology, but determines their real achievement and sense.

One of the most important parts of the methodology is forming the critical way of thinking of society for basic theoretical and methodological approach¹. That field is the one which at least is subject to strict rules of

¹ In my works, security science is named with the term **asphaliology**. It is a coinage consisting of two ancient Greek words 1.asfalia, σφάλεια = Ancient Greek – security; 2.logia, λογία – science. The term ασφάλια means - security, guarantee, durability,

procedure of the content analysis. But it can not be understood that this part of methodology can be cut by knife, and therefore the method of surveillance of society is a theoretical-methodological approach and influence the way of research and interpretation. Instead of creating the myth of neutrality of method it would be useful critically to explore the different observations of society and how they affect the research of social phenomena. Reason which justifies this view is extremely simple - we can not judge methodology only on the basis that it separately says it is, but for what really makes its content. And its true intellectual content is not monolithic single and not neutral, but includes significantly different theoretical and methodological orientations. Orientations that do not have equal power of knowledge that contain different views of society, understanding of social rules and facts, methods of research and interpretation of society. Methodology acquires the illusion of a monolithic spiritual discipline, of neutral knowledge only in one book of a teacher who represents a concept – its concept. Or, in introduction provides an overview of a few intellectual routes later it completely forgot, to make the pole vault, as these different theoretical and methodological orientations in no way affect the procedure of the research way of explanation, optics observation areas that attach greater or lesser impact. Once again under the method of research in the true sense of the word we mean a set, model, spiritual reproduction of the real event which would have built hatched particular research. In that model, the method intertwined theoretical and methodological levels and expressions. The goal of scientific (objective) knowledge is leading with the nature and the rational improvement of the quality of human life, and we are not talking about how to know more, but how to life.¹

Dualism of science

Science is an adaptive process that enables double adjustment. First, man can change himself on the basis of scientific knowledge. Second, on the basis of scientific knowledge, he can change the nature and society in accordance with his own desires. To make success, his cognition should unite theoretical thought and practical activity. Accordingly, scientific truth is in accordance with the opinion and practical activity. Her final check is in the success of human practice. But there is a multitude of different notions of

protection, caution, loyalty, assurance, trust, hope, power, strength, common sense, determination as well as electrical fuse. This term - **η ασφαλεια** has kept its meaning from the classical ancient Greek language to the new biblical Byzantine Greek language until Katarévusa and the contemporary spoken Greek language – Dimotiki.

¹ Miroslav Pecujlic, Vladimir Milic, Metodologija drušvenih nauka, Službeni list, Beograd, 1991, p. 7-9;

the truth. They are characterized by one-sidedness.¹ Truth often diverges from reality or it fits in it. In line with this cognitive process was seen also as a reality, so instead being understood as the unity of theoretical thought and practical activity, in the history of science these two aspects are separated and opposed. They sidedness and science released today which is visible through the clash of "theorists" and "practitioners".

Three reasons most contributed to the dismantling of the uniqueness of the cognitive process. First is cognitive, second is social and third is educational. Science is a theoretical explanation of objective reality and theoretical thought qualitatively differently explains the objective reality of sensor activity. "The basic principles of science," said Einstein "are not given empirically, but are 'free inventions of the human intellect'."² Criterion validity of scientific concepts, laws and theories is not in isomorphism (equality of forms), but in the symbolic, law and theoretical explanation of facts. For example, symbol H₂O is nothing like water, but explain it better than the most credible photography. Although theoretical thought qualitatively different from sensual experience, among them there is epistemological correlation.³ Without theoretical knowledge the world would be a subtle difference. For laymen the Roentgen photo means nothing, no meter how fine is his view. The experienced medicine doctor with no so good eye view can see a lot. It means that better looking is a result of his theoretical knowledge. Distinguishing of theoretical thought of experience is founded, but it can not be the cause of these two activities to be separate and opposed. That, however long it was, and still works, though science has given the answer.

With the expression *policeman* we recognize every uniformed or other member of the police force (police officer), who is directly engaged in the performance of police duties. In shorter term, this expression is used only for the uniformed members of the police (*policeman* – eng., *policier* – fr.). For the civilian members of the police force in a numerous foreign languages the terms *detective* or *police agent* (*agente di police* – fr., *agente di polizia* – it.) are in use. In Macedonian language the term *inspector* is in use, and *agent* is used as the follow: a) someone who works on behalf of another or represent him; b) members of the Intelligence; c) paid providers etc. There are other members of the Ministry of Interior, administrative or advisory, which are not police officers and are not directly engaged in the performance of police duties.

¹ Bogdan Sheshic Uvod u metodologiju društvenih nauka, Naučna knjiga, Beograd, 1974, p.161-198;

² Ibid... p.128

³ Ibid, p. 124-135;

The Police sciences as a basic term are the legal study of the Police. More precise term for the Police sciences determine the contents used under the term Police. Thus understood, police science in their subject are having research the issue of the police system in its basic types, ie as a separate dynamic whole that is different from any environment as a whole which is in interaction with its environment.

Police system manifests itself in the form of dynamic unity of mutually conditioned interior and exterior aspects of the police. On one side, those are organizational, functional, structural, staffing, ethical, cultural and other internal aspects (ie aspects of the police system as a separate whole) and on the other side the role of the police in society and its relationship with the immediate and wider environment as external aspects (or aspects which expresses the interaction of the police with their environment). All these aspects together constitute the subject of police science.

As in both cases, internal and external aspect of the police system, we are talking about social phenomena, subject of the police science are separate whole of social phenomena which are in direct connection with the police work. Researches of the legality of those social appearances are the subject of the police science. Police science are researching the police work in a given country at a given time and stands by what is common for the police in general and seeks to establish scientific statements which tends to be of a general importance.

In this sense, the Italian professor Franko Bruno underlines that, despite the differences that exist in some countries (as a result of different political regimes, laws and cultures) between all police forces in the world there are significant similarities, which reflect in common features or elements, and that enable us to study for the as a system, ie as a phenomenon with certain common features. Common characteristics are reflected in the fact that each police is based on complex organizational forms, selection of the staff, manner of their deployment and equipping of facilities, management system, organization of work according to the law, assessing the performance of the structure, certain procedures, examination of the operation in terms of goals and more. This paragraph confirms popular true that "all police forces in the world are similar to each other." Despite what is stated in another context, the statement of the Russian revolutionary Lav Trotsky is very interesting "Only one thing is international: the police."

In the global and comparative approach of police science it is unnecessary to emphasize the differences between countries and to highlight those specifics that apply to a given state and such differences and specificities to bring about what is common for the police in general. On the contrary, such an approach is theoretically and especially pedagogical deeply justified and necessary for a better understanding of matter and its greater

practical usefulness. Further more, each specific model of police system is established according to the national traditions and the established relations in a particular society.

Later we will see that tradition and social environment influence the police system and in this place is enough to recall the words of the famous and one of the most important French police scientists Casamayoga who believes that the police system can not be considered "detached outside the society in which they operate" nor an exhibitionist model or product for export. According to this, studying the subject Police Science requires at the same time accurately what is in common for the police as a universal phenomenon and that can withstand the test of comparative experiences and mark those differences that are significant and which exist between a police in a state and universal policing experience. For example, Police science, science of police interventions and police theory. Other subjects are: Police psychology, Police Law, Police Management, Sociology of the Police, Police Organization and Management, Comparative Police Systems, earlier mentioned Police Technology and others. In the future, the practice should determine the number of these separate disciplines and their subject, or to express a real need for their existence.

Relation between practice and science

One of the issues causing concern in scientific circles is the relationship between science and profession, among scientific and professional result. One can get the impression that if the science is underdeveloped, so these limits are unidentified. Profession is knowledge, in particular, applied knowledge. Application of knowledge implies the transfer of scientific results, a new experience of the profession, which is enriched with the skills and orientations. Experience associated with actual work and developments in the area of labor. Experience (lat. experientia) means "to put to test." Experience in the profession increases the capacity of the knowledge and skills and is reflected in the ability of professionals, the same, similar or analogous problem to solve in the same, similar or analogous way.¹

Profession is the notion of category based on the application of knowledge in a particular domain. It is not sufficiently clear separating of the science which, in turn, the key property is analytical and synthetic search for truth that is objective, true and verifiable knowledge. Science and profession have simultaneous parallel and divergent flows when the profession accepts scientific results as transfer, as its new experience built-in in the ability to solve complex problems.

¹ Milorad Banjanin: *Naucnoistraživačka....* cit. p. 24-35;

Routine is commonly defined as the ability to solve problems that vary from case to case. It is a valuable attribute of a good specialist. Routine leads to pragmatism which is not enough powerful tools always to ensure and to discover the right path, or to provide an adequate solution to a problem. Knowledge that over the time and through extensive experience is successfully developed is affects on the definition of professional profile. The expertise is a form of implementation of such knowledge.

The expert is a professional with high capacity and proven deep knowledge in solving complex problems. He knows the thing what in the given situation others do not know so they use his intuition and creative results in solving problems. Experts through experience gained competence to connect the facts in new knowledge. Expert knowledge is the criterion for differentiating or separating the beginner from experienced specialist. In general, an individual with no experience can hardly be considered as an expert.

Of course, there are exceptions, such as Bach, who was a music expert at the age of five. Experts not only possess knowledge but also create and strive to be transparent in explaining the method, procedures and instruments by which they came to certain decisions and solutions. They are builders of knowledge by purifying their thinking process by adding new and refining existing knowledge through rich experience, and not only by hunting (capture) and stacking other (growing) information. Accordingly, the builders of knowledge, which role is to create generate and present professional knowledge should early understand many branches of knowledge to be able to decide whether a particular specialist posses knowledge necessary for building or updating of reliable databases. Experience in the use of knowledge allows experts to constantly purify their thinking process in the context of knowledge management.¹

The professionalism and competence of researchers

When we talk about professionalism usually it comes to the amount of formal education and qualifications with which the individual has in his capacity as an employee in a company, regardless of the type of work or the activity. Thus the content of the work of firms determines the professionalism. The companies dealing with high tech lean towards higher professionalism as well as more sophisticated specialized knowledge and skills. Necessary condition for professional status is competence. Competence implies a high level of skills, ie fully integration of knowledge, skills and orientations accepted or embedded as a value in the application

¹ Ibid: 28;

according to the rules. They include empathy, respect, team work, symmetric and proactive communication. Therefore, actual professions education involves the acquisition of certain levels of competencies that are commonly found as: basic, specific, specialized, methodological, social and personal competences.¹

Basic competencies define the capacity for analysis and synthesis of a general knowledge of security. "The basic expert" is not someone who knows everything, but someone who has the ability to understand the whole and according to the needs to carefully examine a part of the whole.

Specific competencies are capabilities for a specific category of skills in the application of knowledge. Such as: skill to arrest the gunman. The skills acquired through experience or are the result of exercise and learning commonly perfected with consistent application in practice. When solving a partial problem a professional usually remains with partial knowledge which implies specific application of the general theoretical and methodological principles.

Specialized competencies include cognitive abilities, different content knowledge acquisition and their integration in a given whole. It is a new, special expertise and belongs to a particular scientific or professional discipline. Specialized knowledge is applied only if it is based and built on a broad foundation of general knowledge.

Social competencies are ability to establish relationships in communities directly related to the profession. Professionals are faced with different situations, especially when it comes to decision making.

Personal competences are capabilities for mobilization of the person in the exercise of professional activities.

According to Banjanin, professional competences in an area, especially in the field of security include: 1. general, specific, specialized and methodological knowledge; 2. wide range of skills; 3. separate, detailed skills to work in the field of security; 4. ability for systematic approach; 5. work in multi-disciplinary, multi-ethnic and multi-cultural teams; 6. ability to take initiative when solving problems, special activities and development of new content in the field of security.

Methodological competencies are capabilities for the application of specialized knowledge in resolving the professional and research problems. Acquiring of the necessary types of competency, according to this author, seven dimensions of methodological literacy are identified: a) phonetic; b) visual; c) binary; d) media; (e) project focused; (f) systemic and (g) control focused;

¹ Ibid: 28;

Phonetic literacy is acquired through education and refers to the voice, morphological, syntactic, semantic, verbal and written literacy.

Binary literacy is related to computer technology that allows visualization of ideas.

Media literacy includes media-technical knowledge and skills, media analysis and media-creative abilities.

Project literacy defines conceptual and communication skills in problem solving, including different aspects: technological, economic and market, socio-psychological, organizational, spatial and geographic etc.

If knowledge and learning are lasting too long or cost too much (they are expensive) than they are with small importance. Therefore, researchers are expected to be effective leaders of knowledge, team leaders and project leaders. Leaders of knowledge are those that increase and transmit knowledge to the right person, at the right time and in an appropriate way, quickly and inexpensively. They build trust, create openness and encourage risk-taking so that talented people are constantly focused on progress.

Basic literacy skills that helping to structure system are: communication, technological, interpersonal, team, psychological, research, administrative, economic and business. Orientation is a basic category in the context of work.

Steering literacy is determined by the integrity of the information necessary for effective management. It recognizes in the vision, strategies and missions, through the contents of the methodological knowledge applied in planning, organization, influence and control matters, actions, activities and projects.¹

* * * *

From the previous presentation, we can conclude that the general development of science, especially the emergence of numerous technological solutions significantly have changed the perception of science and its importance to the promotion of human development. Rapid scientific development conditions appear processes that "dividing" sciences as well as connection and integration processes among them. In this context it is especially important to keep in mind that the social sciences are increasingly seeking response phenomena and processes that have a destructive role ie the creation of conditions for safe development. Therefore we should expect more science to turn their interest onto security, and the need to build a

¹ Ibid, 34;

community where people will enjoy the fruits of their labor. Therefore it seems that it is important to conclude that the unfolding of science and its activity contributed to constitute a very new science in the field of security in general. At the moment the new changes in the paradigms of physics, but also in other sciences, including the school of analytic philosophy, are very important. Of course no scientific revolution is carried out only because it has been proved that as Kuhn says, "normal science" is wrong or, in as Popper says, is "overturned" but to intensify the process of continuous development of scientific thought and scientific knowledge. Why a number of changes in paradigm happens, although new theoretical paradigms and many revolutions are fond on dogmatism.

For an illustration of this evaluation cited quote that "geo-physicist will try to contradict the tectonics plates or try to contradict natural laws, will have small chances to be published in a scientific journal. " Physicists, and it is usually those prominent, are relatively freer to express their views that may be in conflict with the prevailing opinion. Founders of this attitude in physics are probably people like Niels Bohr, which, on one occasion said that "the theory should be particularly stupid to be able to be true." In fact, the mathematical models that is contrary to common sense, as Everett's "interpretation of the many worlds" and quantum theory is seriously considered in physics. That extravagant mathematical models and incredibly imaginative reasoning of modern physicists are very attractive, but also important in the philosophical sense because they show the logical powers of speculation. "

Today we are witnesses of a very developed so-called "Business Science" and publishing magazines which are publishing only articles that receive positive review from reviewers selected by the editorial board. They are probably necessary, but can cause the following question: whether and how in such conditions Max Planck would be able to, in journal with review, published his first article on quantum theory.

**EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATIONS AND
PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKANS**

THE JUDGMENT OF INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE (REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA V. GREECE) AND THE NAME ISSUE

Vladimir Ortakovski, Ph.D.

ortak@sonet.com.mk

Faculty of Security

Abstract

In November 2008, Republic of Macedonia instituted proceedings against Greece before the International Court of Justice because of a dispute regarding the interpretation and implementation of the Interim Accord, which was signed by the two countries in 1995. Greece objected to the Court's jurisdiction for several reasons, including the parties' express agreement not to adjudicate the name dispute before the International Court of Justice. The Court, siding with Macedonia, concluded that the application did not request a settlement of the name dispute but rather concerned Greece's violation of the Interim Accord, thus falling within its jurisdiction. In its Judgement from December 5, 2011, the Court has found fifteen votes to one that Greece breached its obligation under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the 1995 Interim Accord by objecting to the admission of the Republic of Macedonia to NATO. The Court sided with Macedonia's arguments that Resolution 817 required the international organization in question (NATO) use the provisional designation provided for in the resolution and concluded that the Interim Accord does not allow Greece "to object to the Applicant's admission to an organization based on the prospect that the Applicant is to refer to itself in such organization with its constitutional name".

Besides analyzing the Judgment, this paper elaborates and comments on its practical implementation. The relation between the Interim Accord and the name issue will also be commented and analyzed in the paper.

1. Introduction

With the dissolution of the former Yugoslav Federation in 1991, the Republic of Macedonia declared independence on 17 September 1991, following a referendum on 8 September 1991. After adoption of a new Constitution, on 17 November 1991, the Assembly of the Republic of Macedonia, on 19 December 1991, adopted a further declaration seeking wider international recognition as a sovereign and independent State. Faced with Greece's blockade, Macedonia adopted two amendments on its Constitution in January 1992: Amendment 1: "The Republic of Macedonia has no territorial pretensions towards any neighboring state". "The borders of the Republic of Macedonia can only be changed in accordance with the Constitution and on the principle of the free will, as well as in accordance

with generally accepted international norms”. Amendment 2: “In the exercise of this concern the Republic will not interfere in the sovereign rights of other states or in their internal affairs”.¹

The Arbitration Commission, chaired by Robert Badinter, was established by EC Council of Ministers on August 1991, to provide legal advice on matters resulting from the dissolution of the former Yugoslavia, including applications for recognition made by former Yugoslav States.² The Commission recommended that the European Community accept Macedonia’s request for recognition. In its Opinion No.6 the Commission took the view that “the Republic of Macedonia fulfils the necessary conditions in the Guidelines on the Recognition of New States in Eastern Europe and in the Soviet Union and the Declaration on Yugoslavia adopted by the Council of the European Communities in December 1991”. It emphasized that “Macedonia has renounced all territorial claims of any kind in unambiguous statements binding in international law; and that *the use of the name “Macedonia” cannot therefore imply any territorial claim against another State...*”³

However, Greece blocked EC recognition arguing that Macedonia’s name, flag and some provisions in its Constitution implied territorial claims against it.⁴ As a result, in Lisbon Declaration, on 27 June 1992, EC reiterates its willingness to recognize the state within its existing borders, but “under the name that does not include the term Macedonia”.⁵

2. Legal aspects of Macedonia’s admission to UN

The Republic of Macedonia was admitted to membership in the United Nations in 1993 under the provisional name “the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia”, so creating precedent in the United Nations’ history. The UN Security Council Resolution 817 (1993) contains the following:

-“...Noting that the applicant fulfils the criteria for membership in the UN laid down in Article 4 of the Chapter”,

¹ Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, No.1/92.

² See: Thomas D. Grant, *The Recognition of States: Law and Practice in Debate and Evolution*, Praeger Publishers, 1999, p.153-159.

³ See: Thomas D. Grant, *The Recognition of States: Law and Practice in Debate and Evolution*, Praeger Publishers, 1999, p.161.

⁴ See the Greek Memorandum annexed to UN Doc. S/25541 (1993).

⁵ Taken from: Republic of Macedonia – Documents, 1990-2005, S. Georgievski, S. Dodevski, Faculty of Law “Justinian I“, Skopje, 2008.

-“ Noting however that a difference has arisen over the name of the State, which need to be resolved in the interest of the maintenance of peaceful and good neighborly relations in the region”,

- “Recommends to the General Assembly the State... be admitted to membership in the United Nations... being provisionally referred to for all purposes within United Nations as ‘the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia’ pending settlement of the difference that has arisen over the name of the State”.⁶

It should be emphasized that additional conditions for Macedonia’s admission in UN are contrary to UN Charter. Namely, Article 4 of the UN Charter provides for the following criteria for UN membership: a) to be a state; b) to be peace-loving; c) to accept the UN Charter and its obligations; d) to be able to carry out these obligations; e) willingness to do so”. Two additional conditions (provisionally referred to as ‘former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia’ within the UN; negotiating with another state over its name)⁷ are not prescribed in Article 4. These conditions are contrary to the general rules of international law, such as sovereign equality between states and the principles of representation in international organizations.⁸ The right of a state to freely choose its name derives from the right of self-determination. This right is inherent right of every state who has its legal identity.

On the other side, one should have in mind that Greece uses the name Macedonia for one of its provinces which does not have legal personality.

Additional conditions imposed on Macedonia are in clear breach of Article 2(7) of the UN Charter,⁹ which explicitly forbids the UN to interfere in matters of domestic jurisdictions of member states. Additional conditions are also in violation of Article 2(1) of the UN Charter, which provides principle of sovereign equality of all member states. Conditioning one state to negotiate with another over its name, which belongs to the domain of domestic jurisdiction, and making it possibly dependant for fulfillment of this condition exclusively on the will of another state, is contrary to the principle of sovereign equality and non-interference in domestic matters.

⁶ See Security Council Resolution 817 (1993) from April 7, 1993, at para.2.

⁷ Igor Janev, Some Remarks of the Legal Status of Macedonia in the United Nations Organization, Review of International Affairs, Vol. LIII, No. 1108, October-December 2002.

⁸ See: Igor Janev, Legal Aspects of the Use of a Provisional Name for Macedonia in the United Nations System, American Journal of International Law, Vol. 93, No. 1, January 1999.

⁹ Article 2(7) of the UN Charter: “Nothing contained in the present Charter shall authorize the United Nations to intervene in matters which are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of any state...”.

The condition imposed on Macedonia “to be provisionally referred as former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia” instead of its constitutional name Republic of Macedonia, is also contrary to Article 83 of the Vienna Convention on representation of states, which provides that “in application of the present Convention no discrimination shall be made as between states”.¹⁰ The fact that Macedonia is referred as “former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia”, not by its constitutional name, for all purposes within the UN, puts Macedonia in a discriminatory position. This principle of non-discrimination is one aspect of the broader principle of sovereign equality between states, and therefore the additional conditions imposed on Macedonia are in violation of Article 83 of the Vienna Convention.

It should be emphasized that Macedonia’s consent to be referred with the imposed provisional name, being in violation of the UN Charter and contrary to the international legal norms *jus cogens*, does not affect its unlawfulness. States can not consent not to implement or not to be bind by the norms of *jus cogens*. Consent given to an unlawful act cannot eliminate its unlawfulness (*ex injuria jus non oritur*).

3. The Interim Accord and the name issue

In February 1994 Greek government announced the establishment of an economic embargo towards Macedonia, with explanation that the neighboring country refuses to change its name and constitution.¹¹ The Greek embargo, which was contrary to EC laws, ended with conclusion of the Interim Accord on 13 September, 1995,¹² under the mediation of Cyrus Vance, Special Envoy of the Secretary General of the UN, and Richard Holbrooke, US Assistant Secretary of State.

Normalizing bilateral relations with its northern neighbor, Greece has accepted to recognize the statehood and sovereignty of Macedonia, under the provisional name. Both parties declared the existing borders to be permanent and inviolable and they established diplomatic relations (Article 1 and 2).

¹⁰ Vienna Convention on the Representation of States in their Relations with International Organizations of a Universal Character. UN Doc. A/Conf. 67/16, March 14, 1975.

¹¹ See: John Shea, *Macedonia and Greece: The Struggle to Define a New Balkan Nation*, Jefferson, North Carolina and London, Mc Farland and Co., Inc. Publishers, 1997, pp.286-320.

¹² Interim Accord (with related letters and translations of the Interim Accord in the Languages of the Contracting Parties), Greece—the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (signed in New York on 13 September 1995; entered into force on 13 October 1995) 1891 U.N.T.S. I-32193; 34 I.L.M. 1461. It was registered by Greece with the United Nations (with number 32193) on the same day and has been binding on the Parties since that date.

They agreed to cooperate in the field of economic, commercial, ecological and legal relations (articles 15 to 20).

To avoid the name issue, and according to the principle of reciprocity in international law, the names of both countries are omitted from the text and they are referred as the Party of the First Part (Greece) and the Party of the Second Part (Macedonia). Article 1, paragraph 2 of the Interim Accord makes it clear that “The Party of the First Part shall as promptly as possible establish a liaison office in Skopje, the capital of the Party of the Second Part, and the Party of the Second Part shall as promptly as possible establish a liaison office in Athens, the capital of the Party of the First Part”.

Two countries have agreed: to continue their negotiations concerning the name issue in accordance with UN Security Council resolutions (Article 5); that Macedonia will change its national flag featuring the ancient Macedonian “Star of Vergina” (Article 7, paragraph 2); that Greece will not object the admission of Macedonia in international organizations where Greece is a member if former is referred under the provisional name (Article 11); that the International Court of Justice will have jurisdiction to decide for any disputes concerning the interpretation or implementation of the agreement, with the exception of article 5 section 1 (Article 21). The Interim Accord remains in force pursuant to Article 23, paragraph 2, not having been superseded by a definitive agreement or withdrawn from, by 12 months’ written notice from either of the Parties.

This agreement opened the door for the Republic of Macedonia to join international organisations and initiatives, including the Council of Europe, OSCE and Partnership for Peace. Between the conclusion of the Interim Accord and the Bucharest Summit, Macedonia joined at least 15 international organizations of which the Greece was also a member.

The name issue was left open – the Interim Accord enabled the normal functioning of the bilateral relations between the two countries and their relations with other countries and organizations. As Richard Holbrooke wrote, Interim Accord did “no damage to Greece’s basic interests. On the contrary, it gave Athens what it wanted on the flag; removed the economic embargo, which was hurting both nations; and left open the issue of the country’s name – an issue that negotiators could continue to discuss without prejudice to the position of either side”.¹³

4. Negotiations regarding the name issue

The name issue has not yet been resolved. Negotiations regarding the name issue continued under the mediation of Matthey Nimitz as a Special

¹³ See: Richard Holbrooke, *To End a War*, Random House, New York, 1998, p.124.

Envoy of the UN Secretary General. There is no deadline for negotiations neither in UN Resolutions nor in the Interim Accord. In the meantime, a number of states (133 countries, by February 2012) have officially recognized the Republic of Macedonia by its constitutional name.

Various names had been proposed over the years, for instance “New Macedonia”, “Upper Macedonia”, “Slavo-Macedonia”, “Nova Makedonija”, “Macedonia (Skopje)” etc. These were unacceptable for Greece, as “Vardar Republic” or “Republic of Skopje” were not acceptable for Macedonia. During the course of the negotiations, Macedonia showed a degree of openness to proposals that differed from either the sole use of its constitutional name or the “dual formula”. Greece has gradually revised its initial position and in September 2007 declared that it would agree to the term “Macedonia” as part of a compound formulation, with a geographical qualifier, for *erga omnes* use.

Greece contends that the Macedonia has departed from this understanding by pressing for a “dual formula” whereby the negotiations are “limited solely to finding a name for use in the bilateral relations of the Parties” and thus has attempted “unilaterally to redefine the object and purpose of [the] negotiations”.¹⁴ Athens further contends that Macedonia’s continuous use of its constitutional name to refer to itself and its policy of securing third-State recognition under that name deprives the negotiations of their object and purpose. On the other hand, Macedonia emphasizes that the Interim Accord did not prejudice the outcome of the negotiations required by Article 5, paragraph 1, by prescribing that those negotiations result in a single name to be used for all purposes.

As NATO Bucharest summit approached, in March 2008, the United Nations mediator Matthey Nimitz proposed the name “Republic of Macedonia (Skopje)”. Macedonia expressed a willingness to put this name to a referendum, but Greece rejected this proposed name. It is interesting that this proposal Macedonia had rejected in 2005, when Greece had welcomed it. However, feeling itself in a much stronger position, Athens rejected the offer, insisting in particular that the agreed name should apply in all Macedonia’s international relations, bilateral as well as multilateral.¹⁵

¹⁴ Cited in: Judgment, Application of the Interim Accord of 13 September 1995, 5 December 2011, para.128, p.39, <http://www.icj-cij.org/docket/files/142/16827.pdf>

¹⁵ See: International Crisis Group, Macedonia’s Name: Breaking the Deadlock, Pristina/Brussels, 12 January 2009, <http://www.crisisgroup.org/home/index.cfm?id=5862&l=1>. Crisis Group interviews, senior Greek official, November 2008, and international and domestic officials, Skopje, October and November 2008.

Having in mind jus cogens principles of international law, it is clear that aspects being negotiated are in domestic jurisdiction and thus neither United Nations nor Greece do not have the right to interfere in such matters. It is not possible for one to interfere in the choice of one country's name which is the right of a state as legal subject. The state's right to identify itself with certain name is an integral part of the right of self-determination, which belongs in the domain of jus cogens norms.

Even if we assume that negotiation is the obligation for the two countries from UN Security Council's resolutions, although they are unlawful, their bilateral agreement cannot impose obligations on third states to use new name in their relations with one of contracting states. The general rule in international law is that international agreements bind only the parties to them. The reasons for this rule can be found in the fundamental principles of the sovereignty and independence of states, which posit that states must consent to rules before they can be bound by them.¹⁶ The supposed new name would only be used for the purposes within the UN, but can not imply its use by the UN member states, in their respective bilateral relations with Macedonia. Macedonia and Greece in their negotiations can only agree on the aspects of bilateral usage of the name Macedonia, or any other name, but only for the purposes of their bilateral relations.¹⁷

5. The Application of Macedonia before the International Court of Justice

In the Bucharest Summit Declaration, issued on 3 April 2008, NATO provided that, although it "... recognise the hard work and the commitment demonstrated by the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia to NATO values and Alliance operations", "an invitation to (it) will be extended *as soon as a mutually acceptable solution to the name issue has been reached*".¹⁸ NATO admission procedure provides that an invitation to join the Organization can only be extended by unanimous agreement of NATO member States, in accordance with Article 10 of the North Atlantic Treaty.¹⁹

¹⁶ For effects of the treaties upon the third states see: Lj. D. Frckoski, V. Tupurkovski, V. Ortakovski, *International Public Law*, Tabernakul, Skopje, 1995, pp.232-233.

¹⁷ Article 34 of the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties specifies that "a treaty does not create either obligations or rights for a third state without its consent".

¹⁸ Bucharest Summit Declaration Issued by the Heads of State and Government participating in the meeting of the North Atlantic Council in Bucharest on 3 April 2008, Press Release (2008)049 at para. 20, *available at* <http://www.nato.int/docu/pr/2008/p08-049e.html>.

¹⁹ North Atlantic Treaty, 4 April 1949, Art.10, *UNTS*, Vol.34, p.248, Article 10: "The Parties may, by unanimous agreement, invite any other European State in a position to

In November 2008, Republic of Macedonia instituted proceedings against Greece before the International Court of Justice because of a dispute regarding the interpretation and implementation of the Interim Accord. Macedonia sought “to establish the violation by the Respondent²⁰ of its legal obligations under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the Interim Accord and to ensure that the Respondent abides by its obligations under Article 11 of the Interim Accord in relation to invitations or applications that might be made to or by the Applicant for membership of NATO or any other international, multilateral or regional organization or institution of which the Respondent is a member”.

In the Application, Macedonia requests the Court:

a) to adjudge and declare that the Respondent, through its State organs and agents, has violated its obligations under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the Interim Accord;

b) to order that the Respondent immediately take all necessary steps to comply with its obligations under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the Interim Accord, and to cease and desist from objecting in any way, whether directly or indirectly, to the Applicant’s membership of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and/or of any other ‘international, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions of which the Respondent is a member, in circumstances where the Applicant is to be referred to in such organizations or institutions by the designation provided for in paragraph 2 of United Nations Security Council resolution 817 (1993).”

Besides that, in the Reply the Applicant requests the Court: “to reject the Respondent’s objections as to the jurisdiction of the Court and the admissibility of the Applicant’s claims”.²¹

Republic of Macedonia presented clear evidence before the Court that **Greece “objected” to the Macedonia’s admission to NATO**. It refers the Court to diplomatic correspondence of Greece before and after the Bucharest Summit and to statements by senior officials of the Respondent during the same period. For example, Prime Minister, Kostas Karamanlis, in his speech before the Parliament on 22 February 2008, stated that “without a mutually accepted solution to the main issue (to the name difference), there

further the principles of this Treaty and to contribute to the security of the North Atlantic area to accede to this Treaty.”

²⁰ In the Case before the International Court of Justice “Application of the Interim Accord of 13 September 1995” the Respondent is term for Greece; and the Applicant for the Republic of Macedonia.

²¹ Cited in: Judgment, Application of the Interim Accord of 13 September 1995, 5 December 2011, para.48, pp.19-20, <http://www.icj-cij.org/docket/files/142/16827.pdf>

cannot be an invitation to the neighboring country to join the Alliance”.²² Two days before the Bucharest Summit, the Greek Foreign Minister Dora Bakoyannis, in an article published in the International Herald Tribune entitled “Macedonia and NATO: The View from Athens”, stated: “As long as the problem (issue of its name) persists, we cannot and will not endorse FYROM joining NATO or the European Union.”²³ Prime Minister, Kostas Karamanlis, on 3 April, 2008 at the close of the Bucharest Summit delivered a message to the Greek people that: “**Due to Greece’s veto**, FYROM is not joining NATO (...) Skopje will be able to become a member of NATO only after the name issue has been resolved.”²⁴

In spite of this statement of its Prime Minister, in the Counter-Memorial Greece stresses the absence of a formal voting mechanism within NATO, i.e. that there is no means by which a NATO member State can exercise a “veto” over NATO decisions. According to the Respondent, “**Greece did not veto** the FYROM’s accession to NATO . . . It was a *collective* decision made on behalf of the Alliance as a whole.”

The Court concludes that through formal diplomatic correspondence and through statements of its senior officials, the Respondent made clear before, during and after the Bucharest Summit that the resolution of the difference over the name was the “decisive criterion” for the Respondent to accept the Applicant’s admission to NATO. The Respondent manifested its objection to the Applicant’s admission to NATO at the Bucharest Summit, citing the fact that the difference regarding the Applicant’s name remained unresolved.

6. Greece’s objections to jurisdiction of the Court and admissibility of Application

Greece objected to the Court's jurisdiction and to admissibility of Application for several reasons including the parties' express agreement not to adjudicate the name dispute before the ICJ. Athens claims that: **Firstly**, the dispute concerns the difference over the name of the Applicant; **Secondly**, the dispute concerns conduct attributable to NATO and its member States,

²² Professor Sean D. Murphy, The Factual Background: The Respondent’s Opposition to the Applicant’s NATO Membership, Public sitting held on Monday 21 March 2011, at 3 p.m., in the case concerning Application of the Interim Accord of 13 September 1995 (the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia v. Greece), p.45, available at: <http://www.icj-cij.org/docket/files/142/16362.pdf>.

²³ See Dora Bakoyiannis, ‘Macedonia and NATO: The View from Athens’, International Herald Tribune, 31 March 2008, available at <http://www.iht.com/articles/2008/03/31/opinion/edbakoy.php>.

²⁴ Cited in: Judgment, Application of the Interim Accord of 13 September 1995, 5 December 2011, para.77, p.26, <http://www.icj-cij.org/docket/files/142/16827.pdf>

which is not subject to the Court's jurisdiction in the present case; **Thirdly**, the Court's Judgment would be incapable of effective application; **Fourthly**, the exercise of jurisdiction by the Court would interfere with ongoing diplomatic negotiations mandated by the Security Council concerning the difference over the name and thus would be incompatible with the Court's judicial function.

The Court, siding with Macedonia, concluded that the application did not request a settlement of the name dispute but rather concerned Greece's violation of the Interim Accord, thus falling within its jurisdiction. The Court concluded that **it has jurisdiction over the legal dispute submitted to it by the Applicant and finds the Application admissible. The Court stated that objections by the Respondent cannot be upheld** because:

- Application did not request a settlement of the name dispute but rather concerned Greece's violation of the Interim Accord;
- issue before the Court does not concern, as contended by the Respondent, the conduct of NATO or the member States of NATO, but rather solely the conduct of the Respondent;
- Application is admissible and the Court's Judgment would be capable of effective application. Macedonia's seeking a declaration by the Court that the Respondent's conduct violated the Interim Accord represents a legitimate request in a judicial procedure;
- "the fact that negotiations are being actively pursued during the present proceedings is not, legally, any obstacle to the exercise by the Court of its judicial function".²⁵

7. Additional justifications invoked by Greece

a) **Elaborating its additional justifications, Greece** takes the position that partial suspension of the Interim Accord is "justified" under Article 60 of the 1969 Vienna Convention, because of **alleged Macedonia's material breaches of the Interim Accord. Macedonia** contends that the Respondent never alerted the Applicant to any alleged material breach of the Interim Accord and never sought to invoke a right of suspension under Article 60 of the 1969 Vienna Convention. **The Court** concludes that the Respondent has failed to establish that the action which it took in 2008 in connection with the Applicant's application to NATO was a response to the breach of Article 7, paragraph 2, approximately four years earlier. Accordingly, **the Court does not accept that the Respondent's action was capable of falling within Article 60 of the 1969 Vienna Convention.**

²⁵ See: United States Diplomatic and Consular Staff in Tehran (United States of America v. Iran), Judgment, I.C.J. Reports 1980, p.20, para.37.

b) **Greece** argues that its objection to the Applicant's admission to NATO could be justified as a **proportionate countermeasure in response to its breaches of the Interim Accord**. **Macedonia** calls attention to the requirements in the ILC Articles on State Responsibility²⁶ that countermeasures must be taken in response to a breach by the other State, must be proportionate to those breaches and must be taken only after notice to the other State. **The Court concluded that the only breach which has been established by the Respondent is the Applicant's use in 2004 of the symbol prohibited by Article 7, paragraph 2, of the Interim Accord.** ²⁷ **The Court notes that the use of the symbol by the Applicant had ceased as of 2004. Thus, the Court rejects the Respondent's claim that its objection could be justified as a countermeasure precluding the wrongfulness of the Respondent's objection to the Applicant's admission to NATO.**

c) **The Court concludes as follows regarding alleged breach by the Applicant of:**

- **Article 5, paragraph 1, to negotiate in good faith**, that the Respondent has not met its burden of demonstrating that the Applicant breached its obligation to negotiate in good faith. The Court emphasizes that the Interim Accord places the Parties under a duty to negotiate in good faith under the auspices of the Secretary-General of the United Nations pursuant to the pertinent Security Council resolutions with a view to reaching agreement on the difference over the name.

- **Article 6, paragraph 2**, Macedonia not **"to interfere in the internal affairs of another State"**, that the text of Article 6, paragraph 2, addresses only the Applicant's interpretation of its Constitution. The Respondent has presented no convincing evidence to suggest that the Applicant has interpreted its Constitution as providing a right to interfere in the Respondent's internal affairs on behalf of persons not citizens of the Applicant.

- **Article 7, paragraph 1**, that "Each Party shall promptly take effective measures to prohibit **hostile activities or propaganda by State-controlled agencies ...**", that the Respondent refers to history textbooks used in the Applicant's schools that depict a historic "Greater Macedonia" and that present certain historical figures as the ancestors of the Applicant's current population. The Court finds that the textbook content does not

²⁶ International Law Commission Articles on State Responsibility (Annex to General Assembly resolution 56/83, 12 December 2001).

²⁷ Use of the symbol by a regiment of the Applicant's army depicted in a publication of the Applicant's Ministry of Defence in 2004. The Respondent raised its concerns to the Applicant about that use of the symbol at that time and the Applicant asserts that the regiment in question was disbanded in 2004.

provide a basis to conclude that the Applicant has failed to prohibit “hostile activities or propaganda”.

- **Article 7, paragraph 3**, that “If either Party believes one or more **symbols constituting part of its historic or cultural patrimony is being used by the other Party**, the Court stated that the renaming of an airport could not itself constitute a breach. The Court notes that the text of Article 7, paragraph 3, does not expressly prohibit the Applicant from using the symbols that it describes. Rather, it establishes a procedure for situations in which one Party believes the other Party to be using its historical or cultural symbols.²⁸

8. Republic of Macedonia can refer to itself with its constitutional name

One important part of the decision is the Court's interpretation of the "limitation clause," which would allow Greece to object to Macedonia's membership in NATO if it "is to be referred to in such organization or institution differently than in paragraph 2 of the United Nations Security Council resolution 817 (1993)". Greece argued that Applicant referred to itself by its constitutional name, a claim Macedonia did not dispute. In fact, **Republic of Macedonia** maintains that resolution 817 contemplated that the Applicant would refer to itself by its constitutional name (Republic of Macedonia) within the United Nations, asserting that this has been its well-established “practice” since resolution 817 was adopted. Namely, being admitted in international organizations under the provisional designation, Macedonia has been referred to there by that name. However, the Applicant has continued to refer to itself by its constitutional name in its relations with and dealings within those international organizations and institutions.

The Respondent is of the view that the Applicant’s intention to refer to itself in NATO by its constitutional name triggers the exception in the second clause of Article 11, paragraph 1, and thus permitted the Respondent to object to the Applicant’s admission to NATO. In the Respondent’s view, resolution 817 requires the Applicant to refer to itself as the “former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia” within the United Nations.

The Court concludes that nowhere does the Interim Accord require the Applicant to use the provisional designation in its dealings with the Respondent. On the contrary, the “Memorandum on ‘Practical Measures’ Related to the Interim Accord”, concluded by the Parties at the same time

²⁸ If one Party believes the other Party to be using its historical or cultural symbols “it shall bring such alleged use to the attention of the other Party, and the other Party shall take appropriate corrective action or indicate why it does not consider it necessary to do so”.

with the entry into force of the Interim Accord, expressly envisages that the Applicant will refer to itself as the “Republic of Macedonia” in its dealings with the Respondent. The Court sided with Macedonia and concluded that the Interim Accord does not allow Greece "to object to the Applicant's admission to an organization based on the prospect that the Applicant is to refer to itself in such organization with its constitutional name."

9. The Judgment of the Court and its Enforcement

In its Judgment from December 5, 2011, the Court has found fifteen votes to one that Greece breached its obligation under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the 1995 Interim Accord by objecting to the admission of the Republic of Macedonia to NATO.

The Court rejected Macedonia’s second request “to order that the Respondent immediately take all necessary steps to comply with its obligations under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the Interim Accord, and to cease and desist from objecting in any way, whether directly or indirectly, to the Applicant’s membership of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization and/or of any other ‘international, multilateral and regional organizations and institutions of which the Respondent is a member, in circumstances where the Applicant is to be referred to in such organizations or institutions by the designation provided for in paragraph 2 of United Nations Security Council resolution 817 (1993).” The Court explained that “[a]s a general rule, there is no reason to suppose that a State whose act or conduct has been declared wrongful by the Court will repeat that act or conduct in the future, since its good faith must be presumed.”²⁹

The Court accordingly determines that its finding that the Respondent has violated its obligation to the Applicant under Article 11, paragraph 1, of the Interim Accord, constitutes appropriate satisfaction.

The judgment of the Court under article 60 of the Statute is final, binding on the parties to a case and without appeal (at most it may be subject to interpretation or revision). Under article 94 of the UN Charter, a State Member of the United Nations undertakes to comply with any decision of the Court in a case to which it is a party. A State which contends that the other side has failed to perform the obligations incumbent upon it under a judgment rendered by the Court may lay the matter before the Security Council, which is empowered to recommend or decide upon the measures to be taken to give effect to the judgment.

²⁹ Navigational and Related Rights (Costa Rica v. Nicaragua), Judgment, I.C.J. Reports 2009, p. 267, para. 150.

The Court itself is not concerned with compliance and takes the view that ‘once the Court has found that a state has entered into a commitment concerning its future conduct it is not the Court’s function to contemplate that it will not comply with it.’³⁰

There are a few examples of non-compliance with Court’s judgment: e.g. Albania in the *Corfu Channel* case,³¹ Iceland in the *Fisheries Jurisdiction* case³² and Iran in the *Iranian Hostages* case.³³ However, despite initial reservations, both Libya³⁴ and Nigeria³⁵ accepted the judgments of the Court in favour of their opponents in the litigation in question. The political costs of non-compliance have to be taken into account by potentially recalcitrant states.³⁶

10. Conclusion - Legal means for resolving the name issue

What are the legal means available for resolving the name issue? We saw above that UN have imposed additional admission conditions to Macedonia which are not prescribed in UN Charter and are contrary to established principles of jus cogens (self-determination, sovereign equality between states and non-interference in domestic matters, and non-discrimination between states). In that way UN has violated Macedonia’s right to UN membership albeit it fulfilled the prescribed conditions in Article 4 in UN Charter. UN’s legal documents (Security Council Resolution 817 and General Assembly Resolution 47/225) are unlawful and in violation to the UN Charter.

Macedonia can take legal actions regarding the unlawfulness of its admission and status in the United Nations. It should be done through initiation Advisory opinion from the International Court of Justice. After the Court’s possible favorable opinion, Macedonia will make an initiative in the UN General Assembly about the revision of the resolutions that imposed additional conditions, which are not prescribed in Article 4 of the UN Charter. The initiative should be through General Assembly, because of the voting procedures – in the Security Council a consensus is needed between

³⁰ The *Nuclear Tests* case, ICJ Reports, 1974, p. 477. See in: Malcolm N. Shaw, *International Law*, Sixth Edition, Cambridge University Press, 2008, p.1104.

³¹ ICJ Reports, 1949, p. 4; 16 AD, p.155.

³² ICJ Reports, 1974, p. 3; 55 ILR, p.238.

³³ ICJ Reports, 1980, p. 3; 61 ILR, p.530.

³⁴ See the *Libya/ Chad* case, ICJ Reports, 1994, p.40.

³⁵ *Cameroon v. Nigeria*, ICJ Reports, 2002, p.303.

³⁶ C. Paulson, ‘Compliance with Final Judgments of the International Court of Justice since 1987’, 98 AJIL, 2004, p.434. See Malcolm N. Shaw, *International Law*, 6-th Edition, Cambridge University Press, 2008, p.1104.

the five permanent members, and in General Assembly simple majority is needed from the present members.

An important point should be noted here, i.e. that Article 21 of the Interim Accord explicitly forbids any issue in relation to Article 5 to be referred to the ICJ. It means the name issue. But it is not an obstacle for initiating advisory opinion by the ICJ, which can be done by UN organs provided for in the UN Charter³⁷ or authorized by them. According to Article 65 of the Statute of the ICJ, the official request for advisory opinion should come from UN General Assembly in a form of legal document containing a question that needs interpretation from the ICJ.

The question referred to the ICJ should be formulated as: "Is the Resolution 47/225 (1993) of the General Assembly, and the Resolution 817 (1993) of the Security Council, in their parts relating to denomination 'the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia', with the requirement for settlement of the 'difference that has arisen over the name of the State' legally in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations?"³⁸

The substance of this question is not the name issue but the legality of additionally imposed conditions for admission which are not prescribed in the UN Charter. So, Article 21 of the Interim Accord is not a problem for referring the question to the ICJ.

International Court of Justice "may" give advisory opinion (it is not an obligation for the Court, who can turn down the request). Its advisory opinions are not binding.³⁹ However, the possibility for the Court to deny the request for advisory opinion in the case of Macedonia's admission to the UN is very low. This is because of the importance of the legal question and of a possible serious breach of the UN Charter by the two most important UN organs (Security Council and General Assembly). These violations are contrary to the Court's Opinion in the Admission of State to the UN Case of 1948,⁴⁰ as well. That Advisory Opinion is specific case of an established general rule. The Court held that the conditions set forth in Article 4 of the

³⁷ Article 96 of the UN Charter: "1. The General Assembly or Security Council may request International Court of Justice to give an advisory opinion on any legal question; 2. Other organs of the United Nations and specialized agencies, which may at the time be so authorized by the General Assembly, may also request advisory opinions of the Court on legal questions arising within the scope of their activities".

³⁸ See: Igor Janev, Proposal for Resolving the Dispute Over the Name of the Republic of Macedonia, MakNews, July 2003.

³⁹ Tatjana Petrusevska, What is the role of UN in solving the Macedonian-Greek issue?, in: Svetomir Shkarik, Dimitar Apasiev, Vladimir Patcev, Name Issue between Greece and Macedonia – student's project, Skopje, Official Gazette of RM, 2008.

⁴⁰ Admission of State to the United Nations (UN Charter, Article 4), Advisory Opinion, ICJ Reports 1948, p.57.

UN Charter are exhaustive, and not only necessary but sufficient for admission. SC and GS verify that existence the applicant state acquires a right of being admitted in to membership, and no additional conditions can be imposed. This Advisory opinion of the ICJ was accepted as binding by General Assembly.⁴¹

After the Court's possible favorable opinion, the Security Council should adopt new resolution to annul paragraph 2 of the SC Resolution 817, and proclaim that Macedonia will be referred under its constitutional name for all purposes within the UN. It doesn't mean that Greece would recognize Republic of Macedonia under that name. The name dispute would be back for resolving on the bilateral level as a political issue. Greece and Macedonia could negotiate for a different name that would be used in their bilateral relations and finally sign an agreement which will put an end to the dispute.

Bibliography

1. Admission of State to the United Nations (UN Charter, Article 4), Advisory Opinion, ICJ Reports 1948.
2. Smilja Avramov, Milenko Kreka, International Public Law, Official Gazette, Beograd, 2009.
3. Bucharest Summit Declaration Issued by the Heads of State and Government participating in the meeting of the North Atlantic Council in Bucharest on 3 April 2008, *available at* <http://www.nato.int/docu/pr/2008/p08-049e.html>,
4. Cameroon v. Nigeria Case, ICJ Reports, 2002.
5. Lj. D. Frckoski, V. Tupurkovski, V. Ortakovski, International Public Law, Tabernakul, Skopje, 1995.
6. Thomas D. Grant, The Recognition of States: Law and Practice in Debate and Evolution, Praeger Publishers, 1999.
7. Rosalyn Higgins, The Development of International Law Through the Political Organs of the United Nations, Oxford, 1963.
8. Richard Holbrooke, To End a War, Random House, New York, 1998,
9. Interim Accord, 1891 U.N.T.S. I-32193; 34 I.L.M.1461.
10. International Crisis Group, Macedonia's Name: Breaking the Deadlock, Pristina/Brussels, 12 January 2009. <http://www.crisisgroup.org/home/index.cfm?id=5862&l=1>,

⁴¹ UN General Assembly Resolution 197 (III, Part A), 177-th Plenary meeting, December 8, 1948.

11. International Law Commission Articles on State Responsibility (Annex to General Assembly resolution 56/83, 12 December 2001).
12. Igor Janev, Legal Aspects of the Use of a Provisional Name for Macedonia in the United Nations System, *American Journal of International Law*, Vol. 93, No.1, January 1999.
13. Igor Janev, Proposal for Resolving the Dispute over the Name of the Republic of Macedonia, *MakNews*, July 2003.
14. Igor Janev, Some Remarks of the Legal Status of Macedonia in the United Nations Organization, *Review of International Affairs*, Vol. LIII, No. 1108, October-December 2002.
15. Milenko Kreka, *International Public Law*, Official Gazette, Beograd, 2009.
16. Libya/ Chad case, *ICJ Reports*, 1994.
17. Dimitar Mircev, *The Macedonian Foreign Policy 1991-2006*, Az-Buki, Skopje, 2006.
18. Nicaragua case, *International Court of Justice Reports*, 1986.
19. North Atlantic Treaty, 4 April 1949, Art. 10, *UNTS*, Vol.34.
20. Nuclear Tests Case, *International Court of Justice Reports* 1974.
21. Vladimir Ortakovski, *The Dispute between the Republic of Macedonia and Greece before the International Court of Justice*, in: *Security in the Post-Conflict (Western) Balkans: Transition and Challenges Faced by the Republic of Macedonia*, Vol.II, Skopje, 2011.
22. C. Paulson, 'Compliance with Final Judgments of the International Court of Justice since 1987', 98 *AJIL*, 2004.
23. Tatjana Petrushevska, What is the role of UN in solving the Macedonian-Greek issue?, in: Svetomir Shkarik, Dimitar Apasiev, Vladimir Patcev, *Name Issue between Greece and Macedonia – student's project*, Skopje, Official Gazette of RM, 2008.
24. M. Rajan, *United Nations and Domestic Jurisdiction*, 2nd edn, London, 1961.
25. Republic of Macedonia – Documents, 1990-2005, S. Georgievski, S. Dodevski, Faculty of Law "Justinian I", Skopje, 2008.
26. R. Rosenstock, 'The Declaration on Principles of International Law Concerning Friendly Relations', 65 *American Journal of International Law*, 1971.
27. Malcolm N. Shaw, *International Law*, Sixth edn., Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2008.
28. John Shea, *Macedonia and Greece: The Struggle to Define a New Balkan Nation*, Jefferson, North Carolina and London, Mc Farland and Co., Inc. Publishers, 1997.
29. *United States Diplomatic and Consular Staff in Tehran (United States of America v. Iran)*, Judgment, *I.C.J. Reports* 1980.

30. Vienna Convention on the Representation of States in their Relations with International Organizations of a Universal Character. UN Doc. A/Conf. 67/16, March 14, 1975.

NATO'S NEW STRATEGIC CONCEPT AND TRANSFORMATION OF THE DEFENSE-SECURITY SECTOR IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Snezana Nikodinovska-Stefanovska, Ph.D.

snikodinovska@fb.uklo.edu.mk

Marjan Gjurovski, M.A.

mgjurovski@fb.uklo.edu.mk

Faculty of Security-Skopje, Macedonia

Abstract

At the Lisbon Summit in 2010 NATO formally agreed to adopt a New Strategic Concept. NATO's basic text-the Washington Treaty of 1949, was once again, re-interpreted within a special geopolitical context to fit an ever-changing strategic landscape. The New Strategic Concept entitled "Active Engagement, Modern Defense" is projected to confer a new strategic direction on NATO and inform the world about why NATO is still vital and vigorous.

The text analyses NATO's New Strategic Concept-what it reaffirms and what is really new. Also the meaning of the Concept for Republic of Macedonia is considered in the light of Macedonian Defense Strategy that is base for Macedonian security sector transformation in accordance with the guidelines presented in NATO's New Strategic Concept.

Keywords: NATO, New Strategic Concept, Defence Strategy of the Republic of Macedonia, defense

Introduction

NATO, currently the most dominant military-political alliance, has survived despite the tectonic geopolitical, geo-economic, and geo-strategic changes which have resulted from the breakdown of a polarized world. NATO is the strongest alliance in terms of numbers of members; its territorial expediency; its wealth, based on members' GDPs; its effectiveness in terms of military technological power; numbers of its members in the most military-political alliances; a member of which is often the world's biggest power-the U.S. However, in many ways the practical implementation of the goals of NATO in the new world order, which comprise everything from classic military operations to humanitarian rescues, the fight against computer hackers, and assurance of energy security, increasingly reveals a

lack of unity within the Northern Atlantic Treaty Organization that surely adds to its lack of efficiency in the field. This lack of efficiency in the implementation, according to many, to diverse a spectrum of tasks, set out by NATO itself, unquestionably plays a role in reducing and weakening the credibility of the Alliance among its individual members, and especially in the broader international community.¹ When the survival of the Alliance was won through its reconstitution, it was clear to everyone in the post-polarized world that NATO had to radically transform itself, in accordance with the newly-emerged European and global reality.

On 19 November 2010 NATO formally agreed to adopt a New Strategic Concept. NATO family endorsed an updated understanding of what the core purpose of the Atlantic Alliance is at the Lisbon Summit. NATO's basic text - the Washington Treaty of 1949 - was once again reinterpreted within a special geopolitical context to fit an ever-changing strategic landscape. The New Strategic Concept entitled "Active Engagement, Modern Defense" is projected to confer a new strategic direction on NATO and inform the world about why the NATO is still vital and vigorous.

The achievement of regional security will be made easier with the entrance of other countries from the Southeastern European Region to NATO: NATO expansion has occurred since the establishment of new democracies in Eastern Europe and, in the writings of some analysts, it was, until Afghanistan, the main forum in which successful NATO politics were expended. Today, expansion within the bounds of Mid-Europe, the Baltic region, and part of the Balkans is finalized, with only some countries awaiting formal admission -Macedonia or states such as Montenegro and Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H) invited to join the Membership Action Plan.²

The integration of the Republic of Macedonia in NATO represents a top foreign-political priority of the country. In order to accomplish that goal, long-term efforts are being invested in continuity in all spheres: political, economical, defense, security. Macedonia satisfied all the criteria for membership in NATO and is fully prepared to undertake the responsibilities and obligations that arise from the membership in the Alliance.

NATO's Strategic Concepts

The Strategic Concept is a periodical exercise, updating and reinterpreting NATO's mission, role and tasks. Its core function is to identify

¹ Čehulić L.: „Where is NATO heading to?“, Security, June 2008, No.3, 46-49.

² Čehulić L.: „Regional security should be integrated into the new strategic concept“, Democracy and Security in Southeastern Europe”, Volume.1, 2010.

elements of continuity, formalize innovations, and define a new strategic direction orienting the Alliance's action within a mid-term time period. It also serves another crucial purpose, that is, to revive public support by spelling out – in the clearest possible terms – why NATO, in spite of the burden and the obligations that come with it, is still of vital importance to its member states.³ Formulating a Strategic Concept is also an opportunity for the allies to reaffirm their longstanding loyalty to the core principles of the North Atlantic Treaty: protection of member states' security and free institutions, collective defence, and the commitment to contributing to world stability and peace. The Strategic Concept is the core NATO document that establishes and reflects transatlantic consensus. Clearly, as the security environment that NATO has to deal with changes, so the Alliance's Strategic Concept has to be periodically updated.

The last Concept dates from 1999, a time when NATO had 19 members compared to the 28 it has today and when NATO's focus was very much on challenges within Europe or on Europe's periphery.

At the Strasbourg / Kehl Summit of April 2009, the heads of state and government of NATO member states endorsed a "Declaration on the Alliance's Security" in which, among other things, they tasked Secretary General Anders Fogh Rasmussen with working on a new Strategic Concept to be formally approved at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010. The last strategic document dates back to April 1999.

On 19-20 November in Lisbon, the 22nd Summit of the NATO member states was held. It was dedicated to the adoption of a new strategic concept and of a number of other documents defining the Alliance's policy in the coming decade.⁴ The most important document adopted during the Lisbon summit is a New Strategic Concept of the Alliance entitled "Active Engagement, Modern Defence". In accordance with the logic of previous documents of this importance, the concept is intended to specify NATO's objectives, the tasks which have been set before the Alliance, and how they are to be implemented by the end of 2020. In contrast to previous concepts, this presents and shows changes in the approach to the very role of the NATO's concept. It is now increasingly clear that the strategic concept is intended to form the basis for further discussions and negotiations among the allies on how to implement the points of the concept, rather than a clear interpretation for the process of NATO's defence planning and policy. This

³ Alcaro R., *Combining Realism with Vision Options for NATO's new Strategic Concept*, Istituto Affari Internazionali, DOCUMENTI IAI 10 | 07 – May 2010, p.1.

⁴ See more: Wilk A., *NATO after the Lisbon summit: the Consequences for Central and Eastern Europe*, EASTWEEK, issue 39(232), 24 November 2010, Centre for Eastern Studies, p.2.

no longer constitutes a “guide for the further adaptation of the armed forces” as recorded in the concept adopted in Washington in April 1999, but is in fact a “guide for the next phase of NATO’s evolution”, although it does not specify what this is based on, or how to proceed. With the adoption of the New Strategic Concept NATO sought to bring its basic interests and strategic thinking into line with the security environment as it has evolved since 1999 when the Alliance adopted its last Strategic Concept. The New Strategic Concept is projected to confer a new strategic direction on NATO and to inform the world about why the Atlantic Alliance is still vital and vigorous.⁵

The North Atlantic Treaty (so-called Washington Treaty) of 1949, NATO’s founding document, finds its concretisation in the Alliance’s Security Concept, which is constantly reviewed and periodically updated. The Treaty itself, with its commitment to international peace, security and justice, remains valid to the freedom, common heritage and civilization of its people founded on the principles of democracy, individual liberty and the rule of law.

Since the inception of the Atlantic Alliance in 1949 NATO has produced six *bona fides* Strategic Concepts.⁶ A distinction is needed between the Security Concepts of the Cold War and those of the post Cold War eras. The Cold War Security Concepts were explicit. They addressed an easily identifiable adversary, the SSSR, and set out to define guidelines for the Alliance’s military defence. It divided the Alliance into geographical regions and development guidelines for each of them.

NATO’s post Cold War Strategic Concepts have been more ambiguous than their predecessors. Evidently, part of the reason for this has to do with the new security environment, which is marked with risks that are difficult to predict. Post Cold War Security Concepts must inform the world what NATO is about, now that its adversary has gone, it must mobilise support at home and prepare the Alliance for engagements that cannot predict but which will surely be demanding.

The Strategic Concept adopted in 2010 is the Alliance’s third post Cold War Strategic Concept, although in some ways it is number three and a half. NATO’s first Strategic Concept was published at the Rome Summit in November 1991. This was then updated and revised at Washington Summit in April 1999 in time for the Alliance’s fiftieth anniversary. This second post

⁵ Ringsmose J., Rynning S., *Tacking Stock of NATO’s New Strategic Concept* in: NATO’s New Strategic Concept: A Comprehensive Assessment, DIIS: 02, Danish Institute for International Studies, p.7.

⁶ The six Strategic Concepts are: DC 6/1 (1949), MC 3/5 (1952), MC 14/2 (1957), MC 14/3 (1968), the Alliance’s New Strategic Concept (1991), Alliance’s Strategic Concept (1999), and the Strategic Concept *Active Engagement, Modern Defence* (2010).

Cold War concept, stood until the Lisbon Summit. But, by 2004-2005, following the terrorist attacks of 11/9 and NATO's growing engagement in Afghanistan, the issue of whether the second Concept was in need of revision or maybe even replacement was being raised. Given the lack of political agreement within the Alliance, mostly because of the disputes over the Iraq war, a decision was made to upgrade only the part of the SC that dealt with military implications. The result was the approval of the so-called Comprehensive Political Guidance (CPG) at the NATO Riga Summit in November 2006. So, the post Cold War track record consists of three Strategic Concepts and one CPG.

NATO's New Strategic Concept-ambitious content

Strategic concepts are usually difficult exercises for institutions. If they result in too much reaffirmation of the status quo they can be seen as an expensive waste of time and effort. If they produce too much innovation or new directions, the institution's relevance can be questioned. Is it looking for a new role because its traditional tasks are now redundant? So the most successful strategic concepts tend to be those that reaffirm and renew at the same time.

The Strategic Concept that NATO adopted at its Lisbon Summit in November 2010 reflects this balance between old and new. It is marked by both continuity and change. What reaffirms and what new NATO's New Strategic Concept offers?

Although the Concept itself is a radical departure from the previous 1991 and 1999 versions, in being short and written in clear, non-diplomatic language, the contents themselves seem to be familiar. Many of the basic themes characterising earlier Strategic Concepts are clearly presented in the document. The core function and tasks remain largely the same. The content of the document revolves around "three essential core tasks":

- ✚ *Collective defence:* NATO members will always assist each other against attack, in accordance with the Article 5 of the Washington Treaty that commitment remains firm and binding. NATO will deter and defend against any threat of aggression, and against emerging security challenges where they threaten the fundamental security of individual Allies or the Alliance as a whole.
- ✚ *Crisis management:* NATO has a unique and robust set of political and military capabilities to address the full spectrum of crises—before, during and after conflicts. NATO will actively employ an appropriate mix of those political and military tools to help manage developing crises that have the potential to affect Alliance security, before they

escalate into conflicts; to stop ongoing conflicts where they affect Alliance security; and to help consolidate stability in post-conflict situations where that contributes to Euro-Atlantic security.

✚ *Cooperative security*: The Alliance is affected by, and can affect, political and security developments beyond its borders. The Alliance will engage actively to enhance international security, through partnership with relevant countries and other international organizations; by contributing actively to arms control, nonproliferation and disarmament; and by keeping the door to membership in the Alliance open to all European democracies that meet NATO's standards.⁷

The Concept affirms Article 5 but globalises the thinking behind it: NATO must, as always, "protect and defend" but now against present threats and the foreseeable future such as proliferation of nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction, cyber attacks, international terrorism, threats to critical energy infrastructure, and emerging technologies. The predominant threats the Concept singles out are unconventional and transnational or global.

The New Strategic Concept does not prioritise between "three essential core tasks" – defence, crisis management tasks and cooperative security. In contrast to the 1991 and the 1999 Concepts, the 2010 SC lists crisis management and cooperative security as tasks almost on par with collective defence. Namely, they are not, as they were in the 1999 Concept, listed as second order tasks. This change in the hierarchy of tasks is not trivial. It is one clear sign of more global and political NATO.⁸ Recognising that crises and conflicts beyond NATO's borders can impact Alliance security, it declares prevention and management of crisis as well as stabilisation of post-conflict situations and support of the reconstruction as necessary NATO engagements.

The elaboration of the third core task - promoting international security through cooperation - starts with arms control. Even most parts merely codify established principles the section does contain a more ambitious wording. Namely Alliance is willing to "create the conditions for a world without nuclear weapons"⁹ than the 1999 document.

⁷ "Strategic Concept For the Defense and Security of The Members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization", adopted by Heads of State and Government in Lisbon, Active Engagement, Modern Defence, t.4 available at: <http://www.nato.int/lisbon2010/strategic-concept-2010-eng.pdf>

⁸ Ringsmose J., Rynning S., *Tacking Stock of NATO 's New Strategic Concept*: NATO's New Strategic Concept: A Comprehensive Assessment, DIIS:02, Danish Institute for International Studies, page 15.

⁹ Active Engagement, Modern Defence, t.26.

The scope of the challenges and risks included in the new concept highlights two approaches to NATO's future, which have competed with each other since the end of the Cold War. One sees NATO as a political-military alliance which deals with the defence of territory and the interests of its members; the other sees it as a political organisation which is responsible for the construction of cooperative security in Europe. Neither the New Strategic Concept nor the other documents from the summit have unambiguously resolved these discussions. This is demonstrated, among other things, by a description of the international security environment in which (while not excluding the possibility that risks of a military nature may emerge) the highest-priority challenges for the Alliance are listed as the following: the proliferation of missile technology and weapons of mass destruction; terrorism and all types of activity concerning cross-border organised crime; the security of telecommunication networks (cyber-warfare), communication and energy supply routes; the militarisation of space; epidemics; climate change, and water shortages. It should thus be assumed that the final interpretation of the new strategic concept will be made on the basis of international developments, the major allies' political interests, and financial constraints related to the global economic crisis.

Though the New Strategic Concept did not focus on the Western Balkans, the continuation of NATO's 'open door' policy was received with great reassurance by all countries in the region currently striving for full membership, such as Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Montenegro, respectively.

Defence Strategy of the Republic of Macedonia

The Defence Strategy of the Republic of Macedonia is a document that provides strategic guidelines for the development and functioning of the defence system of the Republic of Macedonia until 2015.

The Strategy is derived from the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, the Law on Defence, the National Security Strategy and the strategic determination of the Government of the Republic of Macedonia for integration in the Euro-Atlantic structures. The defence policy of the Republic of Macedonia has fully accepted the principles, objectives and tasks derived from the NATO Strategic Concept, NATO Comprehensive Political Guidance from the Summit in Riga in 2006 and the European Security Strategy from 2003.

We live in a time of unconventional threats. The last several years have brought significant changes in the strategic environment in the Republic of Macedonia, which have been considerably modified and improved. Still

other new threats, risks and challenges exist, and they impose the need to find new answers.

Starting in 2003, the Republic of Macedonia has initiated a comprehensive transformation of the defence system. The achieved success in defence reforms comes as a result of the continuous interdepartmental coordination and consultations with the RM Parliament and RM Government¹⁰.

Taking into consideration the achievements, the Defence Strategy links the future security threats, risks and challenges of national security with the development of required ARM capabilities and serves as a basis for fulfilment of strategic defence missions. The focus of the Strategy is to establish a consistent defence system with a small and more flexible Army, capable of rapid deployment and ready to meet national and international obligations. The Defence Strategy provides a long-term vision for defence system development, for integration with NATO political and military structures, for development of capabilities contributing to collective Alliance self-defence, and for contributing to international operations.

The Strategy, based on the assessment of future security threats, risks and challenges to national security, determines the strategic defence missions and guidelines for attaining them, provides vision for development of the capacities of the Ministry of Defence (MoD) and the Army of the Republic of Macedonia (ARM), identifies the required resources for maintenance and development of the defence system and provides guidelines for political and military integration into NATO.

The Defence Strategy contributes to maintaining the continuity of the political consensus in society related to the development of the defence system, for establishment of a joint vision for the future defence needs and for constant improvement of cooperation among the defence system entities.

The Defence Strategy is harmonized with the obligations and responsibilities, which would arise from the membership of the Republic of Macedonia in NATO and the EU. Through active participation in the Partnership for Peace (PfP), Planning and Review Process (PARP), the Membership Action Plan (MAP), and the European Security and Defence Policy (ESDP), the Republic of Macedonia has established broad defence cooperation with NATO and EU nations.

The Republic of Macedonia belongs to the Euro-Atlantic region and its security is closely bound to the security of the Alliance, the region and the overall international security. Hence, the political, defence and military integration in NATO is a vital interest for our country.

¹⁰ www.morm.gov.mk

The NATO “open door” policy and maintenance of a strong Trans-Atlantic link are of crucial importance for the security of Europe.

The Republic of Macedonia has a broad political and societal consensus in support of our strategic determination for active participation in building security and stability in the Euro-Atlantic area.

In the long term, the Republic of Macedonia will develop operational capacities for deployable and sustainable forces, trained and equipped for deployment in international operations. The long term contribution in international operations is going to increase gradually in accordance with the national interests and development of ARM operational and deployable capabilities.

Participation in NATO collective self-defence

Upon achieving full-fledged membership in NATO, the ARM will participate in the collective self-defence of member countries in order to renew and maintain security in the North-Atlantic area. To this end, the Republic of Macedonia has conducted comprehensive national reforms in accordance with the requirements from the NATO Membership Action Plan, and in this process has fully prepared its institutions for taking over the responsibilities which derive from membership in the Alliance.

For contribution to the overall spectrum of UN, NATO and EU-led operations, the Republic of Macedonia will develop and maintain deployable capabilities on the level of 50% of the overall structure of the ARM land forces. Upon NATO request, the ARM will contribute by deploying maximum military force at the level of one medium infantry battalion group (MIGB) and a National Support Element (NSE).

In order to respond to the complex requirements for defending the country and NATO and all future national and international obligations, the defense system of the Republic of Macedonia has been continuously built and developed based on:

- Assessments of the contemporary security challenges, and risks and threats at the national, regional and global level;
- Requirements deriving from strategic missions;
- National resources and projected economic conditions;
- Lessons learned from the participation in international operations.¹¹

New Strategic Concept clarifies both what NATO should be doing for each Ally and what each Ally should be doing for NATO, thus highlighting the mutually beneficial system of collective defense and

¹¹ www.morm.gov.mk

security.¹² This can only be maintained, though, if member countries invest equal efforts in the process. Therefore, countries from the Balkans need to be aware that joining this organization will bring the benefits of security, long-term peace, and stability in the region, along with encouraging economic development. In this respect, Macedonia has understood the benefits that NATO membership can bring and is therefore working fervently toward ascension. Macedonians also understand the obligations of NATO membership and this is obvious both in consistent progress toward defense reform and in the participation of Macedonian soldiers in international operations. Feedback from the Allies and recognition received by Macedonian soldiers in recent years are confirmation of a successful outcome.¹³

The 21st century world evolves by the day and presents security issues that are more deeply embedded in societal processes than ever. The “NATO 2020” analysis by the Group of Experts clearly illustrates the concerns of the modern world; a world with security threats and challenges that go beyond borders, and which require joint efforts and crucial global partnerships for resolution, meaning that the internal issues of bilateral disputes and the domestic problems of national politics belong to different times. The world must put narrow-minded political interests aside and take responsibility for becoming a part of a global citizenry.

The Alliance admits that it needs to resolve internal issues and, therefore, should be expected to undergo administrative reforms as well as changes to its model for public outreach, which reflects one of the core values of the Alliance – transparency and inclusivity. NATO is fully aware that, despite its existence for 63 years so far, if it wishes to be successfully engaged in the global arena as the world’s foremost security institution, it must go through a process of transformation and redefinition in order to insure sustainability in an evolving and versatile international environment.

Why is the NATO’s New Strategic Concept, so important for Macedonia? Because of all the reasons mentioned above and many others; because of the long, complex, and sometimes painful road that the country has been traveling for almost two decades. With the contributions of Macedonia, Macedonians have demonstrated that they are a commendable NATO partner with the capacity to take advantage of the benefits, but also to have a share in the burden and responsibilities, that stem from NATO membership – because we share common values with the Euro-Atlantic

¹² NATO 2020: Assured Security; Dynamic Engagement, Analysis and Recommendations of the Group of Experts on a New Strategic Concept for NATO, issued on 17 May 2010. (http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natolive/official_texts_63654.htm)

¹³ Radeva B.: „A Roadmap for the Alliance, a Roadmap for the Region“, Democracy and Security in Southeastern Europe”, Volume.1, 2010.

community. Macedonia cannot cope by itself with global threats including nuclear weapons, cyber threats, or natural disasters of a large scale. The joint effort of the Allies against any threat to Macedonia will be more easily deterred if the country acts as part of the Alliance. It will enable greater security with fewer resources, the benefits of collective security. Moreover, the New Strategic Concept is very important for Macedonia because it offers guidelines for further transformation of the defense policy, including what kind of new capabilities need to be developed, ideal command structure, appropriate equipment, and the types of missions that Macedonian Armed Forces should be prepared for.

Macedonia is determined to become a member of the Alliance. As a future member, the Strategic Concept will shape the country's future contributions to global security, because each vote in NATO's society is of equal matters. Although Macedonia is a small nation, it can walk tall within the Alliance. In this way, Macedonia can be a factor which influences global ebbs and flows in a world that becomes more diverse by the day.¹⁴

Conclusion

When we talk about the New Strategic Concept of NATO, we need to be aware of the fact that it is a document that will define the future of global relations in this 21st century world which we live in. NATO has become an agent and a catalyst for strengthening liberal democratic values and for the integration of disparate states into alliances based on political and ideological consensus. This is a role not foreseen by its creators. The Washington Treaty was originally envisaged to last for only 20 years, by which time it was thought that the postwar recovery of Europe would be completed and the need for a transatlantic defense pact would become obsolete. Few would have thought that NATO could outlast the Cold War and thrive in such a different security environment.

The reason NATO transitioned from a temporary to a permanent institution is simple – because the need for Europe and North America to face security challenges together is ceaseless. This partnership is as relevant and as necessary today as it was in 1949. The need for a transatlantic institutional framework that allows for political consultation, joint decision making, and common action has not disappeared but has in fact become even more essential. Security has a new meaning in the 21st Century. Threats to security have changed significantly in the last decades. The proliferation of missile technology and weapons of mass destruction; terrorism and all types of activity concerning cross-border organised crime; the security of

¹⁴ “Democracy and Security in Southeastern Europe”, Volume.1, 2010.

telecommunication networks (cyber-warfare), communication and energy supply routes; the militarisation of space; epidemics; climate change, and water shortages are the highest-priority challenges for the Alliance.

Radical religious interpretations have mutated into a global franchise. Cyber attacks can seriously destabilize one country. Nuclear proliferation is a concern. Competition for resources – including the basic needs of human life, like water and food – are already fueling conflict. NATO is the most enduring and successful alliance in history, remaining the ultimate guarantor of the security of member states.

NATO's Strategic Concept, adopted at the Lisbon Summit in late 2010, aims to respond to new threats and challenges that will dominate the next decade. The Alliance has formally completed its post-Cold War transition and it is no longer just a classic defensive organization, as was cited in its earlier policy documents.

The New Strategic Concept entitled as *Active engagement, modern defence* formally maintains the status quo in terms of the Alliance's three main missions: collective defence (which is listed first, with reference to Article 5 of the Washington Treaty), crisis management, and cooperative security. It does not assign a priority to any of these three missions, whose actual importance can only be assessed on the basis of NATO's future activity. However, the largest part by volume of the new concept are crisis management and preventive actions: arms control, disarmament and non-proliferation, as well as cooperation (partnership) to strengthen the security of countries outside the Alliance (principally Russia), and with international organisations, while maintaining the so-called 'open door' principle (i.e. the possible accession to NATO of more European countries which comply with democratic standards).

Euro-Atlantic security is best assured through a wide network of partner relationships with countries and organizations around the globe. For this reason, cooperative security is identified as one of NATO's three essential core tasks in NATO's new Strategic Concept, adopted at the Lisbon Summit in November 2010. Special importance in changed international relations is increasingly given to various partnerships through which NATO can legitimately influence the security and stability of the international order. Regardless of the strength and power of its members, the Alliance will not be able to play an independent role in the international political arena; therefore, partnerships with EU, UN, OSCE, but also with Russia and other regional organizations and countries, are crucially important. In the next ten years, the area of South-East Europe should be defined in security terms, which means that all countries of the region could and need to be formally integrated into Euro-Atlantic political and security space.

Though the New Strategic Concept did not focus on the Western Balkans, the continuation of NATO's 'open door' policy was received with great reassurance by all countries in the region currently striving for full membership, such as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia and Montenegro, respectively.

Macedonia is determined to become a member of the Alliance. As a future member, the Strategic Concept will shape the country's future contributions to global security, because each vote in NATO's society is of equal matters. Although Macedonia is a small nation, it can walk tall within the Alliance. In this way, Macedonia can be a factor which influences global ebbs and flows in a world that becomes more diverse by the day.

Bibliography

1. Alcaro R., *Combining Realism with Vision Options for NATO's new Strategic Concept*, Istituto Affari Internazionali, DOCUMENTI IAI 10 | 07 – May 2010.
2. Čehulić L. „Where is NATO heading to?“, *Security*, June 2008, No.3, 46-49.
3. Čehulić L. „Regional security should be integrated into the new strategic concept“, *Democracy and Security in Southeastern Europe*”, Volume.1, 2010.
4. “Democracy and Security in Southeastern Europe”, Volume.1, 2010.
5. Ringsmose J. and Sten Rynning, *Tacking Stock of NATO 's New Strategic Concept: NATO's New Strategic Concept: A Comprehensive Assessment*, DIIS:02, Danish Institute for International Studies.
6. Radeva B., „A Roadmap for the Alliance, a Roadmap for the Region“, *Democracy and Security in Southeastern Europe*”, Volume.1, 2010.
7. NATO 2020: Assured Security; Dynamic Engagement, Analysis and Recommendations of the Group of Experts on a New Strategic Concept for NATO, issued on 17 May 2010. Available at http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natolive/official_texts_63654.htm
8. “Strategic Concept For the Defense and Security of The Members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization” , adopted by Heads of State and Government in Lisbon, Active Engagement, Modern Defence, available at: <http://www.nato.int/lisbon2010/strategic-concept-2010-eng.pdf>
9. Wilk A., *NATO after the Lisbon summit: the consequences for Central and Eastern Europe*, EASTWEEK, issue 39(232), 24 November 2010, Centre for Eastern Studies.
10. www.nato.int

??

Апстракт

На Самитот во Лисабон во 2010 година НАТО формално се согласи да го усвои Новиот стратегиски концепт (НСК). Базичниот текст на НАТО Вашингтонскиот договор од 1949 година беше уште еднаш реинтерпретиран во рамките на посебниот геополитички контекст за да одговара на стратешката околина која постојано се менува. НСК насловен „Активно ангажирање, модерна одбрана“ предвидува нови насоки за НАТО и го информира светот зошто НАТО е сеуште витален и силен.

Текстот го анализира НСК на НАТО - што тој реafirмира а што нуди ново. Исто така се разгледува значењето на НСК за РМ во контекст на Стратегијата за одбрана на РМ која е основа за трансформација на македонскиот безбедносен сектор согласно насоките содржани во НСК на НАТО.

Клучни зборови: НАТО, Нов Стратешки Концепт (НСК), Стратегија за одбрана на Република Македонија, одбрана

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATION FOR REGIONAL PEACE AND SECURITY

Trajan Gocevski, Ph.D.

Faculty of Philosophy-Skopje

1. The Role of EU and NATO in the Region

1

We live in a world which becomes more and more globalized slowly but surely. Everything which some time ago was from a local or regional character has now become worldly – global: the economy has become global, wars have become global, the pollution of the environment has become global, the telecommunications and traffic also. Crime from all proveniences has gained global dimensions. In history so far, people have never been so much connected through different means of communication, nobody can live isolated, as an individual nor as a community. All events, political, cultural, economical, religious, cannot stay trapped into small local or regional boundaries. In that way the consequences from the wars in the Persian Gulf or the conflicts in Ireland, India, Sudan in the Middle East and the Balkans or Indonesia create problems for the neighboring countries but also for the world community as a whole.

In this globalized world the connection and the mutual dependence between peoples is growing, therefore the conscience for the need of dialogue and tolerance between people, cultures and religions has to grow also because that is what the future of all human kind will depend on. Nor one kind of culture, neither the culture of dialogue is innate and understandable just by itself, but it is a fruit of lengthy insistence of peoples and individuals, especially of religious and political leaders.

The world in which we live today gains an unseen epochal dynamics.

We witness a technological – information process which creates a global economy and shapes a global world system in all fields equally.

Through the process of global dependence all our images of the world are being transformed, the national identity is lost, national structures of all kinds are being created. The contemporary political, religious, cultural coexistences, the post global society, identity crisis, civilization falls, social alienation, religious fundamentalism etc. have enabled the fall of values and the negation of tolerance as an essential need of the human kind.

Many societies have fallen in a deep crisis, which is not only a crisis of the institutions, the social state, the federalism, the nationalism etc., but a crisis of ethics, coexistence orientations, of the system of values etc.

2

In spite of the civilization determinations for the beginning of a global process for creating a new world order which will rest upon democracy, free market, peace and respect of human rights, we ended the 20th century in the opposite direction. The civilization is being followed by constant multiplication of force, the arsenal of means for massive destruction is growing, force is still the ultimate arbiter in solving of open issues between states, and the war as a phenomenon still stays on the scene almost without a one day stop.

In one word, crises, including the ones on the Balkans, are becoming our destiny and we are becoming their contemporaries and peace becomes only a desired state.

The reasons for this state are different: historical, political, economical, war, religious, national etc., but are inexplicable from the aspect of consequences that violence leaves on the inhabitants, the material goods, cultural values and the historical inheritance contrary to peace and democracy. Many indicators can serve for the dimensions of this occurrence. (In the 20th century, due to different states of crisis, over 270 wars happened, out of which, two were world wars, which means 2-3 wars a year).

3

Southeastern Europe enters the 21st century with a characteristic of combining three civilization layers – the Classical (pagan), the Orthodox and the Muslim. The cultural treasure and the versatility which should be its priority, the undeveloped economy and politics still remained the most important for its growth. That is the reason why the position of the Balkans and the Southeastern Europe, if we talk about the modern European civilization are on the border between civilization and degeneration. This becomes a heavy inheritance for the most geographical regions, which are underdeveloped and inside the zone of separation between different civilizations, prepared for conquering new areas, for conflict between states, religions and civilizations. Even today, the humanity can direct its attention towards the priorities of these regions where mixed cultures and civilizations can be found. Nowadays, the difference, the mixture, the combination should be transferred to something positive, something which promotes understanding of the mechanisms for coexistence of different traditions and

religions, necessary for the existence of the contemporary and multicultural world.

Eastern Europe and the Balkans in the 21st century have faced the historical inheritance. The desire for founding one's own states, the defensive demographic politics, population migrations or putting the religions first have contributed for Eastern Europe and the Balkans not to have enough possibilities to strictly follow the western model of national states. Today Eastern Europe owns a modern political system, but the conditions in the states are much more different from those in Western Europe – here, the social structure is fragmentary and unsophisticated, political parties have been formed and function on other bases, many national minorities remained dispersed around, and in the neighborhood of their own states without any standards for human rights, etc.

It is little probable that the western parliamentary democracy, which they practice from political and economical aspect, would take a long time to be fully implemented on the complex and economically undeveloped Balkan ground.

That means that in spite of the confrontations on different bases, in the Eastern European region, above all, in the Balkans, there is another problem – the necessary imperative for speeding up the economical development.

The ideological boundaries in the region did not initiate political and ideological connection in the European Southeast. On the contrary, the vacuum of times of contradiction was soon filled with the Balkans nationalism. This does not mean that on the Balkans there is some kind of special nationalism which differs from other states. Under these circumstances the old images for the Balkans and the European Southeast have come alive like a bridge between Europe and Asia and the Islamic and Orthodox religion. The European Southeast is once more trying to find its place and, normally, it seeks for it in Europe, among the united European states. But the fear of problems and conflicts, which is innate in the colorful Balkan Peninsula, is very big and explains why Europe itself started to divide Eastern European states into groups which, step by step, after the compulsory quarantine, would be accepted in the great family.

2. The regional approach of the European Union

The role of the European Union in every aspect of modern living is very important not only for Europe but also for the countries outside Europe, and not only in the field of politics, economy, but also in the field of security and defence.

Historically speaking, European Union strongly supports projects for regional cooperation, especially those providing free trade of goods and services and good neighbour relations. The European Council in its conclusions in 1994 in Essen, emphasized the importance of the regional cooperation between associated countries for improvement of the economic development and neighbour relations. The assistance of the EU in reaching these goals includes assistance in acknowledging the actual regulations in the field of trade, transfer of knowledge from EU in improving of export and marketing, support for fulfilling EU norms, and technical support for development of export insurance and border security. The goals of the EU in the support of the regional initiatives can be summed in the following: improvement of the security, stability and prosperity of Europe by developing good neighbour relations among the countries and the peoples from these regions; reinforcing the process of the European integration by assuring that there will be no other division of the European continent and creating favourable conditions for expanding the EU.

The first initiative of the EU, launched during the French presiding, dedicated to the stabilization of SEE after concluding the Dayton Peace Agreement, was the Raymond Process. Several years after, in April 1997, the Union adopted the regional approach, establishing political and economic conditions for development of the bilateral relations with the countries of the West Balkans. These conditions consisted of respecting democratic principles, human rights, governing the legislative, minority protection, reforms in the market economy and regional collaboration.

Even in 1999, for the first time, the European Council announced the perspective of the Balkans for integration in the EU. Later at the Fiera Summit, in June 2000, the European Council encouraged the collaboration among the countries of this region in order the whole region to reach higher economic and political stability and to overcome the burdening conflicts so that they can be a layer integrated in the European Union. The encouragement of the regional cooperation is an important dimension of the European Union's policy regarding the region. It has been supported both politically and financially by donations and long-term strategies such as the Stability Pact (SP), Stabilization and Association Process (SAP) and the Community Assistance for Regional Development Strategy (CARDS).

2.1 The Stabilization and Association Process

The Stabilization and Association Process has established a new form of contract relations, Stabilization and Association Agreements, for the countries of the so called Western Balkans. The main elements of this process were proposed by the Commission in May 1999. At the Zagreb

Summit, which was held on 24 November 2000, the Final Declaration displayed the whole range of terms and goals of the Process. It supported the Western Balkan countries in their development and readiness for their future EU membership in combination with three main instruments: stabilization and association agreements, trade measures, and considerable financial help.

The regional cooperation remains in the centre of attention of the Process. It is the key indicator for the readiness of the Western Balkan countries to integrate in the European Union. The annual reports for the stabilization and association process are the key instrument which examines the readiness of the Western Balkan countries on their way towards the European Union.

These reports summarize the progress which is completed for that referential period for each country separately, monitor the development of the regional cooperation and also analyze the influence of the instruments from the stability and association process.

In May 2003 the Commission document entitled 'West Balkan and the European integration' proposes a reinforcement of the Union's policy in the region by taking elements from the expanding process with emphasis on the goal of the EU membership of the Western Balkan countries. The Summit between EU (including the candidates for membership) and the Western Balkans countries, which was held in the near vicinity of Thessaloniki in July 2003, gave hope to the countries from the region regarding their European perspective. At the Summit the European partnership was promoted for the Western Balkans countries, by giving each country short-term and long-term priorities. In return the countries were obliged to broaden their mutual cooperation on the key issues including the struggle against the organized crime and corruption, the development of the robust regional infrastructural net and liberalization of the trade regimes.

The recommendation that the European Union received with the unsuccessful referendums on the constitutions in the Netherlands and France, which partly were due to the recent expansion of the EU, the EU Commission has proposed a new *Strategy of Enlargement*.

This strategy operates through the European Commission report on the region entitled 'Western Balkan countries on the road to the EU': consolidation of the stability and increase of prosperity. In this report the region countries are recommended to reach a common regional agreement for free trade of goods and services and to carry out reforms in the public administration. The regional trade integration forecasts concluding a regional agreement for free trade among Albania, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia, a kind of a Balkan CEFTA, instead of the recent mutual agreements on free trade.

The European Union provides considerable amount of financial and technical support for the Western Balkan countries. In order to make the procedure for these countries easier, the European Commission, on 10 May 2000 changed the already existing programs for help (such as the PHARE and OBNOVA) with the CARDS program as the only instrument to help reconstruction, development and stabilization. The main goal of this program is to support the countries with their reforms during the Stabilization and Association Process. Respecting democratic principles, governing the legislation, the human and minority rights and the fundamental freedoms are preconditions for usage of this program's funds. The European Union has introduced a new mechanism of financing called Instrument of Pre-Accession – IPA, which was introduced into force in 2007. This instrument is for the Stabilization and Association Process countries, however making difference between the “potential candidates” and the candidates for membership. At any case, the countries from the Process should learn how to use the mechanisms of this new instrument.

2.2 Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe

The Stability Pact for SEE was the first compiled initiative of the international community, for conflict prevention in the region. In time, the Pact has changed its focus, from the initiative of building measures of trust among the countries burdened with long-term conflicts within the framework to regional co-operation in the region. And what is more important, the Pact has supported the region countries in their Euro-Atlantic integrations by helping them to fulfil the criteria for a NATO and EU membership.

The Stability Pact is an agreement by which the international community together with the countries from the region declared its strong purpose of building a long-term stability of the region and integrating the region countries into the Euro-Atlantic structures. Even though the stability of the region is one of the key priorities after recent conflicts, the contractors of the Stability Pact are aware of the fact that there is neither stability, nor prosperity without economic rehabilitation and democratization of the whole region. This is the reason why each of the contractors is bound to work together on the above mentioned three workshops. The political priorities of the Stability Pact and the main action fields, through which these priorities should be achieved, have been stated in Article 10 of the Sarajevo Declaration. The Pact's goals are: preventing and ending the tensions and crises; utter development of the democratic political process; building good neighbour relations; creating stable macro-economies; improvement of the economic cooperation and struggle against organized crime, corruption and terrorism. By achieving these goals, the international community is aiming to

insure a long-term peace and stability in the region traditionally known for conflicts and instability, at the same time preparing the countries of the region to increase their co-operation with and within the integration of the Euro-Atlantic community.

The main priority of the Stability Pact Special Coordinator was to encourage the regional discussions and cooperation in each of the three priority areas: democratization, economic development and security. Although the success is difficult to be measured in a given quantity, it is evident in the broad dimension of regions mentioned, as well as in the signed agreements. The Pact has become an important forum for region's stability, sustainability of the SEE. Thus, for instance, the trade exchange among the countries of the region has increased, and there has been a mutual approach of the region countries in dealing with the organized crime and corruption. There has been an exchange of experiences in terms of migrations, there has been an energy market according to the EU standards, the borders in the countries of the region have been monitored by the police, etc. According to the Stability Pact Special Coordinator of SEE, Erhard Busek, an impressive improvement in a relatively short period has been achieved, and the key factor for this, as he states, is the "co-operation on specific topic-related or technical areas where all the partners gain from their collaborative work."

2.3 Challenges of the European Union and the Region in Terms of the Question on Regional Co-operation

Initiating of the process of regional co-operation is not at all a simple task and it remains to be a challenge. For the last fifteen years of wars, countries not holding together and embargos have greatly affected the inner economies of the Balkan countries, the international trade, and in some cases, the social and political international cooperation. The lack of economic cohesion, the high rate of the "grey economy", the slow democratic transition process and the ethnical nationalism has been identified as obstacles for a regional cooperation.

Additionally, the condition has been worsened by the lack of honest political willingness of co-operation and by unrecognizing the need of common action. Or in other words, the co-operation was possible in areas that were clearly defined by the EU as areas which seek regional answers (such as fight against organized crime, illegal immigration, other forms of illegal trade, visa policy, managing borders and infrastructure projects), and only because of the perspective of the eventual integration in the Union. Finally, the EU itself and its member countries have contributed to the complication of certain situations in the nineties of the twentieth century. There has often been a lack of national policies coordination and difficulty in

defining an appropriate coherent regional strategy. The Union's policy for fulfilling certain conditions by the countries of the region sometimes was problematic. Nevertheless, it was due to the use of different instruments, association agreements (with Bulgaria and Romania) and stabilization and association agreements (with Croatia, Macedonia, Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia and Montenegro) which the EU has applied in the countries from the region. Furthermore, on one hand SAP process functioned on a bilateral basis, and on the other hand the Stability Pact promoted a regional cooperation.

The EU attempts of promoting stability and regional co-operation have only had partial success. EU had a partial success only in the use of its economic and political capacities in its purpose to encourage the domestic reforms. In this way, the EU probably succeeded less than NATO in overcoming the bilateral character of its relations with the Western Balkan countries and in encouraging multilateral regional form of co-operation. One of the promotion modes of this kind of co-operation can be the use of the channels that are open to bilateral agreements and the assistance program, in order to promote the multilateral inter-border co-operation in the areas of economic development infrastructure, transportation, ecology, and crime prevention. On a military-political level, what should be emphasized are the modes that the new "common European defence" can use in promoting the regional co-operation in the Western Balkans by involving aspirants in various educational programs of the European Union.

3. The Policy of NATO Expansion and Regional Co-operation

NATO is not only a military organization, but also an association built on democratic values. Besides the strong presence of the main European and international organizations in this region, we cannot talk about reaching impressive results from this standpoint. The NATO expansion policy is based on the premise that the countries can be accepted as a group, but the decisions for NATO membership are based on the readiness of each country separately, on the basis of its achieved results. This means that the results of each country are assessed separately. This approach does not encourage the regional co-operation among the partner countries, and sometimes, even increases the competitiveness among them in terms of developing closer relations with the Alliance.

NATO has made an attempt to encourage the regional activities within the framework of the Partnership for Peace (PfP) and the Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council (EAPC). The Alliance has come to the conclusion that this corporation encourages strengthening of security and development and thus supports the existing regional initiatives. NATO tries

to minimize the bilateral character of PfP by encouraging the multilateral PfP activities of the “West Balkan” countries as a means to build trust and co-operation within the region. This means organizing manoeuvres by participation of several countries from South Eastern Europe (SEE) together with NATO member countries, as well as other types of multilateral training, defence education and the like. The regional co-operation in SEE was one of the key issues within the EAPC, ever since its foundation. Taking into consideration the problems which SEE countries are facing and the problems not solved yet among which whether NATO possesses enough space to intensify and expand its activities in this region. The Alliance, for instance, can provide a larger amount of financial support for the PfP/EAPC activities and to encourage the dialogue about the security non-military aspects (such as the economic and cross-borders co-operation, and thus contributing to decreasing ethnical tensions). Also, the Alliance can contribute more to a bigger practical support in establishing and implementing bilateral and multilateral measures of building trust.

The countries of the region have different level of approach to NATO institutions, i.e. to the military expertise that the Alliance is able to provide due to the fact that part of them are NATO member countries and part of them are not. Thus, NATO faces difficulties in equally attracting the countries of the region within its activities related to the regional co-operation. Furthermore, these differences are deepened if some of the countries become full-members of NATO.

The different levels of relations are due to the progress that these countries have achieved in the area of protection of human rights, economic reforms, minority rights and developing friendly relations with neighbouring countries. This trend will probably go on in the following couple of years. It inevitably leads to a different level of involvement in respect to particular countries in terms of the co-operation regional activities. However, the regional co-operation will have a limited effect in a long-term period if the countries that in fact are the biggest source of instability and conflicts in the region are excluded. The Alliance faces the need of a delicate balance between finding ways of sustainability of regional co-operation among these countries and the necessity of a sustainability of political and military relations with every single country.

Whereas NATO is able and should do more in order to improve the regional co-operation, the progress of the regional co-operation cannot be separated from a broader political and safety region development. The regional co-operation cannot develop or play the important role if the region is characterized with a continuing violence and worsening of the inter-ethnic and interpersonal relations. In this context, the Alliance did not succeed in developing an efficient strategy of facing the abovementioned

regional problems reasons, caused by the defects during the process of democratization and violent nationalism. In a long term the solution about the crises in Western Balkans and the expansion of the stability through out the region of South Eastern Europe will depend on the development of the democracies, which, according to same standards, will respect human and minority rights in every single country, as well as the principle of unchanging of international borders. In order for this goal to be achieved, the key NATO member countries should stay fully engaged in the region in the years to come. One of the elements of this engagement should be the reinforced support of the regional co-operation. It is a challenge for NATO to find political space in which the regional organizations will be able to develop and to provide a political and financial support for maximizing this co-operation.

Although this fragmented approach of initiative might not encourage a further division between the countries of the region, yet it does not promote the integration i.e. it does not lead towards an increased co-operation within the region. However, as we have stated before, the political and the economic integration of the countries of the region is one of the conditions for a long-term regional stability and integration in the Euro-Atlantic structures.

4. Perspectives of Regional Co-operation

The NATO initiative for support of South Eastern Europe contributes to the readiness of the countries of the region for establishing mutual co-operation, despite the existing differences. Although their rhetoric is much more ambitious than their practical achievements, the existence of a type of co-operation itself is a great political success. Beside the non-involvement in the most difficult security related problems, this regional initiative contributes to the security of the region by engaging itself in the “soft” or “legal” security aspects and encourages building a civilized society. And furthermore, the region with its fragile stability seeks special attention. In order to achieve this, a successful, coherent and peaceful transition process is necessary in this process of evolution. All this can be achieved by a caring implementation of the following efforts:

First - integration in the Euro-Atlantic structures. For the first time in the recent history the countries of the region are able to recognize the common goal that unites them all. Now their main goal is to achieve integration and membership in the European and Euro-Atlantic institutions and organizations. The integration in NATO and in the EU is not an easy process and there is a high probability that not all the countries of the region will be able to achieve their goals at the same time. Key elements for

reaching these goals are democratization, enforced good neighbour relations and political and economic reforms.

Second - a reinforced regional co-operation. On the way to integration into NATO and EU, the countries of the region should also develop and improve the regional co-operation. The regional co-operation will be more useful for these countries because it can be more easily achieved than the integration in the Euro-Atlantic structures itself. The reason for this is above all, due to the advantages of the geographical vicinity of the countries, and it will create and improve the opportunities for communicational, transport and energy networks. Furthermore, the regional co-operation will also improve the trade and economic contacts. Not of less importance is that these efforts create a more comfortable environment which encourages improvement of good neighbour relations among these countries. It will not only provide a closer co-operation between two countries but it would also help solving certain bilateral issues which have been remnants from the Cold War.

Third - complementarity and co-ordination. The regional co-operation and integration into NATO and EU are not mutual processes. These two processes are common and complementary. Simultaneously with globalization of the economic activities round the globe, the regional co-operation and the regional trade agreements are useful for international relations development. NATO officially supports this kind of co-operation. The regional approach of the Alliance is a good example of this. The global and the regional approach are two sides of the same coin that not only co-exist but also reinforce each other.

Fourth - equality. The integration in the Alliance, as well as the reinforced regional co-operation, are projects common for all countries of the region. The countries of the region should be conscious of the fact that it is better to have co-operation instead of having destructive competition.

Fifth - compilation. The regional co-operation in Western Balkan should be a compiled process. After the end of the Cold War, Europe has a unique chance of integration. The purpose of the integration is to create conditions for all European countries to take part in building new architecture. The step that should be undertaken in building this new European architecture is the avoidance of creating new separation lines. The former hostility should be buried and all the countries of the region, without discrimination should take part in all activities of the initiatives for regional co-operation in order to build common grounds of prosperity and future co-operation.

Six - security. Western Balkan has had a reputation of violent and instable region for a long period of time. This has been again confirmed by the tragic events in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Croatia, Kosovo and

Macedonia. The settlement of Kosovo's final status by an agreement with Serbia, preserving Bosnia and Herzegovina as a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, independent and sovereign country in the internationally acknowledged borders and the Republic of Macedonia as a unitary and multi-ethnic country are the key elements for the peace and stability of the region. The period after EUFOR and KFOR should be carefully examined. The establishment of security measures and trust is of great importance for the peace and stability of the region.

The modes of providing this kind of measures in the region should undergo further research and should be directed towards:

Co-ordination of the activities of the EU and NATO in preventing the countries to elect either the NATO policy or the EU policy;

Co-ordination of the activities of the EU and NATO with the existing multilateral initiatives such as the missionary process of defence of South Eastern Europe and the groups of co-operation expanding in the neighbour regions;

Initiating a process of providing mechanisms that will not allow creating new barriers for the future expanding of the EU and NATO;

The expanding of EU and NATO should be transparent in terms of the public and the media in order to make the process fully understood and to provide support.

References:

- Ванковска, Б. (2008), *Институции на Европската Унија*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Ванковска, Б. (2010), *Институции на ЕУ до Лисабон и по него*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Гоцевски, Т. (2006), *Основите на системот на националната одбрана*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Гоцевски, Т. (2008), *Унификацијата на системите во услови на глобализација*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Гоцевски, Т. (2010), *Кризите во независна Република Македонија*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Гоцевски, Т., Бакрески, О., Славески, С. (2007), *Европската Унија низ призмата на европската безбедност*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Каргалов, Х. (2005), *Европската интеграција низ економската перспектива*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Киркова, Р. (2010), *Иднината на НАТО*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.

- Митревска, М. (2010), *Превентивна дипломатија и мировни мисии*, Скопје: Филозофски факултет.
- Митревска, М., Гризолд, А., Ванис, Е., Бучковски, В. (2009), *Превенција и менаџирање на конфликти*, Скопје: Бомат Графикс.
- Ружин, Н. (2010), *НАТО во современите меѓународни односи*, Скопје: Фондација Фридрих Еберт.
- Сокалоски, Х. (2005), *Грам превенција: Македонија и искуството на ОН во превентивната дипломатија*, Скопје: МИ-АН.
- Фити, Т. (2009), *Феноменологија на економските кризи*, Скопје: Економски факултет.
- Џозеф, С. Н. (2008), *Разбирање на меѓународните конфликти*, Скопје: Академски печат.

THE BALKAN GROUP: MYTH OR A REAL CHALLENGE OF THE EURO INTEGRATION PROCESS

Goran Ilik, Ph.D.

goran.eu@gmail.com

University “St. Kliment Ohridski”- Bitola

Law Faculty – Kicevo

Abstract

This paper starts from the premise of creating a group of Balkan states following the Visegrad Group, as a preferred regionalist momentum for the EU, and beneficial for the region. Regarding this, the establishment and operation of the Visegrad group of states is taken as a representative model for (comparative) analysis, which is composed of the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland and Hungary, constituted for their own accession to the Euro-Atlantic structures. Today, this group exists as a successful regional initiative within the EU.

Analogously, in this paper the accent is added on the Balkans in general, including the Western Balkan states as well as those of the eponymous region, which are already full members of the EU and NATO. Otherwise, this analysis is motivated by the need to detect the obstacles and opportunities for regional co-opting and fully completion of the Balkans in the organizational sense, following the example of the Visegrad group.

Also, this paper seeks to explore the possibility of forming a group of Balkan states, namely to clarify the fact whether the creation of such group is just a myth or a real challenge, that arises from the European integration process. In that interest, this paper analyzes the factors, motives and opportunities for the formation of the Balkan group, based on the regional cooperation, good European practices, shared experience, mutual interests, and the need for reconciliation of the region.

Keywords: *The Balkan group, Euro-integration process, the Visegrad group, regional cooperation.*

Introduction

This paper scientifically confront the two models of regional cooperation processes i.e. *The Visegrad group* model vs. the “Balkan cooperation”, embodied in the *South-East Europe Cooperation Process (SEECP)*, aiming to locate the specific elements of each type of cooperation separately, within the Euro-integration process challenges.

The V4 Model and Its Origin

The V4 is founded on the need for *consolidation* and *stability* of the *Central Europe, its emancipation from the Soviet influence and integration to the Euro-Atlantic structures*. Briefly speaking, that meant: “return to Europe by acting together, rather than singly and competitively. Thus, to create stabilization and security in the region would bring them closer to achieve that goal (...) [And also] to unite the Central European countries on their common road towards NATO and the EU”.¹ Initially, this cooperation was established as a group composed of three countries: Czechoslovakia, Poland and Hungary, but following the dissolution of the Czechoslovakia, this group has grown in the V4. As the “gravity center”, symbolically was located in the Hungarian town of Visegrad, because: “Originally, Visegrad cooperation was born at a Royal Summit of the kings of Poland, Bohemia and Hungary in the Hungarian castle of Visegrad on the Danube in 1335”.²

Also, one of the key motives for initiating this cooperation was the *hard opposition to the Soviet system*. The Czech dissident, Milan Kundera, will explain this through the notion: “the kidnapped Occident” (by the USSR) which historically is treated as a “piece of the Latin West which has fallen under Russian domination”,³ thus implying to the V4 states and their spiritual ties with the West. Or as Prof. Géza Jeszenszky emphasized: “The primary but unspoken aim of the Visegrad cooperation was to dismantle the institutions that embodied our political, military, and economic dependence on the USSR: the Warsaw Pact and Comecon”.⁴ Given such circumstances, and with major support of the West (US, EC/EU and the Vatican), aforementioned countries on 15 February 1991, promulgated the *Visegrad Declaration*, which launched the V4 idea, oriented towards: “[The] full restitution of state independence, democracy and freedom, and Euro-Atlantic integration”.⁵ This document declared: “developing a society of people cooperating with each other in a harmonious way, tolerant to each other, to individual families, local, regional and national communities, free of hatred,

¹ Sinan Kuzum, *The making of the Visegrad initiative*,

<http://etd.lib.metu.edu.tr/upload/12605707/index.pdf>, pp. 21-24. [2012].

² *Towards regional advocacy for cooperation in the Balkans via European best practices*, IDM & Visegrad Fund and OSF for Albania, p.31 <http://idmalbania.org> [2012].

³ Milan Kundera, *The tragedy of Central Europe*, pp.1-3

http://www.euroculture.upol.cz/dokumenty/sylaby/Kundera_Tragedy_%2818%29.pdf [2012].

⁴ Geza Jeszenszky, *The Visegrad Idea: A Model for Cooperation*,

<http://www.visegradgroup.eu/the-visegrad-book/jeszenszky-geza-the> [2012].

⁵ Franc Kalmar, *Towards regional advocacy for cooperation in the Balkans via European best practices*, IDM & Visegrad Fund and OSF for Albania, p.31. <http://idmalbania.org> [2012]

nationalism, xenophobia, and local strife”.⁶ Based on these values and determinations, the V4 succeeded to establish an authentic path for mutual cooperation, based on strong commitment to the mutual tolerance, support and solidarity. In that context, it is very useful to stress the example of the V4 solidarity, after the fall of Vladimir Meciar’s authoritarian rule, when Slovakia evidently stagnated with the NATO accession. Driven by solidarity, other Visegrad countries fully devoted themselves to the process of democratization and preparation of Slovakia for NATO accession.⁷ The effort of Slovakia “to catch-up with the fellow countries was further stimulated by concrete steps, e.g. assistance of the Czechs concerning the harmonization of Slovak legislation in the first years of negotiations with the EU”.⁸

On 14 May 1999, The V4 Prime Ministers’ Summit held in Bratislava, approved *The Contents of the Visegrad cooperation* incorporating the *Substantive elements of the cooperation* and the *Structure of the Visegrad intergovernmental cooperation*,⁹ which undoubtedly enabled the creation of an intergovernmental system for cooperation effected through the various form of meetings, summits and contacts, such as: Prime Ministers meetings with a coordinating chairmanship on a rotating basis, meetings of other Government members as and when the need arises on particular questions, meetings of State Secretaries of Foreign Affairs twice a year, etc.

Furthermore, on 9 June 2000, the V4 established the *International Visegrad Fund (IVF)*, as “an international organization (...) [directed to] the support of common cultural, scientific and educational projects, youth exchanges, cross-border projects and tourism promotion. The budget of the Fund (EUR 5 million since 2007) consists of equal contributions from the governments of V4 countries”.¹⁰ The beneficiaries of this Fund are: “non-governmental organizations, municipalities and local governments, schools and universities, but also private companies and individual citizens”.¹¹ While, on 12 May 2004, assembled in Kroměříž, The Prime Ministers of the V4 countries adopted *The Kroměříž Declaration*, which defined the V4 future cooperation in the following areas: Cooperation within the V4 area, Cooperation within the EU, Cooperation with other partners, and

⁶ Krosiak, Daniel, *Visegrád Cooperation After Entering the European Union*. Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1016541> [2012].

⁷ Poland, Czech Republic and Hungary joined the NATO in 1999, while Slovakia joined NATO in 2004.

⁸ *Towards regional advocacy for cooperation in the Balkans via European best practices*, IDM & Visegrad Fund and OSF for Albania, p.15, <http://idmalbania.org> [2012].

⁹ Contents of Visegrad Cooperation 1999, <http://www.visegradgroup.eu/cooperation/contents-of-visegrad-110412> [2012].

¹⁰ *Towards regional advocacy for cooperation in the Balkans via European best practices*, IDM & Visegrad Fund and OSF for Albania, pp.33-34 <http://idmalbania.org> [2012].

¹¹ *Ibid.*

Cooperation within NATO and other international organizations. This Declaration also defined the mechanism for advanced cooperation: *Governmental cooperation* (Meetings of other ministers in V4 and V4+ format; Consultation and cooperation of Permanent Representations to the EU and NATO in Brussels, as well as in all relevant fora: OSCE, UN, CoE, WTO etc.), *Meetings of Presidents of V4 countries* and Cooperation of Parliaments of V4 countries.¹²

And finally, last but not the least is *The Bratislava Declaration*, adopted on 15 February 2011 at the 20th jubilee of the Visegrad Declaration. The Prime Ministers of the V4 countries, acknowledged the extraordinary significance of the V4 in the modern history, established to overcome the division of Europe after the World War II and facilitate the integration of their countries into the EU and NATO. Also, they confirmed their determination to continue and further develop the mutual cooperation aimed at contributing towards a strong, stable and democratic Europe and strengthening its position in the global arena in the interest of peace and sustainable development.

Accordingly, the essential elements of the V4 model can be concluded. So, this model of cooperation can be treated as “an *extensive* form of regionalism, because of the increased shift towards the softer areas of cooperation, most notably in the societal security sector with a particular focus on culture and education [etc.]”.¹³ So far, the V4 remained mainly a *consultative* political forum, because “it becomes clear that Visegrad is not an institutionalized form of regional cooperation *per se*, with no standing institution [except the IVF]”,¹⁴ thus the V4 also represents *ad hoc political dialogue*.¹⁵ Within the V4, there is no dominant actor, and for this reason it is a *plural initiative*,¹⁶ while considering the financial sources and resources, this cooperation is *partially supported*¹⁷ because of the “common fund to which states contribute for funding cooperation projects, which can be co-financed”.¹⁸ Likewise, considering the solidarity and support of the group member, the V4 is a *real* regional cooperation process, which can be seen from the example of the previous mentioned Slovakia assistance. And from

¹² *Guidelines on the Future Areas of Visegrad Cooperation*,

<http://www.visegradgroup.eu/cooperation/guidelines-on-the-future-110412> [2012].

¹³ Luciana-Alexandra Ghica, *Friendship communities?*,

<http://web.ceu.hu/polsci/dissertations/ghica.pdf> [2012], pp.247-248.

¹⁴ *Towards regional advocacy for cooperation in the Balkans via European best practices*, IDM & Visegrad Fund and OSF for Albania, p.34 <http://idmalbania.org> [2012].

¹⁵ Luciana-Alexandra Ghica, *Friendship communities?*,

<http://web.ceu.hu/polsci/dissertations/ghica.pdf> [2012], pp.247-248.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

the civil society point of view, the V4 is a *fully supported* regional initiative, effected through the various financial and program activities of the IVF, which beneficiaries are the numerous civil society actors. Also, from the aspect of the political will, the V4 is *promising* regional cooperation, directed towards its deepening and thus for contributing to EU improvement, for which the newly adopted Bratislava Declaration, is an excellent example.

The Quest for a Balkan Group

When it comes to the Balkans, and projections for the establishment some form of Balkan regional cooperation, the situation is more complex than the previous one, starting not only from the political and security fragility of the region, but also from the lack of a concrete form of cooperation. In that sense, there are several official regional initiatives concerning the Balkans: CEFTA 2006, Adriatic Charter, Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC), Southeast European Cooperative Initiative (SECI), Energy Community, South-East European Cooperation Process (SEECP) and many other official and unofficial initiatives. All these are aimed to post-conflict consolidation, reconciliation and integration of the eponymous region to the Euro-Atlantic structures.

As a most suitable Balkan regional initiative for analysis, within this paper is the *South-East European Cooperation Process (SEECP)*, which is an original form of cooperation among the countries in the region, *launched on their own initiative*. Initially, at the Bulgaria-chaired meeting in Sofia in 1996, the SEE countries¹⁹ laid the foundations for regional cooperation for the purposes “of creating an atmosphere of trust, good neighborly relations and stability”.²⁰ Later, at the initiative of the Romanian government, this cooperation process was named as SEECP. Its members are the SEE countries plus Slovenia and Moldova. This process is also known as the “Balkan cooperation” or the “Neo-Little Entente” as I named it, because it can be treated as political recipient of the Balkan cooperation models of 1930s, 1950s and 1980s.

Namely, the constitutive document of the SEECP is the *Declaration on Good-Neighborly Relations, Stability, Security and Cooperation in the Balkans*, adopted on 7 July 1996 in Sofia. In this Declaration, were outlined the four priorities of cooperation: 1) Regional security: enhancing good-neighborliness and mutual trust, 2) Economic growth: developing economic cooperation by encouraging cross-border cooperation, improving the

¹⁹ The SEE countries are: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo (not recognized), Bulgaria, Greece, Macedonia, Montenegro, Croatia, Serbia, Romania, and Turkey.

²⁰ *The Turkish Chairmanship-in-Office of The South East European Cooperation Process*, <http://www.seecp-turkey.org/icerik.php?no=16> [2012].

transport, telecommunications and energy infrastructure and the general investment climate; 3) Social and cultural development: promotion of humanitarian cooperation by improving social and cultural communication between countries; and 4) Legal affairs and fight against crime: cooperation in the field of justice, combating organized crime and illegal trade in weapons and drugs, and fighting terrorism.²¹ Within this, the member states of the SEECP, declared their aim: “[to] create a [SEE] whose future lies in peace, democracy, economic prosperity and full integration into [EU] and Euro-Atlantic structures”.²²

Also, the Prime Ministers of the member states, committed themselves for “[transformation of] the region into an area of stability, security and cooperation (...) [considering] the prospects for multilateral cooperation in European perspective and as deriving from the common aspirations of each country of the region to integrate into Europe”.²³

The next important step was the adoption of the *Joint statement by the heads of state and government of countries of South Eastern Europe*. This Statement, once again confirmed the previous values and benchmarks of the SEECP, but also stressed their will for pursuing the SEE cooperation: “on a mutual and equal basis, in the firm belief that each of us has much to learn from the other”.²⁴ In this manner, they prevent the possibility of imposing one state to the others, and also, the possible emergence of internal hegemony. Despite the Bulgarian, Greek and Romanian attempts to brand themselves as regional leaders, no state or group of states seems to be leading the initiative.²⁵

Directed towards the improvement of the SEECP, the member states on 12th February 2000, adopted *The Bucharest Charter*, which can be treated as the principle platform for further development of the SEECP. This Charter, more clearly outlined the goals of cooperation and the following tools for achieving it: 1) Enhancement of political and security cooperation; 2) Fostering economic cooperation; and 3) Enlargement of cooperation in the fields of human dimension, democracy, justice and combating illegal activities.²⁶ With this Charter, the participant states once again expressed their strong belief that: “[the] European and Euro-Atlantic integration is essential in promoting [their] common objectives and cannot be complete

²¹ SEECP, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seeep/brief-history> [2012].

²² *The Sofia Declaration*, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seeep/brief-history> [2012].

²³ *Ibid.*

²⁴ *The Joint Statement*, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seeep/brief-history> [2012].

²⁵ Luciana-Alexandra Ghica, *Friendship communities?*

<http://web.ceu.hu/polsci/dissertations/ghica.pdf> [2012] p.243.

²⁶ *The Bucharest Charter*, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seeep/brief-history> [2012].

without the participation of all of our countries”.²⁷ Each of these goals were also accompanied by specific instruments which gave their implementation a more tangible nature. In the field of political cooperation, regular meetings were planned at two levels: *the executive and legislative branches of power*.²⁸ In that sense, The Charters’ Annex provided the *Procedural aspects and follow-up mechanisms*, such as: annual meetings of the Heads of State and Government of the SEECP countries, the plenary sessions, sectorial, ministerial or high officials meetings (in the field of economy, trade, telecommunications, energy, interior affairs, and culture), the Chairmanship of the Summit, the annual meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs as the main fora for consultations, and the advancement of the objectives of the Process, establishment of the Committee of Political Directors, and also, in order to assure the continuity of the activities, the participant states established a Troika at the ministerial level, political directors and other high officials levels, establishment of the Chairman-in-Office as a SEECP representative in the meetings of other international organizations and regional initiatives etc.

Considering the decision-making process, this Annex stipulates the principle of consensus (unanimity) and the decisions as such, have only a consultative/nonobligatory legal nature. But contrary to that, reality requires institutions and also a political determination for fostering and strengthening the solidarity. In the SEECP case, the “institutionalism” and the political will lie at a low level, besides the previous mentioned “institutional” provisions, which basically are more rhetoric commitment rather than real political effort. Thus, during the Greek presidency of the SEECP in 2006, several fields were identified as priorities for cooperation among the member states, most of them in economic, as well as in home affairs and justice areas, and for this purpose, the Greek government prepared an *Action Plan* for the institutional enhancement of the SEECP.²⁹ But realistically speaking, Greece favored more “Greek” affiliation of the SEECP, because of its “predetermined” role on the Balkans, as the oldest EU member state compared to others. In this context, can be emphasized its hypocrisy, especially in relation to Macedonia as well as Turkey. As an excellent example, contrary to the solidarity rhetoric, emerged when Greece vetoed the Macedonian accession to NATO at the Bucharest Summit (2008), justifying its attitude with the “name dispute”, as an action which is contrary not only to the commitments of the SEECP, but also to other ratified International legal documents, especially the Interim Accord signed by Macedonia and Greece in 1995.

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Luciana-Alexandra Ghica, *Friendship communities?*
<http://web.ceu.hu/polsci/dissertations/ghica.pdf> [2012] p.245.

Likewise, as another example of the SEECP “solidarity”, is the maritime boundary dispute in the Piran Bay, between Slovenia and Croatia, when the first one, as EU member state, “blocked the negotiation progress of Croatia, as an EU candidate state.”³⁰ Within this paper, it is important to stress that this dispute, is not resolved within the SEECP institutional framework, but with an Arbitration Agreement signed by both sides *and the President of the European Council*.

And finally, in order to reach more effective and more institutionalised cooperation in the region, the SEECP participant states established the *Regional Cooperation Council (RCC)* and the *Regional Secretariat for Parliamentary Cooperation in SEE (RSPC SEE)*. The RCC arise from *The Stability Pact* and focuses itself on promotion and enhancement of regional cooperation in SEE and supports European and Euro-Atlantic integration of the aspiring countries. Also, its work is directed toward the improving of the mutual confidence between the states as an essential investment in the regional cooperation and acquisition of *the sense for regional ownership*. The RCC provides operational capacities and works under the political guidance of the SEECP, with focus on the priority areas of economic and social development, energy and infrastructure, justice and home affairs, security cooperation, building human capital, and parliamentary cooperation as an overarching theme. While, the SEECP Speakers of Parliament expressed full support for the future activities of the RSPC SEE in the Final Declaration of their 6th Conference in Zagreb,³¹ emphasizing “the European standards of dialogue, tolerance and cooperation (...) and the regional ownership principle (...) fully aware of the important role and responsibility of the National Parliaments in the process of enhancing regional cooperation”.³² Also, the SEECP Heads of State and Government, adopting the *Zagreb Declaration* once again stressed the importance of parliamentary cooperation “as an indispensable segment of the regional cooperation”.³³

Concluding Remarks

From the above mentioned, can be concluded that the regional cooperation processes are processes which have many obstacles and difficulties, moreover if they are implemented in the Balkans. In that sense, as I previously mentioned, this paper represents an analysis of the possibilities for achieving the Balkan group similar to the V4. So, it can be

³⁰ *Slovenes Defiant In Row Blocking Croatia EU Bid*, Dalje.com (Javno. hr .2009-02-10), <http://dalje.com/en-world/slovenes-defiant-in-row-blocking-croatia-eu-bid/232826> [2012].

³¹ *SEECP*, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seeep/brief-history> [2012].

³² *Ibid.*

³³ *Ibid.*

concluded that the establishment of the Balkan group is not a myth but it is a real challenge which directly arise from the Euro integration processes, which requires real efforts, strong political will, and the true sense of regional ownership. Considering the current development of the SEECP, it cannot be said that this is a real Balkan group following the V4 model, because of the obvious lack of key elements, such as: real solidarity, promising political will of the political elites, and wider connection of the SEECP with the civil society actors. In relation to V4 model, the SEECP can be treated as an *extensive* form of regionalism, starting from its “large range of areas cooperation from all sectors of security”,³⁴ as well as *consultative* and *ad hoc political dialogue*, because the SEECP is not an institutionalized form of regional cooperation, and its decisions are not obligatory to any of the member states. Also, there are no dominant actors, and for this reason the SEECP is *plural initiative*.³⁵

Considering the financial sources and resources, unlike the V4, the SEECP is *fully supported*³⁶ regional initiative because “all [the SEECP] activities, *mainly high level reunions*, are financed by the member states”.³⁷ Considering the solidarity and support of the group member, unlike the V4 which is *real*, the SEECP is *declarative* regional cooperation process, because the solidarity as such is still on a declarative and rhetorical level, for example: Greece vetoed Macedonian NATO accession in 2008 instead of supporting it. Besides that, the civil society is very important segment within the both cooperation models, because it connects the regional cooperation processes with a wider circle of actors. For example, it would be very useful, if only a small part of the SEECP resources are invested in the RECOM, as a financial support of this nascent citizen regional initiative, aimed for reconciliation of the former SFRY region. Accordingly, unlike the V4, the SEECP mainly *not supports* the civil society actors, and from that aspect, it is a highly top-down regional initiative type. While, considering the political will of the SEECP member states, can be concluded that this process manifests only *declarative* political will for further enhancing of the SEE regional cooperation, besides the rhetoric of its member states.

So, this analysis can be concluded with the thought of the famous Nobel laureate Ivo Andrić, about the *Balkan people spirit*: “Our people’s lives pass, bitter and empty, among malicious, vengeful thoughts and periodic revolts (...) One sometimes wonders whether the spirit of the majority of the Balkan peoples has not been forever poisoned and that,

³⁴ Luciana-Alexandra Ghica, *Friendship communities?*
<http://web.ceu.hu/polsci/dissertations/ghica.pdf> [2012] p.246.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ibid.

perhaps, they will never again be able to do anything other than suffer violence, or inflict it”³⁸.

Let this thought be a message for the current and future generations, who must recognize the meaning of the regional ownership and mutual tolerance and to start investing bigger and stronger efforts towards the building of a real, supportive and efficient Balkan group, which will operate within the EU, for the sake of the Balkan people and for the Europe as a whole.

References:

- Andrić Ivo, <http://www.scholarisland.org/women&war.htm> [2012]
- Ghica Luciana-Alexandra, *Friendship communities?*, <http://web.ceu.hu/polsci/dissertations/ghica.pdf> [2012].
- Jeszenszky Geza, *The Visegrad Idea: A Model for Cooperation*, <http://www.visegradgroup.eu/the-visegrad-book/jeszenszky-geza-the> [2012].
- Kundera Milan, *The tragedy of Central Europe*, http://www.euroculture.upol.cz/dokumenty/sylaby/Kundera_Tragedy_%2818%29.pdf [2012].
- Kuzum Sinan, *The making of the Visegrad initiative*, <http://etd.lib.metu.edu.tr/upload/12605707/index.pdf>, [2012].
- Kroslak, Daniel, *Visegrád Cooperation After Entering the European Union*. Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1016541> [2012].
- Slovenes Defiant in Row Blocking Croatia EU Bid*, Dalje.com (Javno.hr.2009-02-10), <http://dalje.com/en-world/slovenes-defiant-in-row-blocking-croatia-eu-bid/232826> [2012].
- SEEC*, <http://rspcsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seecp/brief-history> [2012].
- The Turkish Chairmanship-in-Office of the SEEC*, <http://www.seecp-turkey.org/icerik.php?no=16> [2012].
- Towards regional advocacy for cooperation in the Balkans via European best practices*, IDM & Visegrad Fund and OSF for Albania, <http://idmalbania.org> [2012].

Documents

- Contents of Visegrad Cooperation 1999, <http://www.visegradgroup.eu/cooperation/contents-of-visegrad-110412> [2012].

³⁸ Ivo Andrić, <http://www.scholarisland.org/women&war.htm> [2012].

Guidelines on the Future Areas of Visegrad Cooperation, <http://www.visegradgroup.eu/cooperation/guidelines-on-the-future-110412> [2012].

The Sofia Declaration, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seecp/brief-history> [2012].

The Joint Statement, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seecp/brief-history> [2012].

The Bucharest Charter, <http://rpscsee.org/en/pages/read/about-seecp/brief-history> [2012].

БАЛКАНСКА ГРУПА: МИТ ИЛИ РЕАЛЕН ПРЕДИЗВИК НА ЕВРОИНТЕГРАЦИСКИТЕ ПРОЦЕСИ

Д-р Горан Илиќ

goran.eu@gmail.com

Универзитет “Св. Климент Охридски” - Битола

Правен Факултет - Кичево

Апстракт

Предметниот труд тргнува од премисата за создавање на балканска група на држави по примерот на Вишеградската група, како регионализаторски моментум префериран за ЕУ, а полезен за регионот. За таа цел, како репрезентативен модел за (компаративна) анализа, се зема конституирањето и функционирањето на Вишеградската група на држави, инаку составена од Чешка, Словачка, Полска и Унгарија, формирана со цел нивно пристапување во евроатлантските структури. Додека денес, оваа група егзистира како успешна регионална иницијатива во рамки на ЕУ.

Аналогно на тоа, во трудот акцентот се става врз Балканот како целина, вклучувајќи ги и државите од Западен Балкан, како и оние држави од истоимениот регион, кои веќе се полноправни членки на ЕУ и НАТО. Инаку, оваа анализа е мотивирана од потребата за детектирање на можностите и пречките за целосно регионално кооптирање и комплетирање на Балканот во организациска смисла, по примерот на Вишеградската група.

Исто така, преку овој труд се настојува да се истражи можноста за формирање на балканска група на држави, односно да се расветли фактот, дали создавањето на една таква група на држави, претставува само мит или реален предизвик кој произлегува од евроинтегративните процеси. Во интерес на тоа, се анализираат факторите, мотивите и можностите за формирање на Балканската група, конституирана врз регионалната соработка, добрите европски практики, споделеното искуство, взаемните интереси и потребата од реконцијализација на регионот.

Клучни зборови: Балканска група, евроинтегративни процеси, Вишеградска група, регионална соработка.

BALKAN'S PERSPECTIVES IN THE MIDDLE OF NATO EMERGING SECURITY CHALLENGES

Rose Smileski, Ph.D.

smile@va.edu.mk

Metodi Hadji-Janev, Ph.D.

hadzijanev@yahoo.com

*University "Goce Delcev-Stip", Military Academy "General Mihailo
Apostolski" Skopje*

Summary

Security challenges have proven that NATO cannot longer rely on sole Military Power. Ranging from cyber attacks to failed states, from energy security to "Arab Spring's" democratic transition and from fragile security in Afghanistan to the severe financial crisis, NATO has realized that in order to be able effectively to cope with security threats it needs active civilian component. Strategic shift over the past years from geographical to functional security have tasted NATO legitimacy in several occasions. Starting from Bosnia through Kosovo and now in Afghanistan the necessity of effective civilian component that could increase preventive approach and improve resilience is more than evident.

Euro-Atlantic integration has so far proven to be the key for stability in the region. However, open issues like "Macedonia-Greece name issue", "Kosovo status issue", Challenges for Bosnian functional Government, are challenges that influence remaining Balkan states to effectively flow in to the "Euro-Atlantic pool". We argue that although bilateral issues prevent NATO "open door policy" to become fully effective in Balkan, the New NATO 2010 Strategic Concept offers great opportunities for Balkan states. Bold proposals that will offer solutions for NATO emerging security challenges and come out with functional actions that could nest under NATO interest are real opportunity if not of surpassing than of "cooling" of "hot" bilateral issues. The article will describe how active projects relying on pulling and sharing could serve as effective social engineering that could then potentially be used as a platform for either solving the existing issues or improving the regional stability.

Keywords: *NATO, New Strategic Concept, Macedonia and Civil Military Relations*

Introduction

Global security has changed. NATO is facing nontraditional challenges that require proactive instead of passive approach. Regarding this, NATO's New Strategic Concept supports the idea that for being fully effective it

should include not just member states but also partners. However, Balkan states show no such interest. Macedonia should use this opportunity and with smart projects should comprehend the ability to overcome the current security and political issues. Thus by employing smart ideas and proactive role of civilian component Macedonia could improve its social stability, strengthen the ethnic cohesion and become leader in the Region of Western Balkans with these regards. Ultimately this will create far more comfortable position for the government regarding the name issue on domestic and foreign affairs.

1. NATO and new security challenges

The end of the Cold War has dramatically changed the security environment. While many applauded the end of what they saw as the stagnant era,¹ some have feared of what was about to come.² In fact all of them were right. On one hand globalization accompanied by technological development has promised wealth and prosperity, peace and stability.³ On the other it has brought unimagined power to the non-state actors.⁴ This new security reality had urged NATO to change.

Post-communist transition followed by bloody wars in former Yugoslavia has challenged NATO's warriors with necessity for doctrinal change. Political decisions to act proactively meant transition from geographical to a functional security on the ground. Although NATO's military superiority was out of question strategic shift required military conventional wisdom to adapt to the post-conflict peace-enforcement and peace building (also known as "Chapter VII") missions.

Lessons learned from Bosnia and arguably from Kosovo confirmed that even though NATO had dominated the major combat operations it had lacked capabilities for post-conflict operations.⁵ One of the biggest challenges that was recognized and incorporated in the 1999 Strategic Concept was the civil-military cooperation. Nevertheless it remained evident that civil-military cooperation was lacking serious projects for practical implementation.⁶ Another shortfall that has also become evident soon after

¹ Mead, Walter Russell, (2004), *Power, Terror, Peace and War: America's Grand Strategy in a World at Risk*, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, p.71.

² Merasheimer, John (August 1990), *Why We Will Soon Miss The Cold War*, Atlantic Monthly.

³ Novak, Robert, (July 21, 2005), *Public Air Wars*, Chicago Sun-Times (July 21, 2005).

⁴ Peters, Ralph, (May 23, 2005), *Myths of Globalization*, USA Today.

⁵ Clark Wesley, (2001), *Waging a modern War*, Foreign Affairs, p.45.

⁶ See broader discussion in Karabelias, Gerassimos, (1998), *Civil-military relations: a comparative analysis of the role of the military in the political transformation of post-war*

1999 Strategic Concept was that it had reflecting approach and failed to foresee the future threats. Threats from non-state actors were out of the NATO intelligence officers' and pundits' scope. In fact, 9/11 attacks have confirmed this underperformance.⁷

Although NATO's 1999 Strategic Concept recognized terrorism as a new challenge in the post-Cold War era, it was not until September 11, 2001 that the scale and scope of the threat was appreciated. Within 24 hours of the 9/11 terrorist attacks, the Allies invoked Article 5 of the Washington Treaty, the collective-defense clause, for the first time. Since then, nearly every aspect of work at NATO has been reconsidered in the light of the terrorist threat, which has been factored into the development of policies, concepts, capabilities and partnerships.⁸

The issue with combating terrorism has proven to be even more challenging. Security environment in post-conflict Afghanistan further emphasized the shortage of effective civil-military cooperation experience. NATO forces had dominated the air and have occupied the ground. Nonetheless, even after a decade NATO does not fully control the situation on the ground.⁹ Thus military power alone has proven that could not solve all issues.

Originally the end-state of both missions ISAF and Enduring Freedom was to drive the Taliban from power. Today, the Taliban are considered the lesser of other evils. Mistakes in executing the post-conflict operations, i.e. insufficient experience in effective planning and execution of civil-military operations supported by other lines of operations like, information operations, psychological operations-PSYOPS etc. on the ground, have turned public opinion against the foreign troop presence. This is even present among Afghans who originally welcomed U.S. troops and who remain ideologically against the Taliban. Taking sides in intertribal disputes is a clear example of unprepared civil-military approach toward the issues on the ground.¹⁰ Instead, although the same could be argued for recent situation, the biggest preoccupation is dealing with groups such as Al-Qaeda and Lashkar-

Turkey and Greece: 1980-1995, Report submitted to North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in June 1998.

⁷ Flangan, Stephen, (November 18, 2010), *The NATO Summit: Updated Strategy, Phased Transition in Afghanistan, Reset with Russia*, Center for Strategic and International Studies, Washington D.C.

⁸ Dagmar de Mora-Fig, *NATO's response to terrorism*, NATO Review: Combating Terrorism, Issue 2005.

⁹ Noll, Andreas, (2012), *Quran burnings put the heat on ISAF*, Deutsche Welle, available at: <http://www.dw.de/dw/article/0,,15769895,00.html>

¹⁰ Dorronsoro, Gilles, (2011), *The Impossible transition*, Carnegie Endowment, South Asia, p. 30.

e-Taiba that have practically no presence whatsoever except for the South – East Afghanistan.

Recognizing these early mistakes but also recognizing that 1999 NATO strategic concept no longer fully reflected the strategic context in which the Alliance had to operate the majority of NATO members pushed by U.S. has decided to go for new strategic concept. Orchestrated by US governments' neo-idealistic approach led by Madeline Albright a group of experts have prepared and helped negotiation of the new NATO strategic concept. Several arguments and events out of the above discussed issues were considered by the experts.

Beside the fact that during the past decade, NATO's geo-strategic situation has changed fundamentally it is clear that important changes have also taken place within the Alliance itself. The number of its members has increased by one third, a process of military transformation has been initiated and the Alliance embarked on its first mission beyond the Euro-Atlantic area.¹¹ Profound transformations have also affected NATO's direct proximity and its more distant perimeter. This new perimeter defines the new order designed by modern terrorism, instability caused by failed or failing states, risks attributable to climate change and energy security challenges.

On the other hand NATO still faces traditional challenges. Activities of non-NATO states, especially Russia, the issues with the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and other military technologies that have become more acute in the last few years further shapes the new security environment which NATO needs to address. Complexity of issues including financial crises however has opened another question.¹²

Stretched between threats from terrorism and financial crises, necessity for more proactive involvement (led by US, Canada and UK) versus conventional defense interests (like the South Wing Countries) not everyone inside the Alliance have the same views. Growing differences between the way that different NATO members perceived threats to security and desirable ways and means to respond to them had seriously challenged NATO too. The operation Iraqi Freedom and the passive ISAF involvement from the beginning in Afghanistan were first issues that sparked disagreements. Additionally missile defense project with serious reservations among some NATO members have polarized the vision about NATO in the future. All of these have arguably caused enormous controversies among the

¹¹ Wioeniewski, Bartosz, (2010), NATO Member States and New Strategic Concept, Polish Institute of International Relation, p.5.

¹² Ringsmose, Jens and Rynning, Sten (2011), NATO's New Strategic Concept: A Comprehensive Assessment, Danish Institute For International Studies, pp.7-10.

Allies and deepened the political divisions between them.¹³ Considering all of the above beside the negative effects of the discussed obstacles, experts succeeded to prepare and propose NATO's new strategic concept. Formalization of the process took place in Lisbon at 2010 NATO Summit.¹⁴

2. NATO and the New Strategic Concept

Evolving security environment since 1999 when the Alliance adopted its last Strategic Concept has been formally accepted by NATO members in Lisbon on November 19, 2010 NATO. This formal acknowledgement of the changed security environment updated understanding about the core purpose of the Atlantic Alliance. In fact with the New Strategic Concept NATO sought to bring its basic interests and strategic thinking into line with the security environment.

The Strategic Concept adopted by NATO in November 2010 is the Alliance's third post Cold War Strategic Concept. First post Cold War concept was published at the Rome Summit in November 1991. This Concept was updated and revised at Washington Summit during the Alliance's fiftieth anniversary – in April 1999. Though officially this Concept stood until the Lisbon Summit significant changes were made during 2004-2005. Namely, following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001 and NATO's growing engagement in Afghanistan raised the question about the necessity of revision or maybe even replacement of the existing Concept.¹⁵ The division among its members regarding the political disputes over Iraq resulted with concessional decision to upgrade only a part of the Strategic Concept that dealt with military implications. As a result during the Riga Summit in November 2006 NATO Alliance agreed to accept the so-called Comprehensive Political Guidance (CPG).¹⁶ Therefore the post Cold War track record consists of three New Strategic Concepts and one Comprehensive Political Guidance.

The NATO's New Strategic Concept is different from its pre-successors. It could be argued that more or less this is a result of the dichotomy that grew among its members influenced by the financial crisis, different threat perceptions among its members and some other

¹³ Ivanov, D. Ivan, (2011), *Transforming NATO: New Allies, Missions and Capabilities*, Lexington books, UK, p.186.

¹⁴ Maulny, Jean Pierre, (2010), *Toward A New NATO Strategic Concept*, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, p.2.

¹⁵ SIPRI, (2007), *Armaments, Disarmament, and International Security*, Oxford University Press, p.42.

¹⁶ House of Commons, (2007/2008), *The Future of NATO and European Defense*, Ninth Report of Session UK, p.128.

disagreements that we have addressed above. Hence, the New Strategic Concept represents continuity and significant change.

Traditional role of the Alliance's so-called 'musketeer clause' (Article 5) was once again emphasized as a result of the evident fear by some members states, but also as a result of the internal financial problems by some of other members.¹⁷ The sense of change could be seen in applying deterrence of both nuclear and conventional capabilities as a "core element of [NATO's] overall strategy". Even though deterrence as a doctrine is in line with the 1999 Strategic Concept, the New Strategic Concept gives the flavor of crisis management employment to the issue. For example, one of the Alliance's Core Tasks and Principles states that "NATO will actively employ an appropriate mix of... political and military tools to help manage developing crisis". Nevertheless the biggest change that New Strategic Concept brings is the proactive global role that NATO supposed to play.¹⁸

The question is how one could see NATO becoming more global while the text of the New Concept makes it clear that supreme task of the Alliance remains defense of NATO territory and Allied populace? Even more it could be viewed that New Strategic Concept revokes regional NATO role. These claims however will fail once one explore the activities before the Lisbon Summit and understand the comprehensive diplomacy that was in place in order to agree on the New Strategic Concept's text.

The brief history of events before the Lisbon Summit confirms that the New Strategic Concept is flexible product between three groups of NATO states. First, the so called globalists group of states led by US, UK and Canada who believed that NATO should take proactive approach in ensuring its role. Precisely, they believe that NATO should be more involved in assuring international stability on a global scale as an approach that will appropriately address current security challenges in the context of defending Alliance territory.¹⁹

This approach was counterweighted by the so called "Article 5 coalition". This coalition had modern and traditional wing. The so-called "modern wing" constituted countries who believed that NATO should have real, as opposed to a formal (declarative) approach in exercising its chief task, i.e. the ability to provide for defense of the treaty area. Therefore this group of countries (led by Turkey and Baltic states) supported the activities

¹⁷ Greece and NATO, www.mfa.gr; 'A New NATO, Euro-Atlantic Security, and the Greek-American Partnership', Washington, D.C., 28-29 April 2009, www.ifpa.org/pdf/ifpaGreekConf09.pdf (including the text of the speech given by Evangelos Meimarakis, the Greek Minister of Defense)

¹⁸ Ringsmose, Jens and Rynning, Sten (2011), p.7.

¹⁹ Muller, Harald, (2011), Flexible Responses, *The Non Proliferation review*, Vol. 18. Issue 1, pp.103-124.

that will enable Alliance's capabilities in the sphere of international stabilization.²⁰

On a contrary traditional wing (third group of countries member states) cheered for the traditional NATO approach. These are countries that for various reasons showed relatively little interest in both the debate on the new strategic concept itself and the actions taken by NATO, as well as the directions in which it should evolved. More than the other they were interested in limiting the costs (both material and non-material) that NATO membership entails. This attitude characterizes the countries of the Alliance's "Southern Flank" i.e., Portugal, Spain, Greece²¹ or Italy.²²

As a result NATO's New Strategic Concept has three core tasks i.e. three core missions. These are

- *Collective defense*: NATO members will always assist each other against attack, in accordance with Article 5 of the Washington Treaty,

- *Crisis management*: NATO has a unique and robust set of political and military capabilities to address the full spectrum of crises and

- *Cooperative security*: The Alliance is affected by, and can affect political and security developments beyond its borders. The Alliance will engage actively to enhance international security, through partnership.²³

In fact, if one read narrowly New Strategic Concept is designed for NATO to cooperate not just with Alliance's member states but also with a partner. This is understandable if NATO wants to achieve its goal of proactive involvement in security. Thus, especially last task i.e. cooperative security gives a chance for countries like Macedonia that are willing to become NATO member states but have political obstacles.²⁴

Building on a recent success that Macedonia has achieved in fulfillment of requirements for full membership and have practically proved this success on the ground in the post-conflict operations especially in Afghanistan, Macedonia still has a chance to benefit from NATO New Strategic Concept.

²⁰ Wioeniewski, Bartosz, (2010), p.6.

²¹ See for example: Efthymiopoulos, P. Marios, *Experiencing the paradox: Greece's past, current and future of co-operation at NATO*, available at: www.strategyinternational.org

²² Carati, Andrea, (2009), Analyst with the Istituto per gli Studi di Politica Internazionale (ISPI),

²³ NATO, (2010), *New Strategic Concept*, Lisbon.

²⁴ Hadji-Janev, Metodi, (2010), *From the other side of tradition*, Sovremena Makedonska Odbrana.

3. Cooperative security as a chance for Macedonia in the middle of Balkan's perspectives?

It is more than clear that almost all Macedonian political elites are fully devoted to Euro-Atlantic integration. This political dedication has great deal of popular support in the country. However, absurd political obstruction from Greece has prevented Macedonia to become a NATO member at Bucharest Summit like it is also real obstacle on Macedonia's way to European Union.

NATO membership is important for Macedonia for several reasons. Among the most important one is that NATO is being seen as a corner-stone for Macedonia stability. A closer view from strategic and operational perspectives will fail to confirm this thesis since all of the security analyses will confirm that there is no conventional type of threat that endangers Macedonia. However, there is common sense that in fact NATO membership will rather have more influence on psychological perception among Macedonian people than the real security dimension. In fact except with Greece, Macedonia doesn't have disputes with its neighbors. On a contrary there are many projects and initiatives that foster regional cooperation and are guarantee for stability and security.

The problem with ethnic tension is still open although it is unlikely.²⁵ The Ohrid Framework Agreement remains as a sole mechanism in the Region that could be considered as a success. Nevertheless to effectively heal the Macedonian society social stability that will support government's efforts toward this direction is needed. Having this in mind it is clear that Macedonia in fact needs NATO not just for security reasons but also for economical reasons. The logic is that NATO membership will grant security and that membership will open the door for foreign investments. We could not agree less with this logic however, there is no empirical prove of it. Examples for this are Romania and Bulgaria. The question than, is how Macedonia could point out from the New Strategic Concept, while the name issue with Greece remains open?

As professor Bhagwati once argued "*when implemented intelligently globalization could be the most powerful force for social good in the world today, providing especially great opportunities for economic and social uplift in the poorest pockets of the globe...*".²⁶ Thus, by using intelligent project proposal, Macedonia could still benefit, improve social stability and

²⁵ International Crisis Group, (2011), Macedonia, Ten Years After the Conflict, Europe Report, No212, available at:

<http://www.crisisgroup.org/en/regions/europe/balkans/macedonia.aspx>

²⁶ Bhagwati Jagdish, (2004), *In Defense of Globalization*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, p.72.

confirm its dedication to Euro-Atlantic integration. Success in this context will also relieve political pressure to the Government, will strengthen ethnic cohesion and will further discredit Greece position of political blackmailing. There are three factors that could confirm this approach. Macedonian NATO neighbors' position on NATO open door policy, recent success with military operations and lack of civil military capacities will fully implement cooperative security. We will fully address the neighbors' position on the NATO open policy issue and its position toward NATO's New Strategic Concept.

3.1. Macedonian NATO neighbors' position and the New Strategic Concept

The analyses of Macedonian neighbors' position that are also members of NATO in the context of New Strategic Concept begins from the question of how could Macedonia employ current neighbors' position in the context of New strategic concept and benefit from it. As we saw from the above, one thing NATO is missing is effective civilian component that could support functional security during post-conflict operations. One could reasonable argue that Macedonia NATO's neighbors have the same capacities to do so and that like Macedonia they are also actively involved in military operations. Additionally they are NATO members. Closer look nevertheless to their recent political activities will confirm that there is little interest for such action among their elites.

3.1.1. Albania

Albanian presence in Afghanistan as of 2009 stands at 280 soldiers.²⁷ This contingent doubled in size after Albania joined NATO. In this manner, by stressing its pro-active approach to participation in out-of-area missions, Albania wishes to strengthen its position within the Alliance. At the same time, NATO forces have their part in increasing Albania's security. NATO airplanes patrol Albanian airspace as part of the Air Policing mission until Albania purchases its own fighters.²⁸ Albania supports expanding the scope of NATO tasks beyond purely military missions. In addition, it supports the

²⁷ International Security Assistance Force and Afghan National Army Strength & Lay-down, 1 October 2009, available at: www.nato.int/isaf/docu/epub/pdf/placemat_archive/isaf_placemat_091001.pdf.

²⁸ Albania grants NATO permit to patrol its airspace', Southeast European Times, 7 May 2009, available at: www.setimes.com.

Alliance's participation in the ensuring energy security.²⁹ However, the core dedication for Albanian Government is not involvement in civilian mission but rather collaboration in combating organized crime which it views as a major security threat. The other positive thing about Macedonia is that Albania openly supports Macedonian membership in NATO.

3.1.2. Bulgaria and its interest to take active role under the New Strategic Concept

While recognizing the increased importance of asymmetric threats, Bulgaria draws attention to the risk of the outbreak of traditional conflicts.³⁰ In this context, Bulgarian authorities point to the Western Balkans and the region of the Black and Caspian seas. This represents a departure from the position of the previous government, which stressed that the role of the Alliance is not only to defend its members but to contribute to peace and stability on a global scale through the development of partnerships and through peace and stabilization operations.³¹ Bulgaria is interested in cyber security but represents a little interest in further NATO proactive activities. Like Albania it also supports Macedonia for NATO membership and NATO open door policy.

3.1.3. Greece and its interest to take active role under the New Strategic Concept

For Greece, NATO remains to be important as a defensive alliance. It emphasizes great importance to Article 5 of the North Atlantic Treaty for two reasons. First, due to the complicated situation with Turkey. Second, due to the financial crisis. The situation with enlargement is maybe the most contradictory in this context. Greece supports NATO open door policy but with conditions to fully met Alliances criteria. Financial crisis however, put out of question and any discussion of further Greece's role to play as an active player under the New Strategic Concept.

The short analysis of Macedonia neighbors clearly confirms that Macedonia could count on building project that will employ civilian component. Furthermore, the analyses showed that it could play the role of

²⁹ Fabrizio W. Lucioli, (2009), *Albania and NATO Achievements and Perspectives*, L'Occidentale.

³⁰ For example President Georgi Parvanov did not mention NATO during his speech on 16 January 2009, in front of the Parliament entitled "National security in the face of new challenges", available at: www.president.bg/en/news.php?id=87

³¹ Wioeniewski, Bartosz, (2010), p.16.

the leader in the Western Balkans for this since all of its members have no interest in these activities.

The last question that needs to be answered is how could Macedonia benefit and who should be involved.

3.2. Non-NATO members Serbia and Kosovo and NATO relationship

Complicated relationship between Serbia and NATO began to move forward when Serbia became a member of the Partnership for Peace (PfP) in December 2006. Key focus of cooperation since then is on democratic, institutional and defense reforms. Serbia is currently seeking to deepen its cooperation with NATO through the development of an Individual Partnership Action Plan. However, Serbia has no official request for NATO membership. In its PfP Presentation Document submitted to NATO in September 2007, Serbia indicated its intention to become an active participant in the Partnership for Peace. NATO stands ready to further develop an ambitious and substantive relationship with Serbia, making full use of its PfP membership, while at the same time respecting Serbia's policy of military neutrality.³² In a speech on June 29, 2011, NATO's Secretary General stated that "*Serbia's future lies in peaceful cooperation with its neighbors and with the European Union and NATO. [...] We have made good progress these past few years in developing a sound basis for partnership and cooperation. It is now up to Serbia to decide if it wants to move forward in its cooperation with NATO, and how fast.*"³³

Kosovo on the other hand is healing and improving. Throughout Kosovo, NATO and KFOR are continuing to work with the authorities and, bearing in mind its operational mandate, KFOR is cooperating with and assisting the UN, the EU and other international actors, as appropriate, to support the development of a stable, democratic, multi-ethnic and peaceful Kosovo. Nonetheless, from all of the above it could be argued that for now there is no sign of any proactive initiative between Serbia, Kosovo and NATO in the context of our interest.

³² NATO from Ato Z, *NATO's relations with Serbia*, available at: http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natolive/topics_50100.htm

³³ Ibid.

4. Macedonia: potential Balkan's leader in proactive civilian involvement during future NATO global activities

From the analyses of the current deficit of NATO's capacities to address modern challenges and from the analyses of our neighbors' interests, the only thing that Government should go for is proposing serious project that will make this scenario happened. Good idea to start in such occasions is to build upon existing practice.

Development of projects that cherish corporate social responsibility might be a creative approach. This idea is based on the mutual cooperation between the government and the private sector. Government should support development of corporate social responsibility and in return private stakeholders should support specific government initiatives. Practice shows that over the last decade, governments have joined other stakeholders in assuming a relevant role as drivers of corporate social responsibilities.³⁴ This role usually focused on adopting public sector roles in strengthening corporate social responsibilities.³⁵ At the beginning of the century, these governmental initiatives converged with the actions of different international organizations such as the UN Global Compact and the European Commission, both of which began to promote and endorse these activities. Therefore, we believe that Government should focus on these initiatives and build upon in order to propose specific projects that will begin to fulfill the required emptiness in NATO's functional security building.

In return these projects will propose benefits for private sector and individual civilians with required social skills for effective nation building. Recent data shows that there is growing interest for Macedonian civilians with different social skills to actively participate in post-conflict involvement in Afghanistan and Iraq.³⁶ On the other hand NATO is seeking proactive solutions for Afghanistan after 2014 when a withdrawal should begin.

Government could also benefit from this. Current estimates show that there is no clear data on the number of Macedonian civilians involved in

³⁴ Moon, Jeremy, (2004), *Government as a driver of corporate social responsibility: the UK in comparative perspective*, ICCSR Research Paper Series, 20-2004. ICCSR, University of Nottingham, pp. 1-27.

³⁵ Fox, Tom., Ward, Halina and Howard, Bruce, (2002), *Public Sector Roles in Strengthening Corporate Social Responsibility: A Baseline Study*, Washington, DC: World Bank, pp. 8-11.

³⁶ Adamovski, Goran, (September 29, 2007), Macedonian kidnapped in Afghanistan, Utrinski Vesnik, available at: <http://www.utrinski.com.mk/default.asp?ItemID=10E2C85FAAE97540AD9B5C106F719572>

these activities.³⁷ We do not intent to propose that Government should control all civilians but that it could channelize their involvement and offer real partnership solution. Speaking in a greater context it could be also in compliance with NATO efforts. NATO will have greater control in centralized planning since civilians involved will follow Government coordinated approach. Success on terrain could easily expand.

Lessons learned could be thought to regional partner and thus regional initiatives will be welcomed. This will have direct and indirect benefits. Directly it will expand civilian involvement and will support NATO's initiatives. Indirectly it will influence the promotion of regional cooperation and stability. Thus, cascade effects of clear net will come true. Some concepts like smart defense and similar initiatives are nothing else but promotion of regional cooperation where nations share and pull and provide for stability.

Conclusion

Security environment has changed. To address these challenges NATO's needs has transformed from geographical security to functional security. This strategic shift has opened serious issues among other areas in NATO's civilian capabilities to deal with modern threats and new NATO role. Understanding the need for change Alliance formally has begun to work in this direction after the Lisbon Summit. However, not all of the NATO member states share the same threat perceptions and views about NATO future's role. Beside traditional collective self-defense role, globalists' approach ended in developing a framework that could enable NATO to take proactive role regarding security. Corporate security beside Crisis management is one of the three core tasks for NATO.

Despite fulfillment of all criteria and requirements for NATO membership, and due to the political disputes with Greece over the name issue, Macedonia has not become NATO member. However, corporate security opens a door for innovative solutions and participation from which both NATO and potential partners like Macedonia could benefit. Smart and innovative solutions in this context could improve Macedonian social stability and will create more secure and proper environment, not just in Macedonia but in the whole Balkan region. Ultimately this will increase regional cooperation, prosperity and stability.

³⁷ Vecer, (March 07, 2010), Macedonian died in Afghanistan, Vecer, available at: <http://www.vecer.com.mk/default.asp?ItemID=013221DBA341F8499BE032EF2F20BFB5>

References:

Adamovski, Goran, (September 29, 2007), Macedonian kidnapped in Afghanistan, Utrinski Vesnik, available at: <http://www.utrinski.com.mk/default.asp?ItemID=10E2C85FAAE97540AD9B5C106F719572>

Albania grants NATO permit to patrol its airspace', Southeast European Times, 7 May 2009, available at: www.setimes.com.

Bhagwati, Jagdish, (2004), *In Defense of Globalization*, Oxford: Oxford University Press

Clark Wesley, (2001), *Waging a modern War*, Foreign Affairs.

Carati, Andrea, (2009), Analyst with the Istituto per gli Studi di Politica Internazionale (ISPI).

Dagmar de Mora-Fig, *NATO's response to terrorism*, NATO Review: Combating Terrorism, Issue 2005.

Dorrnsoro, Gilles, (2011), *The Impossible transition*, Carnegie Endowment, South Asia.

Efthymiopoulos, P. Marios, *Experiencing the paradox: Greece's past, current and future of co-operation at NATO*, available at: www.strategyinternational.org.

Fabrizio W. Lucioli, (2009), *Albania and NATO Achievements and Perspectives*, l'Occidentale

Flangan, Stephen, (November 18, 2010), *The NATO Summit: Updated Strategy, Phased Transition in Afghanistan, Reset with Russia*, Center for Strategic and International Studies, Washington D.C.

Fox, Tom, Ward, Halina and Howard, Bruce, (2002), *Public Sector Roles in Strengthening Corporate Social Responsibility: A Baseline Study*, Washington, DC: World Bank.

Georgi Parvanov did not mention NATO during his speech on 16 January 2009, in front of the Parliament entitled "National security in the face of new challenges", available at: www.president.bg/en/news.php?id=87

Greece and NATO, www.mfa.gr; 'A New NATO, Euro-Atlantic Security, and the Greek-American Partnership', Washington, D.C., 28-29 April 2009, www.ifpa.org/pdf/ifpaGreek

Hadji-Janev, Metodi, (2010), *From the other side of tradition*, Sovremena Makedonska Odbrana.

House of Commons, (2007/2008), *The Future of NATO and European Defense*, Nine Report of Session UK.

International Crisis Group, (2011), *Macedonia, Ten Years After the Conflict*, Europe Report, No.212, available at: <http://www.crisisgroup.org/en/regions/europe/balkans/macedonia.aspx>

International Security Assistance Force and Afghan National Army Strength & Lay-down, 1 October 2009. Available at: www.nato.int/isaf/docu/epub/pdf/placemat_archive/isaf_placemat_091001.pdf.

Ivanov, D. Ivan, (2011), *Transforming NATO: New Allies, Missions and Capabilities*, Lexington books, UK,

Karabelias, Gerassimos, (1998), *Civil-military relations: a comparative analysis of the role of the military in the political transformation of post-war Turkey and Greece: 1980-1995*, Report submitted to North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in June 1998.

Maulny, Jean Pierre, (2010), *Toward A New NATO Strategic Concept*, Friedrich Ebert Stieftung

Mead, Walter Russell, (2004), *Power, Terror, Peace and War: America's Grand Strategy in a World at Risk*, New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

Merashimer, John (August 1990), *Why We Will Soon Miss The Cold War*, Atlantic Monthly,

Moon, Jeremy, (2004), *Government as a driver of corporate social responsibility: the UK in comparative perspective*, ICCSR Research Paper Series, 20-2004. ICCSR, University of Nottingham,

Muller, Harald, (2011), *Flexible Responses*, The Non Proliferation review, Vol.18. Issue 1

NATO from A to Z, *NATO's relations with Serbia*, available at: http://www.nato.int/cps/en/natolive/topics_50100.htm

NATO, (2010), *New Strategic Concept*, Lisbon

Noll, Andreas, (2012), *Quran burnings put the heat on ISAF*, Deutsche Welle, available at: <http://www.dw.de/dw/article/0,,15769895,00.html>

Novak, Robert, (July 21, 2005), *Public Air Wars*, Chicago Sun-Times (July 21, 2005).

Peters, Ralph, (May 23, 2005), *Myths of Globalization*, USA Today.

Ringsmose, Jens and Rynning, Sten (2011), *NATO's New Strategic Concept: A Comprehensive Assessment*, Danish Institute for International Studies.

SIPRI, (2007), *Armaments, Disarmament, and International Security*, Oxford University Press,

Vecer, (March 07, 2010), *Macedonian died in Afghanistan*, Vecer, available at: <http://www.vecer.com.mk/default.asp?ItemID=013221DBA341F8499BE032EF2F20BFB5>

Wioeniewski, Bartosz, (2010), NATO Member States and New Strategic Concept, Polish Institute of International Relation.

БАЛКАНСКИТЕ ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ ВО СРЕДИНАТА НА НАТО БЕЗБЕДНОСНИТЕ ПРЕДИЗВИЦИ

д-р Росе Смилески
д-р Метди Хаџи-Јанев

Резиме

Современите безбедносни предизвици покажаа дека НАТО повеќе нема да може да се потпира единствено на воената моќ. Растегнат помеѓу сајбер нападите и пропаднатите држави, помеѓу енергетската безбедност и „Арапската Пролет“, демократската транзиција и крвката безбедност во Авганистан, па се до суровата финансиска криза на лидерите во НАТО им стана јасно дека за да бидат во состојба ефективно да се справуваат со современите безбедносни предизвици, на НАТО му е потребна активна цивилна компонента. Стратешката трансформација во изминатите неколку години од географска во функционална безбедност го тестираше легитимитетот на НАТО во неколку случаи. Почнувајќи од Босна, преку Косово и сега во Авганистан потребата од цивилна компонента која ќе биде во функција на превентивното дејствување и зајакнување на издржливоста е повеќе од евидентна.

Евроатланската интеграција до сега се покажа како клуч за стабилноста во Регионот. Сепак, отворените прашања како прашањето помеѓу „Македонија и Грција-спорот со името“, прашањето за „статусот на Косово“, предизвиците со функционалната Босанска администрација се предизвици кои се исправени пред Балканските држави кои што допрва чекаат да вповлат во „евро-атланскиот базен“. Ние тврдиме дека иако билатералните проблеми спречуваат НАТО политиката на „отворена врата“ да стане ефективна за целиот Балкан, новиот Стратегиски концепт на НАТО од 2012 нуди сериозни можности за Балканските држави. Смели предлози кои ќе понудат одговори за предизвиците на НАТО и од кои ќе произлезат функционални активности кои се вклопуваат со интересите на НАТО се реална можност за ако не надминување, барем „разладување“ на „жешките“ билатерални прашања. Трудот детално ќе опише како активните проекти кои се потпираат на размена и заедничка соработка ќе придонесат во ефективниот социјален инженеринг кој потоа потенцијално би служел како платформа, или за надминување на билатералните проблеми или пак за зајакнување на регионалната стабилност.

Клучни зборови: НАТО, Нов стратегиски концепт, Македонија и Цивилно-Воените односи

TURKISH – GREEK RELATIONS AND THE SECURITY IN THE BALKANS

Slavejko Sasajkovski, Ph.D.

bilbilef@isppi.ukim.edu.mk

Ljubica Micanovska,

micanovska@hotmail.com

Institute for sociological, political and juridical reserch - UKIM

Summary

Relations between Republic of Turkey and Republic of Greece/Hellenic Republic put the most heavy and lengthy burden and impair the security situation in the Balkans. This situation of impaired security and survival of persistently severe security-political problems in the Turkish - Greek relations, is present since the historical-political moment of the successful completion of the Greek struggle for liberation from the yoke of the Ottoman Empire and the establishment of Hellenic Kingdom as a sovereign and independent state, in 1929/30. Hellenic struggle for freedom and the constitution of its own independent and sovereign state as its own negative items left unresolved a series of state-national problems that are not surpassed even by the Turkish-Greek war between 1919 - 22, and the signing of the Treaty of Lausanne, in 1923. This treaty, among other things, agreed and implemented "voluntary" exchange of population, which resulted in the ethnic homogeneity of the two countries, ethnic homogeneity in terms, of course, and when it comes to annul the Greek ethnic collectivity in Turkey and the Turkish ethnic collectivity of the Hellenic Kingdom at that time – the today's Hellenic Republic.

Since the time of signing the Treaty of Lausanne, in 1923 to present, the Greek-Turkish relations were additionally loaded and complicated in national-political and political-security terms, due to, at least three major events and extreme situations; those events and situations not only left the strong to this day unsurpassed negative consequences in relations between the two peoples and between the two countries, but still contain a strong capacity and energetic potential to generate and determine serious adverse national-political and political-security implications and consequences in the overall mutual Greek-Turkish relations, resulting in inevitable relevant reflexions in the Balkan region – Istanbul riots, Cyprus dispute, Dispute about demarcation in the Aegean Sea.

Keywords: *Greek-Turkish relations; Security in the Balkans; Cyprus dispute; Aegean Sea dispute; Istanbul riots.*

Instead of introduction: Treaty of Lausanne

Simply, the limited space in this paper forces us to devote its introduction to the elementary elaboration of the significance of the Treaty of Lausanne (which was as a peace treaty concluded on 24 July 1923 in Lausanne, which concluded the Turkish–Greek war that took place in the period of 1919–22) for several very important elements of the complex of Turkish-Greek relations, despite the fact that the treaty establishes, internationally and legally, the sovereignty of the new (Ataturk’s) Republic of Turkey. This statement primarily applies to the provisions of the treaty regarding particular issues of determination of the borders (in the triangle of R. Turkey – R. Greece – R. Bulgaria), the Turkey’s final loss of Cyprus and protection of the minority rights after the execution of the Convention Concerning the Exchange of Greek and Turkish Populations (signed on 30 January 1923, also in Lausanne).

The fact is that the determination of the borders by this treaty did not represent the real solution when it comes to the problem of demarcation in the Aegean Sea (this treaty in reality did not offer any new solutions at all, regarding the previously established border in the Aegean Sea), because this issue, alongside the Cyprus issue, is really and objectively one of the two most serious conflicting issues between the two states, issues that do not allow fruitful development of their interstate political and diplomatic relationships.

When we discuss the concrete solution of the issue of population exchange having in mind the real and objective consequences on the interstate relationships of Republic of Turkey and the Hellenic Republic as they were in the period since effectuation of the treaty until today, we can state, with a dose of cynicism, that in that way (that is, by exchange) the relationships between the states are relaxed. That is so because the achieved high level of ethnical-national homogenization of both states (of course, when we are talking about the Turkish minority in Greece and the Greek Minority in Turkey) does not create sufficiently broad room for possible stronger instrumentalization of ethnic-national minority issues within the overall conflict relations between both states – this statement applies even regarding the issue of Istanbul riots.

The ethnical-national homogenization of both states, in essence, results in strengthening of the social capacities and potentials for successful realization of their determination toward establishment and development of both states based on adoption and application of the liberal concept of political nations, that is, state – nation (Bozdogan, 1997; Liakos, 2001). That is the reason why the remaining citizens (in fact) Turks in Greece and (in fact) Greeks in Turkey are recognized and enjoy particular minority rights, pursuant to the contract, as being religious minorities, that is, orthodox Christians and Muslims.

Cyprus, getting its independence later, was constituted (that is, not directly under the contract – the contract put it as a colony under the sovereignty of Great Britain) as an independent state with large Turkish minority, the argument that in 1974 the Turkish government of that time could not avoid at all and had to make military intervention, which resulted in division of the state in two parts – Greek and Turkish, given the military coup by the Greek Cypriots and political conditions of high potential possibilities for making a decision by the new (military) authorities of the Greek Cypriots to annex (Ενωσις / Enosis) Cyprus to the Hellenic Republic.

Istanbul riots

After the conclusion of the Convention on population exchange and the Treaty of Lausanne, the Turkish-Greek relationships were not developing as relationships of two friendly states. It was obvious that the convention and the treaty have not resolved the issues of mistrust and hostility between the two peoples and their states. However, the Istanbul riots (or, the Istanbul pogrom) of 6 – 7 September 1955, represent a conflicting event of highest level range of multiple destruction of the Turkish–Greek relationships, first of all, destruction of the physical integrity of the Greeks in Istanbul, their homes and businesses and the property of the Patriarchate (Zayas, 2007) .

The Istanbul riots accomplished their objective: they brought to further reduce of the Greek / orthodox population in Republic of Turkey. Without involvement in the acceptance and elaboration of particular theories of conspiracy, however, it is quite obvious that the Turkish government of that time, even if it did not organize, first of all, in response to the demand of the Greek Cypriots submitted to the UN in 1954 for both their self-determination and constitution of independent and sovereign state of Cyprus, wherein that demand would lead towards the possibility of “enosis”, it did not undertake prompt and adequate measures to prevent the major consequences concerning the physical safety of the citizens – Greeks, their property and the property of the Patriarchate. Anyway, the immediate reason was well-, adequately- and on time utilized, that is, the Greek Cypriots’ demand for their self-determinations, supported by the news that the native home of Atatürk in Thessaloniki, which at that time accommodated the Consulate of Republic of Turkey, was attacked (bombarded). On that occasion Republic of Greece, as expected, came out with a statement / theory / accusation that the Turkish secret services had planted the bombs.

It is also fact that the Turkish Cypriots (18 % minority compared to the Greek Cypriots), of course, using the political and diplomatic support by the Republic of Turkey, had fiercely opposed the Greek demands for constitution of an independent, sovereign and autonomous Cyprus state.

Then the Turkish Cypriots, first of all, the young Turkish Cypriots, have also established certain secret military organizations. The crucial argument of the Turkish Cypriots as well as of the Republic of Turkey, was that in case of establishment of independent Cyprus state, the Turkish Cypriots would be put in subordinate social position in every aspect, in regard to the Greek Cypriots and that even their physical survival on the island would be jeopardized. This diplomatic–political position was essentially supported by the undisguised diplomatic–political demands of the politically influent part of the Greek Cypriots (we should not emphasize that they had also “tacit” support by particular highly relevant political structures in Republic of Greece) concerning the future integration of the island state to its national and parent state – Republic of Greece. This development of the events, however, occurred in 1974, when following the coup d’etat in Cyprus, the new authorities of the Greek Cypriots had openly alluded to “enosis”.

At the same time, the Istanbul riots clearly and directly demonstrates the treatment of the ethno-national/religious–confessional minorities as a high security risk factor. This statement, of course, applies neither to the Turkish government at that time, nor the governments of the Republic of Turkey in general, but this statement dully applies to the continuity of the policies of the Republic of Greece regarding the ethno–national/religious–confessional minorities (A Quest for Equality: Minority in Turkey, 2007; Boussiakou, 2008). Looking at the historical–political continuity, the minorities in both states, in essence, are treated as a “sixth column”.

At the same time, the accepted concept of a nation state, that is, the conceptualization of the nation as a political people, by both states, surely, led to such a treatment of the minorities in their own states, which treatment was, of course, reinforced by the deep and severe historical–political layers of mistrust and permanent hostility between the two ethno–national entities (Turkish and Greek) and their states.

Aegean dispute

If one throws light to the conflicting structure of the Aegean dispute between the Republic of Turkey and Republic of Greece it could be said that this structure is primarily built on the grounds of several more important particular disputable issues, such as, for example, the issues of determination of the borders of each state territorial waters, the determination of the aerial space of each state, the determination of their respective economic rights, demilitarization of certain (Greek) islands, the issue of particular islands which Greek sovereignty is denied by the Turkish part.

The limited space in this paper disables us to further elaborate each of these issues. Therefore, we will only outline the basic elements of the surely

one of the most difficult and most exposed conflicting issue – the issue of determination of the maritime border in the Aegean Sea.

Speaking in this context, the fact of crucial and cardinal significance is the passing of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea in 1982, which contains a provision that has as much as possible increased the conflicting potential and capacity of this issue. Namely, this Convention envisages that the maritime territorial waters can spread out up to 12 naval miles, instead of 6 naval miles, as it was stated in the previous provisions. Republic of Greece has accepted this Convention, but it still does not exercise; Republic of Greece accepted it, because the Convention completely matches its interests, whereas Republic of Turkey did not accept the Convention because if that provision on the maritime international legal order was followed, Greece would gain complete geo-strategic, geo-political, military, economic and any other control over the Aegean Sea. In that sense, Turkey considers the Convention to be the type of conventions that are mandatory only for the states, which have accepted them.

Since that period, there were a number of efforts and initiatives for finding a solution that would be fair for both parties, but without any real success. Generally speaking, it could be said that the approach of Greece in the dispute is clearly internationally legal, simply because that kind of approach suits to its interest; while the approach of Turkey is more complex, because the Greek approach would be disastrous for Turkey – it stands for complementing the formal provisions of the positive international maritime law having in mind the political principles of friendly neighboring relations, good will, mutual trust and peaceful co-existence including the ethical principles of justice and righteousness, which should be contained in the formally legal provisions and expressed through those provisions (Turkey and Greece: Time to Settle the Aegean Dispute, 2011) .

The Aegean dispute is, in essence, one of the two disputes, along with the Cyprus dispute, which are the strongest expressions and indicators of the weight and length of the conflicting Turkish–Greek relations. However, apart of Cyprus dispute, for example, as well as of other disputable issues, the Aegean dispute contains one entirely material conflicting dimension, which is only complemented and reinforced by the psychological–cultural dimension of the conflicting Turkish-Greek relations (Sant’Ana, 2006). We mention and emphasize this psychological–cultural dimension guided by the strong obviousness of the fact that when it is about the relations between those two neighboring states, their interstate and international conflict is already established as important compound component and characteristic of their collective national psychologies and cultures. This is the psychological–cultural dimension of the complex of disputable issues that, by its own immanent inertia, additionally complicates and reinforces the particular

disputable issues, which could be overcome through reaching an agreement that would allow and enable an unbiased determination and comprehension of the politics as a deeply rational, pragmatic, utilitarian and teleological entity.

The above cited and underlined material dimension of the Aegean dispute essentially refers to a specific combination of particular geographic and internationally legal factors. Those are the factors of dispersion of the Greek coast with islands reaching far into the Aegean Sea, contrary to the passiveness of the Turkish coast, on one hand, and the provision and the norm of the international maritime law on other hand, which prescribes that the territorial waters can be extended up to 12 naval miles from the coast, wherein the islands are considered to be mainland. Exactly due to this dispersion of the Greek coast and islands reaching far in the Aegean Sea as well as to the relevant geographical passiveness of the Turkish coast, if the Greek party decides to extend its territorial waters in the Aegean Sea to 12 naval miles, then, Greece gains in every aspect (geo- political, geo- strategic, military, economic ...) dominant status in the Aegean Sea compared to the relevant status of Turkey. Among other, in that case Turkey would even lose the opportunity for direct exit to the so- called open sea, that is, to the international waters. If Greece decides, in accordance with the opportunity given to it by the positive international maritime law, to extend its territorial waters to 12 naval miles, then the Turkish civil and military ships in order to reach the international waters through the Aegean Sea, should have to pass through the Greek territorial waters, which would undoubtedly give the Greek party the opportunity to hold up and control the Turkish civil and military ships. We should now remind that the dispute between Slovenia and Croatia in the Piran Bay is very similar.

We have already mentioned that the Aegean dispute would be clearly material dispute between two states, that is, pure political and internationally legal dispute between two states if, let us emphasize it once more, it was not complemented and reinforced by the non-material dimension of the established mutual hostility between the two peoples and their states – the dimension of their collectively - cultural and collectively – psychological structures. Therefore, this dispute cannot be objectively and really resolved in the near future as any other typical political and internationally legal dispute.

In fact, the power and the explicit dominance of the Turkish army compared to the Greek army, along with the pressure of the so-called international community (first of all, USA and NATO) over Greece is the decisive factor that prevents the Aegean dispute to lead not only to a war in Aegean Sea, but also possibly to a total war between Greece and Turkey (Axt, 1999), because we should mention that the Turkish state has expressed

its extreme toughness and determination in numerous occasions so far, including a resolution of the Turkish Parliament (as of 1995), that, if Greece takes the advantage of the opportunity given by the positive international maritime law and extends its territorial waters to 12 naval miles, it would be undoubtedly and without any dilemmas, *casus belli* – it would be unnecessary and valid reason for inevitable war.

Cyprus dispute

As we already noticed, by the Lausanne treaty Turkey has also lost its sovereignty over the Cyprus Island. However, the island was neither merged to Greece nor it gained its independence at that time, but (like a kind of a colony) it was put under the sovereignty of Great Britain. Practically, since the moment of signing the Lausanne treaty military- political organizations were established at the island, especially by the Greek Cypriots (having 78 % - ethnic national majority on the island, against the respectable minority of the island Turks – 18 %; the remaining 6 % of the total population account for certain much smaller minorities), who have supported either the independence and sovereignty of Cyprus, or the direct integration of Cyprus to Republic of Greece, or tactically supported the sovereignty and independency as a historical – political short-term stage toward the final goal - unity (*enosis*) with Greece (Hadjipavlou, 2002). Clearly, the Turkish Cypriots have opposed such a fundamental national-political determination of the island Greeks (Lindley, 2007).

In 1955, General Georgios Grivas / Γεώργιος Γρίβας / founded the most powerful military – political organization of the Greek Cypriots – EOKA / Εθνική Οργάνωσις Κυπρίων Αγωνιστών / National Organization of Cypriot Fighters. As a respond, in 1957, Turkish Cypriots founded their major military – political organization – TMT / the Turkish Resistance Organization / Türk Mukavemet Teşkilatı (Karyos, 2009).

In 1960, (16 August) Cyprus at last gained independence and sovereignty as a Republic of Cyprus, wherein its social structure and its political system are (con)federally built over the basis of the ethno- national structure of the new state (there is no space for extensive elaboration of this issue in this text, which finally is not so essential).

It is important that the independence of Republic of Cyprus did not satisfied the ambitions of a significant part of the island-Greeks; in that sense, their military- political activities aimed to “*enosis*” continued; in parallel, under international pressure negotiations were carried out to find peaceful co-existence of the two ethno – national communities on the island, until 20 July 1974, when as a response to the military coup of the Greek Cypriots (in the meantime EOKA was restored as EOKA - B) and the

obvious determinations for “enosis”, Republic of Turkey organized a military invasion over Cyprus, divided the island in two parts and proclaimed the new state of Republic of Northern Cyprus, the state which is officially recognized only by the Republic of Turkey (Loizos, 1988) .

Since then a large number of diplomatic – political considerations, ideas, initiatives, efforts were brought in ... for reunification of Republic of Cyprus (there is not enough space in this text to elaborate all of them, including the plan of the Secretary General of the UN at that time, Kofi Annan / The UN plan for settlement (Annan Plan) / The Comprehensive Settlement of the Cyprus Problem, which was on the referendum held on 24 July 2004 година, accepted by the Turkish Cypriots and refused by the Greek Cypriots. This plan was building the unification very clearly and normally, on a completely clear (con) federal grounds and framework (there is no space within this text to present, analyze and comment on this plan), which plan, so far, was the most serious and real approximation to any solution for resolving the Cyprus dispute (Moore, 2011).

In any case, it could be stated that the Cyprus dispute was possibly the strongest and the clearest example of the impossibility to define the Turkish – Greek national - political modus vivendi. The Cyprus dispute is possibly the most indicative case in the previous period since the Treaty of Lausanne until today, of the impossibility to find any formula for compromise constitutional solution in the near future. Looking from the perspective of the Cyprus experience, that is, the perspective of the experience of failing to define really functional constitutional solution of the mutual (con)federal Greek – Turkish state, it follows that the provisions both of the Convention for population exchange and the Treaty of Lausanne, complemented with the real consequences of the Istanbul riots, in essence, resulted in some kind of stable, sustainable and functional constitutional solution both for the Republic of Turkey and the Republic of Greece.

On the basis of the negative experience regarding the dysfunction of the Cyprus effort to constitute a mutual Greek – Turkish (con) federal state, we can make a conclusion that the ethno- national homogeneity is very important factor for the stability, sustainability and functionality of both the contemporary Turkish and Greek states.

And, no matter how inhuman can seem those considerations, concepts, models and practical - political efforts for consensual population exchange and constitution of as much as possibly, homogenous ethno – national states, based on the modern concept of the state nation, however, looking for a humanist perspective, if that kind of solution leading to population exchange is not good / positive / human solution, in given historical – political circumstances of persistent and never ending (or even endemic) mistrust and hostility between the two ethno – national entities,

then as a lesser / least evil is the solution to employ an option of exchange of the population and constitution of ethnical – national homogenous state nations, in order to provide their elementary stability, sustainability and functionality.

It seems that in the near future we can not expect some kind of “multi- cultural” solution of the Cyprus dispute and we can not make a conclusion to which degree such a “multi – cultural” solution in fact represents an example of the weakest possible ethno – national unity (in reality, unity essentially comprehended as a peaceful co-existence of one beside the others) as a basis for constitution of the possibly most loosen (con) federal state.

As an illustration of the severity of the conflicting essence of the Cyprus dispute let us mention the fact that neither the membership of Cyprus (of course, with its entire internationally recognize territory) in EU, nor the overcoming of the division of the state, that is, the overcoming of the Turkish military – political control over a part of the island, as one of the most important publicly declared requirements for successful completion of the negotiations of Turkey with EU regarding its membership in the Union, did not lead to a definition of some more serious solution for resolving the Cyprus dispute (Oguzlu, 2002). Except, if we judge based on the destiny of the Kofi Annan’s plan, the obstacle for the reunification (at least, formal reunification) of the Cyprus state are not only the Turkish Cypriots and the Republic of Turkey (through its military intervention and the division of the Cyprus state), but also the obstacle are also the Greek Cypriots – through their voting at referendum and the refusal of Annan’s plan, as well as Republic of Greece – which seems that does not put a lot of pressure over the Greeks from the island to accept that plan (Guney, 2004).

Final point

Problems and disputes marking the Turkish–Greek relations have one specifica differentia. It is an endemic hostility, which is the essential element of the national – collective culture and the national – collective psychology in both of the states and the societies. Actually, conflicts and disputes in the Turkish-Greek relations are very regular, they are very usual. Those conflicts and disputes are not only occasional incidents and accidents that would not penetrate deeper in the national – collective memory and as such, would not cause long-lasting and more serious diplomatic – political consequences. In the Balkans, as well as in any other region, there are some examples of persisting hostile feelings and relations between two or more parties; so, for example, when we speak about the Balkans region, those would be Serbian – Croatian or Serbian – Albanian relations full of conflicts and hostilities.

There is not enough space here to analyze the topic which of those hostilities are more serious and carry with them higher potential and capacity for social destruction of any kind, but we must point out that concerning the concrete cases of the Turkish – Greek hostile relations and disputes (shown by their experience) it is quite difficult to find at least any minimal functional (even transitional) solution.

At the same time, using the example of the Turkish – Greek hostile relations and their concrete unsolved international and interstate disputes, it was clearly demonstrated that those hostilities and disputes are more resistant (compared to other hostilities and disputes in the Balkans) to the ideas and practical efforts of the so-called international community to find any solution, at least, to overcome those more drastic cases of hostilities and conflicts. Simply, again on the example of the Turkish – Greek hostilities, conflicts and disputes the so-called international community can not undertake certain extremely radical measures, such were the measures of bombarding Serbia and Bosnian Serbs or recognition of Kosovo independence.

Scientific references (maximum selected)

Axt H. J. (1999) : Europeanization on the Coastlines of the Aegean?, www.europeanization.de/downloads/coastlines_aegean.pdf

Bozdogan S., Kasaba R. (1997): Rethinking Modernity and National Identity in Turkey, www.books.google.mk/books?id=IEKuBv_HEcC&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false

Boussiakou I. (2008) : Religious Freedom and Minority Rights in Greece: the case of the Muslim minority in Western Thrace, www.eprints.lse.ac.uk/23191/1/GreeSE_No_21.pdf

Guney A. (2004): The USA's Role in Mediating the Cyprus Conflict : A Story of Success or Failure? , www.sdi.sagepub.com/content/35/1/27.full.pdf

Hadjipavlou M. (2002) : DEVELOPMENTS IN THE CYPRUS CONFLICT: A CONFLICT RESOLUTION PERSPECTIVE, www.bmlv.gv.at/pdf_pool/publikationen/02_intinf13_hadjipavlou.pdf

Karyos A. (2009) : EOKA and Enosis in 1955 – 59: Motive and Aspiration Reconsidered, www.2.lse.ac.uk/.../research/.../pdf/.../HISTORY%20II/KARYOS.pdf

Liakos A. (2001) : Historical Time and National Space in Modern Greece, www.kms1.isn.ethz.ch/serviceengine/Files/ISN/...ea52.../11_liakos.pdf

Lindley D. (2007) : Historical, Tactical, and Strategic Lessons from the Partition of Cyprus, www.nd.edu/~dlindley/handouts/CyprusPartition.pdf

Loizos P. (1988) : Intercommunal Killing in Cyprus, www.arts.yorku.ca/hist/tgallant/courses/documents/loizoscyprus.pdf

Moore G. (2011) : FEDERALISM AND THE “ONE – PERSON ONE – VOTE PRINCIPLE” : POLITICAL ACCOMMODATION IN CYPRUS AND THE ANNAN PLAN, www.federalgovernance.co/archives/volume8/FG_VOL8_ISS2_MOORE.pdf

Oguzlu H. T. (2002) : The EU as an Actor in the Solution of the Cyprus Dispute: The Questions of “How” , www.ecmi.de/fileadmin/downloads/publications/JEMIE/2002/nr2/Focus2-2002_Oguzlu.pdf

Sant’Ana M. (2006) : Information Note on the Turkey – Greece Dispute over Islets and Rocks in the Aegean, www.ebookbrowse.com/information-note-aegean-dispute-en-pdf-d127098900

Zayas A. de (2007) : The Istanbul Pogrom of 6 – 7 September 1955 in the Light of International Law, www.projusticia.net/documents/istambul_pogrom1.pdf

Documents (maximum selected)

CONVENTION CONCERNING THE EXCHANGE OF GREEK AND TURKISH POPULATIONS (1923) , www.hri.org/docs/straits/exchange.html

United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (1982) , www.un.org/depts/los/convention_agreements/texts/unclos/unclos_e.pdf
Treaty of Lausanne (1923) , www.lib.byu.edu/index.php/Treaty_of_Lausanne

A Quest for Equality: Minority in Turkey (2007) , Minority rights group international, www.minorityrights.org/download.php?id=425

Turkey and Greece: Time to Settle the Aegean Dispute (2011) , International Crisis Group, www.humansecuritygateway.com/documents/ICG_TurkeyandGreece_Timet oSettletheAegeanDispute.pdf

The UN Plan for Settlement (Annan Plan) / The Comprehensive Settlement of the Cyprus Problem (2004) , www.unannanplan.agrino.org/Annan_Plan_MARCH_30_2004.pdf

ТУРСКО-ГРЧКИТЕ ОДНОСИ И БЕЗБЕДНОСТА НА БАЛКАНОТ

д – р Славејко Сасајковски

bilbilef@isppi.ukim.edu.mk

*Институт за социолошки и политичко – правни
истражувања – УКИМ*

Љубица Мицановска,

micanovska@hotmail.com

Резиме

Односите меѓу Република Турција и Република Грција/Еленската република најсилно и најдолготрајно ја оптеретуваат и ја нарушуваат безбедносната состојба на Балканот. Оваа состојба на нарушена безбедност и на упорно опстојување на сериозни безбедносно–политички проблеми во турско–грчките односи, континуира уште од историско–политичкиот момент на успешното завршување на грчката борба за ослободување од стегите на Отоманската империја и конституирањето на Еленското кралство како суверена, самостојна и независна држава во 1929/30 година. Еленската борба за слобода и за конституирање на своја независна, суверена и самостојна држава како свои негативни продукти остави низа на нерешени државно–национални проблеми, кои не се надминаа ни со турско–грчката војна во периодот 1919–22 година и потпишувањето на Лозанскиот договор во 1923 година. Со овој договор, меѓу другото, е договорена и е спроведена “доброволна“ размена на населението, која резултираше со етничка хомогенизација на двете држави, етничка хомогенизација се разбира во смисла и кога станува збор за анулирање на грчкиот етнички колективитет од Република Турција и на турскиот етнички колективитет од тогашното Еленско кралство, денешната Еленска република.

Во овој период од потпишувањето на Лозанскиот договор во 1923 година до денес, грчко–турските односи додатно национално–политички и политичко–безбедносно се оптоварија и се закомплицираа, ако не со повеќе, тогаш барем со три крајни крупни настани и состојби кои, не само што оставија силни и до денес ненадминати негативни последици во севкупните односи меѓу двата народа и меѓу двете држави, туку и сеуште содржат силен капацитет и енергична потенција за генерирање и детерминирање на сериозни негативни национално–политички и политичко–безбедносни импликации и последици во меѓусебните севкупни грчко–турски односи, со неизбежни

соодветни рефлексии и во регионот на Балканот – истанбулските немири, кипарскиот спор и спорот на разграничувањето во Егејското море.

Клучни зборови: грчко–турски односи; безбедноста на Балканот; кипарски спор; спорот во Егејското море; истанбулски немири.

THE CULTURE OF PEACE AS A PRECONDITION OF THE EURO-ATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKAN REGION

Zoran Matevski, PhD

zmatevski@fzf.ukim.edu.mk ; matev@mt.net.mk

*University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius
Faculty of Philosophy - Skopje*

Abstract

The culture of peace can be determined as a systematic and constant fostering and practicing of the values of peace in the intra-social and interstate relations. This is always connected to the social changes, which contribute to a better life for the citizen in all elements of his/her social state and the access of life chances. Peace in the Balkan region greatly depends on whether a stable peace will be established in Europe, and that depends on the possibilities of establishing a dominant state of peace in the whole world. It is a kind of chain of peace, where the peace in Europe and the whole world is what determines the essential content of peace in an area like the Balkan region. The initiative of the Balkan states for the Euro-Atlantic integrations depends on many factors. But the crucial factor is the establishing of an extremely elastic political, economic and cultural unification of the Balkan region, which will not lead the independence of the Balkan states into question. But we must stress the fact that the political and intellectual elites of the Balkan region, often chose paths that were harmful and even fatal to the development of the Balkan states and their Euro-Atlantic aspirations. In the global era, it is necessary for the Balkan elites to be aware of the necessity of a stable peace, based on a social consensus and cooperation of the neighbours, in which, every Balkan state would be a subject and a builder of peaceful relations.

Keywords: *culture of peace, tolerance, conflicts, religious and ethnic identity.*

The citizens in Balkan region use more mechanisms through which they try to find and keep their identity. Certainly, religion and nation are two powerful forms for belonging and identifying. According to number of sociologists for creating one nation very important is the common and long lasting life of different ethnic communities on same geographic place such as Balkan. But, this fact does not have sentence role for weakening or loosing of national interests and feelings. Besides long, mutual experience, usually national specifics are kept in certain

ethnic communities. According to it, nation doesn't live only from memories about its past, but also from its determination about the future that collects the will of all its members and make it more unified. Conscience for their common past usually is completed with the desire for common future. Past cannot be changed, but can be learnt. Future cannot be learnt, but can be changed. Therefore when determining ethnic identity we must take into consideration the volunteer act of mutual life that is based on historical and social conditions.

Certainly, national sense of identity is followed by religious sense of identity. The religion is classic saint "love all of the other nations as you love your own". Number of sociologists of religion emphasize that in fact nation is act of faith and believing (McGuire, 2002). Through faith persons understand better the characteristics of its own nation. Therefore in Balkan region, as a rule, representatives of one nation follow one faith (almost with no exception each Serbian is orthodox such as every Croatian is Catholic). But, there are cases when representatives of different ethnic communities follow same faith. For example: Macedonians, Serbs, Bulgarians, Russians have same faith, even they belong to different nations. Also, it happens more than one faith to be present in the frames of one nation (for e.g. most of the Macedonians are Orthodox, but still there are Macedonians who are Muslims). On the Balkan Peninsula very typical is the situation with Albanians who have three faiths: Islam, Orthodox and Catholic. All of this tells us that nation and religion should not be identified. Since faith is one and only and while there are more nations, we'll make sharp division between religion and nation. In the world there are orthodox believers as Macedonians, Russians, Arabic, Serbians what means that faith is up-national i.e. universal.

Even religion and nation are two powerful forms of belonging and identifying: in order to strengthen national feeling, religious one has to be weakened. On the question "Who are you?" none would answer I'm Orthodox, Catholic, Muslim or Protestant. Almost everybody would answer "I'm Macedonian, Serbian, Bulgarian, and Albanian". It leads us to the fact that during last several centuries situation has been changed in its root. But, basic characteristic of modern time is the following rather paradox act. 20 years ago when religion came back in social and every-day life, everybody expected that people would find themselves as subjects of their own faith. But, opposite had happened: necessity for belonging and identifying with the nation appeared to be much stronger than religious identification and participation (Šušnjić, 1998).

In the context of this topic we'll make a short discussion about the relation between religion and nation. At the beginning we'll emphasize doubtless fact that religion and nation are two powerful forms of identification. These are strong mechanisms through which each person seeks for its identity. Sense of identity is very important for every ethnic group in the Balkan region. But these two forms of identity cannot have same intensity in same time. In order to intensify national sense, religious one is to be weakened and vice versa. In certain period religious

sense is stronger, while in other periods the national one, no matter whether we talk about members of Macedonian, Albanian, Serbian, Croatian or Bosnian ethnic community in the Balkan region.

Religion is classical saint, while nation is modern saint. Those who prefer religious filling are led through life by the following idea: "Love all nations as you love your own nation". Those who prefer national filling are led by the following thought: "Love your own nation, before and above all". I agree with the constellation that the people in Balkan states turn themselves more towards their historical past than towards their future. But, nation does not live only with its memory of its own past, but also with a high level of approximation about its future. Determination of its own future gathers the will of the members of certain ethnic community and makes them deeply united. Usually consciousness about mutual past is made completely with the wish for mutual future. Past cannot be changed, but it can be acquired. Future cannot be completely known, but can be changed.

Great numbers of sociological examinations, which refer to this subject, indicate interesting data. Believe it or not, they show that religion and nation do not have logical connection. Additionally, here is the fact that religion is national and universal category. But, besides these strong facts, these social phenomena are in an unbreakable psychological connection and secret union! Only in period of national conflicts religious impatience is strengthened. Only in such cases, certain identification of nation and religion that is difficult to understand appears. That's not the case in the rest of "peaceful" times.

Best soil for introducing religious and ethnic tolerance is civic society. It is supra-national society in which basic measure is the citizenship. In the frames of this type of society basic human values become more general. Generalization of the values and norms goes towards the level of creation of universal human rights and values. With this, inherited ethnic rights and linked habits, moral and legal norms fall. Universal values and norms followed by human rights and freedoms are wider than the values of the special ethnic community. However, the system of norms and values has to be risen on universal level. As well as there is a separation of the state from the church, also it is possible to separate the citizenship from the national feature.

Now, we can discuss about the question: Is the national interest stronger than the peace culture? If we want to answer this question we should find some kind of balance between the views that the Balkan region is a flowery garden in which peace and good will of young people from different religions reign and the view that in this region reins the law of opposite and sometimes sharpened relations. Basically, the countries in Balkan region carries the burden of its past and history. That's the destiny of small countries which want to be big, at least in the history. In these two heavenly kingdoms meet and mix: Christian and Muslims. Also it is a place of crashing of two big civilizations: Christian culture

and Byzantium civilization, from one side, and Islamic culture and Muslims civilization, on the other side. Shall we expect conflict of the civilizations, on this piece of ground, or multiculturalism, multiethnic living and the peace culture will reign in the future. Speaking about this we shouldn't forget that Balkan region carries the burden of previously mentioned issues. The Balkans is an area of religious, cultural, ethnic, social and ideological difference between Orthodox, Catholics and Muslim believer and therefore it is not strange if misunderstandings, disputes and accidental conflicts are not only of religious character, but also from political, ethnic, cultural, historical, ideological and psychological character (Blagojević, 2005).

Islam and Christianity are part of the Eastern faiths, but they do not exclude each other. Judaism, Christianity and Islam use different names for same God. Probably, that's because they want to show and proof their difference. But, also they allow young believers of different religious to pray and confess in a same Holy Temple. Believe it or not, problems appear when internal misunderstandings and conflicts occur inside these religious and ethnic communities. Due to economic, political, social and cultural reasons, problems and difficulties that cannot be solved inside the community do appear. In that moment as a kind of rule, they seek for the scapegoat. Who would that be? Certainly, in these cases, they are searching for the victim in someone from the members of ethnic community that is near them. In that way the real reasons for social crises are successfully hidden and also dislocates the attention of its members who are really guilty and should be expelled and punished. Therefore, highly accepted maxim is the one that says that, who cannot converse, humanly with the believer of its own religion, would be even less able to do it with the member of another faith.

On this point, Durkheim's sociological thesis is pretty actual. Paraphrased it would be as follows: if inside certain social community there is negative, demolishing energy that can disintegrate this community, then, this negative energy is directed towards neighboring social community. In that case "my" community is free of disintegration and internal conflicts. In order to save someone's own tribe, the best thing to do is to attack the neighboring one (Durkheim, 1915).

In that way, as well as in the rest of the modern societies, the government was considered to be the saint. Today a saint in visible or invisible manner is a part of the government. As much as state authorities are close to the religion and its institutions that much it's successful in its reigning. State authority is not self-selected in politics battle but is blessed by the church majesty. It is double based: in policy the historical and practical acting and also in God's mind. Saint and world are one perfect harmony and any attack on the worldly would also mean attack on the saintly. (Stanovčić, 1998) In order to understand this better it would be interesting to mention certain characteristics of cultural specifics of the Balkan area. From historical point of view the Balkan area, on which later on independent

countries were created, even in present days is burdened with authoritative political culture. It gives mark to all politics and religious events and relations (maybe because of the strong and long-lasting domination of imperia, like Ottoman one). After communism crashed people started living in time and circumstances that were in collision with authoritarian political culture, from one side, and democratic political culture, on the other side. Result of this epoch collision would influence a lot on how religious and ethnic conflicts would be realized. Pointing at parallel existence of elements of authoritarian and democratic political culture is extremely important for the genesis of these conflicts. Territory of ex-Yugoslav Republics in ethnic, religious and cultural sense is pretty heterogeneous. In this pallet religious element should be appreciated since it is deeply in the root of the tradition and divides people into different groups. More precisely, traditions of all of the three ex-Yugoslav religions in which also orthodoxy belongs, possess elements of authoritarian acting. All of that has an influence on the whole society.

Now something about religious tolerance in the Republic of Macedonia as a part of the Balkan region. Conscious of its existing in multi-ethnic community, Macedonian Orthodox Church has always shown certain level of practical tolerance. But, the fact that Macedonian Orthodox Church is established as a national church (church of the Macedonian nation) and that it exists in that way in its national frames is doubtless. Somehow it limits its tolerance, but we cannot say that Macedonian Orthodox Church doesn't show evident manifestations of practical religious tolerance. It practiced tolerance as much as it was needed, suited to the time and space in which it functioned. In certain historical moments this religious organization intended and tried to be distanced from other religious organizations, especially when its national interests are in question. In some periods its attitude towards Greek, Bulgarian and Serbian Orthodox Church was more unfriendly than its attitude towards Islamic national organization. The reason was simply because these three neighboring churches denied its autonomy, and even more its national prefix (Macedonian). If in certain periods Islamic religious community didn't "disturb" its national root than Macedonian Orthodox Church would have been pretty tolerant towards this community. On the other hand, in certain period, Macedonian Orthodox Church showed great dose of non-tolerance towards its sister-churches. Good evidence for this are the latest events – efforts for creating a kind of self-announced POA, under direct jurisdiction and hierarchically determined by Serbian Orthodox Church. This intention destroyed relations between Macedonian Orthodox Church, on one side and Serbian and Greek Orthodox Churches, on the other side, so much that their mutual tolerance is on the lowest level. Reason for this situation is the fact that Serbian Orthodox Church and Greek Orthodox Church do not recognize the national roots of Macedonian Orthodox Church. Therefore, very often Macedonian Orthodox Church involves in its own religious-national frames. It is characteristic that Macedonian Orthodox Church always has had sense for recognizing and tolerance

towards other religious organizations which didn't put in question its national interests. Typical example for this is its particularly tolerant attitude towards Catholic Church in Macedonia and Vatican. Why? The answer is pretty simple. Vatican official policy has never put in question national (Macedonian) roots of Macedonian Orthodox Church.

Even Islam is theoretically pretty tolerant, in our country it is closed and limited to itself, especially in less culturally and industrially developed areas, where it is especially conservative. Therefore most of the time Islamic religious community in Macedonia was on certain distance from the Orthodox Christians. However, leadership of Islamic religious community in Macedonia invests efforts to modernize its own religious organization. It tries to make it more open towards its Islam believers, as well as towards Orthodox Christians and other people who practice another religion. Trying to do this it faces certain difficulties. Among the rest is also the difficulty that comes from the reserved attitude of Macedonian Orthodox Church towards Islamic religious community. On this point most important characteristic is the oscillation in certain time and space dimension. It proves the fact that Islamic religious community as well as Macedonian Orthodox Church practices peace culture as much as it is necessary in that moment. That means that here we have dosed tolerance in time and space. Neither Islamic religious community, nor Macedonian Orthodox Church has gone more far than this. As a reason for this, both religious communities usually mention the possibility of causing anger in certain number of believers.

On this point, Macedonian Orthodox Church, as institution with Orthodox believers has always shown practical tolerance, but of limited level, because remained firmly in its national frames. Differently from the Orthodoxy, where there's strong link between the church and the nation, in Islam there is a high level of connection between the faith and the political power. This analysis searches for answer on the question whether this two, most important religious institutions in Republic of Macedonia (Macedonian Orthodox Church and Islam Religious Community) "didn't say aloud" (or even supported) manipulation with religious feelings or in the frames of religious tolerance actively participated in solving the conflict in 2001.

In this direction, it's interesting to search an answer for the question: whether Macedonian Orthodox Church and Islamic religious community will calm down or sharpen ethnic conflicts and problems. Since they are separated from the state, it is clear that they cannot carry the main guilt for inter-ethnic problems in Republic of Macedonia. State and political parties in it are guilty for this. However, we can answer this question if we make detail analyses of the statements, declared by religious leaders in the last ten to fifteen years. Analyses would show that their speeches differ from the religious teachings about peace and about conflicts. Anyway, these religious organizations can't be accused to be directly guilty for ethnic conflicts and problems, because they are not located on

the main social road. They don't have influence on public life and public opinion as much as the state and politics elite have, which they do it through the means for mass communication. If it depends on Macedonian Orthodox Church and Islamic religious community, there wouldn't be ethnic conflicts in Republic of Macedonia. They are present because it's not up to them. But, they are not completely free of responsibility. If they are not responsible for what they said, they are responsible for not saying what they had to say. It gives an impression that religious organizations in Republic of Macedonia do not have enough power to speak in their own religious language, but in certain social-political moment they speak in collective language of its environment, where ethnocentrism becomes ideology of modern time.

Literature

Blagojević, Mirko. 2005, *Religija i crkva u transformacijama društva*, Beograd: Institut za filozofsku i društvenu teoriju.

Cvitković, Ivan, 2004, *Sociologija religije*, Sarajevo: Des.

Durkheim, Emil, 1915, *The elementary forms of the religious life*, London: Allen and Unwin.

Hamilton, M. (2001) *The Sociology of Religion*, Routledge, an imprint of the Taylor & Francis Group.

Matevski, Zoran, 2007, "Religious dialogue and tolerance – theoretical and practical experiences of differences and similarities", In Anthology: *Politics and Religion*. Beograd: Center for study of Religion and religious tolerance.

MC Guire, Meredith. 2002. *Religion – the social context*. USA: Wadsworth Thomson learning.

Stanovčić, P., 2003, *Političke ideje i religija I i 2*, Beograd, Ćigoj.

Šušnjić, Đuro, 1998, *Religija I i II*. Beograd: Ćigoja.

Vukomanović, M., (2004), *Religija*, Beograd, Zavod za učbenike i nastavna sredstva.

КУЛТУРАТА НА МИРОТ КАКО ПРЕДУСЛОВ НА ЕВРОАТЛАНСКИТЕ ПЕРСПЕКТИВИ НА БАЛКАНОТ

ЗОРАН МАТЕВСКИ

zmatevski@fzf.ukim.edu.mk ; matev@mt.net.mk

*Универзитет Св. Кирил и Методиј
Филозофски факултет-Скопје*

РЕЗИМЕ

Културата на мирот може да се одреди како системско и постојано негување и практикување на вредностите на мирот во внатреопштествените и меѓудржавните односи, се до глобални рамки. Сето ова е секогаш поврзано со општествените промени кои допринесуваат за подобар живот на граѓанинот во сите елементи на неговата општествена положба и пристапот до животните шанси. Мирот на Балканот во голема мерка зависи од тоа дали ќе се воспостави стабилен мир во Европа, а тоа пак зависи од можностите за воспоставување на доминантна состојба на мир во целиот свет. Се работи за своевиден синџир на мирот при што мирот во Европа и мирот како преовладувачка состојба во светски рамки е она што ја одредува суштинската содржина на мирот на одредено подрачје какво што е Балканот. Иницијативата на балканските држави за Евроатланските интеграции зависи од многу фактори. Но суштинскиот фактор се состои во етаблирање на крајно еластичено политичко, економско и културно обединување на балканскиот простор, кој нема да ги доведе во прашање самостојноста и независноста на балканските држави. Но мора да го истакнеме и фактот дека политичките и интелектуалните елити на Балканот многу често бирале патишта кои се покажале како штетни дури и фатални за развојот на балканските држави и нивните Евроатлански аспирации. Во глобалната ера потребно е да се развие свест кај балканските елити за неопходност од стабилен внатрешен мир, базиран на општествен консензус како и на соработка со соседите во која секоја од балканските држави би била субјект и градител на мирољубиви меѓусебни односи.

Клучни зборови : култура на мирот, толеранција, конфликти, религиски и етнички идентитет

THE IMPACT OF UNITED STATES FACTOR WITHIN EU INTEGRATION PROCESS OF TURKISH STATE AND THE MAIN CHALLENGES OF TURKEY – EU RELATIONS AT THE BEGINNING OF 21ST CENTURY

Muhamed Ali, MA

Lecturer, Faculty of Islamic Sciences, Skopje, Macedonia
Ph.D. Candidate in International Law and Politics, Faculty of Law
"Justinianus Primus"
University "Ss. Cyril and Methodius" Skopje, Macedonia

Abstract

As US foreign policy had in the past and still has serious implications on the Turkish diplomacy regarding Balkans and Middle East, thus it is considered as serious factor of Turkey's EU integration. The political history of US foreign policy indicates that the approach and standpoint of US towards the integration process of Turkey to EU is positive and in various occasions appears as determining factor that intensifies the EU integration process of this country. The commencement of 2000s are considered as years of positive trends in terms of EU – Turkey relations, as it is the beginning of negotiation process between two sides. These years are characterized with a range of challenges as well, caused by internal and external factors that played significant role in the process of developing mutual relations. The approach of Turkish foreign policy towards Iraqi War (2003) intensified the positive trend on Turkey –EU relations, while taking into account the fact the entire integration of Turkey within EU beside meeting of economic and political criteria, depends on the harmonization of mutual approaches in the domain of international strategy and geo-policy. Except Iraqi War - Cyprus issue a contest that for decades determines the relations between Turkish and Greece, after the accession of Cyprus to EU became a new challenge in the process of Turkish integration in EU. However, we may conclude that one of the most important challenges of Turkey in the beginning of the 21st century is the course of its affairs with Greece.

Keywords: Turkey – EU relations, US factor, Iraqi War, Cyprus issue, Turkish – Greek affairs.

Introduction

One of the most significant characteristics of foreign policy of newly formed Republic of Turkey of Mustafa Kemal Pasha was its pro-western

orientation. The beginning of the second half of the previous century witness the start of the process of full integration of Turkish state to EU, which is not yet finalised. It should be stated that American foreign policy regardless to the political elites in power, has continuously supported the process of Turkey's integration within the united Europe. This support is initially based on the state interests of USA and Western block. The relations between Turkey and EU in the 21st century face several challenges. In this context we can distinct, Iraqi war, Cyprus question and Turkish-Greek relations. In this paper we will provide a short historical overview on Turkish-EU relations, and then we will analyse the factors having impact on American support to Turkey's integration into EU. At the end we will strive to highlight Turkey-EU challenges at the beginning of the 21st century.

A brief historical overview of Turkey – EU relations

After the commencement of the realization of the historical aspiration of European nations for unification and integration within the united Europe, Turkish foreign policy, which during Ataturk time had pro-western orientation, made the first steps towards integration of Turkey within the community of European nations. So on 31st of July, 1959 Turkish state submitted the application for accession to EEC (European Economic Community). This date *per se* symbolises the beginning of the long path in the process of Turkey's integration within European community. One of the main determinants that implicated this application for membership to EEC was the political act of Greek foreign policy, which two weeks before (15th of July) applied for accession to this community. However, the will of Turkish political authorities for accession to these vital European institutions was an additional agent of the aforementioned decision of Turkish state. Turkish application for accession to EEC was refused, with a justification that Turkey still was not developed sufficiently to undertake the obligations deriving from the accession act to EEC. As an alternative of accession, EEC offered Turkey Agreement on Partnership that according to the European authorities supposed to have temporal character until the complete achievement of accession conditions for full member of this community. On 12th of September 1963 in Ankara was signed the Agreement between Turkey and EEC, known as *Ankara Agreement*, that came in force on 1st of December 1964. Its aim was to open the path of Turkey for full membership in this community.¹ At the same time, the goal of this agreement was the

¹ See Yiğit, Devrim, *Avrupa Birliği Genişleme Sürecinde Avrupa Birliği – Türkiye İlişkileri (master thesis)*, D.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Diyarbakır, 2006, p.90; Ergin, Koray, *Kopenhag Kriterleri Bağlamında Türkiye – AB İlişkileri 1993-2004 (master thesis)*, A.K.Ü.

integration of Turkish economy in the Common European Market and development of mutual relations in trade and economy, aiming to develop Turkish economy and to enhance the quality of life standard of Turkish people. According to this agreement, the process of development of Turkish-EEC relations supposed to pass through three periods: *preparation period, transition, and final period*. The first period of Turkey – EEC relations lasted from 1964 to 1972, then due to the signing of the Additional Protocol between Turkey and EEC (1970) the transition period started, that above all was relied on mutual obligations. Still, according to this protocol was envisaged a gradual implementation of Customs Union between Turkey and EC (European Community). This act supposed to represent a vital step of Turkey's integration within European common family.² However, apart from the steps undertaken for intensification of relations between Turkey and EC, still 1970s and the first half of 1980s are considered the period of declination of their mutual relations. There shouldn't be neglected the fact, that apart from the political and economical factors, the *coup d'état of Turkish Army (12th September 1980) against the democratically elected government can be considered as main factor, that provided additional impulse in deterioration of the above mentioned relations. After the establishment of civil and democratic power in Turkey (in 1983), started the new era of Turkey - EC relations. In April 1987 even three foreseen periods of Ankara Agreement were not finalized yet, Turkey decided to submit a request for full accession to this community. On 18th of December 1989 EC refused the request of Turkey, elaborating that it is not ready to receive new members before finalizing the internal integration between the existing member states. In this elaboration of EC was emphasized the need of further economic, political and social development of Turkey, mutual relations to be developed within the frame of Agreement for Partnership signed by both sides.*³ After this, EC regarding the Turkish integration, the preparations for finalisation of Customs Union started, as it was foreseen according to the Additional Protocol. So as a result of the taken decision at the meeting of the Council for Partnership,⁴ on 1st of January 1996 Customs Union came in force, by what Turkey –EU relations entered the *final phase (period)*.⁵ We can

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Afyonkarahisar, 2006, p.4,5; See Bashkurti, Lisen, *Evropa Ballkani dhe sfida e Kosovës*, GEER, Tiranë, 2006, p. 161-219

² Ergin, Op.cit., p. 6,7; Yiğit, Op.cit., p. 91,92, www.abgs.com.tr.

³ In the rapport of EC in terms of the development of relations within the Agreement for Partnership some significant elements are emphasized, such as: Finalization of Customs Union to 1995, intensification of financial and industrial cooperation, development of scientific and technological cooperation, enhancement of scientific and technological cooperation, enhancement of cultural and political relations. See Ergin, Op.cit., p.12.

⁴ Body of Agreement for Partnership.

⁵ www.abgs.com.tr; Ergin, Op.cit., pp.10,13; www.mfa.gov.tr; Dura, Op.cit., p.500.

consider the Customs Union as one of the most important moments in the history of integration of Turkey in the European family. The beginning of the 21st century meant a new moment in the process of development of Turkish–EU relations.⁶ Namely, in the threshold of the beginning of the new century, in the Summit of Helsinki, that took place during 10th and 11th of December 1999, EU took decision for official recognition of Turkey’s candidate status. At the same time, in this Summit of leaders EU member states, enacted the decision for preparation of Accession Partnership Document for Turkey as it was the case with other candidate states for joining EU. On 8th of March 2001 the Council of Europe approved the first Accession Partnership Document of Turkey towards EU.⁷ In this context, in December 2002, in the historical summit of EU leaders that took place in Copenhagen, was affirmed the willingness of EU leaders for the beginning of accession negotiations with Turkey, when it will meet Copenhagen criteria. It should be underlined that after the Summit of Helsinki, as a result of newly created climate between Turkey and EU, Turkish state launched vital reforms, in order to accelerate its integration to EU. In 2001, changes and reforms of the constitutions of the state started and in January 2002, the new civil code came in force, through what Turkish authorities made a huge step in their road towards intensification of the democratization of the state and society and their closer approach towards western standards.⁸ Apart from the abovementioned steps, between 2002 and 2004, Turkish authorities through an eight package reforms⁹ that amended 218 articles of 53 laws in total, undertook additional steps towards harmonisation of the Turkish regulation with the EU legislation. In terms of more efficient implementation of reforms obtained as a result of integration process, in 2003 Turkish government established the Group for Supervision of Reforms that provided additional contribution in the process of expanding of the democratisation of Turkish society. As a result of the abovementioned reforms, in 2004 EU Commission published the report marking significant progress of Turkey, especially in the context of fulfilment of political criteria. So, on 17th of December, the same year, in the margins of the Summit of leaders of EU, held in Brussels, were

⁶ About Turkey –EU relations see: Arıkan, Harun, *Turkey and the EU: An Awkward Candidate for EU Membership?*, Ashgate Publishing, Hampshire, 2006.

⁷ www.abgs.com.tr; www.mfa.gov.tr

⁸ Dura, Cihan (et.al.), *Avrupa Birliği Gümrük Birliği Ve Türkiye*, Nobel Yayın Dağıtım, Ankara, 2007, ctp.560-566, www.mfa.gov.tr.

⁹ Chronological layout of package reforms for reconciliation of Turkish regulation with the European regulation is as follows: I. package reforms – 19 February 2002, II. package reforms – 9 April 2002, III. package reforms – 9 August 2002, IV. package reforms – 11 January 2003, V. package reforms – 4 February 2003, VI. package reforms – 19 July 2003, VII. package reforms– 7 August 2003, VIII. package reforms – 14 July 2004. www.mfa.gov.tr .

regarded positive steps of Turkish state in its path towards the fulfilment of euro integration criteria and on 3rd of September 2005 recommendations for accession negotiations were given. This event was a vital momentum in the history of relations between EU and Turkey. We need to emphasize too, that in the context of harmonisation of Turkish regulation with the European legislation on 12th of April 2006 the ninth package of reforms came in force, so Turkey made a significant step in its way towards EU integration.¹⁰ On 12th of June 2006 an intergovernmental conference between Turkey and EU took place, where the first chapter was opened and covered.

Apart from the blockage of the 18 chapters of negotiations, as a result of activities of some particular EU member states, we can conclude that the positive trend of opening of new chapters in the context of negotiations between Turkey and EU continued from 2008 to 2010. Namely, we can conclude that expansion of democratic reforms by the government of Erdogan is an additional impulse in terms of intensification of Turkey's integration to EU. So, the opening of TV channels for other ethnicities in the Turkish society (opening of state TV channel in Kurdish language) and the empowerment of the function of general secretariat for euro integration are just some of these good practices. The amendment of 20 articles of the Turkish constitution supported by the Turkish nation through the Package Reforms of Constitution voted by the referendum on 12th September 2010¹¹, marking a serious struggle of Erdogan's government against underground structures, that through various of segments and methods traditionally had vital impact on the process of declination of Turkish democratic processes¹² and new preparations of Turkish government for producing of a new constitution complying with the democratic principles of developed states are vital steps of Turkish path for integration to EU.

The impact of United States factor within EU integration process of Turkish state and the main challenges of Turkey – EU relations at the beginning of the 21st century

Foreign policy of United States had and still has serious impact on the Turkish diplomacy on Balkans and Middle East. It is still considered as

¹⁰ In terms of the harmonisation of Turkish foreign policy with the one of EU, especially in the domain of energetic policy see Sökmen, Serhat, *The European Union Energy Law And Policy And The Harmonization Of Turkish Legislation To Those Politics (master thesis)*, Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, 2009.

¹¹ www.mfa.gov.tr

¹² Lately one of the most vital fight of Erdogan's government is the fight against the organization Ergenekon, that is accused of preparation coup d'état and removal of democratically elected Government of Turkey.

serious factor in the process of Turkish euro integration. Namely, political history of US foreign policy is positive with a clear approach and the standing of USA in favour of the process of Turkish integration to EU. In plenty of cases US is a determining factor, that intensifies euro integration processes of this country.

During 1990s foreign policy of US had important role in the key moments of the process of euro integration of Turkey, as well. So, during 1995 in the threshold of the enactment of Customs Union between Turkey and EU, before the Summit of Luxemburg (1997) and Helsinki (1999) – key summits for the Turkish candidate status of Turkey – and during the Summit of G-8 held in Germany, American authorities led by President Clinton, State Secretaries and ambassadors had intensive activities for convincing the European political elites about the strategic, political and economic benefit by the Turkish integration. The abovementioned activities of the American authorities, except the summit of Luxemburg, were positively accepted by EU counterparts. In the course of 1990s the Customs Union between Turkey and EU came in force, and Turkey received candidate status for full membership to EU.¹³ In this context, there is a need to explain the key factors that determine American support of Turkey in its efforts towards joining EU. These are the main reasons and factors that have serious impact on the aforementioned US policy:

- after the end of Cold War, one of the major commitments of American foreign policy was its factorisation and transformation into a key factor in Eurasia, a region where Turkey has very important geostrategic and geopolitical position. After England, the accession of Turkey to EU would have meant increase of US impact in the eurasiatic region.

- joining of Turkey to EU will strengthen up its relations with EU. That approach will bring it closer to western values and will avoid possible establishment of Islamic regime that can represent a threat to the western world. All that can cause a risk to equilibrium of Middle East and Western policies in Middle Asia. Bearing in mind the power of Turkish army, the membership of Turkey to EU means its active inclusion in the possible European defensive structure. In long term plan, we can consider that till large extent can be facilitated and intensified the cooperation of NATO with the possible European defensive structure, where except England, Turkey participates, too.¹⁴

¹³ Erdoğan, M. Mehmet, *Soğuk Savaş Sonrasında Türkiye Avrupa Birliği İlişkileri 1990 – 2005 (докторска дисертација)*, A.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara, 2006, стр. 405, 406; Yıldız, Ahmet, *Türkiye'nin Balkanlarda Etkin Bir Politika İzlemesinin Avrupa Birliği Olan İlişkilere Etkileri (магистерска теза)*, T.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Edirne, 2006, p. 95.

¹⁴ Yıldız Op.cit., p.95, 96.

- there are several opinions (like Samuel Huntington) that stated that Turkish accession to EU is impossible. Still the support of USA to this project has one aim, weakening the positions of EU to the international arena.¹⁵

We need to underline that the attacks of September 11 had serious reflections on the strategic concept and opinions of European political elites, towards the importance of Turkish integration to EU. In this context we can quote the opinion of the German minister of foreign affairs from 1998 – 2005 Fischer (Joscka Fischer), who said that the attacks of September 11 had about 51% positive impact and 49% negative impact on the Turkish accession to EU. Since then, I believe that the unification of Europe has strategic aspects as well, that can not be achieved without accession of Turkey that largely can contribute to the Foreign and Security Policy of EU.¹⁶

The beginning of 2000s is considered a period when Turkey-EU relations apart from positive trends – as it was the commencement of the process of negotiations between two sides – is characterised with certain challenges caused by the internal and external factors, that played important role in the process of development of mutual relations. In fact, one of the most influential challenges that determines the relations between Turkey and EU in this period is the Iraqi war (2003). In this context, we need to stress, that the stand of Turkey on this war, which was in harmony with the one of EU leading countries, France and Germany, opposing the American policies and strategies, enabled mutual strengthening of relations between Turkey and EU, and relative declination of Turkish-US relations. So as a result of these events, the image of Turkey in the prospect of EU political elites from a “security consumption” country, as it was in the period of political insecurity (during 1990s) was transformed to “security production” country. At the same time, the standing of Turkey towards Iraqi War intensified the positive trend of Turkey-EU relations, bearing in mind the fact that the entire integration of Turkey to this institution, apart from the fulfilment of political and economical criteria, depends on the harmonisation of its standings with those of EU in the domain of international strategy and geo-policy. Positive communication of the most important European political elites during this period, the President of EU Commission Romano Prodi, Senior Representative of EU Javier Solana, Cancellor of Germany Gerhard Schröder, French president Jacques Chirac upon the intensification of the process of integration of Turkish state with a lot of significant events, reflect

¹⁵ Yıldız Op.cit., p.97.

¹⁶ Erdoğan, Op.cit., p.372.

the strategic approach of European elites on Turkish integration.¹⁷ However, now surprises the fact that leaders of both abovementioned supportive countries (Germany and France) Angela Merkel and Nicholas Sarkozy turned into a locomotive and symbol of European resistance on Turkish euro integration. In this context, we need to underline that the harmonisation of strategic standings of Turkey with those of EU in the case of Iraqi War, was not in favour of the strategic interests of USA, but in contrary it impedes the implementation of American strategy in this country, rather in the region of Middle East, a strategy that faced a failure. Apart from the Turkish policy towards Iraqi War, a standing with negative reflections on Turkish – US relations, still the president Bush and successor Obama continued the traditional strategy of USA on Turkish integration to EU. Namely, Bush as in the eve of Iraqi War (2003), as well after the war, in a meeting with his Turkish counterpart, Abdullah Gul emphasised the importance of Turkish euro integration within the establishment of the peace in the international scene.¹⁸ Obama as well, after his election as president of USA criticised the negative stand of some European political figures on the Turkish integration and warned the Europeans about the possible deterioration from the integration policy.¹⁹ Apart from the Iraqi War, the beginning of 2000s witnesses various other events that have significant reflections on the euro integration process of Republic of Turkey. In this context, we can mention the Cyprus question, a dispute that for decades determines Turkey-EU relations, now after the accession of Cyprus to EU, became a new challenge in the process of Turkish integration to EU. After the party of Erdogan came in power, Turkey for the first time in its history officially recognised the Cyprus dispute and expressed political and diplomatic will to solve the abovementioned issue within the Plan of Anan, compiled by the General Secretary of UN, Kofi Anan. In this context, we need to underline that this plan was in harmony with the EU strategy and policy on this dispute. Foreign policy of AKP on this dispute, that was in harmony with the expectations of EU and the initiative of Anan’s Plan, at the same time was defined as “strategy of one step ahead”. This way Erdogan insisted directly to intensify the negotiations with the Greek part of the island in order to find solution for this long years’ dispute. Even, till nowadays the Cyprus issue is not closed yet, still we can conclude that the new proactive policy of AKP towards this issue had significant benefits in terms of increase of sympathy towards Turkey in the arena of European political elites and in the commencement of

¹⁷ Gözen, Ramazan, *İmparatorluktan Küresel Aktörlüğe Türkiye’nin Dış Politikası*, Palme Yayıncılık, Ankara, 2009, p. 359, 360, 486, 487.

¹⁸ www.abhaber.com/ 17 November 2011.

¹⁹ www.radikal.com.tr/ 8 July 2010.

accession negotiations.²⁰ However, apart from the approach of Turkish side on the Plan of Anan for the solution of Cyprus issue, a stand that was in harmony with the USA and EU and enabled enhancing the relations between Turkey and EU, still the last events in this island weakens the hopes for faster solution of the abovementioned problem. Namely, strengthening of relations between Cyprus (Greek part) and Israel while Turkish – Israeli relations are at the lowest level, the beginning of the operations of Cyprus for exploring of gas reserves in the Mediterranean Sea²¹ and as a respond to this, the launch of Turkish exploring ship escorted by the Turkish marine, the announcement of the Turkish government that possible interruption of negotiations with EU during Cyprus presidency with EU are amongst the newest challenges, that till a certain extent, can have negative reflections on the euro integration process of Turkey. One of the most important challenges of Turkish integration to EU in the beginning of the 21st century is the course of its relations with Greece. Namely, the introduction of the so called humanitarian diplomacy due to the catastrophic earthquake in Turkey (1999) meant a serious step in the process of strengthening the bilateral relations. Humanitarian diplomacy apart from the strengthening the bilateral relations, provided a huge contribution to the increase of dialog between political elites of both countries, especially between the Prime ministers and Ministers of foreign affairs. Frequent formal and informal mutual meetings between the Ministers of foreign affairs of Turkey, Ismail Cem and Greek head of diplomacy Jorgos Papandreu in the beginning of 2000s provided apposite impulse in terms of development of mutual relations. Apart from the abovementioned steps new incentives started for the development of the rights of minorities of both countries and measures were undertaken for *confidence building* between both nations, especially in the domain of solutions of Aegean Sea dispute. All of these occurrences in the process of development of bilateral relations between both countries enabled to unlock the beginning of the process accession negotiations of Turkey in its euro integration path.²² We consider that the establishment of the new Greek government (2011), that above all has the priority to save the country from the deep economical crisis, in a period when Turkish economy is considered as one of the most developed in the world, can provide a new momentum, where Turkish economical activities in Greece would result to the increase of mutual political relations.

Conclusion

²⁰ Buðu Gözen, Op.cit., p. 487.

²¹ www.daily.mk

²² Buðu Gözen, Op.cit., p. 488.

The package of reforms of the new Turkish constitution in the referendum of 12th of September, 2010, the serious fight of Erdogan's government against the underground structures, that through different methods have traditionally played a vital role in the process of declination of Turkish democratic reforms and the new preparations of the Turkish government for composition of a new constitution in accordance with the democratic principles of the developed countries are vital steps in the path of Turkish integration to EU. The foreign policy of USA has serious implications on Turkish diplomacy towards its hinterland and is considered as serious factor in the process of Turkish euro integration. We need to emphasize that during 1990s the foreign policy of USA had serious role in the most crucial moments of the process of EU integration of Turkey. As such, in 1995 in the eve of enactment of the Customs Union of Turkey and EU, before the Summit of Luxemburg (1997) and Helsinki (1999) – key Summits for Turkish candidate status – and in the course of Summit of G-8 held in Germany, American authorities led by President Clinton, State Secretary and the ambassadors had intensive activities for convincing the European political elites on the strategic, political and economic vitality on the Turkish issue. According to the American authorities, their support on the Turkish integration to EU is based on several factors, such as: a) accession of Turkey to EU means increase of USA impact on Eurasia, b) accession of Turkey to EU will strengthen up Turkey's relations with EU and by that Turkey will come closer to western values and avoid possible establishment of Islamic regime, that can be a threat to the western world etc. The beginning of 2000s is considered as a period when Turkey-EU relations mark positive trends – such as the beginning of negotiation process between both sides- and is characterised with a range of challenges caused by internal and external factors that had important role in the process of development of mutual relations. Namely, as one of the most important challenges, that determines the relations between Turkey and EU at this period is the Iraqi War (2003). The approach of Turkey on this war, that was in line with the one of EU leading countries, France and Germany, and was against the American policies and strategies, contributed to the development of Turkey-EU relations and declination of Turkey-US relations. In addition to Iraqi War, the beginning of 2000s witnesses a range of other events, with significant reflections on euro integration process of Republic of Turkey. In these regards, we can mention the Cyprus issue, a contest that for decades determined Turkish – Greek relations. After Cyprus became a member of EU it turned into a new challenge in the process of Turkish integration to EU. One of the most significant challenges of EU integration in the beginning of the 21st century is the course of its relation with Greece. Namely, the

introduction of the so called humanitarian diplomacy due to the catastrophic earthquake in Turkey (1999) meant a serious step in the process of strengthening the bilateral relations. Finally we need to underline that the economic crisis of Greece in the period of development of Turkish economy represents a vital momentum for development of Turkish-Greek relations.

Bibliography:

1. Arıkan, Harun, *Turkey and the EU: An Awkward Candidate for EU Membership?*, Ashgate Publishing, Hampshire, 2006.
2. Bashkurti, Lisen, *Evropa Ballkani dhe sfida e Kosovës*, GEER, Tiranë, 2006.
3. Dura, Cihan (et.al.), *Avrupa Birliği Gümrük Birliği Ve Türkiye*, Nobel Yayın Dağıtım, Ankara, 2007.
4. Erdoğan, M. Mehmet, *Soğuk Savaş Sonrasında Türkiye Avrupa Birliği İlişkileri 1990 – 2005 (doktorca dizertmaçııja)*, A.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara, 2006.
5. Ergin, Koray, *Kopenhag Kriterleri Bağlamında Türkiye – AB İlişkileri 1993-2004 (mağucmercka meza)*, A.K.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Afyonkarahisar, 2006.
6. Gözen, Ramazan, *İmparatorluktan Küresel Aktörlüğe Türkiyenin Dış Politikası*, Palme Yayıncılık, Ankara, 2009.
7. Yiğit, Devrim, *Avrupa Birliği Genişleme Sürecinde Avrupa Birliği – Türkiye İlişkileri (mağucmercka meza)*, D.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Diyarbakır, 2006.
8. Yıldız, Ahmet, *Türkiye'nin Balkanlarda Etkin Bir Politika İzlemesinin Avrupa Birliği Olan İlişkilere Etkileri (mağucmercka meza)*, T.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Edirne, 2006.
9. Sökmen, Serhat, *The European Union Energy Law And Policy And The Harmonization Of Turkish Legislation To Those Politics (master thesis)*, Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul, 2009.
10. www.mfa.gov.tr
11. www.abhaber.com
12. www.abgs.com.tr
13. www.radikal.com.tr
14. www.daily.mk

EUROPEAN INTEGRATION AND LONG TERM PERSPECTIVES OF TRANSPORT INTEGRATION OF THE BALKANS

Stevco Jolakoski, MA

*Head of Department for Road Transport and Infrastructure, Ministry
of Transport and Communications*

Darko Spiroski

Head of EU Department, Ministry of Transport and Communications

Transport is one of the key factors for development and integration. It is a base for development of the market economy and free movement of people and goods.

The goal of this document is to underline that there are huge discrepancies between the development of the transport systems of the Balkan countries and EU member countries which lead to low level of integration of the markets of the Balkans and EU countries and low level of compliant of long term and suitable transport policies between these two regions.

It sets the hypothesis that development of transport as key integration factor is on a very different level between the Balkans and the EU-27 and this lead to non-compliant level of integration of the region in the EU.

Bases for these hypotheses are the following:

- Long term transport policies are not compliant between the two regions. In EU according to the White Paper the policy is to promote use of trains and other modes of low level of carbon modes of transport and to replace individual travels by cars
- Long term transport policies of the Balkan region is to develop road networks first and then focus on the other more environmentally friendly modes of transport
- Long term planning in EU is based on available funds for development of modes of transport with low level of carbon emissions with long term available budgets
- In Balkan regions due to the lack of available financial support from the state budgets the long term planning is not in place or there are no 20-30 year planning mechanisms with long term goals

There are more factors that lead to this discrepancy and lead to low level of transport integration of the Balkans such as the “non physical barriers” etc.

But the core issue is that long term plans of the Balkan region and the EU-27 are non compliant both in policy making and in projects implantation following the implantation of those polices.

Introduction

Transport is a on of the key factors for development and integration. It is a base for development of the market economy and free movement of people and goods.

The goal of this document is to underline that there are discrepancies between the development of the transport systems of the Balkan countries and EU member countries which lead to low level of integration of the markets of the Balkans and EU countries and low level of compliant of long term and suitable transport policies between these two regions.

It sets the hypothesis that development of transport as key integration factor is on a very different level between the Balkans and the EU-27 and this lead to non-compliant level of integration of the region in the EU.

Bases for these hypotheses are the following:

1. Long term transport policies are not compliant between the two regions. In EU according to the White Paper the policy is to promote use of trains and other modes of low level of carbon modes of transport and to replace individual travels by cars. In Balkan regions due to the lack of available financial support from the state budgets the long term planning is not in place or there are no 20-30 year planning mechanisms with long term goals.
2. Long term transport policies of the Balkan region are to develop road networks first and then focus on the other more environmentally friendly modes of transport.
3. Long term planning in EU is based on available funds for development of modes of transport with low level of carbon emissions with long term available budgets.

There are more factors that lead to this discrepancy and lead to low level of transport integration of the Balkans such as the “non physical barriers” etc. But the core issue is that long term plans of the Balkan region and the EU-27 are non compliant both in policy making and in projects implantation following the implantation of those polices.

4. This is also a case in the road safety area where there is no long term and consistent planning and no long term institutional solutions for this very important issue for all of us.

1. Long term transport policies are not compliant between the two regions

The long term policies of EU are defined in the WHITE PAPER roadmap to a Single European Transport Area – Towards a competitive and resource efficient transport system adopted by the European Commission on 28.03.2011.

The Ten Goals for a competitive and resource efficient transport system: benchmarks for achieving the 60% GHG emission reduction target as described in this document are the following:

Developing and deploying new and sustainable fuels and propulsion systems

(1) Halve the use of ‘conventionally-fuelled’ cars in urban transport by 2030; phase them out in cities by 2050; achieve essentially CO₂-free city logistics in major urban centres by 2030.

(2) Low-carbon sustainable fuels in aviation to reach 40% by 2050; also by 2050 reduce EU CO₂ emissions from maritime bunker fuels by 40% (if feasible 50%¹¹).

Optimising the performance of multimodal logistic chains, including by making greater use of more energy-efficient modes

(3) 30% of road freight over 300 km should shift to other modes such as rail or waterborne transport by 2030, and more than 50% by 2050, facilitated by efficient and green freight corridors. To meet this goal will also require appropriate infrastructure to be developed.

(4) By 2050, complete a European high-speed rail network. Triple the length of the existing high-speed rail network by 2030 and maintain a dense railway network in all Member States. By 2050 the majority of medium-distance passenger transport should go by rail.

(5) A fully functional and EU-wide multimodal TEN-T ‘core network’ by 2030, with a high quality and capacity network by 2050 and a corresponding set of information services.

(6) By 2050, connect all core network airports to the rail network, preferably high-speed; ensure that all core seaports are sufficiently connected to the rail freight and, where possible, inland waterway system.

Increasing the efficiency of transport and of infrastructure use with information systems and market-based incentives

(7) Deployment of the modernised air traffic management infrastructure (SESAR12) in Europe by 2020 and completion of the European Common Aviation Area. Deployment of equivalent land and waterborne transport management systems (ERTMS, ITS, SSN and LRIT, RIS). Deployment of the European Global Navigation Satellite System (Galileo).

(8) By 2020, establish the framework for a European multimodal transport information, management and payment system.

(9) By 2050, move close to zero fatalities in road transport. In line with this goal, the EU aims at halving road casualties by 2020. Make sure that the EU is a world leader in safety and security of transport in all modes of transport.

(10) Move towards full application of “user pays” and “polluter pays” principles and private sector engagement to eliminate distortions, including harmful subsidies, generate revenues and ensure financing for future transport investments.

These 10 goals are not reflected in the strategies of the western Balkan countries as it will be shown in the next item. However the EU countries are on a higher level of development so it is difficult, I would say even non realistic that, developing countries of the Western Balkans can achieve these goals. This is only natural because the problems that most of the people that live in the Balkans are of existential nature. As Maslov said in the pyramid of needs a hungry man does not care about the policies and long term planning but how to make it to the next day.

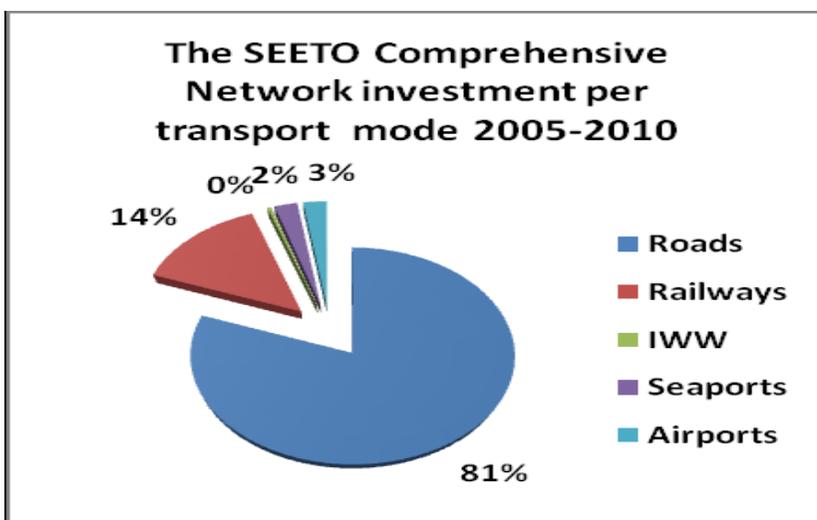
2. Long term transport policies of the Balkan region is to develop road networks first and then focus on the other more environmentally friendly modes of transport

If you look at the region of the Western Balkans and you analyze the situation the following will emerge as a conclusion:

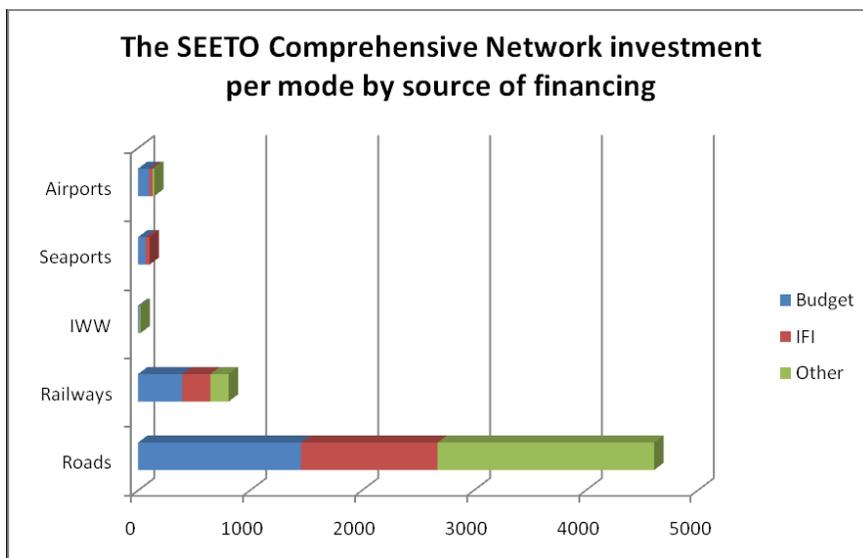
- Long term planning is an initial phase. Many of the countries have no National Strategies like Bosnia for example and other countries have 10 year planning strategies (Macedonia for example). Others like Serbia have 10 year master plan for transport development. So, long term planning for periods of 20 or 30 years for transport sector either does not exist or has 10 years horizon if it exists.
- It is clear that if you look at the investment in the previous period it is obvious that road investments are dominant. No matter how much the governments of the region are supporting rail or other modes of so called green transport the number speak for themselves. This is also

natural way of development of the market economy since the demand for good road networks is driven by the high demand for new personal cars and the highest number of passengers transported is still with personal cars.

This is obvious if you look at the analysis performed by SEETO (Southeast Europe Transport Observatory) for the period 2005 -2010 5.6 billion of Euros were invested in development of infrastructure on the Corridors and routes out of which 81% or 4.6 were invested in roads and only14 % are invested in rail.



3. Long term planning in EU is based on available funds for development of modes of transport with low level of carbon emissions with long term available budgets



The SEETO Comprehensive Network investments analysis by source of financing indicate that 37% (€2.125 billion) of total investments were received from various EU funds, concessions, commercial loans, grants, and others (further in text as `other`) followed by national budget (36%) and IFI's (27%) sources.

The EU funds (such as IPA, CARDS, ISPA, PHARE etc.) are incorporated in “other” sources with 1% share (€ 69.6 million) of the total investments amount. Concessions are also part of “other” sources with 7% (€374.53 million) of total investments in the SEETO Comprehensive Network.

Share of the national budget investments in the SEETO Comprehensive Network show that €1.456 billion went in roads (72%) followed by railways with significantly smaller share of budget investments €395.19 million (19%).

IFI loans are represented in a share of 27% or €1.539 billion in the overall SEETO Comprehensive Network investments. Majority was directed in the road sector totalling €1.221 billion (79%) while €251.92 million of IFI investments were placed in the SEETO Comprehensive Railway Network.

Also from the table it can be concluded that the many sources of funding are still the state budget which is very limited and based on yearly or three year planning base. This shows that long term investment are either covered by IFI's to allow financial stability of the project.

The grant funds that are available in the EU member states through cohesion funds (which are 1/3 of the whole EU budget) are not on the table for Western Balkans countries.

“The EU funds (such as IPA, CARDS, ISPA, PHARE etc.) are incorporated in “other” sources with 1% share (€ 69.6 million) of the total investments amount” is a statement which speaks for it self.

So long term planning is not based on long term available funds.

4. Road safety policies and institutions

Another very important point is that Road safety as a hot topic is not also well addressed in the Western Balkans countries. Most of the countries have no long term strategies how to tackle this issue and as a receiver of the communist system most of the power is in the Ministry of Interior, Almost none of the countries have special bodies that deal with infrastructure safety. The categorization of the roads is not done in compliant with the EURORAB categorization but with old categorization of black spots. There is no system for monitoring and reporting of the accidents that will be compliant with the data needed to implement the EURORAB system

If you look at the numbers it shows that the situation is also different compared to EU countries.

Table 3-8 Population, Total Number of Accidents, Injuries and Fatalities

Participant	Population (thousands)		Number of Vehicles (thousands)		Number of Accidents		Fatalities		Injured	
	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010	2005	2010
Albania	3,142	3,186	285	420	853	1,564	307	352	875	1,748
Bosnia and Herzegovina	4,346	3,843	736	954	35,236	38,911	380	355	9,465	10,024
Croatia	4,440	4,291	1,791	1,970	58,132	44,394	597	426	21,777	18,333
the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2,039	2,057	279	353	18,821	12,253	143	162	4,176	6,375
Montenegro	623	625	199	169	6,162	9,138	95	95	1,942	2,099
Serbia	7,441	7,307	1,702	1,945	61,958	47,757	841	656	16,872	19,326
Kosovo (under UNSCR1244/99)	2,300	2,350	250	300	13,917	12,780	155	148	4,206	7,687
Total	24,331	23,659	5,242	6,111	195,106	166,797	2,519	2,194	59,313	65,592

The European Union has adopted a Common Road Safety Action Plan to try to reduce the 40,000 people killed each year in road crashes. A key feature of the plan is the target to achieve a 50% reduction in the road traffic fatalities by 2010.

The Government of France allocated €400 million to a 3 year investment plan. The amount spent on new road safety actions since 2003 demonstrate a significant rate of return. The economic benefits in reduced crash costs for the country represent 50 times the annual amount spent on road safety promotion.

The World Bank has established a Global Road Safety Facility to generate increased funding and technical assistance for global, regional and country level initiatives to build capacity and implement road safety programmes in low and middle income countries. This decade is also declared by the United Nations as a decade of Road safety in the world.

Taking into consideration the above mentioned we can conclude that the long term plans of the Balkan region and the EU-27 are different both in policy making and in projects implantation following the implantation of those polices for development of the transport infrastructure and regarding the policies for safety in the road traffic.

CHALLENGES TO BE FACED BY COMMUNICATION SECURITY IN THE CONTEXT OF EURO-ATLANTIC PERSPECTIVES OF THE BALKAN COUNTRIES

Nikolay Palashev, Ph.D.

*State University of Library Studies and Information Technologies
SULSIT - Sofia*

Today, when the European Union is on the threshold of its reformation, the condition of the newly-admitted Balkan countries, as well as those that are about to join, one of the most important questions is the one about the sustainability of social communication within the European community. It is not only the EU approaches and policies that are being revised, but also the quality of the way the shared values and stated interests are treated. This is what poses as one of the most important issues the achieving of a sufficient degree of communication security. The Efficiency and sustainability of the communication between the EU members, as well as with the candidate-states, goes through establishing a security of communication links and relations. Therefore, establishing and finding a way and form of optimum overcoming of the threats and risks for communication is not only an important issue but vitally essential for the future social development of Europe and the Balkan region in particular.

In order to fully appreciate the essence of communication security today, let us pay attention to its main aspects, on the grounds of which it is possible to reach a sufficient degree of communication sustainability.

In first place, we are talking about the aspect referring to the relation communication-society. It is mostly necessary to negotiate the parameters and the essence of the communication code. The base of this negotiating process is built by considering the principle of reconciliation of values and interests and the one of the acceptable compromise. More often than not, it is the lack of sufficient identification of the elements of the communication code that leads to communication destructions. Next comes the regulation of the forms of information materialization, having in mind the peculiarities of the sensory and transcendental information on the basis of the negotiated essence and meaning of the *idea/decision* within the particular communication process. In practice, this is all about the relevance of the signs, symbols, images and language forms. The possible destruction here could emerge as a result of the different interpretation and perception of one and the same sign, symbol or image. And in this case the assumed as true norms and degree of development of social culture become especially

important. In third place, there is the formation of the communication relations. This formation needs to be based on negotiated rights and responsibilities of the participants in the communication process. On the other hand, these rights and responsibilities are defined specifically by the position held in the social hierarchy and respectively in the *Social communication model*. In other words, clarity is needed concerning the essence and features of the public figure, the leader, the political and corporate representatives, the media, and the audiences /or social groups/. The communication and information interpretation of the values and their system is the next basic moment in the communication-society relation. The basic question here is of the quality of the realia experienced by the participants in the communication process. It is quite often when the emergence of destruction comes as a consequence of the difference in interpretations referring to national or group identification, manipulatively presented political affinities and the refusal to accept the other one and the otherness. Hence the issue of the communication provision of publicity and communication transparency. This moment is directly linked to not just publicity formalization but also to demonstrated interests and values. In this sense, ensuring sustainability of the communication process can be guaranteed mostly through prevention towards the emergence of possible communication and information barriers within the communication channel. Last but not least there comes the issue of regulating the communication relations between the institutional social subjects (governing bodies) and the other members of society (the governed ones).

The other important aspect of communication security refers to guaranteeing security with institutions. The interrelationship between security and communication here could be detected in a number of directions. Above all, this is creating conditions and an environment for organization and management of two-directional communication channels i.e. it's all about communication occurring at a horizontal plane acknowledging the right of the participants to be sources of information as well as recipients, having equal rights and responsibilities within the framework of the communication process. Providing that there are the necessary and relevant conditions and environment, the next moment here is the communication and information materialization of the *ideas/decisions*. Naturally, this materialization needs to be adequate to the situation, real conditions and the existing environment. In this case, adequacy is achieved through creating and treating the communication and information constructs. And it is through functioning communication and information constructs that it becomes possible to achieve the aims and to fulfill the tasks within the communication process concerning security assurance.

As a third aspect of communication security could be pointed out the process of achieving a sufficient degree of security of the political, economic, social, law and culturally valuable social systems. Where can we see this going? Firstly, it is the correcting and perfecting of the elements of the social communication, namely – the common memory communication code, communication channel and the communication and information constructs and models. It's also all about voluntary and coordinated negotiating of characteristics and entities. In this sense comes the second moment referring to the communication and information justification of the political, economic, social, social and cultural practices. The markers of the communication and information expression of security are generated on the basis of: legitimacy in the context of mutual recognition of the communication process participants; acknowledging the right to defend interests and values; relevance when explaining the point in complying with the law, the moral and ethical norms.

The next important aspect with communication security is achieving norms of security relating to guaranteeing civilization categories like freedom, democracy, justice, property, independence, livelihood, customs and traditions and the linked to them structuring of the security mechanisms and tools of security. Thus, the organization and management of the communication and information models is closely linked to the existence and functioning of social institutions, governing activities and human rights. In fact, it is here where it is essential to keep to the norms of self-identification and identity, of the balance between power and human rights, as well as accepting the principle of reconciliation of values and interests specific of the particular participants in the communication process and respectively in the social processes. Of course, this wouldn't be attainable if we ignored the moment concerning the issue of forming the communication behavior of the communication process participants. Here, the bond between security and communication is expressed in the manifestations of the following major factors connected to the degree of communication culture: placing communication and information barriers before the type of *aggressive communication behavior*; clear statement of the interests and shared values; overcoming the aspiration to replace society's confidence; cultivating negation and patronizing vocabulary; establishing rules guaranteeing impossibility to conceal the real activities behind superficial in their natural communication and information constructs. And here, as the next moment in achieving security with world, group and interpersonal relations and interconnections comes the treatment of *ideas/decisions* created on the basis of cultural built-ups ideological and doctrinal patterns about humans and their world. In this sense, security concerning achieving goals is directly linked to communication culture and identification, which should motivate

the creative processes in society. Therefore, it is important to use adaptive and relevant forms of information materialization representing the essence and meaning of the *idea/decision*. Above all, what it all comes down to is the efficiency and adaptability of the used communication and information constructs. As a result, it is possible to achieve information security through the functionality of the communication and information constructs developed on the basis of: voluntary negotiated communication between the separate subjects within the social communication; attaining legitimacy of the authorized entities for communication link; regulating the ways and forms of communication; keeping to the norms of communication culture; regarding the media as mediators /i.e. equal and fully rightful to participate in communication/and creating conditions for psychological readiness to embrace the acceptable compromise as a guarantee to prevent the possible emergence of crises.

Of course, the above-mentioned will hardly be possible if no security of the treated information is provided. In this sense, the most important moment is the creation of optimum information protection. This is about regulating norms like: disposable knowledge and ability to classify information by importance and significance; information databases to be processed in a way that predisposes eliminating the possibility to detract the content of information itself thus breaching its meaningfulness; to ensure environment and conditions that predispose the formation of a certain space giving the opportunity to store information in such a way that it becomes an inseparable part of the social memory; to have technological ways and technical means which predispose optimum transition of information itself. Regarded like this, the norms and the introduction of measures to protect information represent an inseparable part of the communication and information approaches whereby respective policies for overcoming the communication and information barriers and destructions in the communication process are built. It should be mentioned that the most often met destructions result from the accepted misunderstanding of the essence of ideas and decisions, from irrelevance of the forms of information materialization or the lack of feedback in communication channels. That is why the norms in question represent an obligatory element of the respective policies for communication and information security. Here are the major ones:

- Regulating the usage and access to information;
- Technical maintenance of the information system and the protective systems;
- Achieving communication goals without allowing destructions concerning the register and status of the communication participants;

- Negotiating the communication nature and its relevance to the nature of society;
- Negotiating the need for communication;
- Avoiding conflict when treating the interests of the communication process participants;
- Achieving efficient and optimum communication functionality;
- Introducing adequate norms in the forms of information materialization;
- Providing two-directional movement of information within the communication channel.

To the above-said, we should add the aspect referring to the need to legitimate the status of the communication participants. As far as communication security is concerned, this status has always been directly linked to the acquired social roles within the *Social communication Model*. In this sense, communication security is in constant correlation with the implemented communication acts and activities on the part of communication participants, as well as their communication behavior. As major moments here can be pointed out:

- Overcoming the lack of sufficient experience and knowledge;
- Overcoming the lack of sufficient degree of general knowledge;
- Overcoming the vagueness concerning the point in shared values;
- Achieving a balance between spirituality and the material interest;
- Negotiating the possibility to reconcile values and interests and apply the principle of the acceptable compromise;
- Assistance in creating leaders.

When talking about the aspects of communication security, we should bear in mind that one of the major functions of social communication is to exert control over social development, carried out through regulating the relations, processes, attitudes, the way of thinking and finally, the very human experience and the experience of the surrounding world. In today's realia of a globalizing world and in particular within the context of European integration, the perspectives of the Balkan countries for a full participation in this integration are directly linked to the challenges posed by the issues of communication security.

In conclusion, as far as the phenomenology of social communication is concerned, it wouldn't be so significant and essential to society and its development if there were not possibilities to establish communication security. In this line of thoughts, the typical value character of the communication security directly refers to civilization development. Assuming that communication security has always been directly linked to

creating realities, then we could accept Socrates' thesis that knowledge outside its bond with values is not beneficial.

* * *

Sources

1. Денчев, С., Семерджиев Ц., Попов. И., Костова Н., „Концепция и политика за информационна сигурност”, изд. „За буквите – О писменах”, С., 2006.
2. Каазе, М., Нютън, К., „Доверия в управленията”, изд. „Гал-Ико”, С., 2003.
3. Олброу, М., „Глобалната епоха”, изд. „Обсидиан”, С., 2001.
4. Палашев, Н., „Обществена комуникация (частна теория за комуникацията)”, изд. „За буквите – О писменах”, С., 2010.

**EDUCATION FOR POLICE AND OTHER
SECURITY AGENCIES, POLICE SCIENCES:
THEORETICAL, EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND
METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES OF THE
SCIENCE AND THE SYSTEM OF POLICE
SCIENCES**

PHILOSOPHICAL ASPECTS OF INTERPRETING OF THE SECURITY

Jordan Spaseski, Ph.D.

spaseskijordan@gmail.com

Faculty of Security - Skopje

Abstract

To the author's knowledge, so far security has not been treated on the grounds of philosophy within the scientific literature which deals with security questions. In fact, it neglects the natural security as objective reality of importance to the existence of the world and the mankind.

The opinion of the author of this paper is that the constitution of the new philosophical discipline named as philosophy of security will open new, profound interpretations of the security phenomenon as a general and universal value. Also, the author attempts to actualize a new understanding of security as a natural and empirical phenomenon.

Keywords: *philosophy, security, law, objective security, juridical (empirical) security*

Introduction

In the human existence and existence of the communities of the mankind, security is central. The security system of values is classified, in the first place as a condition of life of individuals and communities. Security should be analyzed and studied as a very important and essential segment in the world together with its role in the existence of freedom and democracy. If the world is not safe and there is no freedom and democracy, the man would be devoid of creative power and creative force in the creation of values and such a world is like a camp, in which the suffering will rule instead of joy...

Security is a subject of study, analysis and evaluation as a phenomenon in the real world, especially in the present times. The results of these studies have strengthened the security state of people, society, country and the whole system of values in terms of their vulnerability or security. The degree and type of the security situation (security stability or instability) have affirmed the intensity, volume and destructiveness of the risks threatening security which appeared on one side and the ability of the

security system of the state and the wider society to put those occurrences under the necessary control and combat with them on the other side.

In the recent decades, the author of this paper has found out that the security was analyzed and interpreted as an inalienable human right concerning the value system of the community in which we are living (Spaseski, 2010 : 23-33). This highlights the question: how important security can and should be as a human right and how it can and should be in everyone's office to acquire the right to safe and free man (From, 1964). In the literature it is commonly referred to as Human Security - (Homo security). Also, in the recent times there have been continuous processes that created new forms of consciousness in terms of depth and comprehensive understanding of security that it is not only a police and military problem, but a matter of the whole functioning of the state and society in it in a safe position - freeman (Aristotel, 1970: 55).

If it comes to the constitution of the new general science of security in Republic of Macedonia named "SECURITOLOGY", as advocated by the author of this manuscript, we will create preconditions for a new modern scientifically based relationship with depth and real comprehension and understanding of the phenomenon of security, especially in the experience in the real world (Mojanoski, 2010: 12-23). The notion of security should be synonymous with a better understanding of peace against war, of freedom versus slavery, democracy versus bureaucracy, justice versus injustice, truth versus lies, not violence versus violence, enjoyment versus suffering, dealienation against alienation etc. (Lekovič, 1968 : 22-30).

The "Securitology" as a separate cognitive (scientific) discipline, according to the study subject and the goals it wants to achieve, and according to its importance for the theory and practice, differs from other sciences which study destruction of society, or threatening or risk phenomena. The "Securitology" as a general science of security differs from other security sciences according to scope - it will include general scientific or empirical knowledge about security, while specific scientific knowledge about security is to be studied in specific (separate) scientific security disciplines (criminology, penology, criminal policy, political delinquency, police tactics, modern forms of organized crime, modern forms of terrorism, etc.). But, despite the modern tendency to expand the scope of understanding and interpretation of security as a fundamental value in the real world with universal importance for the mankind and the world, not only in terms of survival of the world and man, but also as a condition and prerequisite for humanizing of relations between people and humanizing man by creating the conditions for democracy, freedom, human rights, etc.; however, what seems necessary is the need of research, understanding and interpretation of security to the subject of research and studying of philosophy in terms of

security as above-experience. It will represent the basis and condition for full and profound understanding and proper evaluation of security as a value of the highest rank.

The philosophical interest for studying the world as one whole made of numberless things is realistic to assume, since security as a phenomenon in the real world (experience) and security as natural (above-experience) represents interest for the science and philosophy. Security as an integral part of the whole world should be a subject of study not only of science but of philosophy as well.

Within the philosophical literature, shortly, philosophy is defined as: Learning about the world (assuming that it exists). In this sense, the question is: what is the world? In philosophical terms, the shortest and the simplest answer would be – the world is out there. But what is out there? It is consisted of infinite quantity of the matter, energy and spirit. So the world is consisted of matter, energy and spirit. As it is known, the content of philosophy, as above-science, is made of things that represent above-experience and there are three cognitive disciplines of this kind: ontology; gnoseology and axiology:

- ontology is the study of the world that actually exists. It is the central, basic philosophical discipline, but its subject is the doctrine of the origin and vanishing at the world. According to Radomir Lukic, it should be studied by over-philosophy.
- gnoseology is learning cognition of the world. To perceive the world implies to identify many things that are as one unity of practice and experience, and on these grounds, to be interpreted and studied by over-experience
- axiology is learning about values. This study explores and examines the values that exist in the nature and values - material and spiritual, which are humankind creations.

Security is a complex phenomenon which exists in the real world as experience - a specific practice, but also as above-experience, which confirms the need to be comprehensively studied and interpreted in two ways. One way is when the security is interpreted as an experience (practice). Security as human experience is work that is modeled and created by legal rules and moral norms and we call it legal - experienced security (Buha, 1986). The other way is when security, philosophically, is interpreted as above-experience. This type of security is called objective (natural). Security as an above-experience phenomenon has general properties. However, the safety is experienced as an objective phenomenon. We say that there are two types of security:

- legal (experiential) security. This type of security will be the subject of study by the “securitology”.
- objective (above-experience) natural security. This kind of security will be the subject of study by the cognitive discipline named as philosophy of security.

When the man, as a biological, social and psychological being models his own safety and security - he acts towards himself, towards his own property and the immediate social environment needed to survive in life and thus he / she practices objective (natural) safety. The man uses this kind of security as his natural right in life. As such his / her security behavior is acquired by birth and no one, under any circumstances can impede or subtract it (Spaseski, 1983).

When the man, however, behaves according to prescribed safety rules and social norms, he practices law (experiential) security. In this case the man, according to legal norms and other rules acquires rights, obligations, and responsibilities regarding to his security behavior (Engels, 1947: 53-54).

The attempt in this way to study, interpret and analyze security, raises the question: Is there a need and whether there is an objective possibility, despite the establishment of the “securitology” as a general science of safety, to constitute a separate philosophical discipline called philosophy of security? The author is not certain that cognitive philosophical discipline called Philosophy of security has been constituted. But, having in mind that the philosophers within the general philosophy constituted a special philosophy - Philosophy of law, can rightfully ask the question: why is there no philosophy of safety? Security is not a phenomenon of which we can say that philosophy is not interested in. Rather, the basic and universal goal of security is a condition of existence of man and the world at large, which matches the goals of philosophy. For these reasons, the author is determined to show his attitude and opinion by trying to analyze questions of safety which are issues of philosophy.

Whether and how proper and justified it is to use the term (notion) philosophy of safety? In our opinion, it is justified because the philosophy is a cognitive discipline on the experience and the study of security, both objective-above-experience security and legal-experienced security.

The philosophy of security would be explored by three types of above-experience factors related to security:

- First, general above-experience that applies security as above-experience phenomenon;
- Second, the positive above-experience security and
- Third-specific security of above-experience security, the kind of objective security.

Security as a general universal good of the content of the world has influenced its existence (Korac, 1958). The philosophy of security on the subject of study will need to have objective (natural) security as above-security phenomenon and should be studied separately. But this approach should be taken into account, that the philosophy of security is not to be treated as a security cognitive discipline, but it is and should remain as part of the general philosophy.

According to the professor and philosopher Radomir Lukic, whose attitudes and opinions were my inspiration for reflection and study of this issue, we can say that - if we would constitute a philosophy of security it should be realized as above-experience discipline, which will be developed within a general philosophy and will use its methods and elaborate them in the same way, and security as part of the world, as subject of general philosophy (Lukic, 1995a: 320). Then it will become possible to arrive at the constitution of such a cognitive discipline that will determine not only the nature and characteristics of security, but also its numerous essential links with the world in its entirety (Kambovski, 2011: 247). It essentially means that every element or phenomenon of security has to be discussed through the relationships in the world in general and especially the adequate homogenous and related phenomena in the world. So, we will specifically identify the characteristics of the security occurrences in comparison to other adequate phenomena in the world. This is because, no single element of the safety and security phenomena that would be in close relation to the world and the phenomena in it, or even substantially the same with certain other phenomena in the world, could not be conceived. Due to security reasons they have to interpret and explain the standpoint of its essence and role in the world. Security as a real phenomenon (experience) is manifested as a process that takes infinite human existence.

The philosophy of security, as a separate philosophical discipline covering all major philosophical issues, will study cognitive examples of security. This means that the philosophy of security will deal with the basic branches of philosophy applied to safety. Therefore, we will distinguish: ontology of security, gnoseology of security and axiology of security. It would apply the same basic theses that are processed by the general philosophy and which serve as a base, foundation. Otherwise, if we leave this approach, the philosophy of safety would be involved in the amateurism concerning the interpretation and resolution of the deep philosophical questions.

In this sense, the philosophy of security is to study and talk about above-experience although unable to disregard the experience, when often based on it, is perceived the above-experience. From what I found in the

philosophical literature, I feel every right to highlight the serious difficulty in distinguishing the experiential from the above-experience in the area of security.

The above-experience and experience terms have different meanings (Lukic, 1995b: 395). The above-experience as the very word implies, exceeds the experience.

What is the experience which is above-experience?

Experience is what man experiences in contact with the world himself, as part of the world. What man experiences becomes part of his consciousness as well as of his subconscious.

The difference between the conscious and the subconscious is in what is subconscious and how it influences awareness. Here, the knowledge remains vague, more like allusion of a thing, not much of knowledge. Depending on how they will be transmitted, these allusions will be shaped in terms, in thought, and unconscious experience becomes experience in the narrow sense that turns into experienced cognition. In any case, the knowledge, which is transferred into concepts, is not included in philosophy as a rational discipline. This rational experience can resist irrational experience, which can be expressed only in terms, but only to allude and reach out to approximately describe them.

Based on objective experience that can doubtless be checked with another similar experience, the above-experience stands, under my own idea, such that cannot check experience. One can imagine two types of above-experience.

The first type is similar to the above-experiential experience and is allusive. Namely, when we experience an experience over a given subject, we are never sure that it is quite true for the simple reason that we can check only a new experience, but changing it, transforming it as an experience, cannot be checked other than with the new experience. Thus, we are given the case only in experience and never in above-experience; we cannot know what it is really, because we know it only by its experience, as it is given to us, and not as per se (Temkov, 2006).

The second kind of above-experience refers to subjects who were never in somebody's direct or indirect experience and who could not be in our experience in general, because they are such that in any way we cannot reach (grasp) with our experiences. This is not about objects that are reached by experience, so, that means they are practically intangible (because we can say that they have gone without a trace), but changing them in the principle subject of experience, are of the same nature as empirical objects. In this second type of above-experience we include only items which are in general

such that for intangible-experience, forbidden for our experience, they are secret (as God). Of course, we cannot know whether such items exist or not - this is only possible assumption of above-experience.

The essence of the world is an inseparable whole host of conditions that define security as part of the aspects on which the survival of the world depends. Thus is security interpreted, and we realize that it practically appears as objective security which in reality or in experiential security always exists.

In our practice, unfortunately, there is no codified security right. Establishing and building a security system in our state in the absence of a security right is a problem from two aspects. On one hand, citizens have no legal standards by which to behave in life and job security, and other institutions authorized and responsible to perform security functions cannot apply the measures and procedures because of the absence of such rules. In practice, there are many legal solutions for specific areas pertaining to security issues, but there is not a codified system of security law. This, however, also complicates the procedure for measurement of the extent and quality of security as a specific situation in which the individual business objects, a particular area or community as a whole in which we live (society and the state). So far, in practice, the process is done by developing security assessment (Spaseski, 2007).

The development of a security assessment which aims to indicate the forecast of future security conditions is a most complex procedure, because future possible endangerment of the security situation prepares the strictest conspirative way.

As we said, within the modern world there is a need to create individual and collective awareness that security is not a problem only of the military and the police. Required security stability is necessary for existence, and progress cannot be provided through the institutions of defense and security, but through steady economic and cultural progresses, the totality of social relations, particularly in the area of the implementation of human rights and freedoms of every member of the society (Spaseski, 2005: 10). Internationally, almost all institutions such as UN, EU, OSCE and others who care about security, insist on creating a social environment in which citizens can be free to enjoy all human rights, the rule of law and the right of media freedom. The international countries insist on communication among them to establish principles of peaceful communication and mutual understanding of the necessary degree of tolerance. Conflicting conditions intended to convert to military hot spots to become the field of understanding (Spaseski, 2008).

Insisting on the need to respect human rights and freedoms contributes to creating democratic societies that practice a higher degree of security.

People, since the beginning of their thinking about safety, come to think that security should not be any arbitrary creation of one who holds the power and coercion, but it should be something objectively necessary, elevated above the subjective human arbitrariness. We can say that there's a living thought of security as a sense of survival of an individual and collective, as a society. In this sense, the question is if such human thoughts have transformed the norms in any way, and whether people will start to apply security in the real life?

Conclusion

The philosophical aspects of this paper of the interpreting of security actualized several issues in the current literature that were not treated or were incompletely treated. The whole paper actualizes security as experienced as an above-experience phenomenon. In the analysis of security as experienced phenomenon, we highlight the need to constitute a general science of studying the security phenomena and institutions named "Securitology". That, according to the scope of the subject of research and according to the objectives to be achieved, differs from all other scientific disciplines which separately study areas of destruction of the society and methods for their interference and suppression.

The above-experience security as far as it is familiar to the author, was not subject to full and thorough research, yet. Because of that, the author is of the opinion that they should constitute a new philosophical discipline called cognitive philosophy of security. With that, security would become a subject of study and appreciation not only as experienced but also as an above-experience phenomenon.

References:

1. Aristotel (1970), *Политика*, Београд
2. Buha, Aleksa (1986), *Etika nema~kog idealizma*, Sarajevo: Svetlost
3. Laertij, Diogen (1985), *Život i mišljenja istaknutih filozofa*, Београд
4. Engels, Fridrih (1947), *Ludvig Foerbah i kraj klasične nemačke filozofije*, Београд: Kultura

5. Кораћ, В. (1958), *Проблем ослобођења личности у савременим филозофским и социолошким истраживањима*, Београд
6. Камбоски, Vlado (2011), *Филозофија на правото*, Скопје
7. Leković D. (1968), *Marksistička teorija otuđenja*, Beograd
8. Lukić, Radomir (1995a), *Социологија морала*, Белград
9. Lukić, Radomir (1995b), *Основи социологије*, Белград
10. Лукиќ, Radomir (1995c), *Систем филозофије права*, Београд: Завод за уџбенике и наставна средства
11. Mojanoski, Cane (2010), "Za poimot za naukata za bezbednost (asfalialogija)", *Godišnik na Fakultetot za bezbednost, Skopje, br.6, ss.212-23*
12. Спасески, Jordan (1983), *Друштвена самозаштита као облик дезалиенације*, Skopje: NIO Studentski zbor
13. Спасески, Jordan (1985), *Општвена самозаштита*, NIO Студентски збор, Скопје
14. Spaseski, Jordan (2010), "Човекот и безбедноста", *Godišnik na Fakultetot za bezbednost, Skopje, ss. 23-33*
15. Спасески, Jordan (2005), *Македонија столб на безбедноста и мирот на Балканот*, Скопје: Академик
16. Спасески, Jordan (2008), "Безбедносната политика во услови на светски процес на глобализација", *Годишник на Полициска академија*, Скопје
17. Spaseski, Jordan (2009) „Private security as an integral part of the single security system”, *Vartstvoslovje, University of Maribor, Year 11, No. 2, pp. 305-315*
18. Спасески, Jordan (2007), "Вреднување на превенцијата во заштита на културното наследство", *Регионална средба, Охрид*
19. Темков, Kiril (2006), *Како да се биде добар*, Скопје: ОХО
20. From, Erih (1964), *Begstvo od slobode*, Beograd: Nolit

THE MODERN CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY POLICING - EXAMPLE: THE NETHERLANDS

Boban Simić, LL.D

boban.simic@kpa.edu.rs

Željko Nikač, Ph.D.

zeljko.nikac@kpa.edu.rs

Marija Blagojević, LL.D

marija.blagojevic@kpa.edu.rs

Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Zemun - Serbia

Abstract

The Dutch police have acted in accordance with the experience gained through three generations of community functioning in other countries. Accordance to the models from the United States, there was a strong tendency toward comparative operation and light components of the police action. Modern community policing is oriented toward problem solving and crime-control rhetoric. Abiding by the law, enforcement officers act in accordance with the community needs and primarily in the prevention of crime. The problem comes in the unconventional environments, such as the internal parts of large cities, where the present diversity of the population together with the accumulation of social problems gives the grounds for violation of public order and peace. This contribution describes how the advanced Dutch society affected the way of action of the police in Amsterdam. The actual Police activities in the Netherlands have changed in the recent years largely by the emphasis placed on problem solving, partnership with other organizations, crime prevention, encouraging of cooperation between the citizens themselves and investing in mechanisms of social control, which implies presence of the police in schools, traffic and on the streets. The police officers were recruited from different social structures and renounced the monopoly on security and crime control.

Keywords: police, organization, methods of operation.

Introduction

Significant improvement of the relations between police and the citizens is imperative in a society based on democratic values and principles of the rule of law. Expectations and attitudes of the citizens should be taken as a key factor that would greatly influence the direction and character of the activities of the state authorities, especially police. Learning from the so far experience, visible steps in the development of relations between police and the citizens were achieved when certain conditions (legal and institutional) were met, which primarily refers to the main changes brought about with the bourgeois revolution in France and the United States. This period marked the end of the feudal system of ruling and started a new era in the mankind. Individuals in the society ceased to be treated as subjects of political power and became citizens, active participants in the political life of the community and advocates of subjective public rights. This setting is meant to gradually transform the administration and coordinate its activities with the expectations and needs of the citizens as the primary beneficiaries of the government services in the state. The country which first tried to build a strong relationship of its police to the citizens on the principles of the new, liberal, and democratic era was the United Kingdom. Robert Peel saw the reforms of 1829 as a base for the modern police which marked the turning point in its relationship with the citizens.¹ The relationship between the police and the citizens is characterized today as one of the vital issues for democratization of the police and the direction of its role towards the interests of the community, and as a process that incorporates multiple and interrelated factors.

Police from many countries in the world have realized that their success in combating crime depends not only on modern technological achievements, human resources and funds at their disposal, but also on the will of citizens to cooperate. Many countries worldwide have adopted the belief that citizens are one important factor of social control, especially helpful in combating of crime. A key item of the new theoretical approach in analyzing the police role in society expresses precisely the concept of *community policing*.

Some of the most developed countries, primarily the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom, started the transformation of the classical model of performing police roles and the introduction of a completely new

¹ Although the police in the community is considered innovative, one of its key features, the cooperation with the community and respond to its problems, dates from the time of Sir Robert Peel who founded the Metropolitan Police in 1829 where it is said: “the police are the public and the public police”. During the previous century, policing has been distant from this principle, but today there is a sustainable relation.

way of performing police duties, starting right from the citizens, their needs and expectations, as well as the need for much more efficient fight against crime. *Community policing*, as a new concept, was supposed to mark a milestone in the relation between police and citizens and to change the approach of the police in solving community problems. The essential idea of this concept is cooperation between police and the citizens in solving the basic problems of the local community, such as:

- the fight against crime
- reducing the fear of crime among citizens
- combating various forms of social disorders

For many experts, *community policing* is not just a program and a new model of police performance, but also an entirely new philosophy of the “police - citizen” cooperation to address the identified problems and needs of the community. To better understand the problems facing the implementation of the concept of *community policing* and comprehended that there are new challenges and difficulties to meet, we will discuss its development in the developed European country - the Netherlands. Examining some of the major areas (basic programs, positive results, difficulties in implementation and ways to overcome them) we will see what its tendencies are, and what lessons can we learn from them.

Development of the concept of community policing in the Netherlands

The Netherlands is a country (of around 16 million inhabitants), opened for collaboration with other countries, with multi-cultural population and a high standard of living.

As to the general information concerning the work of the Dutch police and the development of the concept of *community policing*, we will try to describe the two basic characteristics. First, the “social” component of the activities of the Dutch police and, second, the fact that the police officers in this country have learned how to combine “solid” and “light” elements in the philosophy and practice. After the *Second World War*, a relatively harmonious society prevailed in the Netherlands, together with the existence of a general consensus on the recovery of the war-torn country, low crime rates and incarceration (Downes, 1986). Simply, there was less crime and less racial tensions than in the major American cities. The Dutch society was “progressive” and characterized by high standards and progressive attitudes toward social issues, with mild punishments for the offenders. This setup is directly influenced by the way the police work in the Netherlands. However, since the 1970s there was an increase of the presence of drugs and the rates

of conventional crime, and the emergence of gangs based on ethnic grounds. Since the early 1990s there was also a shift of power in the aspect of the traditional model of “tolerance”, and for the first time was brought the idea that it is necessary to put emphasis on crime prevention, to impose more stringent punishment on violators, and to build more prisons (Punch, 1997; Punch et al., 1997, 1998). Despite these great changes, the Dutch society is still characterized by civic culture based on consensus and negotiation.² After the Second World War, the Dutch police was composed of several separate organizations (there were nearly 150 independent regional departments, as well as a national service). In 1994, these organizations were reorganized, and the new setting of the police service became regional and divided into 25 national departments. The largest regional unit was based in Amsterdam and consisted of 5600 employees, while the smallest consisted of 640 employees. The mode of action of the police in general was fairly tolerant, non-violent and based on negotiations as the primary mechanism of action. One of the liberal police chiefs concluded that this “paradigm” created in the 1970s was met with understanding by politicians who felt that their work has a strong element of concern for others, which is taken from the plans of the governing body. The Dutch police are always involved in violence prevention. In cases of a high level of violence, the practice is not to respond by using force, but engage officers who know how to suppress that violence (Elias, 1997). In our opinion, the actions of the police in the Netherlands are characterized by a strong social element, as a constant. This attitude was confirmed in recent years, applying the concepts and practices in the United States and the United Kingdom (including the “*koban*” - the concept of police mini-stations from Japan), with the introduction of innovations at the local level, constantly taking care of the needs of the community. However, it is necessary to take into account the emergence of the new identity of the society and the new technologies (mobile smart phones with WAP technology allow police officers to flee connection of immediate data and computer networks) as well as the development processes in other states.³

² The Netherlands is a society which is very liberal and tolerant, including the “soft” application of some laws (Gedooambeleid). This refers to legitimizing prostitution and euthanasia, the possibility of using soft drugs, as well as equal rights for homosexual couples.

³ E.g.: The delegation of senior officers, prosecutors and the mayor, visited the United States in 1990s, where they were met by the Mayor of New York, Giuliani, and the New York City police commissioner, Bratton. George Kelling and other experts have been invited to discussions with the members of the Dutch police. Senior officers pointed out the differences between the Dutch and the American society, based on the concept of zero tolerance and activities of CEP in several cities in North America. They also attended conferences on COP and went through the most recent relevant literature.

We will analyze the *Community policing* program in the Netherlands during its development in three stages, which were spread out over a period of 30 years, with main emphasis on the events in Amsterdam.

Community policing - phase I

At first, the structure and mode of action of the police after the Second World War were quite rigid, if not conservative. In 1060s, there was a widespread desire for change, which led to creation of far more advanced and tolerant society, with clear consequences on the police structure.

Since the beginning of 1970s, the Dutch police has become socially responsible and launched a number of experiments (Broer & van der Vijver, 1983). Many police units have been structured on a “*three-layer model*” reactive patrol, proactive patrols (which are comparable to the approach of “oriented toward the problems” in the different neighbourhoods). The police officers in the neighbourhoods had a strictly defined role. Their main task was to “keep the surrounding quiet and safe”, to “establish contact” with citizens and gather information “*Investigation Division*” (**CID**). These police officers have worked only in their neighbourhoods (they had the task to solve problems, interact with other agencies, etc.), and their task was, above all, prevention of crime. People in the neighbourhoods often referred to them as “our police” (Punch, 1974).

Community policing - phase II

In the late 1970s, in several serious studies, the legitimacy and credibility of the police relations with the citizens were brought to question; this led to significant change of thinking, due to two main reasons. First, in 1977, a working group of young people and critically minded members of the police (“*The project team responsible for the organizational structure*” - **POS**) published a report entitled “*the police force is changing*” in which they stood up for changes in policing and improvement through implementation of the legitimacy of the organization based on the principles of problem solving, with emphasis on prevention, explanations of their actions to the general public, and formation of “social professionals”.

Another reason for these changes was the more frequent criticisms of the practical ways of functioning of the police (Bastianen & Vriesema, 1980). These criticisms were related primarily to the system of the police in the neighbourhoods, which were often branded as “loners”, colleagues did not consider them as “real police” and called them “the nurses quarters” (Punch, 1979), “social workers” or “police psychiatrists” (Torre, 1999). Citizens felt that these officers were “too soft and always lonely”, that “in

situations where it is needed a real police intervention in solving a problem they were not useful enough” and that “everyone knew when and where they drank their coffee, so that they became predictable in their movement” (Bastianen & Vriesema, 1980). Critics have encouraged the formation of “teams in the neighbourhoods” in the Netherlands. Police officers in the districts were to be replaced by teams, with the aim of promoting integration. External integration between the police and the citizens would lead to improvement of legitimacy, and was followed by the internal integration (of the different parts of the organization), and the integration of tasks (each member of the police to deal more or less with all the aspects of police work). Teams were settled to deal with almost all “standard police duties”, and putting the emphasis on people and problem solving approach would lead to improvement of the efficiency and legitimacy at local level. The described process changes began to occur at the level of the few units, but it turned out that it was hard for implementation. There was no doubt that the police chiefs significantly underestimated the impact and complexity of the change. To a large extent, these first experiments in the Netherlands can be compared to the situation in the United States in the early 1970s, when it was shown that it is virtually impossible to fully implement the concept of *community policing*, and even in situations where it was thought that this was achieved, it was clear that the estimated effects proved to be marginal (Broer et al., 1980). Many projects were started with considerable enthusiasm, but soon failed. There was often a strong resistance by certain specialized departments (primarily Investigation Department), whose officials have simply refused to cooperate with teams from the quarters. In one case, the subsequent analysis showed that the quality of detective work performed by the police officers who dealt with the “general” work was fully comparable to the quality of detective work of the CIS, but the relevant experiment was soon stopped (Jong, 1983).

Regardless of the failures described above, the Dutch police have successfully implemented an approach based on the teams in the districts at the beginning of 1980s. It was the regional “Haarlem police”.⁴ The activities of the mentioned departments have been subjected to internal and external investigations. External results were determined in two ways, namely:

- Questioning of citizens
- Interviews with key stakeholders

These studies were aimed at gaining insight into the effectiveness of changes in relation to clearly defined objectives, such as: *reduce the number of victims of crime, reduce fear of crime, reduce the number of problems in*

⁴ Haarlem is a city with about 150,000 inhabitants located in the western part of Holland

the neighbourhoods, improve the attitude of the police, and improve contacts between citizens and police. Police Department Haarlem in 1983 began with the implementation teams in the districts in three regions, which accounted for about a third of the suburban area. It turned out that the results were positive and that after the first year of the program in two of the three regions there was a significant reduction in the number of crimes and misdemeanours, as well as the fear of crime within the local population. The attitude of the citizens towards the police was improved, and they began to look favourably on the mutual contacts. Two years later, the third external study of the teams employed throughout the neighbours was completed. The results of this study were more convincing, although varied significantly depending on the parts of the city (Broer et al., 1987). The results of the interviews were in line with the conclusions of the study. Most of the respondents said that the police greatly improved.

The positive results of the studies in Haarlem had a significant impact on policing in the rest of the country, and, among other things, the police decided that the department in Amsterdam should follow their example. It is believed that Amsterdam is the leading Police Department in the Netherlands, which, by the beginning of the 1990s, formed about 25 teams in the districts. This was followed by similar activities of the other police departments in the Netherlands.

Community policing - phase III

The latest step in the development of the concept of *community policing* in the Netherlands is reflected in the introduction of the new arrangement of the police officers in the neighbourhoods during 1990s. This type of activity is presented as a “new paradigm”, with a strong focus on the difference between the new philosophy and the “traditional” ways of policing. The results of the new forms of activity reflected in overcoming the number of shortcomings which characterized the previous systems (for example, teams were not always coordinated with the activities of the rest of the organization and its members were known as police officers in the community). Under the new philosophy and practice, the convergence of the citizens, their participation in crime prevention and security issues, as well as police cooperation with local public and private agencies, were even more significant than before. Local approach and emphasis on prevention component remained the same. What is new is the enhanced cooperation with the external partners, and the greater citizen participation in defining of the issues that need to be addressed in specific neighbourhoods.

However, the most important change is reflected in the change of responsibility. As the former policeman in the neighbourhood was “*just an*

ordinary police officer”, the new “*community police officer*” was responsible for “security organization” in the end, in a much broader sense. This entailed the obligation to provide assistance through the different specialized departments. The role of the “representation of the police” to citizens is that the police officers in the community have often been regarded as the “sticking out” positions. As a result, unlike the officers in the neighbourhoods who often operated on the margins of the organization, the officers in the community in general were integrated into the actions of the entire service, and therefore they have influenced the work of their colleagues. Responsibility was transferred to the lower levels of the organization, which means that the traditional approach of defining priorities, “top -down”, at least in part, was replaced by the approach “bottom - up”. *Community policing* was a concept which was based on the work of the rest of the services. The lack of clear definition of the practice of implementation enabled the police departments to implement this concept into practice in accordance with their own conceptions. This fact was always a negative thing, if we bear in mind that the concept was based on meeting the needs of the community, which may vary significantly depending on the observed regions. Thus, the research of differences in performance among the police organizations as well as among the departments within those organizations was, as shown in the studies, conducted in four departments (Zoomer et al., 2000). The current problems in the functioning of the *community policing* in the Netherlands requires a rearrangement of the organization and the work of the individual officers, a process that can take years. However, the specific tasks of the new police officers in the community include building and maintenance of the networks of contacts with external partners such as the local authorities and social agencies.

The aim of the concept is reflected in the implementation of an integrated approach to solving local problems of security, in order to stimulate and encourage citizens to rely on its own capacities in solving and improving the quality of life at the local level. “Reliance” (Denkers, 1983) promotes the idea that citizens can play an active and important role in the process of multi-control policies. It is the participation of citizens in performing these complex tasks and activities that often leads to permanent solutions and constitutes a component that separates the police in the community from its previous arrangements.

Police workers are active agents and trained negotiators who seek permanent solutions to the problems which are a constant burden to the police, and a source of anxiety for the citizens. In practice, the development of the concept of *community policing* is not a one-dimensional process, but includes several factors (such as: lack of support, management priorities, problems with internal communication, insufficient capacity, emphasis on

emergencies, etc.). Police officers in the community often feel that they have an important role in the area where they work, but that they are still in a somewhat marginal position at the level of the organization. When we talk about the relationship between police and citizens, we often refer to the need for reducing the crime rate and increasing the sense of security. The priorities of the police are increasingly based on specific characteristics of the local environment. This is especially true of police intellect-based data, in which localization is carried out “hot spots” and act against individuals or groups that cause, or are expected to cause, problems.

Community policing is measured differently, but it is also based on information about the local conditions. However, this information is typically used to find ways of solving problems before they get out of control, in cooperation with other agencies. So, this is not just about information. One of the most prominent features of the new mode is the fact that the police are not only the guardian of public order, as before. This statement is largely promoted by the Dutch government, when, together with the mayors of the four largest cities (Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Hague and Utrecht), formulated a “politics of big cities” (Aronowitz, 1997). With the active participation of the citizens in identifying local issues, local residents were expected to somehow influence the definition of priorities and activities of the police. In some neighbourhoods, where serious problems with crime and security are present, “needs” of people were expressed through a desire for the repressive actions of police officers. In several instances, not only citizens but also representatives of local authorities, demanded mutual approach, with the aim of eliminating the existing problems. It is clear that such requests by local politicians or community can have a negative impact on the conventional concept of *community policing*.

However, solving problems by applying repressive measures is often treated as a precondition for functioning of the new concept. This means that the classic work of community does not respond to every neighbourhood, although it can be considered as an approach based on multi-agency cooperation, focused on solving the existing problems; it will always be more effective than any repressive police action. In the next section, we will talk about the dilemmas related to the implementation of the various police activities in the complex environment of Amsterdam.

Experiences in Amsterdam

Amsterdam is the capital of the Netherlands, with a population of about 800,000 inhabitants. This is the biggest tourist centre, with many businesses options and offices, and a significant concentration of people of different ethnic backgrounds. Its centre is an area with many different

functions (unlike most American cities). Not only that it is an attractive area to live (with houses with reasonable prices), but also word and the space with a large number of restaurants and bars, theatres, museums, discos, cinemas and shops. There is also the famous *red light zone* and the so-called “coffee shops”, where users can buy soft drugs. Obviously, this is a favourite spot of attraction of a number of tourists and residents of Amsterdam, and the timing of various events can attract hundreds of thousands of visitors. Crime is mostly concentrated in the busy streets, in the city traffic and places for a night out. Young people in large groups, football fans and some ethnic groups of young people can occasionally cause problems and resort to violence (team riot police is often in a position to act, and are strategically positioned on the ground over the weekend).

Bearing in mind that the problems associated with a large number of visitors, disrupting public order and “antisocial” behaviour of the police action in this part of the city requires commitment of significant capacity, and often the standard of teams in the districts. Citizens often have the feeling that breach public order and safety, aggressive and antisocial behaviour of people in the streets, and vagabonds getting out of control. It has taken a professional police response and once again “download” the street, with an increasing number of patrols, and ready support in the background. This problem was discussed with representatives of the City Council, on whether various efforts could be coordinated with other agencies (for example, there are thoughts for: relocation of street prostitution in the city centre, providing more shelters for the homeless, establishing service to provide timely assistance to the mentally unstable entities, and define priorities in terms of solving problems with frequent troublemakers). In particular, the fact that the problems are mainly concentrated in the city centre is commonly recognized, and it is necessary to define the response in accordance with such local situation.

On the other hand, the centre has become the indicator of the state represented throughout Amsterdam. However, the centre has the classic features of community. The Amsterdam police have undergone several organizational changes during the second half of the nineties. Like many other police departments in the Netherlands, in the seventies they had police officers in the neighbourhoods, so that, in an attempt to improve relations with citizens, in the eighties, the teams emerged. After that, the concept of cooperation with citizens has further improved the appearance of the police officers in the community, although in the end the teams continue to exist. At the same time, began a very different movement. By 1999, the centre of Amsterdam has been roughly divided into two police districts (with an overlap of two), which were then divided into six teams in the quarters (and part of the seventh team). In order to solve very specific problems observed

in the field, it was decided to establish one precinct for the entire downtown area, which consisted of six teams, and to change the border to the neighbouring districts so that it turns the centre into a “homogeneous area”- especially when it comes to the existence of typical problems and the type of response by police officers. In the new district there were about 700 police officers, which made him larger than in the several regional departments (team had 60-95 members, while teams in the red light district, which once numbered 170 officers, reduced to 95). Under the new district, appeared a special support team (ICST) with the task of maintaining law and order throughout the territory (as opposed to teams in the districts, which were active only at the local level). Members of this new team would be sent to all parts of the district in which they could expect a riot, to support the local teams. Especially at night during the weekend, the team would be moved from one place to another and act in the short term. The establishment of Support Team (which consisted of 75 members, with a tendency to rise to 120), had as its goal the return of police on the streets and increase its visibility. However, in this way authority is re-acquired, as well as a sense of respect for the rights of the citizens, using the approach of low tolerance for minor offenses, to overcome the boundaries of “socially acceptable” behaviour.

Inspired by the alleged success of zero tolerance approach in the United States, several Dutch police department began the implementation of strict preservations of law and order. In Amsterdam, this approach is called “zero tolerance”, as “the return of former activity which has since been forgotten, but it should always be applied”. The new approach was met with general approval, primarily by people who thought that the police finally started to deal with riots and to support law-abiding citizens through the implementation of other forms of informal control.

The Government has funded the return of traditional forms of controllers, such as conductors, school goalkeepers, supervisors of buildings and “urban patrols”, etc., consisting of uniformed persons responsible for controlling minor offenses. A key question concerns the possible compatibility between the action “on the streets” and *community policing*. It is thought that the “community” believes that the police should take firm action against persons who do not comply with the adopted standards. Unfortunately, the division between “good” and “bad” in this setting is not clear enough. Centre of Amsterdam can be described as a microcosm of conflicting interests. In such a “fragmented society”, the need for police services varies considerably (Bottoms & Wiles, 1995). The interests of citizens come into conflict with the interests of owners of bars and shops, in terms of limiting working hours and playing loud music. Some people are academics, journalists, politicians and professionals who are clearly

committed to safety and comfort for themselves and their families. Others make their living from service activities and “fun”, so, understandably, are more tolerant of the activities that enable them to make a better profit (where the organized crime plays a significant role). Many citizens believe that local authorities favour tourism and “night life” as a branch of industry, so often and they oppose the authorities. Similarly, some people, especially newcomers, are often treated as people who complain without reason and want to lose all the possibilities for fun (McDonald, 1986). Newcomers who belong to the upper middle class were attracted to life in the centre, where, during the last decades much has been done on the restoration of historical heritage. They are very demanding in terms of preserving quality of life they had in previous residences, for which authorities are held accountable (local council and police).

However, since the physical environment and quality of life in the city centre experienced numerous improvements, there has been a decline in the quality of social environment (as examples may be taken in groups of drunken young men, people who urinate in public places, gangs of bikers who ignore traffic regulations, pickpockets who attack mostly tourists, but also local residents, groups of addicts and drug dealers who carry out transactions in public places, used condoms in the parks, as well as homeless people with mental disorders and / or addictions, who are acting strangely or aggressively on the street). Also, there is always a clear distinction between people who cause problems and those who suffer because of that. Obviously, with so many different social categories that cause different types of problems, the police cannot resist all the same, so it is very important to choose an appropriate strategy in each situation. This means that the police must constantly take into account the needs of different groups (including many anonymous “outsiders”). For example, moving a group of drug addicts from some sites, it is possible to cause the effect of their deployment in the surrounding areas. If the police overtakes this kind of action several times a day, people will probably notice that “all of a sudden there are so many drug addicts”, and call the police. In this situation, the more efficient approach (in which they take into account the interests of drug users) would send drug users to specific locations or shelters, where they remain for some time. In this way, they actually took refuge from the streets, not just move around. Also, the action against the harmless homeless people can be quite controversial. When these people just sit on benches or streets, the only “problem” is caused by creating a sense of discomfort in others. It seems that this is not a sufficient basis for the application of zero tolerance approach to the invasive actions.

Together with the fact that one of the goals of the team for support was to make police more visible, its members were engaged in the larger

stocks and back ‘the blue colour to the streets’ (which is the actual phrase), the police officers who work in the community are those that provide a personal touch to their service. Also, their task is to cooperate with the other agencies and local authorities in solving the social problems that are more complex than just a crime. The Management of the Police has the responsibility to ensure that the different modes of action of the police come into collision with each other.

Conclusion

This paper gives an overview of the community policing in the Netherlands, which took place in three stages.

The analysis proved that the Dutch police are experimenting with the concept of *community policing* for about 30 years. Three generations of police officers, with considerable effort tried to make evaluation of the progress and the changes in the philosophy of the action, in terms of taking into account social concerns, as well as the characteristics of society, and the introduction of certain models of the practice in other states. When it comes to providing basic services at local level, almost all police departments operate as a combination of teams in the area and officers in the community, much better integrated within the organization itself, but it was the case with previous versions of the concept of community (in the one of them, a policeman in the community had a direct communication with the head of the district).

In the example of Amsterdam it was shown that the centre of a large city presents specific dilemmas for police related to the accumulation of problems, the diversity of the population, the constant negotiation about how to act in an environment in which policy affects a large extent and that is under the scrutiny of the media and the need to balance service delivery and existing facilities. Diversity issues and the stakeholders themselves make this situation different from the conventional treatment of *community policing* in a relatively homogeneous community, and with a limited range of issues. Problems related to the city centre are definitely forcing police officers to react in different ways. Sometimes a police officer who works in the area can provide an adequate answer, and on the other side, there are cases that require resolution at a strategic level. It becomes obvious that the police did not constitute a sole organization, but a sub-set of organizations, of which there is sometimes no clear control over the process.

So, what is obvious is that *community policing* can lead to resolving the conflict between “hard” and “light” approach or dilemmas related to the proactive and reactive action. Although the *community oriented policing* to proactive action based on resolving the problem, the reality still requires that

the police must perform reactive functions, in terms of response to calls for help from criminal acts. Organizational solutions must be specific, tailored to local circumstances and current. In the event of a change in circumstances, sometimes, organizational change solutions have to be considered.

However, one aspect is crucial, and that is the fact that whatever solution is chosen, the citizens want their police officers to be visible, to support them, to provide for easily accessible, reliable, willing and competent response.

In this sense, there is no doubt that applying the concept of *community policing* in the Netherlands acts as a police service for citizens and the significant improvement in this respect has been a major positive change at the local level.

REFERENCES

- [1] Eck, J.E., Spelman, W., Hill, D., Stephens, D.W., Stedman, J.R., Murphy, G.R. (1987), *Problem Solving: Problem-Oriented Policing* in Newport News. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum, in: Goldstein, H. (1990), *Problem-oriented Policing*, McGraw-Hill, Inc., New York.
- [2] Eeuwijk, van, B.A.P. (2002). *Het verhaal achter de cijfers. Acteren van de politie en onveiligheidsgevoelens van burgers*. MA -Thesis Policestudies. Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam. Almere.
- [3] Goldstein, H. (1990). *Problem-Oriented Policing*. New York, McGraw-Hill.
- [4] Gunther Moor, L. & Peeters, J. (1996). *Politie en sociale zelfredzaamheid van burgers, Een onderzoek naar aanleiding van de vestiging en opheffing van politiebureaus*. Dordrecht: Stichting Maatschappij en Politie.
- [5] Hart, J. de (eds.), *Zekere banden. Sociale cohesie, leefbaarheid en veiligheid*. Boek 2002-5. Den Haag: Sociaal Cultureel Planbureau.
- [6] Korpsbeheerdersberaad (2001), *advies Prestatiebeloning*, brief aan de Minister van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties, kenmerk 2001018038/MP, Den Haag, Nederlands Politie Instituut.
- [7] Miedema, S. (1997). *Het peilen van de diepte. De relatie tussen werkloosheid en delinquentie bij jongvolwassen mannen*. Groningen, Rijksuniversiteit Groningen.
- [8] Minister van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties (1999). *Integraal Veiligheidsprogramma*, Den Haag, Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties.

- [9] Minister van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties en Minister van Justitie (1998). *Beleidsplan Nederlandse Politie 1999-2002*, Den Haag, Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties.
- [10] Minister van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties en Minister van Justitie, (2000). *Landelijke politiebrieven 2000*, Den Haag: Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties.
- [11] Mirrlees-Black, C. (1998). *Research Findings No. 77, Rural Areas and Crime: Findings from the British Crime Survey*, London: Home Office Research and Statistic Directorate.
- [12] Nieuwbeerta, P. (Ed.) (2002). *Crime Victimization in Comparative Perspective; Results from the International Crime Victims Survey 1989-2000*, Den Haag: Boom.
- [13] Penn, E.B. (2000). *Reducing Delinquency Through Service*, Washington: Corporation for National Service.
- [14] Politie Zeeland (2001). *Beleidsplan 2001-2002*, Middelburg.
- [15] Projectbureau Politiemonitor (1997), *Politiemonitor in Perspectief, Vier verdiepende analyses*, Den Haag/Hilversum.
- [16] Projectgroep Output (1992). *Een verkenning van de mogelijkheden tot outputmeting bij de politie*, 's- Gravenhage, Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken.
- [17] Raad voor Maatschappelijke Ontwikkeling (1998) *Verantwoordelijkheid en perspectief: geweld in relatie tot waarden en normen, Advies 6*, Den Haag: Sdu.
- [18] Skogan, W.G. (Ed.) (1976). *Sample Surveys of the Victims of Crime*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing Co., vermeld in Lewis, D.A. (1996). *Crime and Community: Continuities, Contradictions and Complexities*, *Cityscape: A Journal of Policy Development and Research, Volume 2, Number 2*, U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Office of Policy Development and Research, pp 95-120.
- [19] Stichting Maatschappij en Politie (1996). *Toekomst gezocht. Het functioneren van de politie ter discussie*, Dordrecht, Stichting Maatschappij en Politie, vermeld in Gunther Moor, L. & Peeters, J. (1996). *Politie en sociale zelfredzaamheid van burgers, Een onderzoek naar aanleiding van de vestiging en opheffing van politiebureaus*, Dordrecht: Stichting Maatschappij en Politie.
- [20] Stuurgroep Informatiemodel Nederlandse Politie (2001). *Informatiemodel Nederlandse Politie, Versie "jaarcyclus 2002"*, Den Haag.
- [21] Stuurgroep Politie 2000 (1991). *Veiligheid en Politie: een beheersbare zaak. Aanzet tot beleid van veiligheidszorg, gericht op ontwikkelingen tot de eeuwwisseling*, Arnhem; Gouda Quint, vermeld in:

- Vijver, C.D. van der (1993). *De burger en de zin van strafrecht*, Lelystad, Koninklijke Vermande.
- [22] Toenders, N., Meijer, R., Gunther Moor, L., Leur, W. van de, & Vijver, K. van der, (1999). *Veilig in de wijk, Sociale zelfredzaamheid in de praktijk*, Dordrecht: Stichting Maatschappij Veiligheid en Politie.
- [23] Toornvliet, L.G., Hauber A.R., & Zandbergen J.G.A. (1991). *Evaluatie-onderzoek sociale veiligheid Centraal Station Amsterdam: eindrapport*, Leiden: Criminologisch Instituut Rijksuniversiteit.
- [24] Tulder, F. van (1994). Pakkans en criminaliteit, *Tijdschrift voor Criminologie 4 1994, Pretenties en prestaties van de politie*, Arnhem: Gouda Quint.
- [25] Tweede Kamer, *Veiligheidsprogramma "Naar een veiliger samenleving"*, Vergaderjaar 2002-2003, 28684, nr.1.
- [26] Vanderveen, G. (1999). Stoere mannen, bange vrouwen? Over het sprookje van de fear-victimization paradox, *Tijdschrift voor criminologie 1999/1*, Arnhem, Gouda Quint, pp 2-20.
- [27] Vanderveen, G. N. G. (2000). *Reliable and Valid Fear. Measuring the Experience of Unsafety*, paper presented at the 'Annual Meeting of the American Society of Criminology', San Francisco, USA.
- [28] Vijver, C.D. van der (1993). *De burger en de zin van strafrecht*, Lelystad, Koninklijke Vermande.
- [29] Warr, M. (2000). Fear of Crime in the United States: Avenues for Research and Policy, in *Measurement and Analysis of Crime and Justice, Criminal Justice 2000*, Washington, U.S. Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, pp 451-489.
- [30] Werkgroep IBO-politiezorg (1999). *Interdepartementaal Beleidsonderzoek Politiezorg*, Den Haag, Ministerie van Binnenlandse Zaken en Koninkrijksrelaties.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ETHICS IN REALIZING THE PRIVATE SECURITY

Pere Aslimoski, Ph.D.

pereftu@hotmail.com

Faculty of tourism and hospitality-Ohrid, Republic of Macedonia

Sase Gerasimoski, Ph.D.

sgerasimoski@yahoo.com

Faculty of Security-Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Abstract

The Republic of Macedonia has established juridical and institutional framework for realizing the private security. The persons who work in private securing of persons and property often have wide shoulders and necks, strong muscles and other characteristics that evidently express their physical power and preparedness. But, in order to achieve a desirable quality in private securing of persons and property it is needed that they possess developed humanistic and ethical values as well. In this paper, relying on the experiences of the development of private security in the Republic of Macedonia so far, we want to accentuate argumentatively the need for establishing of higher standards for ethical values which the workers working in private security should possess. We point out to the indispensable law according to which the more it is insisting on the ethical dimension in private security, the more the possibilities for alienation in this activity, abusing and overstepping of the authorizations, infringement of the basic human rights and freedoms, authority, dignity and intimacy of the persons and other values are confining.

Keywords: *ethics, private security, basic human rights and freedoms*

Introduction

The private security, viewed historically, is not a new phenomenon, but, in an extent to which it's been developed nowadays represents a significant security phenomenon and strong factor within the security system of contemporary states. In its essence, no matter how paradoxically it may look prima facie, the private security is older historical phenomenon than public and state security and actually it precedes them. However, the private security experiences its real rise in the last couple of decades, first in U.S.A. and in Canada and then in Europe, Australia and South Africa especially, meaning that nowadays, only in Europe over one million people work in the private security sector (van Buuren & den Boer, 2009: 8; van Steden &

Sarre, 2007: 222). The private security in the Republic of Macedonia has been developing within the last two decades of which from 2000 onwards in an organized manner and with legal regulation. According to the nature of work it exerts, the private security is a pretty sensitive and delicate security activity that encompasses a multitude of ethical and moral issues. In actual fact, the one that has been implied under the notion of privatizing the private security as an entirety of all abnormalities in its work, in most part is owing to the misunderstanding and inconsistent implementation of the moral and legal norms in regulating and realizing the activity (Gerasimoski, 2007: 32-39; Gerasimoski, 2011: 331). There's an undivided belief among the theorists and entities who work in the private security that the ethical component of the work has been paid very little and that it's been considered as something as secondary and sporadic that gains on importance every time when a serious case of privatizing the private security is to be occurred. It is of special interest the fact that the essence of the private security is to act preventively and reactively which implies that without an adequate ethical principles and moral behavior the private security is not possible. In a case of absence of neglecting of the ethics and morals in the private security we cannot talk of realizing the security and social function of the private security subsystem.

Today, there's an obvious need for studying ethics within the private security concerning the last developments in this sphere domestically, thus make the need for studying ethics and implementation of the moral norms more prevalent. The perplexed relations that exist in the sphere of private security, irrespective of the fact of their regulation with comprehensive legal norms, nevertheless, implies an extensive field of relations that do not depend so much on the legal framework, but rather on ethics. These are the relations that primarily depend on the general morals of the community, the morals of the individuals, the morals within certain sphere (in this case security), i.e., the moral setting of the subsystem of private security, moral predispositions, characteristics and values of the human potential within the private security etc. The aim of scientific study of the ethics and morals within private security is to point out to the need of permanent elevation of the ethics and moral behavior in this sphere on scientific, objective and real grounds, as well as to propose scientifically based recommendations, proposals and solutions for overcoming the problems in the private security subsystem. This is as much important as it is known that the private security, as an activity that provides security services to clients, must continuously be improved qualitatively in order to justify the need for its existence within the security system. This challenge is not at all easy, having in mind that the private security has been constantly faced in front of the needs of the market

and the public interest. In addition, the ethics permeates all relations between the subjects that are directly or indirectly involved in private security.

Ethics, Moral Behavior and Professional Ethics

Being ethical is not a small thing, especially nowadays. Society and culture in which we are living are changing rapidly and even the value and normative sphere which are the most stable of all nonmaterial elements of culture are affected to a degree where we can doubt in their normativity. There are serious indicators that show substantial shift in values which are becoming more ambivalent, less stable and liquid, as well as ethical and moral values which seem to become relativized. Of course, this is not at all happy development of affairs, but it surely denotes the fundamental changes that shape the social and cultural environment in which we live. The complex and contradictory notion of globalization (in actual fact glocalization), the postmodern thinking and lifestyle and neoliberal doctrine and practice jointly contribute towards our everyday, that is becoming as fluid as no other period in human history so far. Speaking of ethics and morals, we should try do define them in a way as they should be, both understand and practiced, since they are normative and exclusive by their nature, so any other understanding and practicing than that could actually disfigure them and make them socially and culturally senseless. Ethics and morals share the same ground, but, they are not the same. They are both alluding to good as value and good behavior which leads to attainment of most of the socio-cultural values. But, although ethics and morals are used nearly as synonyms in everyday speech, they are well differentiated in science. Thus, ethics means scientific and philosophical discipline that studies morals, while morals imply practical ethical behavior in everyday life, i.e., good behavior and conduct. Morals and values make one indivisible whole, where morals is considered as means, while values as goals that can be reached through observing of moral norms (Tanovic, 1978: 37).The morals determine the ways of good behavior that can lead to realization of values. Morals is represented through moral norms created by each socio-cultural environment, whether it is a case with smaller or larger socio-cultural groups and communities. Once the moral norms are set, they are respected by the members or the group, and though there's no formal sanction of not observing them, each socio-cultural group and community has developed mechanisms that react towards those who are not respecting them. This has been done by informal social sanctions that represent disapproving stance and behavior of the rest of the group or community to the one that breaks the unwritten moral norms. In this respect, the morals can be even most effective in most situations of preventing destructions, since

their power lies in fear of the reaction of others which are perceived as socially more effective than the fear of laws which are more distanced through the mechanisms of state and authority.

The morals is effectuated through everyday human relations, communications and interactions. They are the contents of socio-cultural relations between individuals and groups. Concerning the private security, the morals as moral behavior and conduct can be found in different kinds or relations between the private providers of security entities (private security companies for securing persons and property and private detective agencies) and their clients, between private security entities and state/public security institutions, between private security entities and other social groups and individuals (represent of civilian security sectors), as well as between private security entities in their professional and human relations. It is understood that being moral and acting morally is not only aimed at good behavior and conduct related to values in human relations, but also related to good behavior and conduct to material and other spiritual values which are socially agreed and accepted. This is because of the fact that they are deemed by the society as valuable and meaningful and though they are not directly addressed to human values, they represent the values that human societies attribute to these phenomena and objects. Since they are treated as values for society, it is supposed that they have to be reached by observing certain moral norms as means for attaining the values. Moral norms are attached to behavior and they are the same time qualitative and quantitative measures of whether certain behavior is sufficient and socially acceptable to contribute towards attaining certain socio-cultural values. Thus, for instance, being moral in private security means acting according to some agreed moral norms and values that'll inevitably make the aimed values achieved. This is supposed to be done through the mechanisms of so called informal social rules or value-normative order and sometimes even written in Codes of ethical conduct as professional ethics, although if they are written they are closer to the laws, even their achievement is not guaranteed by the state. The morals is most effective if it is unwritten, because it is realized by addressing to human conscience, which has been built through the process of socialization and internalizing the socio-cultural value and normative order. Otherwise, the written form of professional ethics is also more close to deontology, which, in its essence is more lawful than moral. The deontology itself is defined as science of duty and moral obligations that are practiced between the employees in certain professions, among them, most notably and most specifically, the security profession (Mikunovik, 1995: 153; Murgoski, 2005:142). It is indispensable to mention and not to be forgotten that there can be no values without morals, i.e. the values cannot be neither defined, nor envisaged and achieved in practice.

Ethics and Moral Behavior in the Private Security

The basic ethical creeds are to be found in old Chinese, Christian medieval, as well as German classical idealist philosophy. For instance, Confucius writes: “Tse-Kung asked: ‘Is there any rule that can serve for entire life?’ The teacher said: ‘Isn’t the mutuality that word? That which is not to be done to you by others, you shouldn’t be doing to the others’” (Confucius, 1994:174). Also, we found the other basic principle of ethics in Kantian ethical writings where ethics is considered as imperative. Kant says: “Act towards the others so that you could wish your behavior become universal” (Shopenhauer, 1998: 176-186; Mekintair, 2004, 251).

The moral values are values by themselves, autonomous, autochthonous, auto-telic (self-aimed) and they are not derived from any other value (Lukic, 1976: 112; Kloskovska, 2001: 125). Moral behavior and conduct are by their very nature intrinsic to socio-cultural relations and acting morally receives wide social acceptance. People who act morally are considered to be conscious enough to understand the good in every act and, the opposite of that, to be aware of what is wrong and to restrain from acting badly. As we can see, the morals is an exclusive category in terms of its nominal and real determination, meaning that there can only be a defined system of moral norms that determine the morals in given time, space and in given societies telling them what is considered right and what wrong, or, between two morals pretending to be morals in a right sense, one is always right, the other wrong (Mabbot, 1981: 87). Surely, the right one is the one that enjoys wide social acceptance. Importantly enough, because the morals is created according to the values that are respected in certain time, space and society, it means that when those values change, the morals also changes with them since they are, as we mentioned earlier, means for reaching the values. That implies that the morals is dynamic category and that it changes and evolves. Thus, today’s morals is, for instance, more relativized than the morals in modern societies owing to the relativized and atomized socio-cultural values, or, as Alaisdair Mcyntire puts, “people see and think about values and norms more in terms of divisions than entirety” (Mekintair, 1998: 269).

The ethics in the private security domestically as well as worldly is understood as moral practice (moral behavior and conduct) in accordance with certain general, but also special ethical principles of behavior which are basically unwritten, but also written in the form of Codes of professional ethics which systematize the professional morals in the sphere of private security (Stajic, Mijalkovic, Stanarevic, 2004: 183). Codes of professional ethics for private security have been adopted within Europe by CoESS and

UNI Europa in 2003 (CoESS & UNI Europa, 2003: 1-7). Regionally, SEESAC has adopted Code of conduct for the private security companies in Sarajevo in 2006, which refers to the countries of South Eastern Europe (SEESAC, 2003: 1-6). The Chamber of Republic of Macedonia for securing persons and property has adopted Code of professional ethics for employees in the securing persons and property activity in 2005, which is one supposition for rising the ethics and morals in the sphere of private security (Group of authors, 2005: 1). This is due to the fact that the morals is the strongest and most effective when internalized and is part of the structure and behavior of the person. The aim of formulating the Codes of professional ethics in written form is to make the entities within the private security sphere aware, informed and stimulated about the existence of the ethical principles and moral behavior. At the same time, the existence of the Codes of ethics in the private security points out to the insufficient level of adoption of the general culture, security culture, omissions, flaws and shortcomings in the process of socialization. With the aim of providing high quality of work within the private security subsystem, it must not be allowed working of persons who are not aware with the ethical dimension of living in general and in private security especially. The awareness for ethics and morals, as well as their consistent implementation on work has to be a condition sine qua non (the inevitable condition) in the private security, not something sporadic, secondary or less important. Regarding the ethical principles on which work within the private security subsystem should be based, the science distinguishes several. We could sublimate the following ethical principles:

- **Professionalism**-denotes the quality of performing the working tasks (Temkov, 2009: 235). The professional morals is seen as a rigid ethical system, that is being respected not only as the morals, but also partly as the laws since it has been in some way prescribed in the written Codes of professional ethics. The professionalism, in ethical sense of the word, also implies acceptance of the works and working tasks that can be performed in the moment with all disposable personnel and material means and nothing more than that (Temkov, 2009: 239);
- **Fairness and equality**-understands fair, respectful and equal treatment of the clients, but also fair, respectful and equal relation towards other entities within the security system as well as colleagues. Here we talk about the existence of the internalized sense of fairness and equality that implies the existence of measure for equality while conducting towards the other entities with whom the given person or entity cooperates professionally and towards whom

- the security officer or private detective are also socially responsible (Fischer, Halibozek, Green, 2008: 288; Cvetkovski, 2011: 66-71);
- **Responsibility**-implies performing the works in the private security sector in accordance with the requirements and expectations of society, public and users of security services. Also, responsibility understands developed awareness for the need of feed-back of the entities that work in the private security towards all the others directly or indirectly affected by their work;
 - **Conspiracy and discretion**-conspiracy refers to the secrecy of all security information related with quality and efficacious exerting of security plans and carrying out the security actions. Discretion refers to wary, careful and adequate disposal with data and information, protection and preventing the publication of secret and confidential information of the clients and other persons with the aim of protecting the basic human rights and freedoms of the person, intimacy, subjectivity and privacy (Tumanovski et al., 2004: 135);
 - **Efficaciousness**-signifies the exertion of the working tasks with minimum engaged means and maximum work effect, thus always not being at the detriment of the good (moral) behavior. In actual fact, the efficaciousness together with the social responsibility and acceptability determine the optimization in the work of the private security subsystem (Dempsey, 2011: 25-26).

Moral Functions in the Private Security

Within the sphere of private security there's a pretty vast field of sensitive relations connected with the basic human rights and freedoms, subjectivity, intimacy and privacy, honor, reputation and dignity of the people and other values that have accentuated, and in some cases, exceptional moral dimension. The relations within private security connected with these values and the values alike them are being conditioned, first of all, with the development of the general culture, value orientation towards basic values (human life, peace, freedom, democracy etc.), security culture as culture for security, humanism, solidarity, traditions and so on (Gerasimovski, 2011: 363). In addition, the morals as a direct ethical practice exerts numerous and important social and security influences that are frequently defined through the moral functions. We will list the following moral functions as the most important in the private security:

- **Assumption for strengthening of legal norms within the sphere of private security;** The moral values, basically, are a constituent part of the legal norms and they provide higher degree of respect of the

law. Therefrom, it is assumed that inasmuch as the moral norms are being present in a greater extent within the legal regulation in the sphere of private security, it will be more respected, and with that, the ethics and morals will gain in significance;

- **Filling out the legal void within the sphere of private security;** With this we are alluding to the void that has not been regulated with legal norms, or, by its very nature, cannot be regulated with legal norms;
- **Realizing the public character of security;** The security represents an integral societal phenomenon, while ethics and moral behavior contribute towards realizing the private security in terms of the public and societal character, i.e., contribute towards non fragmentary understanding and practicing of security (Spaseski, 2009: 305-315);
- **Reducing the abuses and overstepping of the authorizations within the private security;** The moral behavior in the private security acts towards reducing the critical security situations (security incidents) aimed at their avoidance, relativization or reduction. The overstepping of the authorizations in private security emerge from the unsuccessful resolution of complex security situations using measures that are being relied on legal and much more less on moral norms;
- **Dealienation and decriminalization of the relations within the sphere of private security and generally within security;** The informal contents of the moral norms makes the relations within the sphere of private security to become more humane, less alienated, with much more trust instead of suspicion between people and thus, indirectly, creating a climate for reducing the degree of crime in the society as a whole;
- **Basis of the preventive and humanistic function within the private security subsystem;** The morals acts towards preventing the encroachments, anticipates them and resolves the roots of the possible destructive phenomena. The humanism denotes that the morals always acts towards avoiding the evil or replacing the greater with smaller evil, the one that could not have been avoided in a given situation in any way. The preventive and humanistic function of the morals within the private security give sense to security as humane and societal phenomenon and, as *Ian Loader* and *Neil Walker* rightly remark, contribute towards “*civilizing the security*” (Loader & Walker, 2007: 7);
- **Basis for realizing the defensive repression;** The morals lies in the basis of the defensive repression as only allowed and socially justified exertion of repression in the sphere of private security;

- **Optimization of the development of private security subsystem;**
The permeating of the private security with morals creates real opportunity for optimal development of the private security (achieving maximum efficaciousness in providing security services with acceptable level of societal responsibility).

Ethical Values of the Employees in the Private Security

The private security subsystem (widely also called sector) must employ only persons who meet highest professional and ethical values. Guaranteeing the security is very complex issue to be left carried out by persons who do not possess or possess insufficient extent and level of adopted values of this kind. It means that any kind of improvisation considering private security is inadmissible and unthinkable. Generally speaking, since providing of security services is a specific service activity in which one should look after security as public activity as well as an integral phenomenon, therefore the employees in the private security (security officers and private detectives) must possess highest level of knowledge and skills from the sphere of security, high degree of general and security culture, to be persons with reputation, moral and authoritative without any destructions shown before, persons without any spot in their previous career etc. (Spaseski, Aslimoski, Gerasimoski, 2008: 80). In short, they must dispose with biophysical and psychological predispositions, but also adopted socialized values, norms, habits, beliefs and so on that makes them suitable for exercising security works and tasks as one of the most perplexed and responsible works and tasks at all. Herewith, we would like to especially emphasize that during the selection and admission of the employees in the private security subsystem, and while granting the working license, the most rigid criteria concerning the profile of the person to whom this license has been granted should be respected, especially viewed from the fact that they should possess highest level of adopted values and norms of the community. Namely, there must be an estimation of whether that person is morally mature and socialized in a right way, because, on the contrary, if this is not to be respected consistently, than, there can be no such high level of professionalism that could repeal or reduce the negative consequences of the indigested of the needed values and above all the moral values of the employees within private security.

The issue of ethics and implementation of moral norms and behavior within the private security in Republic of Macedonia has been seriously neglected, although, in terms of other issues in this sphere, also the countries with much richer experience and tradition in the private security cannot praise themselves with much better relation towards them. The issue of

morals must be seriously taken into consideration during the selection of the personnel who is supposed to work in the private security in terms of its compatibility for exercising of the complex works and exertion of the authorizations. A recent research carried out in Republic of Macedonia has shown that 82, 52% of security officers and even 100% of the managers in the private agencies for securing persons and property think that the private security employees inadequate personnel, which implies that they do not possess neither ethical nor moral values and qualities to work in this sphere respectfully (Petrevski & Dimitrovska, 2011: 445).

With the aim of improving the ethics and moral behavior of the employees in the private security in general, and in Republic of Macedonia specifically, we believe that setting some ethical values for the employees in this subsystem is indispensable. Those ethical values could be sublimated in the following:

- antidestructive orientation;
- high degree of skills for estimation of risks, threats and encroachments;
- psychophysical and emotional stability;
- rapid and precise determination of truth in concrete situations;
- built-up clear and just value orientation towards the basic societal values;
- high threshold of tolerance;
- critical thinking skill;
- high negotiation capabilities.

Conclusion

Being ethical has always helped security relations and problems to be resolved in a much relaxed, humane and civilized manner, with higher degree of prevention, without the usage of unnecessary repression and keeping of the high degree of efficaciousness and professionalism in carrying out the authorizations. It means that the ethics is in function of attaining higher degree of social acceptability and responsibility of the private security within the entire security system. The ethics and moral behavior must become constituent, inevitable and constant part of the awareness and practice in the private security as part of the concept of the security culture. In that sense, we could recommend the ethics and moral behavior should be a constituent part of the system of education and training of the personnel needed within the private security subsystem in the future, as well as the Code of professional ethics for the security officers in the securing of persons and property that has already been adopted and Code of professional

ethics for the private detectives that has to be adopted in the future; all of them has to be implemented fully and to be innovated on time in order to ensure that during the selection and admission of the personnel as well as during issuing the work licenses they have to be taken as substantial, not as sporadic criterion etc. Having in mind the abovementioned, we believe that the paper will reach its goal and justifiability inasmuch as it will help in shifting the ethics from a marginal to focal concept of the private security.

References:

van Buuren Jelle & den Boer Monica (2009) *A report on the ethical issues raised by the increasing role of private security professionals in security analysis and provision*, Oslo: International Peace Research Institute.

van Steden Ronald & Sarre Rick (2007) "The Growth of Private Security: Trends in the European Union", *Security Journal*, 20, pp.222-235.

Gerasimoski, Saše (2011) "The Development of Private Security in Republic of Macedonia: Contradictions and Possibilities", *Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference, Security in the Post-Conflict Western Balkans: Transition and Challenges Faced by the Republic of Macedonia*, Skopje: Faculty of Security, Vol. II, pp.326-340.

Герасимоски, Саше (2011) „Безбедносната култура и културата на ризикот“, *Хоризонти*, Битола, бр.7, сс:361-370.

Герасимоски, Саше (2007) „Приватна, а не приватизирана безбедност“, *Годишник на Полициската академија*, Скопје, бр.2, сс:32-39.

Група автори (2005), *Професионално обезбедување: Кодекс на професионална етика на вршителите на дејноста обезбедување на лица и имот*, Скопје: Комора на Република Македонија за обезбедување на лица и имот.

Dempsey, John D. (2011) *Introduction to Private Security*, Belmont CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Kloskovska, Antonjina (2001) *Sociologija culture*, Beograd: Џгоја штампа.

Конфучие (1994), *Големото учење: Средниот пат: Аналекти*, Скопје: Култура.

Loader, Ian & Walker, Neil (2007), *Civilizing Security*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Лукиќ, Радомир (1976) *Социологија морала*, Београд: Научна књига.

- Mabbot, John David (1981) *Uvod u etiku*, Beograd: Nolit.
- Мекинтаир, Алесдер (2004) *Кратка историја на етиката: кратка историја на филозофијата на моралот од Хомерово време па сè до дваесеттиот век*, Скопје: АЗ-БУКИ
- Мекинтаир, Алесдер (1998) *По доблеста*, Скопје: Табернакул
- Микуновиќ, Љубо (1995) *Современ лексикон на странски зборови и изрази*, Скопје: Наша книга
- Мургоски, Зозе (2005) *Речник на македонскиот јазик*, Скопје: Филолошки факултет „Блаже Конески“
- Petrevski Borče, Dimitrovska Aleksandra (2011) “Reforms of Restructuring the Private Security Subsystem in the Republic of Macedonia within the Modern Concept of Security System”, *Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference, Security in the Post-Conflict Western Balkans: Transition and Challenges Faced by the Republic of Macedonia*, Skopje: Faculty of Security, Vol. II, pp.439-453.
- SEESAC (2008) *The Sarajevo Code of Conduct for Private Security Companies*, Sarajevo: Centar za sigurnosne studije.
- Spaseski, Jordan (2009) “Private security as an integral part of the single security system”, *Varstvoslovje, Journal of Criminal Justice and Security*, 11(2), pp.305-315.
- Спасески Јордан, Аслимоски Пере, Герасимоски Саше (2008), *Приватна безбедност*, Скопје-Охрид: Полициска академија и Факултет за туризам и угостителство.
- Стајић Љубомир, Мијалковић Саша и Станаревић Светлана (2004), *Безбедносна култура*, Београд: Полицијска академија.
- Тановиќ, Ариф (1978) *Vrijednost i vrednovanje*, Sarajevo: IKGRO “Svijetlost” - OOUR Zavod za izdavanje udbenika.
- Темков, Кирил (2009) *Како да се биде добар*, Скопје: ОХО.
- Тумановски, Драган и други (2004) *Обезбедување на лица и имот*, Скопје: Комора на Република Македонија за обезбедување на лица и имот.
- Fischer Robert J., Halibozek Edward, Green Gion (2008) *Introduction to Security*, Burlington MA: Elsevier.
- Цветковски, Гроздан (2011) *Професија приватен детектив*, Скопје: Панили.
- CoESS & UNI Europa (2003) *Code of Conduct and Ethics for the Private Security Sector*, Wemmel: CoESS.
- Шопенхауер, Артур (1998) *Етика*, Скопје: Култура.

**ЗНАЧЕЊЕТО НА ЕТИЧНОСТА ВО ОСТВАРУВАЊЕТО
НА
ПРИВАТНАТА БЕЗБЕДНОСТ**

д-р Пере Аслимоски;

pereftu@hotmail.com

*Факултет за туризам и угостителство-Охрид; Република
Македонија;*

д-р Саше Герасимоски

sgerasimoski@yahoo.com

Факултет за безбедност-Скопје; Република Македонија;

Резиме

Во Република Македонија е воспоставена правна и институционална рамка за остварување на приватната безбедност. Лицата кои работат во приватното обезбедување на лица и имот најчесто имаат широки рамена и вратови, развиени мускули и други карактеристики низ кои видно се изразува нивната физичка моќ и подготвеност. Но, за да се постигне посакуван квалитет во приватното обезбедување на лица и имот потребно е тие да поседуваат и развиени хуманистички и етички вредности. Во овој труд, потпирајќи се на искуствата од досегашниот развој на приватната безбедност во Република Македонија, сакаме аргументирано да ја нагласиме потребата од воспоставување на повисоки стандарди за етичките вредности кои треба да ги поседуваат работниците во приватното обезбедување. Укажуваме на нужната законитост според која колку повеќе се инсистира на етичката димензија во приватното обезбедување, толку повеќе се ограничуваат можностите од отуѓување во оваа дејност, злоупотреба и пречекорување на овластувањата, повреда на основните човекови права и слободи, угледот, достоинството и интимитетот на личноста и други вредности.

Клучни зборови: етика, приватна безбедност, основни човекови права и слободи

PRIVATE SECURITY AS A PROCESS: POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITS

Sase Gerasimoski, Ph.D.

sgerasimoski@yahoo.com

Faculty of Security-Skopje; Republic of Macedonia;

Abstract

The development of private security is a worldwide phenomenon, which, in fact, by its nature, represents a process of transferring part of security functions from the state to non-state (non-public-private) security subjects. As such it opens many questions related to the understanding and future of security, freedom, life, law and other fundamental societal values. The most perplexed question the security scientists are looking for an answer is the following: To what extent that process should develop, i.e., what are its limits beyond which its societal accountability is brought under question, if not imperiled? This paper, using mostly comparative theoretical analysis, elaboration of secondary research data sources and authors' own critical observations on the subject, will try to scientifically explain this focal question in theory and practice of private security in the world as well as domestically.

Keywords: *private security, process, security system, securing persons and property, detective activity*

Introduction- Private Security as a Worldwide Process

There's commonly accepted opinion that private security has emerged from the worldwide process of privatization of security or as some authors call it "commercialization" of security function or "outsourcing" (Wulf, 2007: 36). It is a new historical moment of gross transformation and redistribution of the security function throughout the world, but in broader time-span, the state was not the sole provider of security until the formation of solid states across the human history. In this respect, as Ronald Classen wisely puts, "relating the security phenomenon with a state is a myth", since throughout history there were different agents that provided security, which does not implicate that security can be viewed as fragmentary (Classen, 2009: 1-7). Though, the very term privatization is embraced between the western scholars as something quite routine, at the same time there are still a kind of exaggerated precautions among the eastern (ex-socialist) scholars who would rather substitute the term with the process of transferring or delegating the security function from public to private security entities. Looking at this difference in understanding the private security as a process opens up a series of fundamental questions concerning the nature and

development of private security, some of them reaching deeply into science and even philosophy. Namely, from the very onset of the private security and especially, from its rapid upsurge in the last two decades across the world, one should really wonder: What is the essence of private security sector and what are its possibilities and limits of development? I strongly believe that there was not such a delicate security theme within the security sciences as it is now with the private security phenomenon. It is even more delicate than the Cold-War security problems and dilemmas since it poses the most profound questions of the future of security and other basic cultural and social values related to security. The dichotomy public-private in terms of security seems to provide a full account of its seriousness. As Deborah Avant remarks, “perhaps the most dramatic incursion of the private sector into public policy is in the realm of security” (Avant, 2004: 153).

Private security has developed considerably everywhere in the world and except some totalitarian communist regimes that look like pockets in the world security map (such as North Korea or Cuba), there’s not a corner in the world where the private security hadn’t occurred and developed. Much more, the advent and extremely fast development of the private security has completely changed the security as inherently human phenomenon. Thus, today we have accustomed to see security officers guaranteeing security shoulder to shoulder with the police, installing technical security equipment in a lot of private and increasingly public buildings, living everyday with private detectives that we can hire on a free market of security services. What is so dramatic here is not the question of the dissolved state monopoly over the security function in general, but, the hardly predictable climax of the so called process of privatization of security and its final consequences on the security and stability. We can broadly speak of globalization (or glocalization as some scholars like to call it, probably more suitable than the widely accepted term globalization) and of crises within security systems of each country as two factors that contributed towards the advent and development of private security. The first one, the globalization process, has penetrated in the security system on different levels (national, sub-national and above-national), driven by the ideas and socio-economic practice of neo-liberalism, while the other factor, the crises of national security systems, have produced the increase of crime and other risks, threats and encroachments to security. These two factors have weakened the security role of the state, seeking other non-state actors that can guarantee higher level of security that was needed, while the state wasn’t able or didn’t have interest of providing it. Speaking of the private security in the East European countries that underwent the painful transition, such as Republic of Macedonia, the private security still strives for its real place and role within the security system and the questions about the nature and future of the

sector or subsystem here are twice as complicated as those concerning the private security sector in developed countries of the world. The human and ethical consequences of the existence of private security as part of the single security system here are more accentuated and highlighted together with a very stark and antagonistic views about the usefulness of its operation between the people from the previous security structures in socialism and the new “reformatted” ones, as I would call them, who have embraced the private security, sometimes too uncritically. Nevertheless, it’s enlightening to see that the privatization of the security function, that is to say the process of transferring or outsourcing of security functions to private security, cannot become a matter of its own. The development of private security, after all, is indeed confined by the very essence of security as phenomenon and instrumental value. In actual fact, there can be no notion of security as fragmentary phenomenon, but only as integral one. That is a firm base to see one limit of the process of privatization of security and that is the public character of work of the private security subsystem (sector) sublimed in social accountability and acceptability. The other possible limit could be the effectiveness, meaning that the private security could develop as long as it is more effective than the security services that exert the state. Everything which is to be found between these limits is actually possibilities for the development of private security sector. It’s also pretty sobering to realize that the, so called, privatizing of private security as negative privatization in fact, could actually annihilate the very concept and practice of private security, since there can be no security for one and insecurity for other at the same time, but security for both at the same time (Gerasimoski, 2007: 32-39). In fact, "there is a risk that private security can lead to deformation and alienation of the security system, but only if it is not conceived and designed properly (Spaseski, 2009: 306). It assumes that the private security subsystem can be developed only to a degree when it can help the state maintain and promote security, but not higher than that and, most importantly, not in any case as substitution to it (without the so called bad privatization of security function, or bottom-up privatization). In pages that follow, we shall try to map the frontiers of the development of private security function in general, only slightly referring to the experiences and future development of the private security subsystem in Republic of Macedonia.

Possibilities for development of Private Security

To what extent the development of private security sector is possible concerning one optimal point of development of the security system is surely one of the most intriguing questions in this sphere. The question is not at all

easy to answer, let alone the fact that we have to include numerous and quite fluid variables to determine what we would take as the point of optimal security at given time, space and socio-cultural circumstances. Actually, the notion of security is one of the most liquid ones and extremely hard to determine and evaluate at given point since it changes constantly and that's why we can often speak of it as a kind of condition or state. Also, referring to possibilities of its development it's highly important to see that security is an instrumental value and the final judgment of the optimal level of security must be reached through scrutinized evaluation of the contribution. It is attaining highest socio-cultural values of humankind, such as freedom, morals, law, justice, happiness, beauty, well-being, life etc., that represent highest values on the pyramid of values, being at the same time a kind of ideals. So, the question about the possibilities for development of private security would include the previous aspect, as well as forms of security services that will include that development, mainly encompassed within the security services offered through public-private partnership and private security services alone.

When we consider the relationship between possibilities for development of private security and realization of the socio-cultural values that we've already mentioned, it's important to note that these values are pretty intertwined between themselves, so speaking of one we usually refer in one or another way to other value or values. That is simply because of the fact that they are the values of community and they are all connected with the attainment of common security and contribution to the well-being of all. So, the possible optimal level of development of private security should take into account all of the peculiarities of the general socio-cultural value system of given space and at given time and should continually follow the changes within it. That is why, the entire security system and private security subsystem (sector) as a constitutive part should be in a process of constant adjustment or reformation in an extent that is required by the abovementioned changes (Spaseski, Aslimovski, Gerasimovski, 2008: 28). So, since the socio-cultural value system is different in different societies and states, we can speak of differences regulating the optimal level of development of private security, but at the same time, since there are core and universal values that are common in different societies and states, we can also speak of the minimum rules and standards (unwritten and written) regulating the optimal level of development of private security worldwide. Consequently, here there'll be a word about the universal factors that allow and make possible the development of private security as a world phenomenon, only faintly referring to the peculiarities related to the possibilities for the private security development in Republic of Macedonia. Of course, the possibilities given on one and the limits of the development of

private security on other hand, we'll actually chart contours of a kind of universal model for optimal development of the private security sector, not pretending to give a full account of it, since it will require much space and time that we have at disposal now. Here, we focus on the possibilities for development of the private security sector in relation to freedom, morals and law, bearing on mind that we design at the same time its limits that will be elaborated extensively in the section to follow.

The privatization of security can be explained as process where “government agencies contracting out various services to private security agencies” (Dempsey, 2011: 409). As worldwide phenomenon it started its rise only two to three decades ago, a process that created the private security subsystem (sector) as a supplement to public sector (Vejnović & Pavlović, 2011: 257). Obviously, globalization and neoliberalism pushed the process and played a role of main instigators. The globalization gave the process a planetary dimension, while the neoliberalism as economic doctrine and practice affected all the aspects of human life, among them security as basic one. Pluralization and redistribution of security function followed the deep and comprehensive socio-economic and political changes, mainly characterized by the worldwide spreading of neoliberal economies and social and political fragmentation (Newburn и Reyner 2010: 910-952). In actual fact, neoliberalism and liberalism in general are economic thoughts and practices based on the libertarian traditions of freedom, i.e., freedom as the main impetus of social and historical development of mankind. The famous motto of the libertarianism is to exert maximum freedom possible in a given socio-cultural circumstances, meaning that one should exercise its freedom as much and as long as he doesn't harm the other, encroach or reduce his own freedom (Temkov, 2009: 73). That is the motto that was actually followed by the private security in terms of the freedom they secure and in relation with security. Security itself comprises the very notion of freedom, but freedom that is being confined by the freedom of others. The others actually are represented by public interest or common good to which the private security should always serve, irrespective of the fact that their clients are the main focus of their job. This is due to the fact that security is integral phenomenon and since it inherently implies freedom, then, freedom is also indivisible and closely related and shared among subjects. We find the libertarian and neoliberal traditions suitable to explain the possibilities and limits of the development of private security since it warrants clear demarcation and designing of the frontiers where private security guarantees freedom of their clients, personnel and the public. This is also most suitably explained through the place and role of the private security as subsystem within the single security system, not as sector, since the word sector is less determined and vague than subsystem and doesn't tell us much about the

essence of private security. Thus defined, the private security also finds the true place of freedom as value and one of the most important factors when estimating the further process of development of private security. It's worth noting that the private security sector should always balance between freedom seen as somebody's behavior or acting that doesn't harm somebody's else, or, that the private security should always balance between freedom and order, the first being the necessary degree of autonomy of the sector that implies freedom, and the order being its right place within the organized security system (Johnston, 2005: 38).

Talking about morals is always complicated, especially in relation to private security. Morals and ethics are frequently set aside when dealing with the subject of private security entities and rarely occupy the interest of scholars and specialists, even media, though they are often at first place when a problem or scandal occurs. The ethics and moral conduct of the employees in the private security subsystem are often placed behind the professionalism and effectiveness of the work. It is wrong to see ethics and effectiveness as enemies. This is because the most optimal acting of the private security employees should include both good and effective implementation of authorizations. After all, it is possible to balance well with strict professional acting that only assumes use of rigid and repressive measures. Thus, when private security officer acts in self-defense defending his life, then, taking away somebody else's life is not wrong, but it is justified by laws and by ethical standards, since it prevents loss of one's own life or loss of many other innocent lives, and that is surely considered ethical and moral as well as professional and effective at the same time. As far as regulation is concerned the ethics and moral conduct are behind legislation and written laws. But, in practice, there are countless situations when private security employees face moral dilemmas of good and bad acting while exerting their authorizations. For instance, the law obliges the private security employees to report a crime that has been prosecuted by laws or *ex officio*, but, what to do in a case of serious quarrel between two or more people that could actually threaten public order. This is ethical dilemma and it is up to the personal ethical and moral values of each employee and of the level of adopted social and cultural ethical and moral values. We believe that the process of privatization can progress successfully only if it integrates ethical and moral component in its work. But, adopting the professional Code of ethics is not sufficient. It must be followed by continuing education of the employees to adopt the best possible ethical and moral standards of thought and conduct. In other words, the more these standards are adopted, the deeper the process of privatization of security function can go and can spread to engulf more authorizations. This is because of the simple fact found in the ethical premises, saying that good conduct and behavior are

precondition to providing a secure environment, and on a contrary, bad conduct and behavior create insecure world. Of course, ethics and morals are changing over time, so the private security subsystem must be innovative enough if it wants to develop to a level of partnership with the state security entities.

The private security subsystem must be regulated. It has always been a real enterprise to bring together the public interest unavoidably related to the state and the private interest, which even in a case of the private security, is related to the market of security services, or, with marketization of security (Avant, 2005: 23). The relation of private security with law is an axiom, since it's unimaginable that a successful private security subsystem (sector) could operate outside clear, optimal and innovative legal framework. The security is an omnipresent phenomenon that penetrates all socio-cultural relations and interactions and must not be allowed to develop arbitrarily or in a spontaneous manner, since, as Loader and Walker unambiguously conclude, it is a "thick" public good (Loader & Walker, 2007: 8). The right way to organize and put under control and oversight is to regulate its operation. But, the crucial question is how and to what extent the state and law should interfere in this sphere? The answer depends on the socio-cultural, legal, security and economic peculiarities of each case of legal regulation of private security. But, it seems that we can single out some common features concerning the degree of regulation. First, law and its implementation in society are vital for providing and maintaining peace, order and security, so, each state is bound to regulate the work of private security sector in a way that it doesn't endanger legal and other interests of all other subjects that are not related to private security. Second, it is clear that the private security sector should possess certain autonomy in order to develop, so, providing that is also important, but to an extent that is related to other security factors and to social accountability as well. Third, there must be a strong and essential trust among the security entities of the security system that see the private security sector as indispensable and respectful factor of security. Otherwise, the legal system will always try to overregulate the private security sector and to choke its development. Fourth, the private security sector should be regulated to a degree where it will be self-aware of the needed regulation and should not feel that the legal framework acts as oppressive, limiting and disciplining factor, but rather as providing minimal legal standards of fair-play in the market of security services and among different security entities within the entire security system. And fifth, the legal framework concerning the regulation of private security should be improved and innovated constantly, because of the rapid changes that occur within the subsystem and changing of security factors, needs and interests. All in all, the law as crucial value in democratic, organized and developed

countries of our time, is closely and inextricably related to the private security phenomenon and we should be very mindful to make sure that the legal regulation of private security allows its development, but, at the same time to provide minimum effective legal framework that will assure clear relation with other segments of the security system and ensure minimum needed control and oversight in order to reach the best possible governing and accountability. Surely, this is not at all easy task to do, but there should be concerted the efforts made by all security actors that see and understand the necessity and limits of privatization process.

We've seen in what way freedom, morals and law give an opportunity for the development of the private security sector and allude to its limits as well. So, they are a kind of preconditions for its development. Now, it's equally important to see what makes the contents of that possibilities for development, i.e., what are the possible forms of development of private security that are actually present in some countries of the world, but not in all of them. It is also important to see that possibilities of developing which lie behind are more related to different forms of private-public security partnerships as well as private-civilian security partnerships than with the private security subsystem alone.

Among various forms of operation of private security entities we would mention the forms of operation that exist in the countries where the private security subsystem (sector) has developed considerably, such as U.S.A., Canada, Great Britain, Australia and South Africa. These are the following:

- Private securing of public, hybrid and communal spaces (Kestic, 2009: 193-207; Kempa, Stenning, Wood, 2004: 562-581);
- Public-private partnerships in securing public and hybrid spaces with hybrid governance (Johnston & Stenning, 2008: 8);
- Public-private partnerships in community policing (Fatic, 2007: 10);
- Joint public/private reaction in a case of emergency (Fischer, Halibozek, Green, 2008: 24-25);
- Public-private programs for prevention and control of crime in community (Blackstone & Hakim, 2009: 3);
- Public-civilian programs for prevention and control of crime in community;
- Joint three lateral preventive security programs between public, private and civilian security sectors;
- Private detective services for public and private entities and citizens (Cvetkovski, 2011: 33-38);
- Public-private partnership in providing detective services;
- Providing private detectives services for private security entities;

- Providing security services for private detective agencies;
- Conducting criminalistic and forensic investigations on contract or in cooperation with public/state security;
- Outsourced imprisonment, guarding and transportation of prisoners (Mijalkovic, 2010: 261);
- Specialized private security research centers providing security consulting and risk analyses, assessment and prognosis for public, private and civilian security sectors (Brodeur, 2003:275; Abrahamsen & Williams, 2009:5).

Most of the forms of providing private security services, as can be noted, are related with different kinds of relations between the segments of the security system on contract basis. In this case, we could freely say that this has been made possible thanks to the close relations between these segments in the contemporary security world, elevated to the highest level of partnership and to a degree where, as Mark Button puts it “the distinction between public and private has been blurred” (Button, 2007:55). So the “plural policing” is in fact something that gets public and private security sectors really close and make partnerships possible and indispensable (Jones & Newburn, 2006:1-11). Solid and sustainable partnership between the private security subsystem and other segments of the contemporary security system is of utmost salience, since private security sector, by its nature, tends to understand and practice security as a fragmented phenomenon (Gerasimoski, 2011:795-803). Without that partnership, the right understanding and practicing of the security as an integral phenomenon would not be possible, and private security would be a contradictory notion (Johns, 2010: 841-865).

Limits for Development of Private Security

As the role of private security expands, both legally and socially, new responsibilities and obligations must be tackled (Nemeth, 2005: 291). The lowest and highest points must also be determined in order to be able to discern under which conditions the private security process could grow and develop and to what extent and limits. According to the latest annual report for 2011 issued by CoESS, the private security sector continues to develop at considerable rate all across the Europe. It can be well seen by some interesting data, such as total yearly turnover of the private security industry which has reached €35 billion, with 52,300 being the total number of the private security companies and with an average market growth of the private security industry (based on yearly turnover) 2005-2010 of 13,30% (CoESS, 2011:143). The “quiet revolution” in policing observed in 1980s by Clifford Shearing has become a noisy 21st century juggernaut (van Steden & Sarre,

2007:223). This unprecedented and light-speed growth is owing to the requirements for higher efficaciousness that a private security subsystem can provide instead of public one. Reaching the highest level of the efficaciousness could be not only limit, but optimal level of development of the private security sector at the same time. The other side of the equation is consisted of the social accountability and acceptability.

A consensus exists between scholars and practitioners within the private security about the need for transparency and social accountability and acceptability of the private security sector. But, there's no consensus about what level of accountability and acceptability, neither about the elements that it should comprise. For instance, the SEESAC report of the state of arts with the private security companies in South-East Europe, has found a lack of transparency and accountability of the PSC (private security companies) in most of the countries (SEESAC, 2008: v). That urges us to think of this side of equation profoundly and try to get things straight. Namely, we think that the optimal and at the same time highest possible level of social accountability and acceptability of private security meet at one point and at the same time they are intercepting the highest point of efficaciousness of private security work. The sector's existence and work are justified only when the level of effectiveness and level of social accountability and acceptability range between 50 and 100 %. Below or above that, the clients and the public in general do not recognize and approve the very existence, role and security function of private security subsystem (sector). We must note that we take the lowest limit of 50% of justifiable level only approximately, since there are numerous other social, cultural and especially security factors that determine the lowest limit of efficaciousness on one and highest limit of social responsibility and acceptability on other side. It means that these numbers could vary from country to country. Also, concerning efficaciousness we understand percentage by which private security sector is exceeding the efficaciousness of the public security sector. One more thing that we also suppose here is that both efficaciousness and social responsibility and acceptability are developing with same pace, so that's why they are represented by one path of development. This is logically to assume since the rise in efficaciousness has to be followed by equivalent rise of the social responsibility and acceptability. Once more, we'd like to draw that this is a kind of an ideal diagram which may vary in a real circumstances. As such, it is only an orientation tool for assessing current state of development and forecasting future development of the private security subsystem (sector). Considering Republic of Macedonia, this model could be also useful, if applied, in determining the current level of development, possibilities and limits of its development in the future. The relations explained can be well seen from the diagram below.

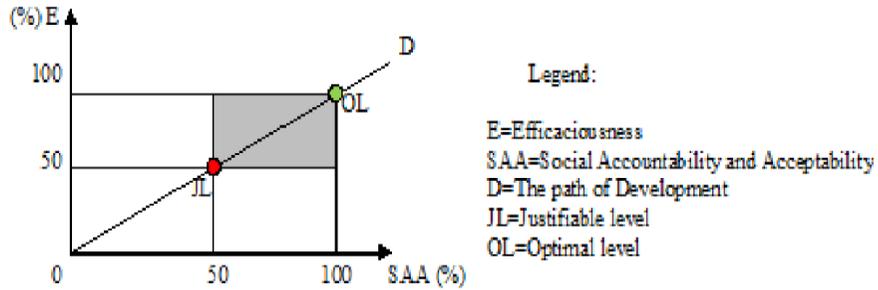
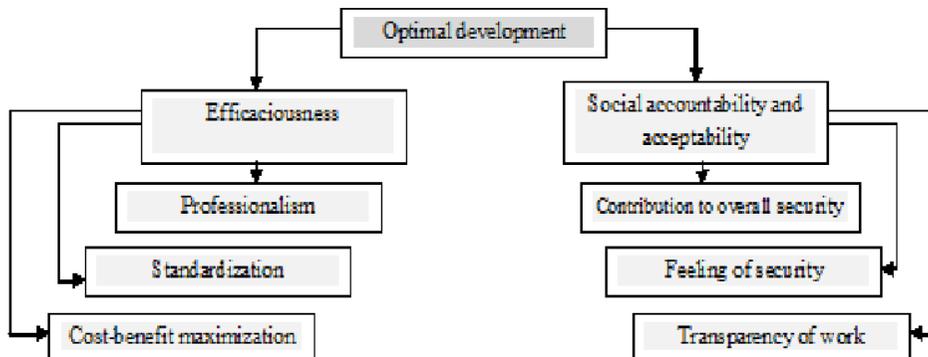


Diagram.1. Graphic account of the possibilities and limits of development of private security as process

Now that we've determined the most probable relations between efficaciousness and social responsibility and acceptability, we are free to develop a kind of a model that will actually show us the possibilities and limits of development of private security as process. The only thing missing here are the factors that determine those two variables. In terms of efficaciousness of the private security subsystem, there are several crucial factors that determine this variable of the model such as professionalism, standardization and cost-benefit maximization. If favorable, all of these contribute towards greater efficaciousness in work of the private security subsystem. On the other side, social responsibility and acceptability are represented by contribution of private security subsystem to overall security, feelings of security and transparency of work. If they are also favorable, we can speak of optimal level of development of the private security subsystem, surely if it matches at the same time with an adequate level of efficaciousness. The rough design of this proposed model of optimal development of the private security subsystem is given in the scheme below.



Scheme 1. Optimal model of development of private security as process

Conclusion

We've seen that the development of the private security subsystem (sector) is a process that needs optimization in order to justify its existence. As such, it also requires determination of its possibilities and limits of development. We find efficaciousness and social responsibility and acceptability as crucial factors that determine the optimal development of the private security sector and therefore, we've proposed a kind of ideal-type model that could help us understand the limits and range of development. Also, we've put forward our views on the relatedness of the private security subsystem (sector) development with some crucial socio-cultural values as freedom, ethics and morals and law in terms of the possibilities of its development. The effort put here is our modest contribution in the search of answers to a crucial question of the extent of development of the private security sector as the most intriguing security phenomenon of our time.

References:

1. Abrahamsen Rita & Williams Michael C. (2009), "Security Beyond the State: Global Security Assemblages in International Politics", *International Political Sociology*, 3, 1–17.
2. Avant, Deborah D. (2005), *The Market for Force: The Consequences of Privatizing Security*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
3. Avant, Deborah D. (2004), "The Privatization of Security and Change in the Control of Force", *International Studies Perspectives*, 5, pp.153-157.
4. Blackstone, Erwin A. & Hakim, Simon (2009), *Private Policing: Experiences, Evaluation and Future Direction*, Temple: Temple University.
5. Brodeur, Jean-Paul (2003), *Les visages de la police: pratiques et perceptions*, Montréal: Les Presses de L'Université de Montréal.
6. Button, Mark (2007), *Security Officers and Policing: Powers, Culture and Control in the Governance of Private Space*, Burlington: Ashgate.
7. van Steden Ronald & Sarre Rick (2007), "The Growth of Private Security: Trends in the European Union", *Security Journal*, 20, pp.222-235.
8. Vejnović, Duško & Pavlović, Gojko (2011), "Globalization and privatization of security", *Proceedings of the International Scientific Conference, Security in the Post-Conflict Western Balkans: Transition and Challenges Faced by the Republic of Macedonia*, Skopje: Faculty of Security, Vol. I, pp.255-267.
9. Wulf, Herbert (2007), "Privatizing and internationalizing violence", *The Economics of Peace and Security Journal*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp.35-40.

10. Gerasimoski, Saše (2011), „Relations between police and private security sector in Republic of Macedonia“, *Proceedings of the Archibald Reiss Days International Scientific Conference*, Belgrade: Academy of Criminology and Police Studies, Vol. II, pp.795-803.
11. Gerasimovski, Sase (2007), „Private, but not privatized security“, *Yearbook of the Police Academy*, Skopje, no.2, pp.32-39.
12. Dempsey, John D. (2011), *Introduction to Private Security*, Belmont CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
13. Johnston, Les & Stenning, Philip (2008), “Challenges of governance and accountability for transnational policing”, *Paper presented to the colloquium on private policing and security: relationships between the private and public sectors, Crimprev Meeting*, Ljubljana: University of Maribor, pp.1-12.
14. Johnston, Les (2004), *The Rebirth of Private Policing*, London & New York: Routledge.
15. Kempa Michael, Stenning Philip & Wood Jennifer (2004), “Policing Communal Spaces: A Reconfiguration of the ‘Mass Private Property’ Hypothesis”, *British Journal of Criminology*, 44, pp.562-581.
16. Кесић, Зоран (2009), „Специфични појавни облици приватног обезбеђења у свету“, *Безбедност*, 1-2, сс. 193-207.
17. Claassen, Rutger (2009), “The useful myth of state security: Reflections on the state’s special role in security provision”, *Res Publica*, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp.1-7.
18. Loader, Ian & Walker, Neil (2007), *Civilizing Security*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
19. Mijalković, Saša (2010), “O nedržavnom sektoru nacionalnog sistema bezbednosti: inostrana i domaca iskustva”, *Strani pravni život*, 2, ss. 251-269.
20. Nemeth, Charles (2005), *Private Security and the Law*, Burlington MA: Elsevier.
21. Newburn Tim and Reiner Robert (2010), „*Maintaining order and peace and policing*“, in Maguire Mike, Morgan Rod and Reiner Robert, *Oxford Handbook of Criminology*, Skopje, Nampres, pp.910-952.
22. SEESAC (2008), *SALW i firme za privatno obezbeđenje u jugoistočnoj Evropi: uzrok ili posledica nesigurnosti?*, Beograd: SEESAC.
23. Spaseski, Jordan (2009), “Private security as an integral part of the single security system”, *Varstvoslovje, Journal of Criminal Justice and Security*, 11(2), pp: 305-315.
24. Spaseski Jordan, Aslimoski Pere, Gerasimoski Sase (2008), *Private Security*, Skopje-Ohrid: Police Academy and Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality.
25. Temkov, Kiril (2009), *How to be good*, Skopje: OXO.

26. Fatić, Aleksandar (2007), "Privatne bezbednosne kompanije", *Revija za bezbednost*, God.1, Br. 4, ss.5-11.
27. Fischer Robert J., Halibozek Edward, Green Gion (2008), *Introduction to Security*, Burlington MA: Elsevier
28. Cvetkovski, Grozdan (2011), *Profession private detective*, Skopje: Panili.
29. CoESS (2011), *Private security Services in Europe: Facts and figures*, Wemmel: CoESS.
30. Jones, Trevor & Newburn, Tim (2006), "Understanding plural policing", in Jones, Trevor & Newburn, Tim (eds.), *Plural policing: A comparative perspective*, London & New York: Routledge, pp.1-11.
31. Jones, Trevor (2010), „The Governance of Security: Pluralization, Privatization and Polarization in Crime Control”, in Maguire, Mike, Morgan Rod and Reiner Robert, *Oxford Handbook of Criminology*, Skopje, Nampres, pp.841-865.

ПРИВАТНАТА БЕЗБЕДНОСТ КАКО ПРОЦЕС: МОЖНОСТИ И ГРАНИЦИ

д-р Саше Герасимоски

*Факултет за безбедност-Скопје; Република Македонија;
sgerasimoski@yahoo.com*

Резиме

Развојот на приватната безбедност е светски феномен и всушност по својата природа претставува процес на пренесување на дел од безбедносните функции на државата на недржавни (нејавни-приватни) безбедносни субјекти. Како таков отвора многу прашања поврзани со разбирањето и иднината на безбедноста, слободата, животот, правото и други темелни вредности на општествата. Најсложеното прашање на кое сите научници од безбедносните науки бараат одговор е секако прашањето: До каде треба да се развива тој процес, односно, каде се неговите граници после кои неговата општествена оправданост е доведена во прашање, ако не и во опасност? Овој труд, користејќи претежно теоретска компаративна анализа, разработка на секундарни извори на податоци од истражувања и сопствени критички размислувања за предметот ќе се обиде научно да одговори на ова централно прашање во теоријата и праксата на приватната безбедност кај нас и во светот.

Клучни зборови: приватна безбедност, процес, безбедносен систем, обезбедување на лица и имот, детективска дејност

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF LEGISLATION GOVERNING EDUCATION FOR PRIVATE SECURITY IN THE WESTERN BALKANS

Duško Vejnović, Ph.D.*

dusko.vejnovic@education.muprs.org

College of the Interior Banja Luka

Marjan Gjurovski, M.A.

mgjurovski@fb.uklo.edu.mk

Faculty of Security -Skopje

Gojko Pavlović, M.A.*

gojko.pavlovic@education.muprs.org

College of the Interior Banja Luka

Abstract

The authors of this paper indicate the need to dedicate adequate attention to education in the private security sector, because this sector has taken certain duties that have been for centuries under exclusive jurisdiction of the state. Scientific thought is supposed to comprehensively study all aspects of the private security sector which is growing quantitatively, but due to inadequate quality of education it is still questionable. The problem studied in the paper is concerned with finding answers to the question who is in charge of the activities for education of the private security sector and who are the entities that carry out education. Firstly, the paper will present the experiences of the EU member states in relation to these issues, and attempts to harmonize the minimum level of training for members of the sector. The central part of the paper is devoted to issues of education for the private security in the Western Balkans, in which the authors point out similarities and differences in educational programs and disadvantages of these programs. Also, the authors point out that high profitability of the private security sector must be brought into compliance with the requirements of professionalism, i.e. that the present quality of education is raised to a qualitatively higher level.

* The author is the head of the Department of general education science at the College of the Interior in Banja Luka and full professor at the University of Banja Luka.

* The author is a senior associate for the security group of subjects at the College of the Interior in Banja Luka and Ph.D. student at the Law School of Union University in Belgrade.

Keywords: Western Balkans, private security, education

Introduction

The events on the world scene in the last three decades have put in the foreground a new phenomenon called privatization of security (Schreier & Caparini, 2005: 1). Increase in security needs, which raise the expenses in the public security sector and thus burden the state budget, has led to the transfer of part of services into the sphere of private security as a supplement to the public sector (Richards & Smith, 2007: 3-5). Peter Singer, a well-known author in this area, cites as the key factors of security privatization the so-called outsourcing of services to the private sector and the end of the Cold War (Singer, 2003). However, these are the causes which have led to privatization in developed countries, while the main incentive for privatization of security in the countries of the Western Balkans was the inefficiency of the state to execute its primary functions, i.e. the inability to efficiently respond to contemporary challenges, risks and threats (Pavlović and Vejnović, 2010: 251-216). Therefore, with the privatization of security, i.e. specific activities which contribute to its realization, the private security sector gained the role which traditionally belonged to the organs of state security (Vejnović and Pavlović, 2011). The specter of subjects of the private security sector and their activities is very wide and it comprises protection of everything which is not provided by the public security – the police, i.e. other appropriate state organ (Daničić and Pavlović, 2009).

Education of the Members of the Private Security in the European Union

The first difficulty one faces when he wants to compare legislation and provisions which regulate the private security is, among other things, the fact that the definition, as well as the domain of activities of this sector differ in state members of the European Union, where some members have greater limitations regarding the activities of the companies which provide security services than others (Weber, 2002:4). Therefore, the current national legislation differs from country to country, and the result is the difference in historical, cultural and legal tradition (Born, Caparini, Cole, 2007: 7).

However, it is necessary to point out that the state members of the European Union are obliged to educate the members of the private security

sector, with the aim of securing a satisfactory level of professionalism in the sector, as well as to secure a guarantee that regulations and provisions, about what is considered to be a proper behavior, and the use of weapons and other authorizations, are understood properly and thus respected. However, it is very difficult to determine what good education is (Pavlović, 2011a: 55). In most countries of the EU minimum education is required, but there is no standardization in terms of its duration. Average education lasts from 1 day to 320 hours. For example, countries such as Belgium and Spain require 180 hours of education, while France, for example, requires 240 hours. Austria is an example of a country with a poor regulation of education for employees. Duration and content of education is organized at the company level and there are no legal provisions for monitoring training (CoESS, 2006: 1-7). In Germany, on the other hand, operational staff is obliged to complete mandatory education of minimum of 40 hours, which is prescribed by the Economy Chamber. It is necessary at both levels, the managerial and operational ones (Pavlović, 2011b: 186).

When education programs are concerned, they are also different and they can be reduced to education of the members in relation to: appropriate legal regulation, self-defense, first aid, professional standards regarding security guards, use of weapons, operational and security techniques and other (CoESS, 2006: 1-7). Therefore, in most countries the content of education is defined by law, and it is a combination of theoretical and practical training. Also, it is not very common for state authorities to monitor education (CoESS, 2008: 1). What is interesting is that legislation does not mention the quality of education that is provided, for example in relation to the use of force. Therefore, the question of quality of education of particular countries of the EU is also an interesting aspect and it should be developed further (Born, Caparini, Cole, 2007: 25-26).

Comparative View of Education of the Members of the Private Security Sector in the Countries of Western Balkans (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Croatia and Macedonia)

Education of the members of the private security sector in Bosnia and Herzegovina

The private security sector in Bosnia and Herzegovina was formally-legally established in 2002 with the introduction of legal regulations on the territory of entities, and these would be the Law on agencies for protection of

persons and property and private detective activity in the Republic of Srpska¹ and the Law on agencies for protection of people and property in the B&H Federation,² i.e. with the introduction of the Law on agencies for protection of persons and property and private detective activity in the Brčko District.³ Given legal provisions determine the activity of the private security sector, i.e. specific conditions for foundation of companies for protection of persons and property, rights and obligations of the members of physical-technical protection and private detectives, education of members, as well as monitoring of companies for protection of persons and property (Pavlović, 2011a: 84-97). Conducted studies in 2008 and 2009 showed that the number of members in the private security sector in B&H ranged from 2,000 to 4,207 persons, while the number of companies ranged from 45 to 169. In the B&H Federation alone there were 121 companies and 3,151 members of the private sector, in the Republic of Srpska there were 37 companies and 843 members, and in the Brčko District there were 11 companies and 213 members (CoESS, 2008, Krzalic, 2009: 30-31). Accordingly, education of the members of the private security sector, as well as taking the professional exam is regulated by legal and sublegal provisions of the entity authorities, while the law of the Brčko District prescribes the acceptance of education and professional exam. According to these regulations, education consists of theoretical and practical teaching implemented by the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Srpska, i.e. the Federal Ministry of Interior and the Faculty of crime sciences in cooperation with cantonal MoI in the B&H Federation.

Education in the Republic of Srpska is realized in accordance with the Rule Book on taking the professional exam for members of physical and technical protection and private detective activity,⁴ which contains a program for training members of physical and technical protection and private detective activity and the Rule Book on conditions for executing teaching and training the members of security protection and a private detective,⁵ and in the B&H Federation in accordance with the Rule Book on training for

¹ Law on agencies for protection of persons and property and private detective activity, ("Official Gazette of RS", no.50/02, 92/05 and 91/06), which was replaced by the new Law on agencies for protection of persons and property and private detective activity, ("Official Gazette of RS", no.04/12).

² Law on agencies for protection of people and property („Official Gazette of B&H”, no.50/02), which was replaced by the Law on agencies and internal services for protection of people and property, („Official Gazette of B&H” no.78/08).

³ Law on agencies for protection of persons and property and private detective activity („Official Gazette of Brčko district B&H", no.27/04, 15/05 and 37/05).

⁴ Rule Book on passing professional exam for members of physical and technical protection and private detective activity, ("Official Gazette of RS", no.20/03 i 38/06).

⁵ Rule Book on conditions for executing teaching and training of the members of the private security sector, ("Official Gazette of RS", no. 38/06, 61/10).

gaining a certificate for physical or technical protection of people and property.⁶ Training program⁷ is realized through six (6) days or 40 hours of theoretical and eight (8) hours (in the Federation ten hours) of practical teaching for members of physical protection and 40 hours of theory for members of technical protection. Till 31 December, 2011 a total number of 3,887 candidates passed the training, out of which 3,649 candidates were for physical and 193 candidates for technical protection. The education program for members of physical protection comprises: physical protection, use of means and devices for technical protection, the basics of criminology, the basics of communication, holding, carrying and proper use of weapons and special physical training. Education in both entities is based on basic principles of the UN which are concerned with the use of force and weapons of the law enforcement officers (SEESAC, 2005:24). While the training program for the members of technical protection, construction regulation, technical regulation and criminalistics technique for protection of classified information. After the completion of training of candidates a “certificate” is issued, which candidates use for taking the professional exam. In that regard, with the completion of training candidates take the professional exam in front of the examining board of authorized Ministry of Interior, and a candidate who passes the exam is issued a certificate for passing the professional exam (Daničić and Pavlović, 2008: 38). It is interesting to point out the fact that up to the point of introducing the new law, candidates were allowed to participate in training and take the professional exam without prior operational and punitive check. Considering the fact that this proved to be a fallible practice, the new law prescribes that candidates first pass operational check and then take part in training and take the exam, after which they apply for the issue of permission to perform physical and technical protection. In the Republic of Srpska the application is submitted to the public security center in charge based on the residential place, and in the B&H Federation to the Cantonal ministries.

Education of the members of the private security sector in Montenegro

Education and professional training of candidates for protection of persons and property and private detective activity in Montenegro is conducted by the Police Academy. Considering the fact that their activity implies protection of property, significant economy subjects, and protection

⁶ Rule Book on training for gaining a certificate for physical and technical protection of people and property, ("Official Gazette of B&H Federation ", no.54/02).

⁷ Almost identical programs are in the B&H Federation.

of persons, escorting of money transfer and securities, arts and other valuable things, it is necessary to devote a special attention to quality training for these complex jobs. It is estimated that in Montenegro 32 economy companies and entrepreneurs are registered for providing the service of protection of persons and property, and that they employ more than 3,500, out of which 60% are not trained for performing these tasks, which means they are not authorized to perform this activity (Milić, 2012).

By the end of August 2010, training for these jobs was realized based on the Law on protection of persons and property⁸ and the Rule Book on training, program and taking professional exam for protection of persons, property and goods.⁹ A total number of 703 candidates participated in training in this period, out of which 646 candidates successfully completed the training (Milić, 2012). The training program, which is part of the Rule Book, consisted of 40 hours of theoretical and 10 hours of practical education, and it covered the following areas: physical protection, use of means and devices for technical protection, special physical education, the basics of criminology, the basics of communication, holding, carrying and use of weapons, special physical education and firing from weapons. With the completion of training the candidates were issued a “certificate” for completed training in performing protection of persons, property and goods, i.e. a successful completion of training which served as a basis for taking exam in front of the Commission appointed by the Ministry of Interior and public management.

With the introduction of the Law on national and professional qualifications,¹⁰ and after detailed analysis of the former training system of the members of the private security sector, the Police Academy prescribed, in cooperation with the Ministry of Interior and public management and Police Administration, standardized occupations: “security guard of persons and property”, “value monitor”, “bodyguard” and “security technician”, which were approved by the Council for Professional Education. After the adoption of these standardized occupations, the Academy prepared a Program for education of security guard for persons and property which was approved by the Council for Education of Adults, based on what the new program became fully valid and binding. The new program consists of 172 hours of teaching (53 theoretical and 119 practical), and it comprises eight curriculum subjects: legal aspects of protection of persons and property,

⁸ *The Law on protection of persons and property*, (“Official Gazette RCG”, no.29/05) and *the Law on amendments and supplements to the Law on protection of persons and property*, (“Official gazette RCG”, no.26/10).

⁹ *The Rule Book on training, program and taking the professional exam for performing tasks in protection of persons and property and goods*, (“Official Gazette RCG”, no. 7/06).

¹⁰ *The Law on national and expertise qualifications*, (“Official Gazette RCG”, no. 80/08).

physical protection; technical protection; anti-fire protection and protection at work; training in handling of weapons; the basics of criminology; the basics of communication, human rights and ethics; the basics of first aid and self-defense.

In October 2010, the Academy started the training of the first group based on the new “Training program for the security guard of persons and property”. By the end of 31 December, 2011, 366 candidates participated in training, and 274 candidates successfully completed training (Tripović, 2012). For candidates who successfully complete the training the Academy issues a “certificate”, and professional qualification in occupation is gained after skills and competence control which, based on the Law on professional qualification, is conducted by the Commission appointed by the Interrogation Center. Based on the “Test result certificate”, the Ministry of Interior and public administration issue a permission for performing the protection of persons and property.

In cooperation with the Ministry of Education, there are two more programs planned which are expected to be completed by 15 March this year: the Program on training persons who perform the tasks in protection of persons and endangering of their lives, physical and psychological integrity and other forms of their personal safety and the Program on training persons perform tasks in protection of goods in transport-escort of money, securities, valuable things and other. Also, there is a procedure for determining standards for security guard-technician, based on which a program with the same name would be realized. Although there is still no deadline, it should be prepared during this year (Tripović, 2012).

Education of the members of the private security sector in Serbia

Considering the fact that not even after eighteen years from the abolishment of the Law on social self-protection there is still no law which would normatively organize private security, Serbia is currently the only country in South-East Europe which still has not regulated this area. Although there were many attempts (five to be precise) to normatively regulate this area, i.e. although different subjects, both state and non-state, proposed special law models,¹¹ such law still has not been adopted. This

¹¹ See: Ministry of Interior, Draft of the Law on physical-technical protection, Belgrade, 2002; League of Experts – LEX, the Law on private activity of securing persons and property and detective activity, Belgrade, 2006; Centre for civil-military relations, Model of the Law on the private activity of securing, Belgrade, 2006; Association of companies for physical-technical protection, Law on the private activity of securing , self-protection and detective activity, Belgrade, 2007; Ministry of Interior, Proposition of the Law on private protection, Belgrade, 2010.

prompted some authors to a conclusion about reserved domains, as an obstacle to normative regulation of the private security sector.¹² The researches of CoESS on the status of the private security sector in 2007 pointed out that 28,000 people worked in the sector, while the number of companies was estimated to 158 (CoESS, 2008). On the other hand, the research in 2008 showed that the number of employees in the private security sector ranged from 30,000 to 50,000 (Stojanović et al., 2008) and that the number of companies was around 3,000 (Petrović, 2011:5).

In conditions where there are no laws which would comprehensively, substantially and precisely regulate the entire private security sector, the work of companies is normatively regulated by different laws, primarily by the Law on weapons and munitions and the Law on economy companies. Procedure and conditions for registering private security companies are the same as for all private subjects, although these companies provide very specific services which imply the use of weapons (Stojanović et al., 2008: 73). Based on all proposed law models, the training of physical person for performing the activity of private protection can be conducted by legal and physical entities that can fulfill material, technical, expertise and administrative requirements for training and are authorized by the Ministry. Also, all the models, except the model proposed by the MoI in 2002, prescribe that conditions, programs and ways of expertise training are determined by the Minister of Interior.

When the current status on the standards in this are concerned, i.e. professionalism and training, they vary enormously and depend on the market. Although some private security companies provide training of their employees, in most cases this comes down to a one-hour training in handling weapons, i.e. every company individually regulates the use of force and weapons, although this is defined by the law, and the quality of such training in handling weapons varies (SEESAC, 2005:94). Considering the fact that in Serbia there are more and more services offered to foreign companies, which demand a high level of professionalism, there is an initiative for self-regulation in this sector. Thus, some private security companies in Serbia are members of two voluntary regulatory mechanisms that determine a minimum

¹² “The author uses the theory of defective democracies and theses derived from it about reserved domains. According to this theory, when in a specific country a circle of different interests and actors directly or indirectly illegitimately affects the content and the direction of democratically chosen representatives, then reserved domains appear, and we speak of that country as domain democracy. Having in mind these theoretical hypotheses, the author in the paper researches and analyzes conditions and actors, their mutual connections and interests which pose obstacles to normatively regulated private security activity in Serbia. These interest and actors are related to economic interests and secret collection of data, and to criminal activities as well.” According to: Petrović, 2011:3.

of standards for the private sector industry: American Association for Industrial Security – ASIS and International Association of Bodyguards and Security Services – IBSSA (SEESAC, 2005:94). Also, in Serbia there are currently two Associations of private security: Association of Private Security with the Economy Chamber in Serbia and Serbian Association of Entrepreneurs in Private Security (Petrović, Milošević, Unijat, 2011: 6), which is a member of the European organization CoESS, which also promotes minimal standards for the private security sector in Europe. However, all this is not enough to guarantee an adequate training, professionalism in this area, so the law which would regulate it is more than necessary.

Private security managers estimate that training for candidates, once it is prescribed by the law, will cost around 200 euros. Having in mind the above mentioned number of employees in the private security sector, and considering the fact that two thirds of the people who work in the private security sector need a permission (because, for example, the remaining one third works administrative jobs), which is approximately 30,000 of them, we come to the conclusion that an average profit on issuing licenses is 6 million euros. It is also important to mention that work permits are also issued to a limited period of time. All this is the reason why there is still no law. Namely, the problem is that both the private security sector and the MoI, if Serbia exclusively wants to claim the right for issuing work permits. Also, some private security companies have their own centers for training people in their companies, and it is their opinion that training should be decentralized, i.e. that every private security company should have the right to practice training and thus protect their economic interests. According to some private security managers, and also some members of the MoI of Serbia, this discrepancy is exactly one of the key factors why there is still no law (Petrović, 2011:12-13).

Education of the members of the private security sector in Croatia

Legal basis for education of the members of the private security sector in Croatia lies on the Law on private protection,¹³ the Rule Book on education and program of professional exam for security guards¹⁴ and the Rule Book on conditions and taking the exam and the program of the

¹³ *The Law on private protection*, (“Narodne novine”, no. 68/03, 31/10, 139/10).

¹⁴ *The Rule Book on education and professional exam for security guards*, (“Narodne novine”, no.103/04, 21/07, 86/08).

professional exam for security guard-technician.¹⁵ When it comes to the number of the private security companies and the number of people they employ, this number is on constant rise. Thus, in 2005 the estimates showed that there were between 160 and 189 companies, and between 12,000 and 15,000 employees (SEESAC, 2005: 39-40). The estimate of CoESS in 2008 showed that the number of companies in this sector rose to 246, and that the number of employees rose to 16,000 (CoESS, 2008).

The law requires that members of the private security sector have to pass the training and the exam in an authorized institution. However, persons working in the police, military police, in the services for state security, former court and prison guards and court executors are freed of the training and exam if they have three years of experience in the field. There is a two-way system of education for employees in the private security sector. First, if the candidate has no school education, he has to finish school first. There are three special schools for members of the private security sector in Zagreb, Pula and Rijeka. They last three years for security guards and four years for technicians. On the other hand, candidates who already have a high school degree have to pass special training (SEESAC, 2005:47).

It is necessary to say that the private security jobs, in accordance with the law, are classified into: guard, security guard and security guard-technician, so, in that regard, education, i.e. training is adjusted to these jobs. Training can be performed by institutions that are approved by the Ministry of the Interior, and in accordance with regulations for education of adults. Therefore, education for security guards and guards is conducted by an authorized institution, and it consists of the theoretical and practical part. Security-guard training program for candidates lasts 100 classes, classified into six program parts, out of which 50 hours is the theoretical part, and 50 hours is the practical part of education. Program parts are: normative regulation of working area and the authorities of security guards and guards; use of means and devices for technical protection; the basics of criminology and procedural rules; the basics of communication; training in handling and use of weapons and training in the use of physical force – self-defense. Education program of candidates for guards implies 40 hours of theoretical classes and it entails contents identical to the ones for security guards, except the practical part, i.e. the last two parts. A candidate which has completed training for a security guard or a guard has to take the professional exam in front of the Commission appointed by the Ministry of Interior.

The professional exam for the security-guard consists of the practical and theoretical part, while the professional exam for the guard consists of the

¹⁵ *The Rule Book on conditions and taking the exam and the program of the professional exam for security guard-technician*, ("Narodne novine", no. 161/04, 87/08).

theoretical part only. The practical part of the exam for the guard is based on the program of general physical fitness, training in the use of physical power – self-defense and the part of handling and the use of weapons, and it is taken along with practical completion of given elements. The success of candidates in the practical part is evaluated with the grade “passed” or “failed”. The candidate who has passed the practical part has the right to take the theoretical part of the exam. An authorized institution has to organize the theoretical part for a guard in no later than 15 days from the day he passed the practical part of the exam and the theoretical part of the exam for a guard no later than 15 days from the training. The candidate who has not passed the practical part of the exam can take the same at least 30 and no more than 60 days from the exam. The theoretical part of the exam consists of oral evaluation, and it is conducted in front of the Exam Commission. The candidate in the theoretical part answers at least three questions from each program part, and the success of the candidate is also evaluated with “passed” or “failed”. The candidate who in the theoretical part of the exam does not satisfy at least two program parts can take the makeup exam from the same program parts. While the candidate in the theoretical part of the exam does not satisfy three or more program parts can take the theoretical part of the exam from all program parts. In the end, for the candidate who has passed the professional exam for performing tasks as a security guard and guard the authorized institution issues a certificate and notifies the police administration in charge. Also, legal regulations prescribe periodical checks of general physical fitness and the use of weapons. The same procedure is applied with the security guard-technician, except that the exam consists of the following parts: the basics of physical protection and protection of monetary institutions; technical protection and construction regulation and the basics of criminology and protection of classified information.

Education of the members of the private security sector in Republic of Macedonia

The capitalist and market oriented society in the Republic of Macedonia, with its dominantly expressed private property as the main form of property in the relations of the society has imposed the need of establishing and functioning of a security system, which, among other, will provide protection to the property rights i.e. the private property as the top currency in the democratic and market oriented societies. The Assembly of the Republic of Macedonia has adopted the Law on Security of People and Property and the Law on Detective Duty by editing the conditions and the method of performing protection of people and property.

In regard to the conditions that are necessary in order for us to speak of the legal performance of the work associated with protection of people and property, the law envisages that legal entities that deal with providing services of protection of people and properties must initially enroll in the Trade Registry for this activity as well as having at least five licensed employees with a work permit from the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Individuals that deal with providing services of protection of people and properties must have a license received after passing the specialized exam from the Chamber of Protection of People and Property of R. Macedonia. The specialized exam is taken in front of a commission formed by the Minister of Internal Affairs, including representatives from the Chamber and the MOI. The test of the ability to handle weapons as part of the specialized exam is performed by a commission from the MOI consisting of police officers in uniform. The training of people for performing tasks in the protection of people and property is conducted by the program of training and testing in a specialized exam for the performance of tasks in the protection of people and property, which is defined and is a part of a specific rulebook. The program consists of a theoretical and practical part. The theoretical part includes: The Law of Protection of People and Properties (Official Gazette of R. Macedonia no. 80/1999 and 66/2007) and the Law of Firearms (Official Gazette of R. Macedonia no.7/2005,47/2006 and 42/2007); Criminal Law (general and specific sections) and criminology; the authorizations of the employees in security; tactics on performing tasks in security and organization of the tasks in security; fire protection and technical protection; first aid and self-defense. The practical part consists of handling and shooting a firearm. The training of the candidates for performing tasks in the protection of people and property is carried out in a period of 40 hours. For the implementation of the theoretical part of the specialized exam, the commission prepares a report for the conducted exam. The practical part of the specialized exam is taken in front of a Commission of the Ministry of Internal Affairs consisting of police officers, after previous upon prior request by the Chamber. After passing the practical part of the exam, the Commission issues a certificate for qualifications in handling a firearm. Candidate who has passed the specialized exam, the Chamber issues a certificate. The main dilemma that is present in the Republic of Macedonia is why all the activities connected to the training of the candidates for protection of people and property, especially in the theoretical part, is not conducted by the Faculty of Security-Skopje. This faculty as an institution for higher education with tradition in security and is established in the sectors of internal affairs and private security equipped with the best staff, literature and experience to train personnel that will rise to the challenges according to the legal norm.

The partnership relations of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the Chamber of Protection of People and Property and the Faculty of Security-Skopje, is a triangle that must receive a legal framework in order for the Republic of Macedonia to have a more efficient model of training and more prepared personnel that will respond to the new challenges and risks according to the legal norm. The practice and experience from other countries goes in favor to this solution.

Conclusion

Parallel comparison of legal and sublegal acts which regulate the issue of education for the private security sector shows that this problem is resolved in a similar way in all countries, in terms of training program and its duration. Education for the members of the physical protection usually consists of the theoretical and practical part, and its duration ranges between 50 and 170 hours, while the members of technical protection only have the theoretical part.

Training programs usually entail the following parts:

- for physical protection:
 - o theoretical part: knowledge of legal regulations, the basics of criminology, the basics of communication, physical and technical protection.
 - o practical part: self-defense and use of weapons.
- for technical protection: construction and technical regulation, and crime technical protection of classified information.

Also, it can be noticed that the training and the professional exam are not mandatory for persons who had prior experience in performing jobs for state organs, and most frequently persons who have at least three years of work experience in the field of law enforcement, security-intelligence or crime and felony sanctions. In order to avoid conflict of interests, most countries forbid former members of the state force organs to find employment in the private security sector immediately after leaving the state service. In order to get a job in the private security sector, they have to wait for a specific period of time to pass, sometimes even up to several years, with the aim of preventing the person who worked for the state organs from using (selling) its contacts and connections to the private security sector, he is now a part of, to gain some kind of benefit. (Petrović, Milošević, Unijat, 2011: 4-5).

References:

1. Born, H., Caparini, M., Cole, E., (2007) *Regulating Private Security in Europe: Status and Prospects*. Policy paper, No.20. Geneva: DCAF.
2. Confederation of European Security Services, (2006) *Scope of Analysis in View of the Comparative Study of CIT Legislation within 25 EU Member States. Access conditions to the profession of CIT persons and companies - employees: training*. Wemmel: CoESS.
3. Confederation of European Security Services, (2008) *Private security in Europe - CoESS facts&figures*. Wemmel: CoESS.
4. Daničić, M., Pavlović, G., (2008) *Pravni osnovi privatne bezbjednosti u Republici Srpskoj*. Bezbjednost Policija Građani, godina IV, broj 2, pp.31–58.
5. Daničić, M., Pavlović, G., (2009) *Privatne vojne i privatne bezbjednosne kompanije kao činoci privatnog sektora bezbjednosti*. Bezbjednost Policija Građani, godina V, broj 1, pp.35–48.
6. Kržalić, A. (2009) *Stanje privatne sigurnosti u Bosni i Hercegovini*. Sarajevo: Centar za sigurnosne studije.
7. Milić, S. (2012) *Intervju*. Podgorica: Uprava policije Crne Gore. 02.02.2012. godine.
8. Pavlović, G., Vejnović, D. (2010) *Društveni ambijent privatnog sektora bezbjednosti sa težištem na Republiku Srpsku*. Bezbjednost Policija Građani, godina VI, broj 1-2, pp.215 – 227.
9. Pavlović, G., (2011a) *Pravo privatne bezbjednosti – uporedna studija*. Banja Luka: Defendologija centar za bezbjednosna, sociološka i kriminološka istraživanja.
10. Pavlović, G., (2011b) *Privatna bezbjednost u Evropskoj uniji – pravni aspekti i aktuelno stanje*. Bezbjednost Policija Građani, godina VII, broj 1-2, pp.181–192.
11. Petrović, P., (2011) *Rezervisani domeni kao prepreke normativnom uređenju privatnog sektora bezbednosti*. Beograd: Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku.
12. Petrović, P., Milošević, M., Unijat, J. (2011) *Privatna bezbednost – potencijalna pretnja po bezbednost građana?*. Beograd: Beogradski centar za bezbednosnu politiku.
13. Richards, A., Smith, H., (2007) *Addressing the role of private security companies within security sector reform programmes*. London: Saferworld.

14. Schreier, F., Caparini, M., (2005) *Privatising security: law, practice and governance of private military and security companies*. Geneva. DCAF.
15. Singer, P. (2003) *Corporate Warriors: The Rise of the Privatized Military Industry*. Ithaca NY: Cornell University Press.
16. Stojanović, Sonja i dr. (Ur.), (2008) *Privatne bezbednosne kompanije u Srbiji – prijatelj ili pretnja?*. Beograd: Centar za civilno-vojne odnose.
17. Tripović, T., (2012). *Intervju*. Danilovgrad: Policijska akademija. 17. 02. 2012. godine.
18. The South Eastern Europe Clearinghouse for the Control of Small Arms and Light Weapons (2005). *SALW and Private Security Companies in South Eastern Europe: A Cause or Effect of Insecurity?* Second editon. Belgrade: SEESAC.
19. Vejnović, D., Pavlović, G., (2011) *Društveni ambijent i rekonstrukcija državnog monopola nad upotrebom sile*. Defendologija, godina XIV, broj 29-30, pp.19–28.
20. Weber, T. (2002) *A comparative overview of legislation governing the private security industry in the European Union*. Birmingham: CoESS/UNI Europa.
21. *Zakon o agencijama za obezbjeđenje lica i imovine i privatnoj detektivskoj djelatnosti*, („Službeni glasnik Republike Srpske“, broj 50/02, 92/05 i 91/06).
22. *Zakon o agencijama za obezbjeđenje lica i imovine i privatnoj detektivskoj djelatnosti*, („Službeni glasnik Republike Srpske“, broj 04/12).
23. *Zakon o agencijama za zaštitu ljudi i imovine*, („Službene novine Federacije BiH“, broj 50/02).
24. *Zakon o agencijama i unutrašnjim službama za zaštitu ljudi i imovine*, („Službene novine Federacije BiH“, broj 78/08).
25. *Zakon o agencijama za osiguranje lica i imovine i privatnoj detektivskoj djelatnosti*, („Službeni glasnik Brčko distrikta BiH“, broj 27/04, 15/05 i 37/05).
26. *Zakon o zaštiti lica i imovine*, („Službeni list RCG“, broj 29/05) i *Zakon o izmjenama i dopunama zakona o zaštiti lica i imovine*, („Službeni list RCG“, broj 26/10).
27. *Zakon o nacionalnim i stručnim kvalifikacijama*, („Službeni list RCG“, br.80/08).
28. *Nacrt zakona o fizičko-tehničkom obezbeđivanju*, Ministarstvo unutrašnjih poslova, Beograd, 2002.
29. *Zakon o privatnoj delatnosti obezbeđenja lica i imovine i detektivskoj delatnosti*, Liga eksperata - LEX, Beograd, 2006.

30. *Model zakona o privatnoj delatnosti obezbeđenja*, Centar za civilno-vojne odnose, Beograd, 2006.
31. *Zakon o privatnoj delatnosti obezbeđenja, samozaštitnoj i detektivskoj delatnosti*, Udruženje preduzeća za fizičko-tehničko obezbeđenje, Beograd, 2007.
32. *Zakon o privatnoj zaštiti*, („Narodne novine“, broj 68/03, 31/10, 139/10).
33. *Predlog zakona o privatnom obezbeđenju*, Ministarstvo unutrašnjih poslova, Beograd, 2010.
34. *Pravilnik o izobrazbi i stručnom ispitu za zaštitare i čuvare*, („Narodne novine“, broj 103/04, 21/07, 86/08).
35. *Pravilnik o uvjetima i načinu polaganja te programu stručnog ispita za zaštitara-tehničara*, („Narodne novine“, broj 161/04, 87/08).
36. *Pravilnik o načinu osposobljavanja, programu i načinu polaganja stručnog ispita za vršenje poslova zaštite lica, imovine i dobara*, („Službeni list RCG“, broj 7/06).
37. *Pravilnik o načinu polaganja stručnog ispita za pripadnike fizičkog i tehničkog obezbjeđenja i privatnoj detektivskoj djelatnosti*, („Službeni glasnik Republike Srpske“, broj 20/03 i 38/06).
38. *Pravilnik o uslovima za izvođenje nastave i osposobljavanje pripadnika obezbjeđenja i privatnog detektiva*, („Službeni glasnik Republike Srpske“, broj 38/06, 61/10).
39. *Pravilnik o obuci za sticanje sertifikata o fizičkoj ili tehničkoj zaštiti ljudi i imovine*, („Službene novine Federacije BiH“, broj 54/02).

ROLE OF THE SECURITY MANAGER IN MANAGING WITH RISKS, THREATS AND EMERGENCIES IN TOPLIFIKACIJA A.D SKOPJE

Ljupco Stankovski

ljupcostankovski@yahoo.com

Post degree Studies of Faculty of Security-Skopje

Abstract

This paper presents synthesis of all challenges to which security manager encounters in the company during his engagement. New security manager is dealing with very complicate assignment, aiming to establish appropriate property and person's protection system, business program, defining new priorities and rules for the manners of employment. He must be a promoter for all security procedures, as well as to motivate all employees in the company to respect established procedures for more secure working environment as final cause.

Primary cause of this paper is to present the possible problems, with which security manager is dealing with, in the company's frame, as not being supported by the top management, which presents basic precondition for quality effectiveness in security service. This is one of the reasons why security management always has to be ready to realize the points to preserve the values that the company has defined.

In this paper the following will be interpreted: organization scheme, function mode and functions of Toplifikacija AD - Skopje security management, throughout the analysis of the results of performed research in which relevant and competent experts were included.

The inquiry and interview were used as instrument. The results have shown bigger necessity to respect established standards and procedures as basic precondition for managing the risks, threats and emergencies.

Keywords: *security management, security service, security threats, risks, culture for security, emergencies, companies.*

Introduction

Security management in each organization needs to correspond with security culture. In working organizations, security culture, presents part of a general and organization culture. Function of the security measures and procedures, on the level of an organization unit, means that operation management is part of a general and security culture, and entirely depends of the measures and activities that are consisted in the organization management strategy. Each organization has its own culture that is different from and recognized by. Meaning of organization culture is to recognize the organization values. Every organization is exposed to certain security risks, whether they origin from internal or external environment. First step in

recognizing security risks is creating security culture, solution that should be looked in employee's education, creation of dynamic behavior and including of all resources that are available.¹ Accepting the internal system of values presents basic condition for organization loyalty that presents necessary condition for security in the organization, which is based on responsible and professional behavior of each employee. Behavior of all management levels is strictly reflected on employee's behavior, on their accepting or no-accepting of the values and believes that consist the identity of its own organization. Building of the culture is essential precondition for successful functioning of security culture that is based in one working unit. Security culture is based on employee's respect in the organization. Just a loyal employee sincerely accepts the security measures and contributes in the working unit development. Security culture refers to all employees in the company, no matter what their position in theirs own company is. Biggest problems due to the respect of the procedures, challenges the company's management that doesn't support certain procedures, and with its own indiscipline and unwilling behavior effects on the not enough respected status in security sector.

In fact, the top management should be the founder and carrier of security culture and to be positive example with its own behavior and to influence company's system value to be over all employees. Overtaken condition in the company of the security sphere usually is not on the level of accepted quality standards and their functions are based on old and inappropriate procedures that generally are not presented in the practice. Redevelopment and advancement of security system in number of companies in RM., as i.e. in Toplifikacija AD - Skopje is very difficult assignment, that managers are often avoiding it. For that purpose it's important managers to show clear and undoubted support and to work on arising of the security culture degree over all employees in the company. That's the only way in order new security trends to be positive so that all employees could accept them as public good for all of them. Certainly, if the security management doesn't have the necessary support of high management, wouldn't be in position to implement scheduled activities, and what is most important it will lose its identity and its working role. It's not even easy to present this in each company where the security manager starts or tries to start to change the current way of working in this sphere. New security manager is in front of one very difficult assignment aiming to establish new protection system of the persons, property and working process, determine the new priorities and rules of employee's behavior. He must be a promoter to all security

¹ LJ. Stajik, S. Mijalkovik, S. Stanojevik, Bezbednosna kultura, Belgrade, 2004, p.101.

procedures, and to motivate all employees in the company to respect established procedures, aiming to secure the working environment.

Basic aims and tasks of security management

Starting basis of security manager in each organization are the aims that the company has made. Security management always has to be in situation to realize the aims of saving the values that one organization has defined. One of the main purposes of security manager is to establish and to protect the organization, and to enable maximum security work, organization aim achievement, employee's security, and saving secure environment. Preparation of the organization is to respond to potential challenges besides the proper planning means and appropriate organizing. The organizational structure is necessary to implement all planned decisions, including those relating to the future. Security management should enable control of the factors that may threaten the working unit. With control and monitoring of endangering factors, two goals are achieved. First, you can neutralize the threat factor, depending on his character before manifesting his harmful effect, or if it is not possible with appropriate security and other measures to offset adverse effects. Second, if threat factor is of such nature that can be offset or avoid its adverse consequences (natural disasters, major social unrest, terrorism and other sources of danger that exceed the capacity of management security organization), predicting the possible harmful consequences should be the starting point when making strategic decisions related to the expected adverse effects. The role of security management is to analyze the organizational structure and to find its weaknesses and flaws that could jeopardize the projected organization tasks. Organization and procedures in operation represent, above all, measures to prevent so-called risks in operation, those problems that could jeopardize the functioning of the organization and are related to the performance of basic activities. Main task of security management is to protect the vital organization's interests and values, promotion and development of its own strategic goals.

Function of security management

Basic functions of security management are: planning, organizing, leadership and command, coordination and control. Also, each security management function has its own specificity, depending whether it's in the public or private sector.² Other security management functions are: effecting estimation on current and potential security threats, challenges and risks, taking measures for removing the danger, establishing organization

² Zoran Dragishik, Security management, Belgrade, 2007, Functions of Security Management, p.44.

responsible for security safety, capable to protect the company from all kind of threats, to effect control over security measure implementing and functioning of established security system. It provides Top management with relevant information, making security analyses in order organization functioning and survival, and enabling full security. Administrating with each of these functions of the organization, involves analyzing security vulnerability of a given function and projecting measures in order to remove or minimize the security threats. Security management needs to be incorporated in general operation management of organizing unit and to present part of general organizational and security culture. On operational management level, security function needs to be incorporated in general principles of acting of the organization and not to stand as special organizational unit, but to effect the security measures and procedures as part of operationalization on strategic plans of top management.

Besides classical security management functions security managers are dealing with (such as: planning, organizing, managing and control) one of the most key tasks of one security manager. That is the data collecting, their analyzing, processing and submitting to the top management. This function of security management has preventive character, because timely informing is the easiest way for preventing occurrence that causes harmful consequences. Data collection that presents security management issue must be in accordance with the law, from public sources and without application of prohibited and immoral methods and measures, because with the use of these methods the working unit would have more damage than benefit. Security managers in the companies often get organization's prepared goals that are defined by the top management and they are expected to enable secure implementation of the objectives. Managers must be capable of analyzing and revision of resources needs, and company's condition for achieving and exceeding of maximum value of final results.³ Security managers in the companies must estimate all possible risks and dangers and suggest them to the top management. The task of the security management is to estimate the potential crisis and to propose acceptance of the goal, its substitute or denial of the cause, depending of the possibility of unpleasant occurrences and to estimate the intensity of the risks. In practice, managers often avoid to publicly define goals, because publicly defined goal narrows the action field on specific field and that disables the usage of other alternative solutions. Clearly defined goals require specific and easily measurable result, with which eventual manager failure becomes obvious. It is a big challenge to be a good security manager. This challenge implicates

³ Marina Malis Sazdovska, Nikola Dujovski, *Security Management*, Faculty of Security Skopje, Skopje, 2009. p.21

awareness of its own procedures and capacities. The one that manages with people and security workers in some company or organization, must know his role, and successfully recognize his own part, he must know more things about himself. Most useful questions that every security manager should answer before he starts managing the workers are: how to communicate, what he thinks it's important for managing others and how to spend the time. Manager should adjust his behavior in accordance with the situation, practically to be able to manage with himself.⁴

Timely and true recognition of the risks and threats, and appropriate reaction in such situations, will effect the employee to feel more secure and save, and thereby will achieve bigger confidence in the security service. By achieving bigger coherence in security service frames, their activity will be more precise, faster and better, which will have positive effect over company's security quality.

Organizational structure of safety management in Toplifikacija AD - Skopje

Security Management in Toplifikacija AD - Skopje, organizationally is not placed well. Security is realized through its own security department, which is managed by Security Expert for persons and property that has executive powers, and is subordinate to the Head of Working Unit for Security and General Affairs, that has a formal set. The Department is in the work unit frame for safety and general affairs, while this unit is in the frames of Manufacturing Heat Ltd Group, which is managed by Executive Director for production of heating energy. Based on this kind of organizational structure first thing that is striking over is the diluting of the importance of the office chief of the department for security. Practically, in the company, de facto, security manager doesn't exist. Alternately on this function there is a security expert for securing persons and property, which performs the functions and tasks of the security manager. According the position of the security department, it could be immediately seen that the company's top management doesn't pay to much attention to the security although it is a company with vital character for supplying the city with district heating, that has more dispersed facilities in the entire city. Security manager of Toplifikacija AD - Skopje, doesn't have established regular or periodical terms for meeting, in order to review security issues. Only by urgent need or by argued request of the security expert for securing persons and

⁴ Self management is one of the main, powerful abilities of one manager, (Marina Malis Sazdovska, Nikola Dujovski, *Security Management*, Faculty of Security Skopje, Skopje, 2009. p. 50).

property, some consultants in direction for taking concrete measures are being made.

For that purpose is necessary, the security department for persons and properties to grow up in a Security service for persons and property,⁵ which will be managed by a Manager (security manager), and general things should be managed by special working unit, and concrete steps are necessary in direction for security improvement. In bottom line, that is needed because of the new working conditions, generally worse conditions in the term of enormous increase of the crime in our society, but also because of the risks that our company is dealing with during its operations. Operation department provision is regulated by the regulations for securing people and property.⁶

Results from the inquiry of part of employees of "Toplifikacija AD - Skopje" for the organization and realization of company's security management

In order to define the risks, threats and dangers over the company operations and establishment whether the estimation is effected, by the professional contractor, an inquiry was performed over one part of the employees. Participants, in direct or indirect way were or still are involved in the work of the security department, but all of them, are not relevant and working experts in the security of the company's frames. The views of the participants about this subject, although in different manner of emphasizing separating aspects, are still connected with a common stand: the Security system functions within the company. The same inquiry serves for the research, made by the author of this paper, in order to prove or reject the hypothesis of his master's degree paper topic: **The method of making assessment of various forms of threat, risks and threats as a function of company's security management - with special emphasis on the organization and implementation of security management in Toplifikacija AD - Skopje**. The opinions were divided, based on what risks and threats during protection of employee, facilities and property of Toplifikacija AD - Skopje are determined on. In one part prevailed the

⁵ Since the beginning of taking its own position (July 2008), Security expert for securing people and property (author of the paper) has recognized this lack in terms of organizational structure of the company's security departmen frame. In his annual reports and given estimates of the possible risks, dangers and threats over the operation of the enterprise, gave his own proposal to reorganize the organization of the security department, growing into a separate secure service, providing bigger effectiveness in effecting operations.

⁶ With this law the organization of physical security and other segments of protection - technical, mechanical and security prevention of facilities and other property are regulated, and security measures are prescribed as well as the way of how security workers work.

opinion that, risks and threats are determined to protect employees, the company's facilities and property by professional and competent persons. Others shared the opinion that the risks are conditioned by external and internal influences that are facts, estimates and plans, stating that the methods in modern conditions are necessary to be changed.

Based on received answers of the inquiry performed by a professional contractor for securing persons and property in Toplifikacija AD - Skopje, and directly responsible competent person, that has conducted this inquiry, generally confirmed all auxiliary hypotheses, and that the main hypothesis of this paper is confirmed, **that making of the analyzing concept and estimation of current and potential forms of threat, risks, threats and other security appearances in Toplifikacija AD - Skopje allows efficient execution of the function of company' security management, which management is accomplished through determination of security duties founded on earlier conclusions and forecast for the movement of the security situation, which allows properly, systematically and overall achievement of security and other company objectives or its optimal protection.** The need for greater respect over implemented procedures still remains. There isn't any company that is immune on threats and dangers that are directed purposely or accidentally, endangering its values. The company's ability to respond to these threats gives priority to the security service. The management has the most important part in organizing the service for appropriate reaction, i.e. all process of management. Higher education of the employees with security culture is recommended, aiming to respect the company's values and their direct involvement in the process for decision making and in bottom line in creation of the security policy.

Bibliography

1. Брајановски Благоја, *Персоналниот менаџмент во претпријатијата во Македонија*, Институт за социолошки и политичко – правни истражувања,, Трибина македонска ,, Скопје 1997 год.

2. Давидовиќ Д. Душан, *Алтернативни чиниоци безбедности (приватни полисинг)*, Хрестоманија (избор текстова за припремање испита), Факултет безбедности-смер безбедност, Београд, децембар 2006.

3. Давидовиќ Д. Душан, *Хрестоматија-избор текстова за припремање испита*, Факултет безбедности-Београд, децембар 2006 год.

4. Даничиќ Милан, Стајиќ Љубомир, *Приватна безбедност*, Висока школа унутрашњих послова, Бања Лука, 2008 год.

5. Доревски Зоран, *Обезбедување на објекти од висок ризик*, Безбедност бр.3/1995, МВР на РМ, Скопје, 1995 год.

6. Драгишиќ Зоран, *Безбедносни менаџмент*, Службени гласник и Факултет Безбедности, Београд, 2007 год.

7. Fatić Aleksandar, *Privatne bezbednosne kompanije*, Revija za bezbednost, br. 4, oktobar 2007 god.

8. Герасимоски Сашо, *Приватната безбедност во услови на глобализација*, Годишник на Полициската академија, 2007/2008 год., Скоје, 2008 год.

9. Георгиева Лидија, *Менаџирање на ризици*, Филозофски факултет – Скопје, Скопје, 2006 год.

10. Малиш Саздовска Марина, Дујовски Никола, *Безбедносен менаџмент*, Факултет за безбедност Скопје, Скопје, 2009 год.

11. Милошевиќ Милан, „Милан Даничиќ: Обезбеђење лица и имовине предузећа у Републици Српској”, *Безбедност* бр. 2/06, МУП РС, Београд, 2006 год.

12. Рајко Раѓеновиќ, *Безбедност личности и објеката*, Београд, 2003 год.

13. Рајковчевски Раде, *Безбедносната култура како составен дел од безбедносните системи*, Годишник на Полициската академија, 2007/2008 год., Скоје, 2008 год.

14. Тумановски Драган со група автори, *Обезбедување на лица и имот*, Комора на Република Македонија за обезбедување на лица и имот, Скопје, 2001 год.

ЕФЕКТИВНАТА ОБУКА НА КАДАРОТ ВО АГЕНЦИИТЕ ЗА ОБЕЗБЕДУВАЊЕ ВО РЕПУБЛИКА МАКЕДОНИЈА – ВАЖЕН ФАКТОР ЗА БЕЗБЕДНОСТА НА ГРАЃАНИТЕ И НИВНИОТ ИМОТ

м-р Борче Петревски
borcepetrovski@yahoo.com
м-р Александра Димитровска
sandrapsiho@yahoo.com

Апстракт

Агенциите за обезбедување на лица и имот (АОИЛ) претставуваат еден од субјектите на потсистемот за приватна безбедност (ППБ), кои имаат сè поважен удел во вкупната безбедносна состојба во една современа држава. Согласно законската регулатива во Р.Македонија, прецизирани се меѓудругото, и критериумите и начинот на стекнување на правото за вршење на професијата работник за обезбедување. Во оваа професија, посебно е важно работникот соодветно да реагира во непредвидливи ситуации, кои ја загрозуваат безбедноста на лицето или имотот кој се заштитува, при што во ризик може да биде доведен и неговиот живот. Од ова се согледува важноста на соодветната обученост на кадарот во ППБ. Услов за едно лице да може да ја работи оваа професија во Р.Македонија е истото да поседува лиценца за вршење на работи на обезбедување на лица и имот, за чие добивање покрај општите законски услови, потребно е лицето да помине и 40-часовна обука, како и да положи стручен теоретски и практичен испит, спроведени од страна на овластени службеници од МВР и Комората за обезбедување на лица и имот.

Со цел утврдување на постојниот систем на обука, едукација и селекција на кадарот во АОИЛ во Р.Македонија како важен сегмент за ефикасното функционирање на ППБ, како и неговото реализирање во праксата, спроведено е истражување на примерок составен од 6 групи испитаници: 309 работници за обезбедување, 20 менаџери на АОИЛ, 2-ца претседатели на Комори за обезбедување, 2-ца претставници од МВР задолжени за контролата, 123 корисници на услуги и 253 граѓани.

Резултатите покажуваат потреба од промени во системот на обука и оценување, посебно во: практичниот дел, времетраењето, специјализацијата, континуитетот во дообуката, критериумите и компетентноста на обучувачите и испитувачите, и сл.

Во таа насока на крајот во трудот ќе се наведат предлози за негово унапредување, со цел поефикасно и поефективно извршување на професијата работник за обезбедување, а со крајна цел – зголемена сигурност и безбедност на граѓаните и нивниот имот.

Клучни зборови: приватна безбедност, агенции за обезбедување, професија обезбедување на лица и имот, обука, безбедност

EFFECTIVE TRAINING OF STAFF IN THE PRIVATE SECURITY AGENCIES IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA-IMPORTANT FACTOR FOR SAFETY OF THE CITIZENS AND THEIR PROPERTY

Borce Petrevski, M.A

borcep@petrevski@yahoo.com

Ministry of Interior Affairs, RM

Aleksandra Dimitrovska, M.A.

sandrapsi@yahoo.com

Faculty of Security - Skopje

Abstract

Private security agencies (PSA) represent one of the entities of the private security subsystem (PSS), and play increasingly important role in the overall security in one modern country. According to the Macedonian legislation, among other things, the criteria and the way of getting the right for security worker profession in PSA are precise. In this profession, it is particularly important that the proper employee reacts in unforeseen situations that threaten the security of the person or property that is under protection, during which his life may be challenged. From this, the importance of proper training of personnel in the security subsystem is perceived. Requirement for a person to be able to run the job in Macedonia is to have a license for working in that field. Along with the general legal conditions, it is necessary for the person to spend 40 hour training, and to pass a specialized theoretical and practical examination conducted by the authorized officials from the Ministry of Interior and Chamber for security of people and property.

In order to determine the current system of training, education and selection of personnel in the PSA in the R. Macedonia as an important segment for efficacy and practical realization, a research is conducted. The sample is composed of 6 groups of respondents: 309 security workers, 20 PSA managers, 2 presidents of the Chambers for security, 2 police officers responsible for the control, 123 service users and 253 citizens.

The results indicate the need for changes in the system of training and assessment, in particular: the practical part, the duration, specialization, continuous retraining, criteria and competence of trainers and examiners, etc.

In this regard, the end of the paper will give suggestions for the improvement in the efficiency and effectiveness carried out in this profession, with the ultimate goal of increasing safety and security of citizens and their property.

Keywords: *private security, private security agencies, security of persons and property profession, training, safety*

Introduction

PSS has an important role in maintaining general security in a country. Besides state agencies responsible for overall security, PSA generally performs preventive function of the security system (SS). Given that they exist for ten years by adopting the Law on Security of people and property at the end of 1999, and registration of the Chamber of RM for securing people and property in 2000, today, in the RM there are 50 PSA actively working. It can be concluded that there is progress in the security segment, despite the existence of several gaps in several aspects, including appropriate education and training of staff.

The importance of proper education and training of personnel in PSA

According to the regulations of responsibilities, powers and nature of work in the field of private security, it is mandatory that the staff that circulates this area has adequate practical and theoretical education, and has psychological predispositions that are prerequisites for implementing this type of tasks. Quality education for people engaged in this field is an important prerequisite for legal, professional and ethical performance of works, leading to a reduction of the potential dangers of legal illicit behaviors and their possible sanctions, particularly in the application of repressive actions by security workers. Therefore, monitoring and evaluation of the ability of the professional structures for security is set up as a prerequisite for efficient execution of these works,¹ for which purpose it is recommended a permanent education that contributes for:

- increased quality performance by increasing work incentives, based on acquired knowledge, expertise and competence;
- enhance the operational flexibility by means of expanding the range of expertise among workers;
- detecting the most skillful and highest quality staff through the training process, as an initial basis for their further improvement and professional development through the career system.²

In that sense, it is recommended:

- intensive investment by owners in retaining skilled staff and improving working conditions in PSA in order to increase the quality of services and greater specialization in PS;

¹ About the strategy for training and permanent educational work of security of people and property companies, see: Keković. З. *Прилог стратегија за образование и перманентна едукација за обавување на работи на обезбедување*, Дефендологија, бр.11-12/2002, стр.89-99.

² Даничић, М. Стајић, Ј. (2008) *Приватна безбједност*, Висока школа унутрашњих послова, Бања Лука, стр.114-5.

- respect the contract for the minimum cost of labor, given the cost of security in rural areas, which will reduce the fluctuation of manpower;
- increase the salaries of employees by increasing their level of specialization, which would be a motivation for their investment in their development and vocational training.³

The importance of appropriate education, training and competence, and the degree of development of the moral consciousness of the workers in PSS, and according to Spaseski, J., and collaborators are listed as part of the reasons that can lead to privatization of PS, and thus the deflection, alienation, difficulty functioning or malfunctioning of the total SS in the state.⁴

The results of a research⁵ conducted for the situation in the PBP in Southeast Europe (SEE), point to a similar situation in the Republic, as in the other countries. Thus, it is said that despite the existence of problems related to professionalism and behavior of staff, the security subsystem is significantly developed in the last decade, so in there is a little or no threat to security in general. Although in most countries training is useful, it does not achieve the required standards. The training was carried by members of the state security forces, independent of school training and PSA, which questions the effectiveness of the training, especially when it is implemented by PSA. The content of training and duration of the courses also vary in different countries, though most include elements such as knowledge of the law, use of weapons and providing first aid, but in most countries the content and effectiveness of training is not adequate. In these terms, establishment and implementation of effective control over the mode of training of personnel in PSA by the state are recommended. Among other things, it should give a good foundation of knowledge on issues related to respect for human rights, international humanitarian law, and relevant behavior by workers PSA and international standards for the application of physical force and firearms. It is also recommended the introduction of mandatory Code of Conduct as evidence of professionalism and its adoption by the Chamber, but also as a condition for one of the recipients of PSA to participate in tenders and fulfill them.

³ *Приватне безбедносне компаније у Србији – пријатељ или претња?*, Центар за цивилно – војне односе, Београд, 2008.

⁴ Spaseski, J., Aslimoski P., Gerasimovski S., (2008) *Private security, Kosta Abrash – Ohrid*.

⁵ *SALW i firme za privatno obezbeđenje u jugoistočnoj Evropi: uzrok ili posledica nesigurnosti?*, 2008.

System and training program in PSA in the Republic of Macedonia

Under the existing system the training to obtain a license for securing people and property is organized by the Chamber, and is performed by police officers from the MOI - instructors appointed by a decision by the Minister of Interior. It is conducted according to the prescribed curriculum,⁶ and consists of 34 hours of theoretical instruction covering the following subjects: Law on security of persons and property (LSPP) with law acts, criminal law, criminology, law of supply, possession and carrying of weapons, power and tactics in the application of the authorization, organization of security works, tactics of implementing measures to ensure, shooting and handling firearms, self defense, fire protection, use of funds and technical protection devices and first aid, and 6 hours of practical instruction, including shooting and handling firearms.

After the training, professional exam follows that is conducted for a period of two days, and one who will pass the theoretical part, refers to taking the practical part of the program. Performance test at the exam again, carries 5-member Commission and their deputies, also formed by decision of the Minister, consisting 3 members of the MOI and 2 members nominated by the Chamber. The condition for selection of these people is the certificate for seventh grade education and appropriate professional experience in the field of security. The practical part of the exam is taken before the Commission of MOI composed of police officers in uniform. The Minister of Interior produces the program, the manner of taking the exam, empowerment of individuals and the license of work. By passing the exam the person obtains a license to perform work on securing people and property, which is authorized by the Chamber.

According LSPP, the training can be attended by any person who is a citizen of R.M; has a residence in R.M; has not obtained a judgment for a forbiddance of performance in the security sector; has completed at least secondary education - two years before a license has performed work in the field of security and defense tasks from authorized officials; and for identification, despite confirmation of no prohibition of doing business a medical certificate of general health is mandatory.

The question is to what extent the existing level of training of personnel in PSS in the R.M responds to the needs of the modern concept of private security, whether there are any gaps in existing training system in the same part: the program, instructors, content and manner of conducting the exam or screening criteria for knowledge, whether existing training matches the needs of specific types of collateral, whether persons who approach the

⁶ Rules for the program and manner of taking the professional exam for working on securing people and property, Official Gazette of RM no.80/99.

psychological training are eligible and how the existing screening is effective in practice, and ultimately what would be a suggestion for improvement?

Methodology

Sample: The sample consists of 6 groups of respondents: 309 security workers, 20 PSA managers, two presidents of Chambers of security, two representatives from the MOI responsible for control, 123 service users and 253 citizens in the R.Macedonia. The survey was conducted from March to June, 2010.

Aim: Determining the level of training of personnel engaged in PSS in the R.Macedonia and providing suggestions for the improvement of the training system in accordance with European experience.

Hypothesis: The necessity of progress in the level of training of the staff in PSS in the R.Macedonia, for an improvement in the quality of the services by PSA.

Instruments and methods: Interviews and questionnaires with 40 questions.

Statistics and analysis: Descriptive statistical methods: frequencies and percentages.

Results and Discussion

The results indicate the need for increasing the level of training of personnel in the PSS in the R.Macedonia, especially in the area of specialized training and practical application. They also detect the existence of a certain percentage of inadequate staff that works in PSA and got license and identification document security, indicating the need for changes in the existing system for training and testing. As already mentioned it mainly depends on the financial condition of PSA, along with the criteria for passing the exam of getting licenses, and the lack of appropriate criteria for expertise and competence of trainers and people from the Commissions for testing the knowledge. In that context, series of questions and suggestions for changes in this aspect of PSS follow.

	Workers		Managers	
	f	%	f	%
Yes	255	82,52	20	100
No	54	17,48	0	0
Total	309	100	20	100

Table 1. Do you think that inadequate people are working and have licenses in PSA?

From Table 1, we can conclude that the majority of workers (82.52%) and all managers confirmed that in PSA there are inadequate people working. Still, people have different attitudes regarding the causes, which can be seen from Table 2, that the unprofessional behavior (44.01%) and physical reluctance of employees (43.37%) are the most important for workers, 70% of managers point out the employment of persons from criminal backgrounds as the most important factor, and 55% of them point out the unprofessional behavior of employees within the PSA. Therefore, this may imply a significant negative impact on the security situation in the Republic of Macedonia.

	Workers		Managers	
	f	%	f	%
Psychologically incapacitated persons	81	26,21	5	25
Physical j people	134	43,37	6	30
People from criminal structure	78	25,24	14	70
People with inadequate education / unskilled persons	58	18,77	5	25
People without licenses	77	24,92	5	25
Don't know how to use a weapon	36	11,65	2	10
Unprofessional applies	136	44,01	11	55
Other	0	0	2	10

Table 2. If YES, What, according to you, is the reason for that? (You can point out more)

Additionally, it is worth mentioning the psychological incapacity of the people employed for securing who have licenses, and the employment of persons without appropriate licenses. As the least important factor, both groups emphasize the lack of trained workers to use firearms, which is understandable because PSA mostly does not allow its usage (only in extreme necessity), so it's very important for the employee to have the ability to prevent such a situation. In that sense, the attitude towards the application of strictly selective approach to issuing licenses is progressively sustained for employment in PSA, but also for specific arrangements for working in PSA.

	Workers		Managers	
	f	%	f	%
I think that the criterion does not work consistently (incompetent people get licenses)	213	68,93	19	95
I think that the criterion works consistently (all who have licenses are able to perform the activity provision)	96	31,07	1	5
Total	309	100	20	100

Table 3. What do you think about the conditions for getting licenses for security?

In addition to the upper results are those from Table 3, in which 68.93% of workers and 95% of managers believe that the existing criteria for getting licenses for the provision allows incompetent people get the permission to perform this activity.

	Workers		Managers	
	f	%	f	%
Yes, I think it is effective	140	45,31	2	10
It is partially effective	142	45,95	11	55
No, it isn't effective	27	8,74	7	35
Total	309	100	20	100

Table 4. What do you think of a training course as a condition for obtaining a license, evaluated from a practical point of view?

From Table 4, while 91.26% of workers believe that training is effective or partially effective, 90% of managers have the opposite view and believe that the training is partly ineffective.

	Workers		Managers	
	f	%	f	%
More examples of practical work	237	76,70	15	75
More competent persons for training	67	21,68	11	55
Is caring out as a pro forma	22	7,12	9	45
Other	2	0,65	0	0

Table 5. What of the following, according to your experience, do you think is missing in the training?(You can opt for more)

In addition, according to Table 5, the majority of workers (76.70%) and managers (75%) cite the need for more practical work through the

examples within the training, while the other group, 21.68% of workers and 55% of managers point out the need for increased competence of the people responsible for training, with aim to increase the effectiveness of the training. According to this, 95% of managers believe that they should strengthen the quality of training. Their advice is: making it more comprehensive; to be aimed at solving practical problems in applying authorities, especially the use of firearms and practical application of LSPP; and put bigger accent on the behavior, communication and relationships of workers with citizens and customers; it should be organized continually about which, as a major problem are the finance, about which they proposed that the financing of the training have to be combined from PSA and the Chamber; and finally, forming a special Training Center for this activity which have to have more extensive and more comprehensive program.

	Managers		Chamber		MOI	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Yes	19	95	2	100	2	100
No	1	5	-	-	-	-
Total	20	100	2	100	2	100

Table 6. Do you think that training should be performed by the separated competent institution of the area of security?

According to Table 6, more serious organization of the training is sustained by the opinion of 95% managers and representatives of both Chambers. Some suggest that it could be a kind of school, or "Academy for training" that would be within the Chamber and would be performed with an appropriate program approved by the MOI. Some offered the opportunities of the existing "Training Center" in Idrizovo, where the training have to be conducted with competent instructors, and instructors of the MOI, Army, professors of Faculty of Law and Economics and experts from the Department for fire protection. Among the representatives of the MOI, however, there is a proposal that the training is conducted within a specific part of the MOI, dedicated to this purpose.

	Managers		Chamber		MOI	
	f	%	F	%	f	%
Yes	20	100	2	100	2	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	20	100	2	100	2	100

Table 7. Do you think that standards should be set about who may be included in the "training body" as an instructor?

Besides the above-mentioned, for more effective training, the introduction of standards it is necessary, about who will be involved in the team of instructors for training and testing. All managers and representatives of Chambers and MOI, which can be seen from Table 7,⁷ share that view. In this regard managers suggest that: the instructors of conducting the training should have a license for instructors, university degree and experience in the field; larger theoretical and practical readiness; competency of the appropriate subjects of the exam as a criteria in selecting instructors for the team; and a greater interest and commitment as well, actually the exam doesn't have to be only a "pro forma" – and to be implemented only for financial compensation. One of the proposals is to be authorized police officers from the Bureau of public security, with the extensive work experience in the Department of security in the MOI. Additionally, there is a negative reaction on the monopoly that MOI have in this section, with a proposal of including the representatives from the Chamber in the body of training in a certain proportion, as are appointed members of the Commission in the exam of knowledge verification.

After the training, as a second factor that may influence on the inappropriate trained staff before getting the license to work, is the professional and quality of performing the checking of the acquired knowledge. That means setting standards of the way of conducting the examination, by establishing stricter criteria and standards about who is competent and should be a member of the Commission for examination.⁸

	Workers		Managers	
	f	%	f	%
Competent persons to check	65	21,04	6	30
The test not to be a pro forma	45	14,56	5	25
Tests /questions from the practice	83	26,86	6	30
The test not to be "set up"	146	47,25	9	45
Other	1	0,32	2	10

Table 8. What, according to you, lacks in the process of effective checking of knowledge as a condition for obtaining a license? (You can opt for more)

⁷ According to the current system for training, instructors are authorized employees of the Ministry, assigned by a special decision by the Minister of Interior.

⁸ Under the current system, the survey was carried out by five-member Commission, created by a decision of the Minister of Internal Affairs, of which three members of the Interior and two members of the Chamber.

In terms of evaluating the effectiveness and the verification of knowledge, workers and managers expressed nearly identical views about the perceived shortcomings, visible in Table 8. As the most important factor indicated is the inadequate criteria for evaluation, actually the test should not be “set-up” so the employees get the licenses without the required level of knowledge (61.81% of workers and 70% of managers). Furthermore, there are notes about the need for greater inclusion of questions related to solving practical problems and simulation of real situations as a part of the test (26.86% of workers and 30% of managers) and a higher degree of competence among the members of the Commission of examination (21.04% of workers and 30% of managers).

	Managers		Chamber		MOI	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Yes	20	100	2	100	2	100
No	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	20	100	2	100	2	100

Table 9. What do you think about introducing and organizing seminars, debates on consideration of practical problems, exchange experiences etc. as a permanent practice?

Regarding the introduction seminars and debates as a permanent practice in the operation of PSA, there is a completely positive feedback from all groups, as seen from Table 9. Namely, in the past work of PSA and the Chamber, there are practices for annual seminars with participation of international representatives, designated as "Days of private security." However, the managers suggest: not to be a “pro forma” or a parade; organizing them as a continuous practice in the form of additional training, specialized training and seminars; suggestions of the topics to be given from PSA; higher representation and elaboration of cases of practice; solving practical problems (topics chosen according to the current problem in the period); prescription in compulsory transfer of knowledge and current information to the lowest level of workers in PSA; more literature in the area; their organization in other cities in the R. Macedonia; increasing the participation of our representatives at international seminars, and increasing the participation of experts from science, MOI, etc. as guests in order to review the problems of legal, practical and scientific aspects. The Chamber has this crucial responsibility, which is the organizer and the carrier of this type of activities in the domain of PSS.

Aspects of service	Users of services											
	very satisfied		Satisfied		partially satisfied		satisfied a little		not satisfied at all		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
professionalism	64	52,03	49	39,84	7	5,69	1	0,81	-	-	123	100
cost of service	45	36,59	60	48,78	17	13,82	-	-	1	0,81	123	100
keeping business secret	75	60,98	42	34,15	3	2,44	1	0,81	2	1,63	123	100
expertise in handling	67	54,47	50	40,65	4	3,25	-	-	2	1,63	123	100
material-technical equipment	56	45,53	52	42,28	8	6,50	2	1,63	5	4,07	123	100
relation to the client	68	55,28	40	32,52	4	3,25	1	0,81	-	-	123	100
overall working	62	50,41	55	44,72	5	4,07	1	0,81	-	-	123	100

Table 10. In what degree are you satisfied with the quality of service you receive from PSA, in terms of security for yourself and your property?

	Citizens	
	f	%
Yes, they impact positively	121	47,83
They impact partially	92	36,36
They impact negatively	23	9,09
I'm not sure	17	6,72
Other	-	-
Total	253	100

Table 11. Do you think that the existence of PSA positively impacts on the safety of citizens and their property?

The results of Table 10 show that users expressed satisfaction of the services of PSA that still meet their needs and requirements (95.13%) according to the price of this service in the R.Macedonia, in several aspects. These aspects are: professionalism (52, 03%), keeping business secret (60.98%), the expertise of the treatment (54.47%), relations with clients (55.28%). However, there were some negative comments related to insufficient training of personnel in this field. Regarding the general purpose of this activity, which is limited to protecting property from theft (with exceptions for certain clients), the low price is fully justified. On the other side, customers barely pay service, and in that case, they are not in the position of expressing dissatisfaction.

	Citizens	
	f	%
yes, there is need for security agencies	192	75,89
no, there is no need for their existence	41	16,21
I'm not sure	18	7,11
Other	2	0,79
Total	253	100

Table 12. Do you think that PSA should exist (or police should be solely responsible for the safety and security of citizens and their property)?

In this regard, the attitude of citizens in table 11 is that PSA still have totally positive (47.83%) or partially positive (36.36%) impact on maintaining or increasing the overall security in the R.Macedonia, agreeing that there is a need for the existence of PSA despite police (75.89%) in the R.Macedonia (Table 12).

Conclusion

In the Republic of Macedonia there is a need for upgrading the system for training personnel in PSS, although PSA appropriately corresponds to the needs of the development degree of this activity in the Republic of Macedonia, which largely corresponds to the attentive activities in the police. The main obstacle to the untrained staff is the finances, reflected by the already low salaries of workers in the PSS. Despite the limitations, there is a space for improving the steps and suggestions of that are related to: changes in the criteria for selection of personnel for the availability of training, increase in the level of expertise of the trainers and examiners by setting appropriate criteria and standards, strengthening the training program specifically with classes of practical part, the introduction of a permanent system of retraining and specialization of individual specific types of security, effective implementation of the exam by setting stricter criteria for examination.

References:

1. Бошковић М., Кековић З., (2003) *Обезбјеђење лица, имовине и пословања предузећа*, ВШУП, Београд.
2. Даничић М., Стајић Љ., (2008) *Приватна безбједност*, Комесграфика, Бања Лука.

3. Герасимоски С., (2009) *Позитивни и негативни искуства на развојот на приватната безбедност во светот и воопшто во Република Македонија*, Varstvoslovje, Fakultet za varnostne vede.
4. Кековиќ, З. *Прилог стратегија за образование и перманентна едукација за обавување на работи на обезбедување*, Дефендологија, бр.11-12/2002.
5. *Приватне безбедносне компаније у Србији – пријател или претња?*, Центар за цивилно – војне односе, Београд, 2008.
6. SALW i firme za privatno obezbeđenje u jugoistočnoj Evropi: uzrok ili posledica nesigurnosti? , 2008.
7. Skakavac Z. i dr. (2008) *Privatna bezbednost – stanje i perspektivi*, Zbornik radova, Fakultet za pravne i poslovne studije, Novi Sad.
8. Спасески Ј., Аслимоски П., Герасимоски С., (2008) *Приватна безбедност*. Коста Абраш – Охрид.
9. Stajić, Lj. (2008). *Osnovi sistema bezbednosti*. Pravni fakultet, Novi Sad.
10. Тумановски Д. и др., (2001) *Обезбедување на лица и имот*, 2-ри Август С, Скопје.

Legislation

1. Law on Security of people and property, OG of RM No.80/99, Revision and modification to the Act, OG of RM No.66/07, Adjustments of Law, OG No.84/07, Revised text of Law, September 2010.
2. Statute of the Chamber of Security of people and property of 15.03.2011.
3. The Law on Weapons (unofficial revised text of 06.10.2010).
4. Rules for the program and manner of taking the professional exam for working on securing people and property, OG of RM No.80/99.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE SPECIAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION OVER THE CHANGES OF THE ANTHROPOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDENTS AT THE FACULTY OF SECURITY

Jonche Ivanovski, M.A.

jonce_i@yahoo.com

Aljosa Nedev, M.A.

aljosanedev@yahoo.com

Angel Vitevski

vitevski.inter@yahoo.com

Faculty of Security – Skopje, Macedonia

Abstract

This paper deals with analysis of the changes which occur in the anthropometric characteristics under the influence of the teaching process of the curriculum subject of Special Physical Education. A total number of 18 variables were measured within the students at the Faculty of Security in Skopje, in order to determine the changes of the anthropometric indicators. This was done by estimation of some anthropometric dimensions, such as: the longitudinal and transversal dimensionality of the skeleton, the volume and mass of the body, and the subcutaneous adipose tissue. These measurements were carried out in four different periods of time. The obtained data from the four measurements were processed with proper descriptive and complex statistical procedures and methods (basic statistics and analysis of the variance). The overall obtained results from the research showed that the teaching programs in Special Physical Education mainly contribute to positive transformation and development of the anthropometric characteristics of the students. This means that the suggested educational model, with minor exceptions, is effective in achieving the desired goal.

Key words: *anthropometric characteristics, students, complex analysis of the variance*

Introduction

The records of the anthropometric characteristics serve for estimation of the physical condition and physical development of people, as well as for determination of their body constitution. The significance of

information about the anthropometric characteristics is great because it helps us understand that these changes contribute to better perception of the efficiency of realization of various teaching and work activities and tasks. Our research deals exactly with this issue: the information about the anthropometric characteristics is elaborated as one of the most important elements for successful preparation and planning of the curriculum and the syllabus for the subject of Special Physical Education (SPE). The planning and preparation of the SPE teaching represent a complex pedagogical process; moreover, this subject provides for successful realization of some other educational activities and contents. The overall results and effects of teaching of the subject of SPE have a great impact on the anthropometric status of the students, as they further contribute to its quality transformation towards the professional police necessities. Therefore, the long-term tracing of the changes which occur in relation to the anthropometric characteristics is seen as an opportunity for finding **an appropriate model** for continuous monitoring and development of the overall anthropometric state of the students. The monitoring and recording provides control over the teaching and educating process as well as finding out which are the measures that must be conducted in order to ensure that the separate anthropometric dimensions develop in the best way. On the other side, to achieve appropriate transformation of the anthropometric characteristics - it is necessary to make the program contents in the area of the Special Physical Education consistent with the needs and predispositions of each individual. All of this implies high correlation between the projected curriculum and the individual performances and students' abilities. Therefore, the obtained results and knowledge from this research are expected to help in the further programming and improving of the educational process of the subject of SPE, and together with it - the education as a whole.

Description of the current educational model of the subject of Special Physical Education

The Special Physical Education as a curriculum subject at the Faculty of Security in Skopje belongs to the group of vocational subjects and it is studied during the first three years of the studies at this faculty. According to the current conception, i.e. the latest changes of the syllabus - SPE is studied during five semesters, in contrast to the six-semester length of the previous syllabus. Regardless of this division, the total number of lessons for both study programs is exactly the same - 195 lessons. As it comes to the current curriculum and syllabus, the SPE is divided into several qualitatively dependent stages. These stages divide the teaching process generally into

two large units: the first unit - which covers the first two years of studies, and the second unit - which covers the third academic year.

During the first two years of studies, a big number of educational-training contents are realized; by these contents, gradual improvement and development of the basic anthropometric characteristics and bio-motor abilities of the students is achieved. During the same period some other activities are also conducted, by which even more intensive transformation and development of the primary bio-motor characteristics of the students are enabled; these activities are actually the base for adoption of the anticipated elementary defensive techniques of this stage. In the third academic year, the realization of the initiated training activities from the previous stage continues; this refers to adoption of the defined adapted basic and primary techniques and methods (such as: for self-defense, defense, apprehension, tying, searching, etc.), which is immediately related to those abilities and knowledge that help for successful performance of professional duties of the prospective police officers.

In this paper, due to the research concept, the description of the predicted educational-training activities shall cover only the teaching period in which the syllabus from the first to the fourth semester is realized.

Namely, in the first semester are realized the program contents which are related to the indicators from the initial testing. According to the results obtained in this initial testing, the basic bio-motor indicators and resources are determined, and they are used for current micro and sub structuring and adapting of the contents of the subject program for Special Physical Education. Furthermore, based on the determined bio-motor status - homogenous groups are formed according to the quality of the manifested indicators, and here it is implemented a work program for improvement of the determined values. Basic objective of the exercises is to strengthen and shape simultaneously all of the body muscle groups. For that purpose, exercises for improvement of the repetitive force, explosive force, speed, durability, coordination, flexibility, and other factors are applied.

The second semester is extension of the program activities from the first semester, with progressive increasing of the scope of the syllabus - both in terms of the number of exercises and their recurrence, as well as in the complexity in solving tasks with higher degree of coordination, precision and speed. In accordance to the defined methods and forms of work, in this semester elementary techniques and manners of falling down forwards, backwards and sideways are carried out and adopted.

In the third semester, the improvement of the bio-motor abilities is the basic concern; this is necessary for increasing of the quality in the process of adoption of the specific teaching contents in this semester. The

elementary defense techniques, movement in posture, punches, blocking punches, etc. are primarily elaborated in this semester.

In the last semester of this phase, the fourth semester, the development and maintenance of the bio-motor abilities continues, as well as the adoption and development of the elementary defense techniques of throwing, falling, cranks, grips etc. These techniques as well as the mentioned techniques from the previous semesters are the basic material for overcoming more complex techniques which are planned for the third academic year.

Research methodology

Subject, goal and research hypotheses

Subject of the research are the distinct anthropometric characteristics within the students at the Faculty of Security in Skopje, measured during the Special Physical Education teaching.

Primary goal of the research is to determine the changes and the transformations which occur within the students in their anthropometric status, under the influence of the syllabus of the Special Physical Education. The conduction of the primary research goal should be in two academic years.

Primary hypothesis of the research is that the students of the Faculty of Security have undergone significant changes related to the anthropometric characteristics in the period of two academic years.

Sample of respondents

The research is carried out among selected respondents, a total number of 74 full-time male students from the Faculty of Security in Skopje at the age of 19 to 21. The research is realized during the first and the second academic year, with measurements conducted in four different time distances, i.e. after each of the four semesters.

Sample of variables

During the research, for estimation of the anthropometric characteristics within the students, a total number of 18 anthropometric variables have been applied, according to several standard anthropometric techniques of the international biological program. For estimation of the longitudinal dimensionality of the skeleton were measured: body height (BH), length of the arms (LA), and length of the legs (LL). For estimation of

the transversal dimensionality of the skeleton were measured: diameter of the elbow (DE), diameter of the wrist (DW), diameter of the knee (DK) and diameter of the ankle (DA). For estimation of the volume and the mass of the body were measured: body weight (BW), size of the humerus (SH), volume of the radius (VR), volume of the femur (VF), and volume of the shin (VSH). For estimation of the subcutaneous adipose tissue were measured: subcutaneous adipose tissue biceps (SATB), subcutaneous adipose tissue triceps (SATT), subcutaneous adipose tissue sub scapular (SATS), subcutaneous adipose tissue radius (SATR), subcutaneous adipose tissue femur (SATF), and subcutaneous adipose tissue shin (SATSH). The big numbers of measurements of all these anthropometric variables covered in the research are relevant data for estimation of the analyzed anthropometric space.

Statistical methods for data processing

In order to respond adequately to the given goal, the results from the research are processed by proper descriptive and multivariate statistical procedures in the statistical computer packet *Statistica 6.0*. In the space of the descriptive statistics for all applied anthropometric variables, for every measurement separately, the primary measurements of the central tendency and dispersion and normality of distribution of the results are calculated, and in the multivariable space, the analysis of the variance (MANOVA) and the LSD test are applied.

Results and discussion

Descriptive analysis of the anthropometric characteristics

The descriptive parameters of the variables of the anthropometric space are given in Table 1. These parameters are subject of this research, and they are elaborated for each of the four measurements separately. Taking into consideration the existence of the four subspaces of the anthropometric space (the longitudinal, the transversal, the voluminous and the subcutaneous subspace), a separate descriptive analysis is carried out for each one of them. According to the indicators of the arithmetic means, the students show constant increase (elongation) of the anthropometric state in the longitudinal subspace, as it is constantly observed from the first to the last measurement. The elongation i.e. the growth of the students refers equally to both the upper and the lower limbs, ranging around 5 centimeters, while the growth of the body is the most noticeable, ranging around 13 cm. The growth in the body height and the elongation of the arms is balanced between all measurements

delivering 4, i.e. 1 cm, while the elongation of the legs does not have the same rate of growth because the elongation is more significant between the second and the third measurement as well as between the third and the fourth measurement. The real explanation for the changes that occur constantly in the longitudinal dimensionality of the skeleton should most of all be sought within the natural process of acceleration (growth); important factor here is the fact that this process of growing has not terminated yet within the analyzed population, even though there is a mild intention of constant slowing down and dropping¹.

In the transversal, as well as the longitudinal subspace, there are identical changes in the results of the average values, which have the intention of improving after every measurement. That means that there is a constant increase (growth) of the bone system of the lower and the upper limbs in width. According to the dynamics, the growth is balanced between every measurement ranging around 0.3 cm for any anthropometric transversal measurement. With reference to the changes in this anthropometric segment occurring within the students, it is quite logical that the growth in height is directly dependent i.e. followed by the growth in width.

Correspondingly to the previous two anthropometric subspaces, in the voluminous, i.e. circular subspace - similar condition of the average indicators can be noticed; thus, with minor exceptions, the intention of constant increase related to every measurement is obvious. According to the dynamics of the changes, the body weight and the volume of the limbs are mutually connected; by increasing of the volumes - increases the total body weight as well. This can be concluded by comparison of the average values between each of the measurements, of which the most significant phase is between the third and the fourth measurement of the variables. In general, in all four measurements, the largest growth can be noticed with the femur - 23 cm, then with the humerus - 12 cm, and in the end - with the radius - 11 cm; the smallest growth is noticed with the shin - 8 cm. Positive transformation of this kind related to the circular dimensionality of the body is due to the positive development of the basic bio-motor abilities, which are the basic condition for growth of the human body. Therefore, this anthropometric segment is considered to be one of the most important anthropometric subspaces, because it shows strong connection to the bio-motor space. In support to all of this, come the obtained results from the previously

¹ According to the expert literature, the speed of the growth is expressed from the 14th to the 16th year of life, and ends from the 20th to the 22nd, even though according to some other opinions, the growth in height lasts till the 25th year of life.

conducted bio-motor research with the same sample of respondents², in which positive transformations and improvement of the basic bio-motor abilities are also detected.

Within the subcutaneous subspace, slight changes of the results of the average values are noticed; these values have the tendency of increase or decrease in the different occasions of measurement. This trend of changes causes decrease or increase of the subcutaneous adipose tissue in all of the analyzed anthropometric measurements. Given the unequal pace, partial decrease of the subcutaneous adipose tissue is noticed with the SATT and the SATSH variables, while with the rest of the variables, a minimal sedimentation of subcutaneous adipose tissue is obvious. Despite the changing conditions of the separate subcutaneous indicators, we can say that this anthropometric segment follows the positive changes of the rest of the anthropometric subspaces which are influenced by the processes that appear by morphological development and maturation.

Following the other descriptive indicators in Table 1, we can clearly define the general anthropometric condition within the students in all four measurements. From the data in Table 1, we can conclude (according to the Colmogorov and Smirnov's applied method) that the distribution of the applied variables is in the range of the normal distribution of the results. In accordance with the conclusions of this kind are the obtained values from the calculated variability measurements (SD, KV%, Skewness and Kurtosis), which show a high degree of homogeneity in the distribution of the individual results of the respondents related to the average values. If separately analyzed, the results from the initial measurements toward the central dispersion, it is evident that all anthropometric measurements have mild tendency of variation of the results in positive or negative direction, which shows that the received values of the empirical distribution do not vitiate significantly from the normal theoretical distribution.

The manifested condition of the anthropometric variables is due to the fact that the structure of the population by which this sample is drawn is subjected to rough constitutional selection during the admission, i.e. during the enrollment to the Faculty of Security. As support to this condition, are the obtained results from several researches (Miloshevich and Associates 1986, Jakimov J. 1995, Blagoevich M. 2002, Vuchkovich G. and Associates 2008), conducted over similar sample of respondents, and from where similar indicators for the normality of the received distributions of the results are obtained.

² Ivanovski J., (2008). Observation and evaluation of the effects of the teaching process of Special Physical Education on the changes in some of the bio motor abilities within the students at the Faculty of Security in Skopje. The paper is presented on the 12th Symposium on sport and physical education of youth in Ohrid.

Table 1. Primary statistical parameters of the anthropometric variables for the four measurements

I - Measurement								
	X	Min.	Max.	Sd	Kv %	Ske w	Kur t	k-s
BW	65,82	53,50	79,00	5,37	8,15	-,06	-,15	,09
BH	1751,16	1634,00	1864,00	49,82	2,84	-,07	-,42	,06
LA	758,59	703,00	823,00	28,10	3,70	,23	-,44	,06
LL	916,02	845,00	1015,00	40,34	4,40	,34	-,62	,08
DE	68,16	60,00	74,00	2,81	4,12	-,18	,24	,11
DW	56,08	49,00	62,00	2,94	5,24	-,29	-,18	,12
DK	93,58	85,00	101,00	3,02	3,22	-,33	,24	,13
DA	73,62	68,00	83,00	3,56	4,83	,51	-,44	,15
SH	255,42	224,00	320,00	18,88	7,39	,66	,78	,09
VR	242,00	215,00	295,00	14,72	6,08	,85	1,40	,09
VF	507,78	440,00	580,00	30,36	5,97	,23	-,25	,09
VSH	349,34	308,00	396,00	19,14	5,47	-,04	-,23	,09
SATB	3,64	2,50	5,20	,65	17,85	,49	-,65	,16
SAAT	7,53	3,60	14,20	2,13	28,28	,93	1,28	,11
SATS	8,64	2,40	13,20	1,83	21,18	,01	1,43	,08
SATR	3,95	2,80	6,80	,80	20,25	1,34	2,79	,15
SATF	9,87	5,00	16,80	3,04	30,80	,40	-,69	,08
SATSH	9,36	4,40	18,20	2,29	24,46	,86	2,20	,11

II - Measurement							
X	Min.	Max.	Sd	Kv%	Skew	Kurt	k-s
65,52	54,00	77,50	5,58	8,51	,05	-,28	,07
1755,95	1634,00	1865,00	51,16	2,91	-,05	-,49	,07
760,67	703,00	870,00	30,26	3,97	,79	1,29	,09
916,12	847,00	1015,00	40,70	4,44	,38	-,66	,09
68,25	60,00	74,00	2,82	4,13	-,27	,13	,10
56,42	50,00	62,00	2,79	4,94	-,29	-,21	,10
93,96	84,00	101,00	2,92	3,10	-,46	1,16	,09
74,08	69,00	83,00	3,16	4,26	,40	-,47	,11
257,62	212,00	310,00	18,82	7,30	,26	,17	,06
244,79	217,00	283,00	13,45	5,49	,15	-,27	,08
517,75	446,00	608,00	31,44	6,07	,44	,40	,08
352,48	310,00	396,00	19,65	5,57	,12	-,37	,07
3,41	2,20	6,20	,86	25,21	1,17	1,64	,18
6,90	3,60	14,00	2,24	32,46	1,30	1,40	,18
8,32	5,20	14,00	1,61	19,21	,68	,86	,12
3,51	2,00	5,80	,74	21,08	,97	1,44	,16
10,22	5,00	17,40	3,10	30,32	,39	-,59	,12
8,87	4,40	19,00	2,51	28,29	1,44	3,41	,15

III - Measurement								
	X	Min.	Max.	Sd	Kv%	Skew	Kurt	k-s
BW	66,44	54,00	83,50	6,17	9,28	,14	,03	,06
BH	1760,25	1635,00	1865,00	50,88	2,89	-,07	-,45	,07
LA	762,19	703,00	828,00	28,58	3,74	,42	-,15	,10
LL	919,67	848,00	1021,00	40,93	4,45	,40	-,64	,10
DE	68,71	60,00	74,00	2,89	4,20	-,41	-,03	,11
DW	56,79	50,00	62,00	3,10	5,45	-,30	-,57	,11
DK	94,29	85,00	102,00	3,40	3,60	-,16	,52	,09
DA	74,95	69,00	84,00	3,14	4,18	,35	-,18	,10
SH	260,52	221,00	306,00	19,23	7,38	,24	-,43	,06
VR	243,93	177,00	279,00	15,95	6,52	-,89	3,03	,09
VF	508,25	447,00	610,00	31,23	6,14	,34	,59	,12
VSH	352,52	311,00	392,00	18,82	5,25	,06	-,53	,07
SATB	4,01	2,80	8,80	,90	22,44	2,17	1,08	,13
SAAT	6,78	3,40	14,20	2,16	31,85	1,07	1,00	,15
SATS	8,92	6,00	13,00	1,68	18,83	,38	-,58	,09
SATR	3,81	2,60	6,60	,76	19,94	1,31	2,20	,18
SATF	10,02	4,80	19,00	3,27	32,63	,88	,37	,13
SATSH	7,92	3,20	19,20	2,72	34,34	1,71	4,62	,15

IV- Measurement							
X	Min.	Max.	Sd	Kv%	Skew	Kurt	k-s
68,46	55,00	87,50	6,63	9,68	,26	,16	,06
1764,11	1638,00	1866,00	51,36	2,91	-,01	-,38	,07
764,04	703,00	829,00	28,69	3,75	,40	-,16	,09
921,25	850,00	1024,00	40,91	4,44	,39	-,65	,09
68,78	61,00	74,00	2,81	4,08	-,31	-,15	,11
57,14	50,00	62,00	2,95	5,16	-,32	-,28	,12
94,90	86,00	102,00	3,11	3,27	-,14	,22	,10
75,62	70,00	84,00	3,38	4,46	,36	-,45	,09
267,29	230,00	330,00	20,33	7,60	,39	,07	,07
253,38	221,00	290,00	14,65	5,78	-,12	-,34	,10
531,44	465,00	625,00	33,56	6,31	,26	,24	,08
357,07	314,00	408,00	19,73	5,52	,06	-,21	,06
4,35	3,00	8,80	1,06	24,36	1,60	4,09	,10
7,41	3,60	15,40	2,29	30,90	1,10	1,44	,13
9,70	5,80	16,20	2,25	23,19	,75	,64	,09
4,18	2,60	7,80	1,00	23,92	1,34	2,44	,15
10,85	5,00	25,00	3,70	34,10	1,04	1,84	,11
8,34	3,80	23,20	3,01	36,09	2,06	7,63	,15

Multivariate analysis of the anthropometric characteristics

In continuation of the research, a comparative statistical analysis is conducted in order to confirm the quantum of changes which occur in the anthropometric status of the students. In order to achieve that goal, the differences of the arithmetic means in the appropriate relations are tested. For confirmation of the differences in the entire researched anthropometric space, a multivariate analysis of the variance (MANOVA) is applied; furthermore, for confirmation of the significant statistical intergroup differences between the four measurements, individually for every variable - the LSD test is applied.

From the data in Table 2, where the results of the multivariate analysis of the variance are presented, we can conclude that statistically significant difference of the highest level is present ($p=.00$ or $p<.01$) in the entire system of treated manifested anthropometric variables. Due to this fact, in the further course of the analysis it was possible to analyze the separate contribution of every variable in confirmation of the difference of this kind. So, in relation to the univariate intergroup differences (ANOVA) for every anthropometric variable, existence of statistically significant difference on the level from ($p=.00$) was noted.

Table 2. Multivariate analysis of the variance (MANOVA) of the applied anthropometric variables

Wilks' Lambda	Rao's R	df 1	df 2	p-level
.01	25,53	54	19	.00

	Mean sq	Mean sq	F(df1,2)	
Variables	Effect	Error	3,216	p-level
BW	127,07	3,27	38,82	.00
BH	2269,10	54,49	41,64	.00
LA	390,11	22,26	17,53	.00
LL	499,38	37,37	13,36	.00
DE	7,26	,45	16,02	.00
DW	15,20	,64	23,72	.00
DK	23,13	2,50	9,26	.00
DA	57,99	1,05	55,10	.00
SH	1942,19	36,70	52,92	.00
VR	1855,32	41,98	44,19	.00
VF	8972,09	149,87	59,86	.00
VSH	738,38	25,11	29,41	.00
SATB	12,27	,32	38,33	.00
SAAT	10,05	,85	11,82	.00
SATS	25,37	,80	31,80	.00
SATR	5,80	,34	17,15	.00
SATF	13,65	2,53	5,39	.00
SATSH	28,57	1,67	17,08	.00

From Table 3, where the LSD tests are shown, for confirmation of the statistically different variables we can note that all measurements participate statistically in the univariate differing of the variables. From the analysis of the table, we can see that to the intergroup differences in the variables mostly contributes the fourth measurement (with significantly strongest values); then come the third measurement, the second and the first measurement.

Having considered the results and their analyses, we can freely say that for the period of two academic years (four semesters) the students have experiences significant changes in the entire researched anthropometric space. Therefore, there are firm grounds to accept the statement (hypothesis), that the Special Physical Education significantly contributes to changes of the anthropometric status of the students in the period of studying.

Table 3. (LSD) test for confirmation of the statistically significant intergroup differences between the four measurements for every applied anthropometric variable

BW	(1) 65.82	(2) 65.52	(3) 66.44	(4) 68.46
(1)				
(2)	.31			
(3)	.04*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

BH	(1) 1751.1	(3) 1755.9	(3) 1760.2	(4) 1764.1
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

LL	(1) 916.02	(2) 916.12	(3) 919.67	(4) 921.25
(1)				
(2)	.91			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.12	

DE	(1) 68.16	(2) 68.25	(3) 68.71	(4) 68.78
(1)				
(2)	.46			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.53	

DK	(1) 93.58	(2) 93.96	(3) 94.29	(4) 94.90
(1)				
(2)	.14			
(3)	.00*	.21		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.01*	

DA	(1) 73.62	(2) 74.08	(3) 74.95	(4) 75.62
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

VR	(1) 242.00	(2) 244.79	(3) 243.93	(4) 253.38
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.07	.42		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

VF	(1) 507.78	(2) 517.75	(3) 508.25	(4) 531.44
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.81	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

SATB	(1) 3.64	(2) 3.41	(3) 4.01	(4) 4.35
(1)				
(2)	.01*			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

SAAT	(1) 7.53	(2) 6.90	(3) 6.78	(4) 7.41
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.00*	.42		
(4)	.45	.00*	.00*	

SATR	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	3.95	3.51	3.81	4.18
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.14	.00*		
(4)	.01*	.00*	.00*	

SATF	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	9.87	10.22	10.02	10.85
(1)				
(2)	.18			
(3)	.58	.44		
(4)	.00*	.01*	.00*	

LA	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	758.59	760.67	762.19	764.04
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.00*	.05*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.01*	

VSH	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	349.34	352.48	352.52	357.07
(1)				
(2)	.00*			
(3)	.00*	.96		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

DW	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	56.08	56.42	56.79	57.14
(1)				
(2)	.01*			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.01*	

SATS	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	8.64	8.32	8.92	9.70
(1)				
(2)	.03*			
(3)	.05*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

SH	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	255.42	257.62	260.52	267.29
(1)				
(2)	.02*			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.00*	.00*	

SATSH	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	9.36	8.87	7.92	8.34
(1)				
(2)	.02*			
(3)	.00*	.00*		
(4)	.00*	.01*	.05*	

Conclusion

This research is conducted to determine the changes which occur in the anthropometric characteristics within the students at the Faculty of Security in Skopje, under the influence of the Special Physical Education teaching. According to the conducted analysis and the obtained results from the four measurements, we can state the following:

- The influence of the Special Physical Education teaching has positive effects over the transformations and the development of the manifested anthropometric characteristics. Based on the recorded changes, the teaching showed more obvious positive transformations in some anthropometric characteristics, and less obvious in others.
- There are significant statistical differences between the variables in the entire analyzed multivariate space and univariate differences for each applied anthropometric variable, on the level from $p < 0.1$.

- The greatest contribution in the univariate differentiating of variables from the longitudinal, transversal, and the voluminous subspace has the fourth measurement, whereas from the variables of the subcutaneous subspace, the second and the third measurements are significant.
- The offered educational model (with minor exceptions) gave the expected results; due to this fact, in the next period it is necessary that this model is used significantly in the frames of the current Special Physical Education teaching process.

Bibliography

1. Bala G., Logičke osnove metoda za analizu podataka iz istraživanja u fizičkoj kulturi, Novi Sad, 1990.
2. Blagojević M., Uticaj nastave Specijalnog fizičkog obrazovanja na promene morfoloških i motoričkih karakteristika studenata Policijska Akademije, Ministarstvo za NIT Republike Srbije, Energograf, Beograd, 2002.
3. Dopsaj M., Milošević M., Vučković G., Dijagnostika stanja indeksa telesne mase studenata Policijske akademije, Sportska medicina, br-4, Beograd, 2006, str. 180-191.
4. Ивановски Ј., Следење и евалуација на ефектите од наставниот процес по Специјално физичко образование врз промените во некои биомоторни способности кај студентите на Полициска академија. The paper is presented on the 12th Symposium on sport and physical education of youth in Ohrid.
5. Ivanovski J., Homogenization of groups with the purpose of efficiency improvement in the subject of Special physical education, Thematic conference proceedings of international significance, Beograd, 2011, pp.145-154.
6. Ивановски Ј., Латентна структура на антропометрискиот простор кај студентите на Факултетот за безбедност, Хоризонти бр.7, Битола, 2011, стр.593-601.
7. Јакимов Ј., Специјално физичко образование, Полициска академија, Скопје, 2006.
8. Јакимов Ј., Двегодишно влијание на организирани наставни содржини врз некои антропометриски показатели и базично моторни способности кај студентите на Факултетот за безбедност во Скопје, Физичка култура бр.1-2, Скопје, 1995, стр. 39-41.

9. Јакимов Ј., Глобален модел за Специјално физичко образование како дел од системот за едукација и континуирана надградба на кадрите од областа на безбедноста, Годишник на Факултетот за безбедност, Скопје, 1998, стр. 56-58.
10. Јанковиќ Р., Коропановски Н., Vučković G., Trend promene osnovnih antropometrijskih karakteristika studenata Kriminalističko-policijske akademije u toku studija, Nauka, bezbednost, policija, br.2, Beograd, 2008, str.137-152.

INTEGRATING SPECIALIZED VOCABULARY IN MATERIALS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE AREA OF SECURITY

Vesna Trajkovska, M.A.
trajkovska_vesna@yahoo.com
Faculty of Security - Skopje

Abstract

Successful integration of specialized vocabulary is a key feature of the ESP (English for specific purposes) courses. This implies a great effort on the part of the course designers and the teachers regarding the selection, adaptation and presentation of vocabulary items related to the specific area of study of the students.

This paper deals with a range of different strategies which can be used for integrating specialized terminology in materials for teaching English in the area of security and law enforcement. It offers a wide variety of exercises and activities aimed at successful acquisition of specialized terminology, while simultaneously improving students' skills in the aspect of reading, listening, speaking and writing.

Key words: specialized vocabulary, English for specific purposes, strategies, security

Introduction

The key goal which a foreign language instruction based on the communicative approach strives to achieve - is to develop students' communicative competence which would enable them to efficiently communicate in various contexts and situations. As far as the ESP courses are concerned, this aim can additionally be narrowed to development of students' communicative competence in the specific area of study in which they are educated. One of the prerequisites for accomplishing this goal is to provide students with sufficient input in terms of specialized vocabulary, and prepare them for conducting meaningful conversations related to various topics in the context of the relevant subject area.

Bearing in mind the wide variety of branches that ESP teaching covers, it becomes clear that designing courses for each of these branches depends directly on the specificity of the target area of study and the needs of the respective target group. This practically means that the choice of the

lexical forms and structures which will be included in the specific course should be based on the vocabulary which is related to the respective area of study. In other words, the vocabulary for business English courses has to differ from the vocabulary included in medical English or legal English, and activities through which these lexical items will be acquired, must be put in a real-life context typical for the corresponding area.

In order to show how the above-mentioned goals can successfully be implemented in the ESP courses, in the following sections we will present some of the strategies that can be employed in the communicative drills for students of the subject of English for law enforcement. The activities and exercises used for this purpose are designed by the author and have been used as classroom materials for the students at the Faculty of Security in Skopje.

The role and position of vocabulary in various teaching methods

Historical overview

The need for developing methodology for foreign language teaching was closely related to the introduction of foreign languages in the curricula worldwide in the 18th century. Up to the 18th century, foreign language instruction referred solely to teaching Latin - as Latin was the only globally spread language which served as a language for international communication for centuries before. This is the reason why, even the introduction of other languages to the group of foreign languages taught at all levels of education did not bring any changes as far as methodology was concerned - at least in its initial stage. It drew on the already established "Latin" model, and the textbooks used for the purpose of teaching were, to a great extent, copies of the ones used for teaching Latin.

Bearing in mind the privileged position that Latin enjoyed in the period up to the 18th century, it is not surprising that little was done as far as the development of the teaching methodology was concerned. Moreover, we should not be surprised by the fact that even teaching of the then "new" languages was organized on the basis of Latin teaching methodology. This period was characterized by the so called grammar - translation approach, and lasted up to the second part of the 19th century. What characterized this approach was the emphasis on grammar as the core component of learning a foreign language. The lessons were organized in relation to specific grammar points, and students were required to memorize the rules and try to apply them in translating complex sentences. The role of the vocabulary was marginalized, and students were only given long vocabulary lists which had

to be remembered and used in the function of acquiring grammar and linguistic knowledge. As far as the selection of vocabulary items is concerned, they were strictly related to reading texts. The words were presented in the form of bilingual lists and they were practiced solely through translation exercises.

The 19th century brought certain changes in the aspect of evolution of the language teaching methodology. One of the greatest innovations of this period was the development of the direct method as an attempt to move away from the old translation method which turned out to be ineffective and obsolete. The direct method evolved on the basis of the assumption that spoken language is the primary focus and goal of instruction. Words were not taught in an isolated manner, and instruction was carried out in the target language, with the use of words which were already known to the students. Instead of complex vocabulary which formed the basis of the grammar-translation method, now students were taught basic, simple everyday vocabulary. Concrete vocabulary was introduced by demonstrations, pictures or objects, while abstract vocabulary was presented through associations of ideas.

In the 20th century, several new approaches were developed, but for the purpose of our paper we will describe only the ones which had the greatest impact on the theory and practice of foreign language teaching and acquisition. This is undoubtedly true for situational language teaching which evolved around the notion of speech as the basis of the language. The knowledge of specific language structures was closely related to their practical use in concrete, real-life contexts and situations. As to the vocabulary, the novelty introduced by situational language teaching was that explanation of new words had been discouraged, and the meaning of new lexical items was logically induced from the manner in which they were used in the given situation. (Richards, 2001:41).

After the end of the Second World War, the situational approach was replaced by the audio-lingual method. The focus of the audio-lingual method was on the development of oral fluency / proficiency, and the teaching of vocabulary, among the other language skills, was primarily oriented towards the achievement of a greater oral fluency. Dialogues and drills became the key elements of classroom practice, and students were required to memorize and repeat certain linguistic structures by the context of the imitation. The syllabus was linguistic, or structure-based, and vocabulary was given secondary importance. Students only acquired the vocabulary necessary for practicing the given patterns.

The revolution in the language teaching methodology came with the development of communicative language teaching (CLT), in the 1970s. The main novelty introduced by CLT was the shift of focus towards the

development of students' communicative competence, as opposed to their grammatical competence which made the essence of the majority of all previous approaches. Within CLT, the new vocabulary was acquired and practiced through students' involvement in various interactive activities aimed at enabling them to negotiate meaning and participate in communicative situations in various authentic contexts, simulating real-life experiences.

Specialized vocabulary: definition and categorization

The brief historical overview of foreign language teaching methods leads us to conclusion that vocabulary has always been given high degree of importance, irrespective of the manner in which it was integrated into the curriculum. However, all these practices mainly refer to general foreign language courses and are applicable to "ordinary" learners. ESP courses, on the other hand, differ from the general language courses in many aspects, the essential difference being the selection and presentation of the lexical input. Namely, ESP students should receive two different types of input:

- general knowledge of English, and
- knowledge of specialized vocabulary.

What makes ESP courses specific is the specialized vocabulary which constitutes the core of the content-based lessons comprising the English language syllabus. This esoteric vocabulary is "critical for communicating and for conceptual learning within that particular domain" (Farstrup & Samuels, 2008:155). Specialized vocabulary can also be referred to as "technical vocabulary", where a technical word is defined as one that is "recognizably specific to a particular topic, field or discipline" (Nation, 2001:198). It can also be defined as a word whose specialized meaning is unknown to somebody who does not possess relevant expert knowledge (Hoffman, 1985:76 as cited in Thoma 2011:04). This practically means that determination of the scope and selection of specialized lexical items cannot be done solely by semanticists, based on purely semantic grounds. It actually requires consultations with experts in the specific field, with the aim to specifically identify and systematize all possible nuances that might appear between certain concepts. According to Thoma (2011:104), specialized vocabulary can further be subdivided into two types:

- sub-technical vocabulary (common specialized / semi-technical) and
- technical vocabulary (specialized vocabulary in the narrow sense).

The difference between these two types can be best explained on the grounds of the frequency with which they occur and the variety of contexts

in which they are used. Thus, sub-technical vocabulary is not restricted exclusively to a specific field, but it can be used in broader, general contexts as well. Yet, their frequency of occurrence is higher in scientific texts. Technical vocabulary, on the other hand, is “reserved” for specialized contexts. The group of technical lexical items covers polysemous words whose meaning is:

- more precise or restricted,
- different but accessible, or
- completely different in a certain discipline.

Apart from these three categories, technical vocabulary may also include words with meaning which is highly specific or even more - “unambiguously” defined. (Ibid).

Selection and presentation of specialized vocabulary in course materials for teaching English in the area of security

Having considered the features of specialized vocabulary and its importance for the acquisition of lexical knowledge relevant to the specific field of study, it becomes clear that this segment should be given high priority in the process of designing course materials for teaching English in all areas, including the area of security. The initial stage of this process is the selection of appropriate lexical corpus and the criteria for its collection and inclusion in the teaching materials. The selection should be grounded on the particular needs of the students and their level of knowledge of English. The determination of the lexical content which should be selected for this purpose results from the analysis of the needs which is carried out in the pre-selection process and serves as an indicator both of the factual level of proficiency in English and the topics and type of vocabulary that would best answer students’ linguistic needs and expectations from the course. The key objective which has to be achieved is to present the language (and this accounts for the specialized vocabulary as well) in “authentic contexts - to make the learners acquainted with the particular ways in which the language is used in functions that they will need to perform in their field of specialty or profession”¹. In the case of the vocabulary of law enforcement English, specialized vocabulary should be related to the top-ranked topics in the assessment of the needs. Based on our experience in teaching and course material design, our analysis of the needs carried out a few years ago

¹ Source: Lorenzo Fiorito, *Teaching English for specific Purposes*, available at: <http://www.usingenglish.com/articles/teaching-english-for-specific-purposes-esp.html>, accessed on February 29th, 2012

revealed that students were mostly interested in topics like crime scene investigation, human trafficking, terrorism, domestic violence, juvenile delinquency etc. which are in close correlation with the contents taught within the other subjects in the course of their academic studies. However, for organizing courses for specific profiles who would specialize in one particular segment of security, it is necessary to include a greater portion of highly specialized lexical items, but only after consultations with a subject specialist.

After the selection process is completed, the next step refers to the adequate presentation of selected lexical corpus to the students, in the form of carefully thought-out and designed lessons. Course designers may generally be faced with the following situations: the specialized vocabulary in question may either consist of

- cognate words, or
- non-cognate words.

Cognates can generally be defined as words whose form and meaning are similar or identical in different languages. This category of lexical items are most easily acquired by students due to their identical or slightly modified and adapted form in terms of their orthographic representation, pronunciation and morphological inflections in their mother tongue. In this case we are talking about internationalisms or, in recent years, anglicisms which have become part of the lexical corpora of the majority of the world languages. However, students should be warned about the possibility of existence of the so called “false friends” or “false cognates”. They are defined as “words that have the same or similar forms in different languages but have different meanings in each”, and may mislead students in grasping their correct meaning. For example the English root “traffic” is very similar to the Macedonian word “trafika” (a kiosk), and sometimes it happens that students translate the derived form “trafficker” (a person who traffics with humans) with “trafikant” (a person who works in a kiosk), following the analogy of inflectionally deriving new words denoting a person whose profession is related to the root concept. As for the other category, when students are introduced to non-cognates or completely unfamiliar words, it is necessary to apply various strategies and techniques for their easier presentation and acquisition. The following are some of the strategies used for this purpose:

Pre-teaching unfamiliar words

This strategy is employed in certain cases when new vocabulary is introduced through a listening comprehension activity, so students are given

certain instruction about the new words that they will come across in the listening exercise. This may be used as a pre-listening activity and can be implemented through collocation matching, definition matching, true / false or multiple choice questions etc.

Presenting new vocabulary through word-formation

A majority of ESP teachers would agree that teaching new vocabulary through the prism of word building is a very practical and useful method that may be applied particularly for ESP courses. As an example we would illustrate this strategy with the word “*crime*” and some of its derivatives by means of affixation (both suffixation and prefixation). The following is the simplified example for this root word and its derived forms:

CRIME – *criminal* – *criminalize* – *criminology* – *crimeless* - *criminality* - *criminally* - *incriminate* - *discriminate* etc.

Presenting new vocabulary through synonyms / antonyms

This presentation strategy has been widely used and accepted both by teachers and students, particularly because of the relatively easier way for acquiring new terminology by logically combining the pairs of words with opposite or similar meanings. In the case of antonyms, words may be divided into three broader categories:

- antonyms derived by prefixation (e.g. *legal* - *illegal*, *lawful* - *unlawful*, *violent* - *non-violent* etc.),
- antonyms derived by suffixation (e.g. *careful* - *careless*, *harmful* - *harmless*, *merciful* - *merciless* etc.) and
- antonyms with an entirely new form (e.g. *captivity* - *freedom*, *guilty* - *innocent*, *plaintiff* - *defendant* etc.)

Word matching

In this case, new lexical items are presented by matching them to pictures, definitions, etc. We may illustrate this strategy with the topic of car parts. Namely, this category of vocabulary can be presented by two pictures showing different parts of the car:

- internal parts (e.g. *gear lever*, *accelerator pedal*, *ignition key* etc.), or
- external parts (e.g. *bonnet*, *windshield*, *wing mirror* etc.).

In addition, students may be given several pictures where drivers perform various manoeuvres with the cars which correspond to appropriate actions presented in the form of verbs or phrases (e.g. *to overtake*, *to pull up*, *to speed up* etc.)

Visual reference

One of the most effective presentation strategies is the one when new lexical items are linked to their corresponding visual representations. This can be achieved by using photographs, flashcards, drawings, diagrams, etc. and this method has proved quite efficient in practice, since new vocabulary is best memorized when it is linked to its concrete visual counterpart. However, the scope of this strategy is limited solely to those words which have corresponding visual referents. As for the abstract notions, other strategies should be searched for.

Systematic presentation of new words

Sometimes it is recommended to introduce new lexical items by organizing them in a systematic manner, based on a specific feature. One of the possible options is to select a broader term which functions as an “umbrella” and covers a given number of narrower words incarnating segments of broader concepts. To illustrate this method, we may take the example of the word “*gun*” as a general concept and its constituent parts (e.g. *trigger*, *magazine*, *cylinder* etc.) as more specific concepts derived from it.

Types of exercises / activities designed for acquiring and practicing of the acquired specialized vocabulary in the area of security

The processes of selecting and presenting specialized vocabulary described in the previous section both refer to the provision of sufficient lexical input through “student- friendly” strategies which would raise and keep students’ interest and motivation for learning the language. However, the acquisition process can only be completed by providing a wide variety of opportunities for encouraging feedback in the form of students’ lexical output. For meeting these goals, ESP course designers have at their disposal a plethora of exercises - activities and tasks that may be combined in a multitude of ways, aimed at fostering students’ interaction as well as pair and group work. In this section we will present several different types of exercises, some of which are derived from the older teaching methods but are still present and used by ESP teachers, while others are based on the previously described communicative language teaching within a context-based background. The following is the list of activities of the “traditional” type:

Gap-filling

This type of exercises are very convenient for providing students with an opportunity to practise the use of new words in the context presented by a specific sentence or paragraph, which is particularly useful for ESP courses. Gap-filling exercises can be classified as:

- second and the third measurements are significant.
e.g. Money laundering refers to the legitimization of _____ (key: illegally) obtained money to hide its true _____ (key: source).
- Multiple-choice (choosing the appropriate answer from several offered ones)
e.g. Money laundering refers to the legitimization of _____ obtained money...
a) legally
b) justly
c) illegally

Matching

Exercises of this type can be given in various forms. For example, students may be asked:

- to match the words with the appropriate definition:

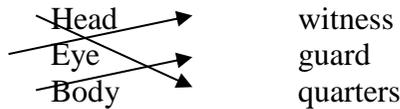
witness	→	a person who commits an illegal,
criminal, or evil act	←	
coroner	→	a person who can give a firsthand account of something seen, heard, or experienced
perpetrator	→	a public official who investigates by inquest any death not due to natural causes
- to match collocations:

white-collar	→	alert
juvenile	→	punishment
bomb	→	crime
capital	→	delinquency
- to match words to corresponding situations / sentences:

Treason	→	“The poor boy was humiliated and insulted by
his schoolmates.”	←	

Bullying “Peter acted against the interests of the state
and was
sentenced to 10 years imprisonment.”
Hooliganism “Fans of rival football teams rushed
into the stadium,
throwing stones and sticks at each other.”

- to match compound words:



True / False statements

This type of practice is most commonly used with developing students’ reading skills. Such exercises are usually given in the form of follow-up reading comprehension statements which have to be marked either as true or false.

Identifying odd words

Another way for checking students’ understanding of crime-related concepts is by their presentation in groups of several words, where only one word has some characteristics which make it different from the other ones. Students have the task to find out which one it is, and eliminate it from the group.

e.g. prison	cell	guard
<u>polygraph</u>		
kidnapper	shoplifter	<u>assassination</u> mugger
investigate	detain	<u>custody</u> interrogate

All examples presented so far fall within the category of the traditional language instruction methodology. They essentially focus on students’ ability to recognize certain lexical items presented to them in various kinds of exercises. However, in the introductory section we pointed out to the importance of communicative competence of ESP students which can be developed through their involvement in tasks that stimulate their interaction and functional use of newly acquired vocabulary in various situations emulating real-life contexts. As Nation & Cody (1988:100) put it, the aim of vocabulary instruction is “to develop fluency of access to word meaning, and integrate the learned words into existing semantic networks”.

Students are best at memorizing and acquiring new lexical items when they have actually done something with the new words that they consider useful, which is logically expected from them due to the pragmatic nature of the language. They need to be given exercises that place them in simulated, real-life situations, and this was perhaps best described by McArthur who elaborated on students' "desire for realism" as the major innovation of modern language teaching (McArthur, 1983:101). This aim can only be achieved by exposing students to adequate lexical input and designing interactive tasks that would prove their "usefulness". Some of the possible solutions are offered below:

Role-plays

This type of task is particularly useful for teaching English to law enforcement students. The nature of their future profession implies necessity of frequent engagement in dialogues or group discussions in a variety of contexts. Role-plays are suitable for teaching language functions, and some of the sample situations that may be role-played include:

- Dialogue between a police officer and a criminal / a witness / a victim etc. in the form of an interview
- Dialogue between a police officer and a citizen
- Dialogue between a traffic ward and a driver
- Participation in a meeting, discussion, conference etc. where several students are assigned different roles they need to play, based on the given clues and specific vocabulary etc.

Games

The selection of games which would be integrated in the ESP syllabus should be done in accordance with the specificities of the target area to which that syllabus refers. Teachers or course designers may either create new games or adapt the existing ones. For the purpose of our paper we propose two games that may be useful for teaching English in the area of security: "Alibi" and "Bingo". The "Alibi" game is most convenient for teaching and practicing the vocabulary of the legal procedure. A crime has been committed and a student or a group of students are the main suspects. Their task is to prepare their alibi and act out the interrogation process with other students from the class. This activity is similar to a simulation of a trial, where students are given the roles of the participants in the trial: a defendant, a defence lawyer, a prosecutor, a victim, a judge, members of the jury etc. Using the vocabulary specific to trial procedures, students practise presenting their arguments and opinions.

“Bingo” is another game which can be used for any topic within English language instruction. In the context of security, this game may serve as the basis for practising the acquisition of concrete specialized vocabulary. To illustrate its usefulness for this purpose, we propose practicing of vocabulary which refers to equipment related to crime scene examination. Students listen to the descriptions of the items and their task is to identify them with the pictures on their individual cards, and the first one to guess three in a row wins. In addition, students may be asked to provide further details about the guessed items, so as to practise both their listening and speaking skills.²

Information-gap tasks

Activities of this type are aimed at developing students’ communicative competence which makes the core of CLT. They are applicable when students have the task of obtaining missing information in a specific situation. As far as English for law enforcement is concerned, this type of task may be used in an activity where students are divided into two groups, and each group is given a picture of a crime scene. Both pictures refer to the same crime scene, but there are certain differences in terms of the objects found there. Students are supposed to ask each other questions and try to identify as many differences as possible. This is a very good exercise for practising vocabulary related to crime scene investigation, and asking for detailed description of places.

Map-reading tasks

Spatial orientation is a very important aspect of police work, especially in those cases when police officers are deployed in foreign missions, on a territory which is entirely unknown to them. This is the reason why within task completion exercises, ESP teachers and course designers should also include the activity in which students practise reading maps on the basis of oral instructions. They start from one specific point marked on the map and should arrive at their final destination. This is a good opportunity for practising the language of maps, and also the words denoting movements.

Creative writing

² For more suggestions about the use of these and other games in ESP teaching, see Penny Mac Donald et al. “Creative ways of teaching vocabulary in ESP”, in “Jornades Catalanes sobre Llengües per a Finalitats Específiques”, Universitat de Barcelona, 1999, pp. 181-187

In order to equally develop all language skills, students should also be engaged in tasks which stimulate the development of their writing skills in a creative manner. There is a wide variety of activities that may be used for achieving this goal, and one of the most effective ones is to give students a list of content-based vocabulary and ask them to combine the words in a kind of a structured written form. They may write a diary, design pieces of art like poetry or prose, posters, letters etc. Another alternative which we have found to be very successful is to give them a newspaper headline on a specific topic whose vocabulary is being taught, and ask them to write the story using as many specialized terms as possible. They may work in several groups, and after the completion of the tasks they share the stories and compare them to the original one.

Conclusion

The elaboration on the issue of teaching and acquiring vocabulary presented in the paper leads us to conclusion that this segment should be attached great importance by ESP course designers and instructors. There are numerous ways for integration of the specific vocabulary and its presentation to the students, and course designers must be very careful in selection of the activities which will meet the needs of the target ESP students in the most efficient manner. In this paper we presented only a few solutions that we have used in our teaching practice with students of English in the area of security. The positive reaction of the students and their increased communicative competence and knowledge of specialized vocabulary is definitely a good indicator that we are following the right course towards educating linguistically and communicatively competent individuals who will be able to functionally use English in a wide variety of contexts relevant to their profession.

Bibliography

- Dieter Thoma, 2009, *Strategic Attention in Language Testing, Metacognition in a yes/no Business English Vocabulary Test*, Peter Lang
- Farstrup Alan E., & Samuels S. Jay, 2008, *What Research has to Say about Vocabulary Instruction*, International Reading Association
- Georgieva Valentina, Teaching terms Effectively in ESP, available at <http://www.beta-iatefl.org/1638/blog-publications/teaching-terms-effectively-in-esp/>, retrieved on 29.02.2012
- Lorenzo Fiorito, *Teaching English for specific Purposes*, available at: <http://www.usingenglish.com/articles/teaching-english-for-specific-purposes-esp.html>, retrieved on 29.02.2012

MacArthur, T. A Foundation Course for Language teachers, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1983

Nation, I. S. P. 2001, *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Nation P, & J.Cody, 1988. *Vocabulary and Reading*, in Carter, R., & Mc Carthy, M., *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Penny Mac Donald et al. 1999 .“Creative ways of teaching vocabulary in ESP”, in “Jornades Catalanes sobre Llengües per a Finalitats Específiques”, Universitat de Barcelona, pp 181-187

Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. 2001. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

PERSONALITY AS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR FOR SUCCESSFUL TRAINING IN POLICE AND OTHER SECURITY PROFESSIONS

Dimitrovska Aleksandra, M.A

sandrapsiho@yahoo.com

Psychologist at the Faculty of Security - Skopje

Abstract

Police as well as the other security professions are characterized by high complexity, stress, uncertainty, and other similar situations which are often risky for the lives of the officers as well as of the citizens. In the literature, it is repeatedly mentioned that police is more than only a profession. Police officers are at the crossroads between law enforcement and protection of human rights and freedoms. The description of the work, especially of the officers who are directly exposed to danger as operative workers, requires quick and appropriate decision making in various unpredictable and unpleasant situations. In such situations, police officers depend on their competence, their familiarity with the law regulations, their professional skills, and finally - their suitable personality predispositions. In order to bring the right decision, among many other aspects, it is necessary an appropriate training and readiness of the personnel in the security establishments.

Taking into consideration that policemen meet very sensitive and specific tasks all the time, despite the eventual level of education at the appropriate educational institutions, the Ministry of Interior (MOI) and the other state or private security establishments are forced to invest big financial and other resources for training and specialization of the staff which is already employed and paid. Furthermore, for all the training to be successfully applied, officers must be psychologically competent for their particular work positions and various special situations. In short, not everyone can work the same type of work; neither can everybody be trained for everything. This involves the necessity of effective psychological screening in the process of selection, classification and retraining of the personnel working in the domain of this state segment.

This paper will explain the importance of psychological screening for the police profession and the way it is implemented in several countries worldwide which have included various psychological instruments in their legislation for selection of personnel in the security services; these instruments are permanently utilized and reviewed in order to find out who would be the "ideal" persons for successful carrying out of police responsibilities.

Key words: *personality, psychological screening, police profession, security, training*

Introduction

The specificity and the high complexity of the stressful tasks faced by police officers in doing police work derive from the very position and role of the police segment in society. Given that the effectiveness of Police is a significant factor for development and maintenance of peace and order in the state, a special care for protection of the mental health of police officers is very important. In addition, in order to be properly understood, personality of police officers should be considered only as a cell of the system in which the police segment is created, functions and is reflected on the society. Furthermore, the extent to which police officers successfully perform their purposive tasks is an indicator of the development level of the consciousness within the population in the state. This factor is very important, out of the reason that on the population consciousness depend all further development steps in every field of a certain society. Police officers are one part of this population, as well as the direct perpetrators of the police institution. Thus, to answer the questions related to the personality of police officers, it is necessary to give an explanation of the role of police in the society nowadays.

The place and role of the Police in a democratic society

The police establishment is a state and a social product of the time and type of society to which it belongs, and as such, it reflects the features of the respective society and subjects to transformations parallel to the changes in that society at a certain time. During the absolutist monarchies, the police followed the commandments of the king and performed their duties without being subordinated to any mandatory rules of behavior. Unlike the absolutist reigns, in a contemporary capitalist society the work of the police is lawfully regulated and their responsibilities vary, depending on the state and the period of their development¹.

It is also implied that police nowadays is a part of the democratic society², but on the other side, it is also a part of the state apparatus which is "the most exposed forward" in performing activities for prevention from security threats: mainly threats on the lives of the citizens and their property within the state, and if necessary - threats on the state in general. In other words, police protect from violation of human rights and freedoms within the state, guaranteed by the Constitution. In performing their function, police

¹ Jugovic, S., Miletic, S., (2009). *Legislation on Internal Affairs*. Belgrade: KPA

² Stojanovski, T., (1997). *Police in the Democratic Society*. Skopje: 2 August

officers are obliged to abide by the law regulations given by the democratically elected representatives of the people. In the implementation of these regulations, police have a special responsibility: they are in charge of supervision and control determined in a specific way in the state system. On the other hand, police action can be successful only if they manage to provide balance between the two areas, on one side - the state, i.e. the law, and on the other - the citizens. This is achievable only by mutual support and cooperation with the whole community in which the police acts. For this purpose, public acceptance of the police is essential, together with the activities and behavior of police officers toward the community and the citizens. In this respect, the police officers must adhere to the highest standards of ethical behavior³ when performing their duties. In short, police officers alongside their professional engagements, have to permanently direct the way of their conduct towards encouragement of the social consensus in development of institutional support and mechanisms for cohabitation among the citizens. In order to achieve all this, it is necessary to knit together all of the already mentioned factors: psychological predispositions, proper training, obeying of the law regulations, etc.

Police work - more than a profession

According to the complexity of the role and function of the police segment in society, and together with that - the position and tasks of the police officers arising from the very essence of this profession, the performance of police work is said to be very delicate; that is why it is considered to be more than only a profession. Police officers perform their duties within the Ministry of Interior; their duties are lawfully regulated by the Law on Interior Affairs (LIA) and the Law on Police. Specifics of the police activity can be given in several points, such as:

- **Police is a segment of the criminal justice system** - its organs have a role of auxiliary, ancillary subjects in the preliminary investigative procedures and investigation.⁴
- **Police is a segment of the Ministry of Interior;** Police officers perform **police tasks**⁵, having constant obligation to act in

³ regulated by the UN Codex of Conduct of officers who enforce the law and the Codex of Police Ethics

⁴ Matovski, N. (2003). *Law on Criminal Procedure*. Faculty of Law „Justinijan I“, Skopje, Stip: 2 August

⁵ Protection of life, personal safety and property of the citizens; protection of freedoms and rights of the citizens guaranteed by the Constitution of RM, laws and ratified international agreements; prevention from committing crimes and misdemeanors; detection and apprehension of perpetrators and undertaking other measures for their prosecution,

accordance with the rights, duties and authorizations established by the *Constitution* and *Legislation* - official materials and documents curtailed by the law with *classification degree*, and such that undergo regular legal procedures and sanctions⁶.

- Police organization is characterized by strictly defined **hierarchical structure**, where positions are clearly arranged in accordance with the responsibilities and powers of the officers; police officers are obliged to perform their tasks by the written or verbal orders which they receive from their immediate or higher-level superiors⁷.
- In performing police affairs, police officers are assigned to apply **police authorizations**⁸.
- In doing police work, **several general principles** have to be obeyed: the principle of many principles, the principles of opportunity and effectiveness; the principle of legality, the principle of proportionality and the principle of cooperation⁹, from which the first one implies that police officers have to know which principle is prior in different situations and according to it - bring decisions for acting one way or another.
- Police work, within any democratic society, **covers two areas of action**:
 - promotion and protection of human rights and freedoms, and

stipulated by the law; maintenance of the public order and peace; regulation and control over the traffic on the roads; control of movement and residence of foreigners; state border security and control over its crossing; help to and protection of citizens in case of facilities; securing of certain persons and objects, and other works specified in the LIA, OG of RM br.92/09

⁶ Police Law, GO of RM, No.114/06

⁷ Codex of Police Ethics, OG of RM No. 72 / 11.06.2007 and Guidelines on the way of behavior and relations among police officers, OG of RM No. 65 / 30.05.2007

⁸ Checking and determining the identity of persons and things; collecting information; calling; arrest; retention; search of persons and objects; diversion, directing or limitation of the movement of persons and vehicles in a certain area for a given period of time; warning and ordering; temporary confiscation of objects; overview or trial of determined objects and premises of the state organs, institutions that perform public authorities and other legal entities and insight into certain documentation; stopping, overview or trial of persons, baggage and vehicles; securing and overview of the spot of the event; receiving reports; public announcement of awards; recording of public places; collection, processing, analyzing, using, evaluating, transferring, storing and deleting data, and processing of personal data under conditions and modules established by the law; protection of persons covered by the regulations for protection of witnesses; use of means of force, use of special investigative measures and covert sources of data, determined by the LIA, OG of RM, No.92/09

⁹ Jugovic, S., Miletic, S., (2009). *Legislation on Internal Affairs*. Belgrade: KPA, pp. 144 - 57

- implementation of legal authorizations to protect the government and the citizens, among which an equilibrium must constantly be established.¹⁰

- PS have the same civil and political **rights** as other citizens of the state, except in cases provided by the law, but LIA provides them with specific obligations as well.
- **Control over the employees** at the MOI is carried out on 3 separate levels¹¹:
 - evaluation of the direct supervisors,
 - disciplinary responsibility - front of separate commission and
 - internal and external control, which tells us about the responsibility of work and level of attention that are required from the police officers.
- **The procedure of selection, reassignment and promotion** of the employees in MOI is determined by LIA and some individual regulations which are made by the Commission established by the Minister of Interior. The procedure of selection consists of five stages:
 1. administrative review;
 2. written test - professional exam, general education test and psychological test;
 3. check of the motor skills;
 4. face-to-face interviews, and
 5. medical examinations,¹²

At the end, the Commission gives the final evaluation, in terms of declaring the candidates as capable or incapable of performing the work.¹³

All of the above mentioned suggests that successful performance of police duties, besides the appropriate training and skills of the police officers (as a human factor of the police establishment), assumes that they should also possess adequate psychological predispositions and preconditions for successful performance of their individual tasks and combined work activities, as well as for increasing of the resistance to high levels of stress

¹⁰ Jankulovski, Z., Kalajdjiev, G., Stojanovski, T., Zafirovski, V., (2003). *The Police and Human Rights: Guide for Police Training. Helsinki Committee for Human Rights of the Republic of Macedonia* Skopje: Skenpoint

¹¹ Regulation of procedure for evaluating the AOP, the contents of the report on the evaluation and the manner of keeping evidence, GO, No.126 / Oct 16th, 2009

¹² Regulations of manner and procedure of selection and election of persons employed in the MOI, GO of RM No.128 / Oct 22nd, 2009 and Regulations of procedure and manner of work of the commission for selection of candidates for policeman GO of RM, No.128 / Oct, 22nd 2009

¹³ Guidelines on manner of work of the Health commission authorized for determination of the psycho-physical health and ability of the police officer for performing police responsibilities, GO of RM, No. 70 / June 05th, 2007

typical for this profession. For this purpose, countries in the world place a great emphasis on the development and implementation of programs for selection of personnel in the police establishments in which a special place and role take the assessment of personality profile and the abilities of the police employees, *psychological screening* and implementation of the appropriate mechanisms for protection of their mental health as a result of stress characteristic for this profession.

Although in the Republic of Macedonia there is a legal provision which includes psychological testing in the selection process of the personnel of MOI, the practice shows that the outcome of this testing is strictly formal and it is useful only in enrollment of the prospective staff; we still lack monitoring and psychological assessment in classification and promotion of police officers. This fact increases the price which has to be paid when unsuitable persons are assigned to obligations in which they are put in at the deep end. For these reasons, there must be some prior training courses which would bring to easier adjustment of the personnel to their responsibilities.

Psychological screening in the Police profession

Historical development

The idea of psychosocial testing of police recruits was first proposed in 1931 by Wickersham Commission¹⁴, which was mainly focused on measuring human intelligence. This refers to the first trend of development of police psychology, which is focused on *assessment of the mental abilities* of prospective police officers and it is an attempt of psychologists to identify the intellectual skills which are necessary for becoming an effective police officer.

About three decades later, it was discovered that the effective police performance does not depend to a great extent on intellectual capabilities, as it depends on the relevant dispositions of personality. The second trend focuses on the *development of instruments* that will provide for *a better assessment of the personality* or would be helpful in distinguishing of effective from ineffective police officers. Initiation of the second trend came by the Report of the President of the Commission for Implementation and Administration of Law in the United States, 1967¹⁵, which recommended widely-spread use of psychological tests in order to determine the emotional stability of all candidates to enter the police services, or eliminate the

¹⁴ Wickersham Commission reports (1931). Report on the Police, No.14. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office

¹⁵ The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice. (1967). *Task Force Report*: Washington, DC: USGPO. (Reprinted in 1990 by Ayer Company, Publishers, Inc., Salem, NH)

emotionally unstable candidates as inappropriate for this kind of activities. In addition, it was decided that the combination of multiple tests with verbal interviews is a very useful method for detecting the most serious personnel flaws. As it was recommended by the Commission, significant funds were provided for the law enforcement agencies for maintenance of the mental health of the police officers; this also includes specially trained psychologists. Thus, the foundation tends to identify the emotionally stable police officers without any prejudice, and the psychologists were asked to put the emphasis on the psychopathology of personality. A great number of the agencies began using the MMPI. The idea was supported by the National Advisory Committee for legal standards and goals¹⁶, which, in 1973, recommended to each law-enforcement agency, utilization of the psychological components in the process of selection of the personnel. In 1986 however, the police department of psychological services at the International Association of Police Chiefs has proposed its first guide-book of which the final revision was done in 2004. This guide-book refers to the ethical principles and standards of the APA which should include all the measures for performance of psychological screening for selection of the police staff. The guide-book further recommended avoiding of psychiatric labeling and its use only in cases where it is necessary for assessing of the personality dispositions which have an important impact over the police performance, and for finding out which are the characteristics that would saturate the basic functions of the position. Another organization that has supported psychological screening is the International Association of Directors of Law Enforcement Standards and Training (IADLEST)¹⁷, which also recommended that “legislation should require psychological screening for all candidates in selection and redeployment, which will detect those whose mental lacks directly reduce the possibility for safe functioning and effectiveness in performing their responsibilities, or possess characteristics that increase the tendency toward unnecessary violence and poor control of impulses.”¹⁸

The psychological screening in the selection process of the police officers today is legally implemented and actively used in most of the countries. Given that police psychology is a new science with its beginnings of up to fifty years ago, officially initiated in the USA (although there is some unofficial information about secret engaging of psychologists in the

¹⁶ National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals. (1973). *Police*. Washington, DC: USGPO

¹⁷ IADLEST (2005). IADLEST Model Minimum Standards. (available at www.iadlest.org/modelmin/htm)

¹⁸ Pre-employment Psychological Evaluation Services Guidelines. (2004). Ratified by the IACP Police Psychological Services Section. Available through www.IACP.org

framework of police forces in several countries in the world much earlier), the aspect of psychological screening in the world is currently under research. In this direction, when the assessment of personality profile is discussed, two major issues or research branches are emphasized:

- *Research of the personality profile of the police officers and searching for the ideal profile* - which tries to find certain dispositions which would provide for successful work performance, but there is little evidence that psychologists can accomplish this goal completely.
- *Finding the most appropriate instrument for psychological screening of the police personnel* – there have been many attempts in the last 30 years in this respect, but the unique test which will be the most appropriate predictor for successful performance on the field has not yet been found.

These unanswered questions are current dilemmas in this area even in the present days. Countries in the world invest significant financial means for these researches, and discussions are broadly opened in order to answer the needs.

Problems related to the psychological screening in police profession

Although the need for appropriate selection of the candidates is quite obvious, the selection of the police personnel is more difficult to conduct than in the other professions. On one side, there is *no ground for errors* because of the seriousness of the responsibilities¹⁹ of those dealing with security professions as well as because of the inevitability of negative consequences in cases of application of inappropriate solutions. Moreover, such consequences reflect on the individual officer as well as on his / her colleagues and the wider community; on the other side, here is the *lack of the psychological instrument used for selection*, which is still abstract in police compared to many other contexts. This comes as a result of the *"multiaspect" nature* of the police profession and the difficulty in finding out relevant and reliable *criteria for its determination*. This is confirmed by other researches, including meta-analysis of AAdmont²⁰ aimed at defining the process of police selection.

¹⁹ especially the application of physical force against other persons, invasion of privacy of citizens, and so on.

²⁰ Aamodt, M.G. (2004). Research in law enforcement selection. Boca Raton: Brown Walker Press

Subjectivity and difficulties in reliability of measures²¹ is a result of the *unavailability and confidentiality* of the police activity in which respect this profession differs from other professions. On the other side, we can say that this profession is more like a gift rather than something that can be measured by the number of criminal discoveries (which are often used as a criterion for successful performance). Further, there are also the results of the studies of personality traits that are showed as good predictors for successful performance and they gradually change from general traits to a certain conformist behavior imposed by the service.

Furthermore, the selection criteria for selecting of the best candidates²² in the last two decades demonstrate effectiveness only in the *detection of inappropriate candidates*²³, while the dilemmas about the capabilities of instruments to *identify candidates who would show remarkable success* in police work still remain; this is in fact, the most difficult task in a great number of professions²⁴.

In short, difficulties which disable successful detecting of personal qualities that describe the successful police officer are:

- difficulties in *measuring of work performance* and connecting tasks with the personality traits of the individual officer
- the importance of the *police environment impact* in shaping of the behavior of police officers, despite their personality traits
- after removal of the unsuitable candidates, the question of *which personality traits can identify the best candidates* is raised.

Experiences of other countries

As some of the *reasons for using of psychological testing before employment of the police officers*, Shusman, Inwald and Landa²⁵ underline the following:

²¹ Fyfe, J.J. (1999). *Good policing*. In Stojkovic, S., Klofas, J., Kalinich, D. (Eds), *The Administration and Management of Criminal Justice Organizations*, 3rd ed., Waveland Press, Prospect Heights, IL, pp.113-33

²² While using the psychological tests for selection of personnel, there are two important moments: "*screening-in*" - detection of candidates who prove above average performance on the criterion which determines it, and "*screening-out*" or prediction of candidates who will be below average.

²³ Bartol, C.R. (1991). *Predictive validation of MMPI for officers who fail*. *Professional Psychology, Research and Practice*, Vol.22, pp. 127 - 32

²⁴ Burbeck, E., Furnham, A. (1984). *Personality and police selection: trait differences of the inappropriate applicants to the metropolitan police*. *Journal of Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol.5, No.3, pp. 257 - 263

²⁵ Bartol, M.A. & M.C. (2006). *Current perspective in the forensic psychology and criminal justice*. California: Sage publication, Inc.: 25 - 37

- reduction of the number of delays and work absences, which results in reduction of the lack of personnel, excessive overtime work, and prevention of breaking trust between the police officers
- reduction of the costs arising from the disciplinary interviews in the department and saving of valuable time in administration
- avoiding of potential harm that police officers could do to the citizens or to their colleagues by inadequate working
- maintenance of the positive opinion and reduction of the number of lawsuits arising from unscrupulous or irresponsible behavior of police officers, in performing police activity.

With the aim of evaluation of the selective methods of the current selection process for basic police training in the *Swedish police* as one of the most ambitious and most comprehensive selections in Sweden, there is an ongoing implementation of a longitudinal project based on criterion-related validity with special emphasis on the predictive power of psychological methods for assessment of capabilities among the candidates. The project was started in 2007, and it is to last until 2013; it has two goals:

- to determine the current efficiency of the selection process which is already implemented in the Swedish police and the basic trainings within the Swedish Police Academy;
- to determine how procedures, which according to a meta-analysis showed the highest predictive validity in relation to the assessment of future performance and are used for selection (i.e. psychological procedures: a structured interview, test of abilities and integrity test²⁶), complement each other in the selection process.²⁷

With the aim of developing a national program of the psychological screening process in the *Australian police*²⁸, the National Union for research in the police went through discussions on the effectiveness of the application of psychological tests for this purpose. The results showed that they have a positive effect in the leaving out of the inappropriate candidates (*screening out*) and those who would show compatible (*screening in*), in the meanwhile discrimination over the applicants on the bases of gender or ethnicity or any other ground, is strictly forbidden. Thus, personality tests can successfully detect those with psychopathological symptoms; general ability tests are predictors for successful training and performance in police work; and

²⁶ A special personality test which is designed to identify contraproductive ways of behavior of police work that are especially important in the selection, etc. MINT

²⁷ Anel, S. *The project Longitudinal Validation of the Swedish Police Selection* (2007 - 2013)

²⁸ Hogg, A., Wilson, C. (1995). *Is the Psychological Screening of Police Applicants a Realistic Goal? - The Successes and Failures of Psychological Screening*. Payneham SA: National Police Research Unit

situational tests have proved to be successful predictors for appropriate work performance.

In order to detect the current trends of practice in the process of selection and psychological assessment of candidates for police services, in 2003 were conducted surveys over 155 of 12.000 personnel departments of the municipal police agencies located all over **USA**²⁹. The results showed that the procedures commonly used, include: background investigations, medical examinations, interviews, application blank, psychological assessment, drug testing, physical fitness, polygraph, civil service exam, recommendation letters, knowledge, abilities and skills, work experience, educational qualifications, age factor, etc.. In addition, more than 90 % of the agencies use background investigations, along with medical examination, interview, application, and psychological assessment. In the last 15 years, there is an increase in the number of agencies which use psychological assessment from 52 % in 1988 to 90 % in the last years. From total of 36 listed procedures, none is used by more than six departments, which means that although there is some consensus about the main procedures, some agencies use their own methods. The differences in the procedures are in many aspects insignificant, mainly in that the small agencies rarely used psychological assessment, polygraph and drug test, compared to the medium and large agencies. As the most frequently used techniques for psychological assessment are considered: MMPI-II, clinical interview, questionnaire of personal history, CPI, other tests, 16PF, IPI, test of general mental status, Rorshah, Hilson's security and EPQ. In addition, the most frequently used instrument is the MMPI-II, which began in 1980, and it is used less often in small agencies compared to the large ones.

The assessment of personnel in the selection process for entry in the police services is indicated as the best possible solution for prediction, control and prevention of police corruption as a deep and persistent problem in functioning of the police in the world. Motivated by various studies which confirmed that the existing practices in the **USA** are not perfect, in the same 2003, Arrigo and Claussen³⁰ conducted a study aimed of a draft strategy for successful assessment in the selection of personnel for law enforcement. The results indicated that the combined use of specific psychological instruments are reliable and valid indicators of successful work performance.

To investigate which tests are used and whether there is much consistency between the agencies in the state of **Texas**, 17 major municipal

²⁹ Cochrane, R.E., Tett, R.P., Vandercreek, L. (2003). *Psychological Testing and the Selection of Police Officers. Criminal Justice and Behavior*, vol. 30, No.5: 511 - 37

³⁰ Arrigo, B.A., Claussen, N. (2003). Police Corruption and Psychological Testing: A Strategy for Pre-employment Screening. *International Journal of Offender Therapy and Comparative Criminology*, 47: 272 - 90

police agencies out of 618 were surveyed, as well as the Department of Public Safety; the subject of their survey was: which psychological protocols they use to assess the recruitment and which is the most appropriate content of the interview. The results confirmed the previous findings that there are no written rules on which and how many tests should be used, and there are different opinions among the agencies. A positive result is that all major police agencies use at least two kinds of psychological tests and interviews with a licensed psychologist. For answering of this question it is recommended that the focus in the future should be put on several of the recognized tests that are specifically constructed or additionally reviewed for this issue.³¹

From all this follows that for psychological screening of the personnel within police agencies worldwide are used several instruments, but there is no consensus in the choice of techniques and procedures of selection in general, neither between countries which use this method for selection in the police nor between the agencies within a state. Although there is no test that is used by all agencies, tests that are described in the literature as the most competent and most frequently used are: MMPI-II, IPI, CPI, PAI, NEO PI-R and 16-PF, etc; they are grouped into two categories³²:

- tests which are *originally designed for clinical practice*, and additionally adapted for selection of personnel, including: MMPI-II, PAI, CPI etc.;
- more recent tests that are *specifically designed for selection and classification of the police officers*, as: IPI, M-PULSE, etc.

Discussions about the ideal personality profile of police officers

Finally, we came to the question *which is the criteria for assessing the psychological suitability of applicants for this activity, or which mental or personality disorders should automatically disqualify an individual from eligibility in the police profession? In short, which are the traits which construct the personality of successful police officers?*

Another question to be answered is *whether people are predisposed to be successful police officers or the personality of police officers is a result of the lifestyle, socialization and the specific characteristics of police work? And, if there is a specific "police culture", whether it is about a set of*

³¹ Dantzker, M.L., McCoy, J.H. (2006). Psychological screening of police recruits: A Texas Perspective. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, Vol.21, No.1:23-32

³² Kitaëff, J. (2011). Weiss, P.A., Weiss, W.U. *Criterion-Related Validity in Police Psychological Evaluations*. (Ex.) *Handbook of Police Psychology*. New York: Routledge, pp.125-33

individual personality profiles or a specific work environment that distinguishes police officers from inappropriate candidates or other citizens?

The results of various studies show a range of similarities and differences in various aspects, such as: *instruments used, the time in which the research is done, the various authors, the diversity of the police cultures in different states, the profile of the police officers obtained by various other measuring instruments*. As a result of the specifics of the police profession, police officers present themselves in "image armor" and showing emotions is regarded as a weakness. Police officers are pretty skeptical, and most of them have a difficulty to believe and confide in others³³, so they isolate emotions³⁴. Thus, we can talk about the set of traits which are acquired by the individual police officers after they become a part of the police on one side, and a set of traits common to all police officers, on the other.

Characteristics of police officers *differ according to different authors*, and according to Watson and Sterling³⁵ they are: pragmatism, action oriented, valuing of common sense rather than theory, valuing successful performance more than ideas, with a tendency to think that pragmatism is closely associated to cynicism³⁶. Other authors consider cynicism as a highly counterproductive and harmful to the individual and overall service, and as a precursor of various abuses, brutality and corruption. Skolnik³⁷, in trying to define the personality of the police officers, explains the *feeling of isolation and distrust* as part of their personality profile which includes three main components: danger³⁸, authority³⁹ and efficiency⁴⁰. In addition, the use of

³³ Police officers build belief, a kind of "insider-outsider" structure which instructs that all police officers are sure (insiders) and should also be skeptical and always aware of those who are not officers (outsiders), on which the police repeatedly trains focusing on the potential danger of police work, which reinforces this distinctive way of thinking. Officers deal with danger and uncertainty in their work environment by becoming suspicious and constantly on the edge, which position is held by building, displaying and maintaining their authority to be always "one level above" the citizens (outsiders).

³⁴ Kureczka, A.W. (2002). Surviving assaults: After the physical battle ends, the psychological battle begins. *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, 71 (1), 18 - 21

³⁵ Watson, N.A., Sterling. (1969). *Police and their opinions*. Washington, D.C.: International Association of Chiefs of Police

³⁶ *Police cynicism* is defined as a mistrust and contempt for human nature and motives, and is also a special characteristic of police officers, which prevails in major urban police departments developed as a result of stress or emotional condition caused by excessive work.

³⁷ Skolnick, J. (2000). *Code blue*. The American Prospect, 11 (10)

³⁸ *The danger* encourages suspiciousness towards the behavior of the people and their motives, causing a feeling of isolation and alienation, and reducing contact with persons who are employed in the police - police does not only connect police officers as a group, but also separates them from the rest of population.

³⁹ *Authoritarian behavior* is the result of interaction of police officers with the public, which is necessary in certain situations as stopping vehicles, criminal investigations, etc. It

deception in order to achieve a higher efficiency in the police practice increases the feeling of isolation and alienation from the rest of the community.

Personality of the police officers differs depending on the police culture in different countries in the world, so police officers from America are characterized by high scores in their practices, domination and heterosexuality; in England have been proved high scores on the scales of changes and aggression⁴¹. Police culture is strengthened by the manner of selection and training of the police officers, so a greater chance to be employed have those who will show traits similar to the already employed police officers, and training in the police academy helps in the cultural assimilation and in continuation of the way in which the things have been carried out before. Bennett and Greenstein⁴², define their personality as oriented toward values, i.e. they are characterized with grouping of the values which separate them from the other members of society, whereby there is a gap between the two of groups. According to Balch⁴³, within the researchers of the personality of police officers there is a consensus about the existence of traits that are unique to police mentality, named as: suspiciousness, conventionality, cynicism, prejudices and mistrust towards the unusual, i.e. good cop suspects of crime all the time. Furthermore, according to Rokech, Miller and Snider (1971) there is a personality profile that is specific for the police officers, but it is more about predispositions of personality rather than a result of socialization in the police work - personality is distinction for itself, and it is the same before or after the employment in the police.

Throughout the numerous studies related to the personality of the police officers *various instruments were used, and different results were obtained*, which is in correlation, but despite of their seriousness and

separates police officers from the rest of the population, which is the reason for their sense of isolation and mental separation of “us” and “them”, which from the other side intensifies the feeling of solidarity towards colleagues.

⁴⁰ The idea of *efficiency* is fueled by the use of deception as a tool for realization of police work that the police officers has accepted as a normal tool for catching criminals, and it is supported by the judicial authorities and police subculture seen as a part the of everyday police activities.

⁴¹ Lester, D.S., Babcock, D., Cassisi, J.P., Genz, J.L., Butler, J.P. (1980). The personalities of the English and American Police employees. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 111, pp. 153 - 154

⁴² Bennett, R.R., Greenstein, T. (1975). The police personality: A test of the predisposition model. *Journal of Police Science and Administration*, 3 (4), pp. 439 - 445

⁴³ Balch, R. (1977). The police personality: Fact or fiction. In D. B. Kennedy (Ed.). *The dysfunctional alliance: Emotion and reason in justice administration*. pp. 10-25. Cincinnati, OH: Anderson Publishing Company

comprehensiveness *there is no a strict list of traits that distinguish the personality of the police officers*⁴⁴. According to the power of the instruments in trying to define the profile of the police officer, the process began by detecting and eliminating the negative traits in direction to further attempts to narrow the selection of traits which are most directly associated with successful performance of the police work. Therefore, as ***traits that a successful police officer is not to possess*** are listed: impulsiveness, hostility, unnecessary aggression, lack of autonomy, immaturity, antisocial tendencies, a tendency for drug and / or alcohol abuse, emotional lability, social introversion, paranoia and psychoses, etc. According to other authors, the ***personality profile of a successful operative police worker*** in addition to the appropriate professional aspects, must include certain personality and moral dimensions, among which are listed the following: good health condition and physical fitness; at least an average level of intellectual abilities, emotional stability and proper balance, which is more important than the over average IQ, and contrary to what is undesirable: anxiety, irritability, particularly aggression; self-respect, independence and creativity as contrary to the frustration, complexes of lower and higher values that are harmful in the work; perseverance, hardiness, systematic and accurate work; communication skills and ability for quick establishing of good relationships with people as opposed to bragging, indiscretion and affinity to fraud and lies, which contribute to the distrust among the citizens; further merits would be: courage, decisiveness and readiness to risky situations⁴⁵; but, as it was already mentioned, the exact list that certainly leads to success in performance has not been strictly set, yet.

Conclusion

The place and role of the police in a democratic society makes police activity highly delicate and more than a profession. Such placement of the police in society requires a highly qualified and psychologically suitable personnel for successful implementation of police tasks. To this aim, states in the world place great accent on psychological screening in the entry into the police and other security services, classification and advancement of the police officers as the human factor for successful implementation of the police activity, investing large resources in conducting researches in order to find the appropriate instruments that will successfully detect applicants who show performance above the average. In this direction, for improving of the

⁴⁴ Twersky-Glasner, A. (2005). Police personality: What is it and why are they like that? *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, Vol.20, No.1, pp.56-67

⁴⁵ Kostic, I. (1998). *Criminalistics Psychology*. Belgrade: pp. 229 - 232

police performance and successful implementation of training for that purpose, introducing of psychological screening for selection of personnel in security professions in the R.Macedonia is highly recommended together with its adequate implementation in practice by the competent persons for that area, and conducting researches for clarifying the dilemmas that exist in this area all over the the world.

EVALUATION OF THE BASIC TRAINING FOR POLICE NEGOTIATORS AT THE MINISTRY OF INTERIOR OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA

Zeljko Mojsilovic, MA
zmojsilovic@pregovarac.rs
Ministry of Interior, Belgrade

Nevena Gavric
ngavric@pregovarac.rs
Faculty of Security Studies, University of Belgrade

Abstract

Whenever it is possible to establish contact with the opposing party in critical incidents, negotiation can be crucial and have precedence over other police measures. Peaceful solution of critical incidents is one of the priorities of the modern organized security systems. Negotiation in this sense implies the implementation of the police measures using the communication means together with the application of scientific knowledge. Due to the potential duration and complexity of the negotiation process, the engagement of trained negotiators and negotiation teams is necessary. Negotiators are professionally trained members of the police who have undergone certain training programs on negotiation, and are capable of finding the best solution in cases of critical incidents. The negotiation team is established as a police unit which acts occasionally since it is formed by gathering the personnel that is, conditionally speaking, of solid constitution. It functions in cases of kidnaps, hostage situations, blackmails, prison rebellions, barricade situations, suicidal threats, threats at gunpoint and explosive devices, and in similar situations when it is possible to influence the behaviour of perpetrators in critical and conflict situations. The possible escalation of hostage situations and kidnaps considering political, economic and social movements within our own or the neighbouring states, requires the removal of omissions that have been noted in the so far operations, as well as methodological and technical advancement. The training of police negotiators and negotiation teams is a complex process, and the action of police negotiation team in critical incidents significantly depends on it. Six classes of participants, i.e. sixty-six police officers from Serbia and six others from the countries in the region underwent the training program for police negotiators under the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia. The evaluation of the trainings following each group of participants provided feedback which enabled the advancement of the training systems for future generations. The data gathered from the evaluation lists that were filled in by the participants after the training indicates that the trainers are on the right track to make the training program as similar to those in modern European states as possible.

Key words: negotiator, negotiation team, training system, basic training, the selection of the candidates

Introduction

Long-term hostage crises and barricade situations are a real challenge for security services. Due to the past incidents and the experiences of other agencies worldwide, FBI was among the first to develop highly trained and professional Critical Incident Negotiation Team ready to act in the most difficult incidents of hostage and barricade situations, threats at gunpoint and explosive devices, incidents with mentally defective persons, and the like.¹ In 1985, the FBI Crisis Management Unit (CMU) established the Critical Incident Negotiation Team (CINT) - a small, highly trained and mobile group of experienced FBI critical incident negotiators. This team has become the essence of organized response to potentially long-term hostage incidents and barricade situations at national levels.² Through its training and consultancy service, the team of highly trained and experienced negotiators is available to the security services all around the world to help them cope with critical incidents peacefully at any time.

Resembling the developed police services in the world, as a bearer of critical incident psychological handling in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, the Ministry's Negotiation Team was established in 2005. This organizational police unit is engaged in cases of kidnaps, hostage incidents, severe forms of blackmail, prison rebellions, building occupation, suicide and homicide threats, threats to the police or third parties at gunpoint or explosive devices during the preparation and realization of police measures and the like, when it is possible to influence the behaviour of the perpetrator in conflicts with the aim of their restraining from unlawful behaviour.³

The Ministry's Negotiation Team is police unit that acts occasionally since it is formed by gathering of the personnel that is, conditionally speaking, of solid constitution. The tasks of certain members of MNT take priority over the tasks their permanent employment requires. That means

¹ Regini C.: "Crisis Intervention for Law Enforcement Negotiators", *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Oct 2004, p. 1

² Botting J., Lacelay F.: "The FBI's Critical Incident Negotiation Team" *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, FBI Academy, Quantico, Apr 1995, p. 12

³ Point 2. By the instructions on the functioning of the negotiating team of MOI it was decided: "this team will be engaged in cases of kidnaps, hostage incidents, severe forms of blackmail, prison rebellions, barricades, street riots, suicide and homicide threats, threats to the police or third parties at gunpoint or explosive devices during the preparation and realization of police measures, resisting police measurements, etc".

there are no full time negotiators, but that authorized officers holding other positions are employed as negotiators when needed.⁴

The education and training in the negotiation methods and techniques in cases of critical incidents are necessary not only for the police officers who will be engaged in the negotiation team, but also for all the other officers performing a role in the solution of a critical incident. In practice, they turn to different forms of education, i.e. training. Regarding this, there are numerous dilemmas about when and how to start the training of the employees.

The training of the personnel for negotiation in critical incidents was started in 2002 with the involvement of foreign trainers, while the training system for police negotiators of MOI of the Republic of Serbia which uses its own resources has been operating since 2008.

The aims and tasks of the training

Aims of the training are the bases for conceptualization of the educational program and determination of the criteria for assessment of their achievements. Educational aims are typically directed at a segment of behaviour or performance appraisal which should be altered or improved.

The aim of organizing of the system of training for police negotiators is to improve the methodology and the system of solutions to critical incidents and conflicts, as well as to raise the awareness of the need and significance of critical incidents and conflicts solving in a peaceful manner.

The tasks of system of the training for police negotiators are:⁵

- the improvement of performance appraisal;
- constant alignment, adjustment and improvement of knowledge, skills and abilities;
- avoidance of working methods obsolescence (which can occur by not keeping the pace with the contemporary methods and processes, or the necessary knowledge and skills);
- meeting individual needs and interests (according to the rule, education creates better conditions for success and development which is beneficial to all employees);
- improvement of citizen and public relations;
- improvement of services and customer relations;
- improvement of the team work concept;

⁴ Mojsilović Ž., Gavrić N.: *The influence of the Regional Cooperation of Police Negotiators over Promotion of Safety and Combating of Crime*. Compilation of works - The combatin of crime in the framework of international police cooperation, KPA, Belgrade, 2011, p. 152

⁵ Mojsilović Ž.: *"The System of Training for Police Negotiators"*, *Security*, 6/06, MOI, Belgrade, Serbia, 2006, p. 967

- increase in work safety;
- improvement of problem solution ability;
- learning and mastering of specific working methods and procedures;
- advancement of creativity in problem solution;
- reducing of working expenditure;
- enhancement of the working efficiency;
- improvement of conflict management skills, etc.

The training for police negotiators

The contents and programs of the training for police negotiators are related to the needs and the aims of negotiation. Within the MOI of the Republic of Serbia, there are several levels of educational needs determined by the different types of work and tasks performed by the police officers. Each level of educational needs determines specific contents and makes different requests in terms of educational programs and contents.

The curriculum and syllabus of the training for police negotiators are designed in accordance with the defined scientific procedure on every level. Methodological path, i.e. the procedure, consists of the following steps:

- identification and defining of the problem, i.e. the state, in the field of negotiation (practice, education, training);
- determination and analysis of the educational needs, or precisely, defining of the profile (functional analysis of work for any employment or for employment within a team);
- development of the curriculum and syllabus.

Training for police negotiators within the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia

The training of police negotiators of the MOI began in 2002 with a five-day course on hostage incident negotiation held by the Austrian police trainers in Vrnjacka Banja. The training was continued in 2003 as one of the latest training courses within the program created by the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe and the Ministry of Interior, to meet the needs of the Directorate for Combating Organized Crime and the Criminal Police Directorate. Bob Denmark and Tony Witle from Great Britain held the first trainings. Apart from this course, both of them held the specialist training in conducting the police investigation for Serbian inspectors. Many trainees of the first courses for hostage incident negotiators were already acquainted with the trainers due to the prior courses within the project. Tim

O'Connor, specialist in training for terrorist negotiation, later joined Bob Denmark and Tony Witle.

This phase of training culminated in a comprehensive theoretical exercise simulation, "the White City Operation" which took place in June 2004.

In continuation, later that year, another course with the same instructors was held. In November 2005, Mark Bradley, a police officer from Great Britain, joined Bob Denmark in the realization of the specialist training titled "Working in the Red Center", i.e. the training for negotiators to provide support for the victims in case of a kidnap or a blackmail. This training was well-accepted, but it was also found that the professional response in case of a kidnap or blackmail would include the application of numerous other skills, especially the sophisticated methods of observation and surveillance.

After the official establishment of the Ministry's Negotiation Team and the first practical experiences in September 2006, Bob Denmark and Mark Bradley were invited to a practical exercise for hostage incident negotiators which took place at the Educational Center of the Ministry of Interior on Avala, and they were asked to give a critical review of it. Without any doubts, the exercise on Avala was successful. Trainers from Great Britain had already given the detailed critical review of the individual work and made the following remarks:

- The leaders of the negotiation teams were clearly focused on the policy of procedures and aims set by the administrator in the hostage incident.
- The coordinator of negotiators completely understood what he was supposed to do, and served as a good support to the teams.
- The technician who provided support for the negotiation teams was active in the negotiation cell. He constantly monitored the operations with the communication equipment, predicted the possible problems and solved them when they emerged. It was obvious that the technician had passed the training, as well as the negotiators, and that their mutual work is effective. The trainers from Great Britain marked this as a positive trend.
- The relation among the negotiation special units was marked as solid, although some misunderstandings were discovered after debriefing. It turned out that the deliverance and the release of hostages has to be planned carefully and in details, and that it takes time to completely inform all the involved subjects about what is planned exactly and to which extent it is realized at every point.

In the period between 2002 and 2007, the framework of MNT which consisted of negotiators from Belgrade, Nis, Novi Sad, Kragujevac and Kraljevo, underwent the training conducted by instructors from Austria, Great Britain, USA, Germany and France. It was noticed then that this method, i.e. foreign instructors training, was insufficient to provide for the necessary number of police negotiators to be well trained. Therefore, the preparations for the independent organization of training began. In 2007 and 2008 several members of the MNT were sent to attend courses abroad - to learn about the ways of their organization and to acquire skills for conveying their knowledge. The abovementioned activities resulted in the adoption of the Police Negotiator Basic Training Program signed by the Minister of Interior of the Republic of Serbia in 2008. The independent training for police negotiators of the MOI of the Republic of Serbia officially started with the adoption of this program.⁶

Selection of candidates and the method of nomination

It is necessary to make selection of candidates in order to adequately choose the ones who are to undergo the training. Services that were among the first to develop negotiation team, also developed the systems of candidate selection. First members of CINT were recruited from a group of more than 350 FBI negotiators throughout the country as a result to their characteristics, personal traits, interviews, psychological testing and experience in negotiation.⁷ This group of 25 negotiators was racially diverse and multilingual, with one member among them who speaks five languages fluently. Negotiators mainly have 10 to 15 years of work experience, and they have taken part in significant operations and investigation trainings. Their different operational experiences are in the sphere of terrorism combating, organized crime and general criminal investigations.⁸

In accordance with the abovementioned tendencies, the system of the selection of candidates who are supposed to possess certain qualities is developed in the MOI of the Republic of Serbia. The necessary qualities a negotiation candidate should possess are:

- to be a volunteer,
- great communication ability,

⁶ Mojsilović Ž., Gavrić N.: *The influence of the Regional Cooperation of Police Negotiators over Promotion of Safety and Combating of Crime*. Compilation of works - The combat of crime in the framework of international police cooperation, KPA, Belgrade, 2011, p. 152

⁷ Regini C.: "Crisis Negotiation Teams Selection and Training", *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, November 2002, p. 3

⁸ Hammer M., Clinton R.: "Crisis / hostage negotiation team profile", *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, March 1994, p. 8

- ability to listen patiently to what others are saying,
- emotional control,
- prior experiences in informative conversations,
- mental and physical aptitude,
- satisfactory medical chart,
- ability to think fast,
- strong sense for team work.⁹

Volunteering: It is considered to be the first and basic criterion. In practice, this criterion means that no one can be assigned to the position of negotiator unless they express their own will for that; thus, a former negotiator who is no longer motivated for keeping that position must be replaced.

Communication: Negotiators should speak clearly and concisely; they should be able to converse efficiently with people from all social classes and the members of the minority groups. They should be sedate and temperate, which contributes to reduction of the tension. They should have the ability to create a calm and safe atmosphere.

Listening: Negotiators must be capable of listening to their interlocutor carefully, and persuading a kidnapper that both his personality and requests are taken seriously. They have to be able to collect investigation data and information.

Mental abilities: Negotiators must be able to think quickly and resourcefully. This implies the ability to focus on and estimate the situation properly, as well as to make the right decision under pressure. Negotiators must be objective, logical, flexible, and able to plan an action in advance, broad-minded.

Cooperation: refers to the ability to work in a team, contribute to the mutual operations and give support to others. Negotiators must neglect the factors of status and rank. They must be considerate, thoughtful, patient and tolerant. They must show genuine interest in other people, and understand the influence that words and deeds can have on them.

⁹ The negotiating team is composed of five to six members. It usually consists of: a leader of the negotiation team, first negotiator, second negotiator, documentation keeper, psychologist and an expert for technical support. Each one of the members of the negotiation team possesses specific knowledge and is assigned with specific tasks in the concrete situation. It is necessary that the members of the negotiation team know each other quite well so that they should understand each other, so to say, without verbal communication and know how each one of them will react in the given situation. They also have to acquire skills for quick collecting of data and know the features of the kidnaper so that they will be able to promptly predict the way he would react in a certain situation.

Bravery: Negotiators must be willing to undertake dangerous and demanding tasks, face with challenges and accept responsibility. They must control their emotions.

Operational ability: Negotiators should have thorough experience in operations and working with victims, witnesses and perpetrators. They have to be responsible, reliable and conscientious.

It is necessary to provide for a long-term (of several years) presence of the trained forces in a negotiation team in order to maintain the high performance of the team on the same level. When making a team, it is important that members get to know each other very well. The leader of the team has the precedence of suggestion in terms of nomination of the team members. Criteria for nomination of negotiators are similar in most developed countries.¹⁰ The nomination for Basic Training for Police Negotiators is conducted in three steps: subjective nomination, interview with an authorized supervisor and psychological testing.

Subjective nomination: As a combination of the suggestions of the supervisor, personal traits, suggestions on the part of the colleagues, working experience and results, reliability and archive assessment, subjective nomination is conducted, i.e. the candidates who do not meet the abovementioned criteria are eliminated.

Interview with an authorized supervisor: Implies to the interview with the supervisor who is authorized by the director to assess the candidates and decide on which candidate of the ones who have passed the first two phases meets the criteria for police negotiator training and the operations in the Negotiation group in the best way.

Psychological testing: Psychological testing means that all candidates must take a test of general intellectual abilities with the emphasis on the assessment of the abilities necessary for working in a negotiation group. The focus is on reviewing of:

- the mechanisms of stress relieve,
- intellectual abilities, especially verbal,
- forms of communication,
- emotional maturity,
- extroversion / introversion.

¹⁰ The criteria for selection used by the majority of the institutions of USA for implementation of law, are the following: 1. to voluntarily join the training; 2. to have at least 5 years of eligible work experience; 3. To have some knowledge in the area of behaving of people; 4. To have proven his / her abilities as a sapable interogator; 5. To have proven his / her abilities for proper deductions and work with the people being interogated; 6. To be recommended by his / her supervisor; 7. To be capable for team work; 8. To have proven his natural inclination toward verbal solutions of conflicts; 9. To have proven his calm maintenance of stressful situations.

Candidates who meet all the requirements mentioned in this guideline go to a two-week basic training for negotiators.

The system of police negotiator training

Only the candidates who have successfully passed the previous nomination are engaged in the training for the members of the negotiation team. The coordinator of the negotiation team together with the deputy, plans, organizes, and performs the training. The training is based on contemporary systems of training confirmed in practice by police, as well as practical experiences.

The training is conducted as a form of a specialist course, according to the curriculum and syllabus, and in cooperation with the educational system of the MOI of the Republic of Serbia. After the completion of the training, successful candidates are given an official certificate by the Ministry of Interior.

Negotiation position in the Ministry of Interior can be held only by police officers who possess the official certificate of the Ministry or a certificate of the Ministry of Interior of another state acknowledged by the Ministry in Serbia.

The system of police negotiation training of the MOI of the Republic of Serbia consists in:

- Basic training of police negotiators,
- Professional development,
- Education of users and cooperators of the negotiation team

The basic training for police negotiators is aimed at the training of new negotiators who have passed the previous selection of the candidates for negotiators. The basic training is conducted according to the curriculum and syllabus of the Ministry and lasts for two weeks. Thematic areas included in this course are: The basis of police negotiation, strategies and negotiation tactics, communication skills, negotiation in cases of kidnaps, tactical role of the negotiation team, the use of intermediaries and interpreters in negotiation, types of kidnappers, psychological state of the perpetrators, etc.¹¹

The criteria for candidate selection are:

- Experience in working as a police officer for at least five years;

¹¹ Mojsilović Ž.: "The System of Training for Police Negotiators", *Security*, 6/06, MOI, Belgrade, Serbia, 2006, p. 969

- A college or university degree (except for the specialist police officers);
- Working results on the average level at least (minimum grade 3);
- Communication ability, understanding human needs and problems, higher level of socialization, self-initiative, the ability to take work responsibilities.
- Motivation for the negotiation position, psychological stability, emotional maturity, the ability to listen actively, the ability to overcome stress, developed intellectual abilities (especially for planning, projecting, estimation and analysis), great verbal ability, the ability of emotional empathy, friendliness and openness to people, adaptability, proven ability to work in a team, and confirmed operational experience in severe criminal actions.
- Positive mark in the process of candidate selection.

Professional development is dedicated to negotiators who have completed basic training and are specialized in different fields of work (negotiation with suicidal and mentally defective people, terrorists, serious criminals, minors, etc); or are trained as coordinators or leaders of the negotiation teams. Thematic areas included in this course program are: team work and decision making, conflicts and stress management, special types of kidnappers and the specificity of the perpetrator's psychological state, cooperation with other services, risk assessment, etc.

The education of users and cooperators is aimed at the potential users and cooperators of the negotiation team, i.e.:

- Police officers who come to the scene of the critical incident first (the first police officer).
- Employees of the criminal police working on the kidnap and blackmail combating operations.
- Directors who should be in charge of the police units in critical incidents.
- Representatives of the Ministry of Interior who are in charge of the cooperation with the media in critical incidents.
- Elders and members of special and intervention police units involved in the solution of critical incidents.
- Other persons and services that can be included in critical incident solution.

Primary material used by the trainees of the Basic training for police negotiators is "A Trainee Guide for Police Negotiator Basic Training".¹²

¹² Mojsilović Ž., Basarić M., Kljun T., Kojić G.: "Handbook for Trainees of the Basic Training for Police Negotiators, MOI, Serbia, 2008

The evaluation of the basic training for police negotiators

The evaluation of the achievements of the basic training is significant for advancement of the educational process in terms of organizational practice and aims. One of the prior aims of evaluation is the questioning of the existing and searching for better solutions to the educational process. The evaluation helps us find the answers to two fundamental questions: 1). to what extent the practical results of education and training can be applied in the everyday work, i.e. in the everyday practice; 2). to what extent the organization, content, methods and overall results of education and training meet the expectations of the trainees.

Monitoring and directing of the educational process and educational and training control was conducted during the training, by regular consultative conversations, as well as in other proper ways. Such approach enabled a quick response to every possible irregularity and deficiency in the training.

Basic training for police negotiators in the MOI of the Republic of Serbia was completed by 66 trainees from Serbia and 6 of them from the countries in the region (Slovenia - 3, Croatia - 2 and Republika Srpska - 1) by the middle of 2011. At the end of the training, all trainees fill in the evaluation sheet. Trainees answer to closed questions by circling one out of five options (from 1 - insufficient, to 5 - excellent). The questions on the evaluation sheet are: 1. Overall impression about the course? 2. Method and quality of topic development? 3. The presentations of the trainers? 4. The evaluation of the venue for the course? 5. Communication among the trainees? Some of the answers to these questions are:

1. *Overall impression about the course?* 90 % of the examinees answered "excellent" to this question, and only 10 % answered "very good" (Chart 1)

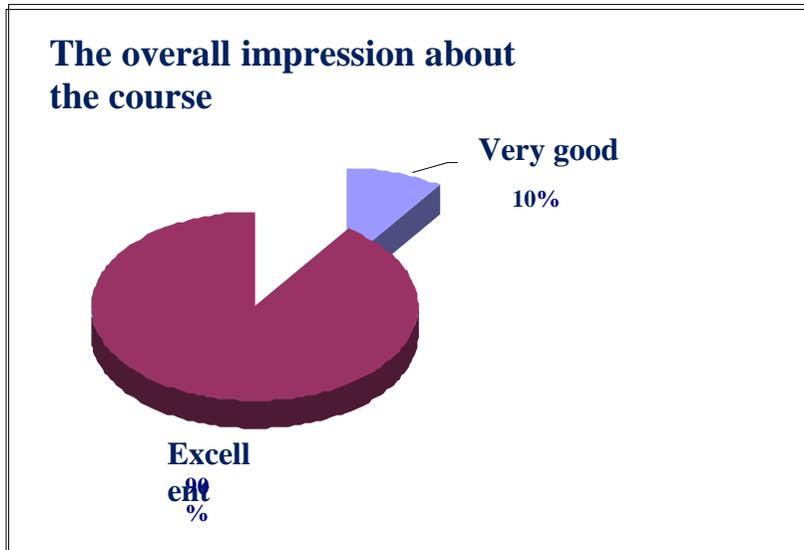


Chart 1.

2. *The presentations of the trainers?* 90 % of the examinees answered “excellent“ to this question as well, whereas 10 % answered “very good“ (Chart 2)



Chart 2.

3. *The communication between the trainees?* 82 % of the examinees answered “excellent” to this question, 13 % “very good”, and 5 % “good” (Chart 3)

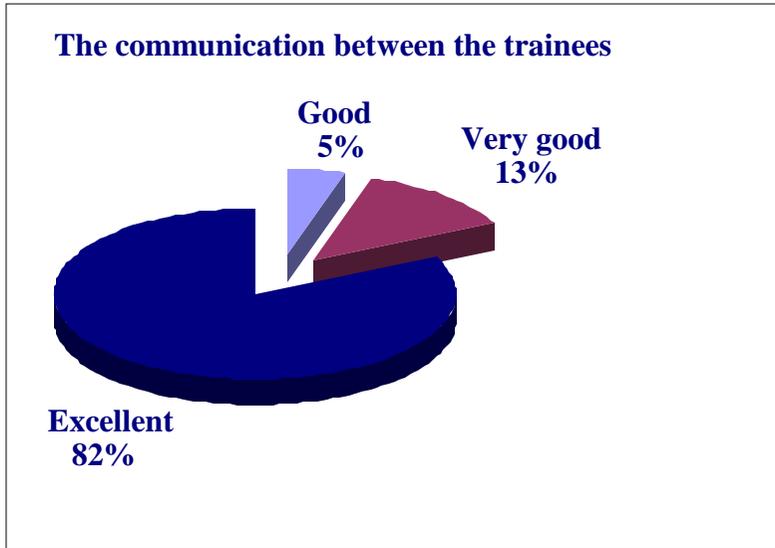


Chart 3.

Taking into account that the trainees of the Basic Training for Police Negotiators are police officers with work experience of between five and twenty years of effective working in the police, and that they have attended various courses and seminars both in the country and abroad during that period, the results of the evaluation sheet analysis are impressive; they show that the trainers are well prepared and that the course content is well defined. Moreover, by proper conduction of the training the trainers encouraged communication between the trainees, prepared them for team work and for entrance into the Negotiation team of the Ministry.

On the second part of the evaluation sheet there are open questions, i.e. open options for answer. Trainees answered the question: “In what way can the acquired knowledge help you improve your work.” The answers to this question were not provided. Most frequent answers were: “Improvement of the relationship with colleagues and citizens” - 29,03 %, “Improvement of the informative conversation management” -16,13 % and “Easier critical incident solving” - 12,90 %. The rest of the examinees gave a different answer or left blank. (Chart 4)

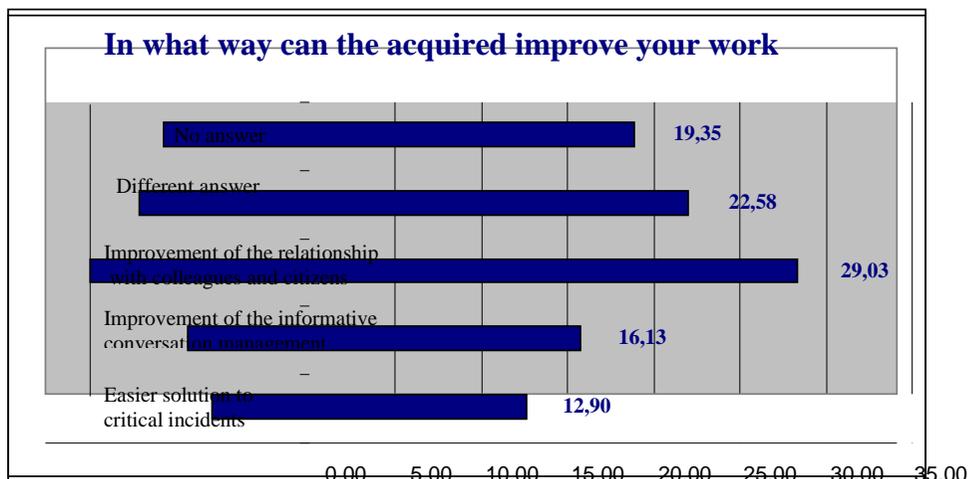


Chart 4.

The answers from the second part of the evaluation sheet reveal that the trainees have accepted the presented contents, and that they can apply the acquired knowledge to different segments of life (informative conversation management, communication with colleagues and citizens, etc.) apart from solving the critical incidents.

Conclusion

Looking back at the years when the police negotiator training was started and the negotiation teams in Serbia were formed, and comparing that period to the present state and the results of the evaluation of the Basic Training for Police Negotiators, we can conclude that both theory and practice of police negotiation in Serbia have improved significantly as well as that they are on the right track to become one of the leading trainings of the kind in the world. The growing interest of regional services for their members to attend the Basic Training in the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia best reveals the quality of the training showed in the previous period, as well as the positive impressions of the trainees. We can expect the realization of several specialist courses for police negotiators which would be attended by the negotiators who have completed the Basic Training and are being specialized for particular types of negotiation (negotiation with the mentally defective, negotiation in cases of kidnaps, negotiation with terrorists, etc.).

Finally, regardless of the fact that the theory, doctrine and practice of negotiation have considerably improved in the Republic of Serbia and are a

cohesive whole now, there is still wide “space” for improvement of the psychological solution to critical incidents, as well as for the implementation of new contents within the police negotiation training.

REFERENCES:

1. Botting J., Lacelay F.: “The FBI’s Critical Incident Negotiation Team” *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, FBI Academy, Quantico, Apr 1995
2. Fišer, R. Juri, V. (2005), *Kako da postignete dogovor*. Beograd: Mono i Manjana.
3. Hammer M., Clinton R.: “Crisis/hostage negotiation team profile”, *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Mar 1994
4. Ivaniš, Ž. Subošić, D. (2006), *Bezbednosno pregovaranje*. Beograd: Fakultet civilne odbrane.
5. Mojsilović Ž.: "Sistem obuke za policijske pregovarače", *Bezbednost*, 6/06, MUP R. Srbije, Beograd, 2006
6. Mojsilović Ž., Basarić M., Kljun T., Kojić G.: *Priručnik za polaznike osnovne obuke za policijske pregovarače*, MUP R. Srbije, 2008
7. Mojsilović Ž.: *Terorizam i pregovaranje*, CKMP, Beograd, 2009
8. Mojsilović Ž., Gavrić N.: Uticaj regionalne saradnje policijskih pregovarača na unapređenje bezbednosti i suzbijanje kriminala, Zbornik radova - Suzbijanje kriminala u okviru međunarodne policijske saradnje, Kriminalističko policijska akademija, Beograd, 2011
9. Nierenberg, I. G. (2000), *Umetnost pregovaranja*. Beograd: PS Grmeč – Privredni pregled.
10. Regini C.: "Crisis Intervention for Law Enforcement Negotiators", *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Oct 2004
11. Regini C.: “Crisis Negotiation Teams Selection and Training”, *FBI Law Enforcement Bulletin*, Nov 2002
12. Subošić D., Mijović D.: Razvoj pregovaračkih potencijala, u časopisu *Nauka, bezbednost, policija*, 2008
13. *Uputstvo o radu pregovaračkog tima Ministarstva unutrašnjih poslova*. Beograd: MUP R Srbije, (2005).
14. Zakon o policiji, (Službeni glasnik Republike Srbije", broj 101/05).

POLICE ACTIVITIES IN THE FUNCTION OF ACHIEVING THE RIGHT TO SECURITY AND FREEDOM OF THE CITIZENS OF THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Temelko Risteski, Ph.D.
temelko_mkd@yahoo.com

Sejdefa Džafče, M.A.

Emrah Mihtaroski
FON University, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Abstract

The Law on Police in Article 5 defines police activities in which the police officer acts according to his / her responsibilities of protection of life, personal safety and property of the citizens, and protection of freedoms and rights of the citizen guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, the laws of the Republic, and ratified international treaties; prevents commission of crimes and offenses, detects and captures their perpetrators and overtakes other measures specified by the law in prosecution of perpetrators of these acts; Further responsibilities are: the maintenance of public order and safety; regulation and control of the traffic on roads; control of movement and residence of foreigners; protection of the border and control of its transition; providing aid to the citizens and their protection in case of needs; protection of certain persons and objects and other tasks defined by the law.

These activities are directly in the function of providing for the right to security. Bearing in mind the notion of freedom in terms of absence of fear of compromising human values such as: the life, physical and mental integrity, health, property and the like, a free man is the one who is protected from threats on his human values. Therefore, by providing for the right of security, it is achieved the right to freedom of citizens as well. Thus, all police activities aimed to providing for the right to security are in the function of providing for the right to freedom (understood as a general concept), as well as in the function of the specific freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia. Such are: the freedom of movement, the freedom of communication, the freedom of residence, the freedom of public assembly, the freedom of entrepreneurship and other specific freedoms.

Keywords: *police, police officer, police activity, constitution, law, security, freedom.*

Introduction

In the hierarchy of the human values, on the first place, definitely comes the safety of life, because without it, there are no other values. It is indeed a notorious fact. The question is: Which of the values comes in the hierarchy of significance of values after life. Is it health, or is the security, or freedom?

Health is directly in function of life, because the disease, as its dialectical opposite, may be a direct threat on the life. Health is one of the main requirements for the quality of life. A man lives a quality life if he is physically and mentally healthy. However, bad and unsafe living conditions such as a number of stressful situations, poor food, polluted and unhealthy environment, may be direct threats on health and together with it - on life. So, in the absence of security of health, the person feels fear. Fear is the dialectical opposite of freedom. Where there is fear, there is no freedom. A person is afraid if he or she is not safe. Thus, we may say that, from the substantive matter of law, after life, in the second place on the scale of human values is the safety. The man, who is free from danger and threats to his / her life and health, lives without fear. With the appearance of threats, freedom disappears. The person will not be afraid if the risk does not reach him / her; when people feel protected, they feel safe.

In order to protect from threats to human values, such as life, physical integrity, moral integrity, health, property, and thus to ensure the safety of the citizens, institutions for protection are established in the society. Such institutions are: the police, the army, courts, prosecutors, attorneys, etc.

The function of police in all countries is generally set to the following activities:

- prevention of crime and delinquency, and providing the conditions for achieving compliance, public safety and order
- combating crime and delinquency
- patrol inspection facilities
- collecting data on all suspected persons and their activities
- trapping and identifying offenders and gathering evidence against a person who is charged for committing a crime or offense
- restitution of stolen or illegally seized property
- regulation of human actions in their no offensive activities
- detention of persons suspected or accused for criminal acts
- taking measures to maintain public safety
- warning of potential offenders and conduct full control over their activity
- taking care of the public transport safety

- record keeping and creating crime laboratories.¹

The Law on Police² of the Republic of Macedonia, in Article 3, defines the basic function of the police. According to the Law, it comes to protection and respect for fundamental rights and freedoms of man and citizens guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, laws and ratified international agreements, protection of legal order, preventing and detecting criminal offenses, taking measures to prosecute perpetrators of these offenses and maintenance of public order and peace in the society.

This function is accomplished through the exercises of police work that are listed by the law, in Article 5. They are:

- protection of life, personal safety and property of citizens;
- protection of freedoms and rights of man and citizen guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, the laws and the ratified international agreements;
- prevention of committing crimes and misdemeanors, detect and capture of their perpetrators and taking other measures stipulated by law the to prosecute perpetrators of such crimes;
- maintenance of public order and peace;
- regulation and control of traffic on roads;
- control of movement and residence of foreigners;
- protecting the State Border and control of crossing the border;
- providing assistance and protection to citizens in case of urgent needs;
- providing specific figures and objects;
- other activities determined by law.

With efficient execution of these works, the right to security of citizens from external endangered within the state is fully conducted. The exercise of this right widely opens the doors of freedom of citizens, because its legal base is security of all possible endangerment of human values. Bearing this in mind, there is no doubt that the police stand at the forefront of protection of the highest human values: life, security and freedom. These values are desired by all people. Nobody wants to be exposed to something that does not represent a value. The help in conduction of these rights is provided by the institutions of society and police, primarily as it stands in the foremost line of society in the fight against threats on human values. Then come the prosecutor offices, courts, public attorney offices and inspections;

¹ See largely: Politic\al Encyclopedia, Contemporary \administration, Belgrade, 1975, pp. 743 - 744.

² Government Gazette of RM, No. 114 / 06 and 6 / 09

the inspector, without the assistance of police, can do nothing to prevent from immediate threats to human values, of course, if the perpetrator is unwilling to act on the orders of the police.

Principles of policing and protecting the rights to security and freedom of citizens

Efficient performance of police work can be achieved by consistent adherence to the principles of policing. But neither the Law on the Internal Affairs, as a law which regulates the system of the internal affairs, nor the Law on Police, which covers the police operation subsystem of the system of internal affairs, contain provisions on the principles of policing. It is common that the ethical principles for operation and acting of the members of a particular profession are prescribed by a code of ethics of the profession. Unfortunately, these principles do not contain the Code of Police Ethics.³ In truth, this code contains several principles relevant for profiling of police officers, which without doubt affect their work. Thus, in the provisions on the qualification, selection and hiring of police officers,⁴ the Code provides that they shall be provided in accordance with the principles of professionalism, legality and efficiency of operation, set by the law. In the provisions for the training of police officers, it is stated that police training is developed in accordance with the principles of combating racism and xenophobia.⁵

In the section about police interventions, the Code contains subsection, named as general principles. Unfortunately, the Code does not specify terminologically what those general principles are, but leaves the reader to draw conclusions about it alone, which, of course, is a disadvantage of the Code.⁶

Because these laws and the Code of Police Ethics do not contain provisions on the principles of policing, the answer to this question can be found in the Law on Organization and Operation of the State Administration.⁷ The Law, in Article 3, provides principles of carrying out the responsibilities of the state administration. They are:

- the principle of legality
- the principle of responsibility
- the principle of efficiency

³ „Government Gazette of RM“, No 72 / 07

⁴ See article 22 of Code.

⁵ See article 26 to 30 of Code.

⁶ See article 36 to 47 of Code.

⁷ Government Gazette, No. 58 / 00,

- the principle of economy
- the principle of transparency
- the principle of equality
- the principle of predictability.

These principles define the institutions of the state administration. But the affairs within the competence of the state government obligate people employed in the governmental bodies. This means that these principles are principles of work of those people. The Ministry of Interior is an administrative body. People employed in it are police officers. Accordingly, these principles are principles of work of the police officers, or of the police.

If we analyze deeply the provisions of the Law on Internal Affairs, the Law on Police and the Code of Police Ethics, we can distinguish some more principles of the police work.

First, we can point out the principle of expertise. This is because the Law on Internal Affairs and the Law on Police, in the provisions on conditions for employing in the internal affairs, for the work position of a policeman, provide some degree of training of the candidate. Moreover, the Law on Internal Affairs contains many provisions for the training of police officers before entering on duty, and then, within continued education. The Principle of expertise is highlighted by the Code of Police Ethics in the provisions on qualifications, selection, employment and training of police officers.

Besides this principle, a very important principle of policing is the principle of ethics in the work of the police officers. This principle stems from the existence of a Code of Police Ethics and a statement or precisely, an oath that police officers give in the moment of employment to the police which, inter alia, undertake them to respect the standards of police ethics.

For the police working in function of achieving the right to Security and freedom of citizens, of utmost importance is the principle of service orientation of the police to citizens. This principle derives from service placement of administration related to the citizens in a democratic society. Law on Police, in several provisions stipulates police assistance to the citizens and legal entities (natural and juristic person), and cooperation with them in carrying out security activities.

Police as a service to citizens in protection of the rights to security and freedom

Police is the front-exponent of governing sets in society since the time of the absolute monarchy, in protection of their political interests. But,

with democratization of society, it gradually obtains elements of service to society, i.e. citizens, in the fight against threats, by guaranteed social values by the Constitution and the laws. In modern democratic states, the role of the police as a service of the citizens is predominant in terms of its role as holder of the power in internal affairs.

To be able to successfully serve the citizens in the protection of right to security and freedom, the police should be composed of professional and highly ethical police officers.

The expertise includes possession of quality theoretical knowledge to perform police tasks prescribed in Article 5 of the Law on Police and a high level of training for the practical performance of such works in policing. In this relation, the specialization for performing of the works in the field of security is especially important. Thus, for example, police officers carry out work on detection and capture of the perpetrators of certain crimes. This is provided by specialists in criminal acts of property crime, crimes against life and existence, crimes against the environment etc. Specialization hinders substitution, but always increases efficiency.

For the effectiveness of policing in protecting the security and freedom of citizens, of particular importance is the cooperation with the citizens. In this connection, the implementation of the "Community Policing," is particularly important. The essence of the implementation of this principle is to establish relations between the police and public, and therefore, effective cooperation with other state organs, local governments, NGOs and citizens. This principle is stipulated in the Code of Police Ethics.⁸ In relation to the provisions of the Code we can notice that in the listing of entities that cooperate with the police, the citizens are put in the last place. Police is service of the citizens. All other subjects of cooperation listed by the Code are entities operating in the service of citizens. These are institutions and organizations of citizens - to the citizens, and composed of citizens. It is a notorious fact. There will be no unit of the local self-government if citizens do not live in its area. There will be no NGO if it is not composed of citizens, as its members etc. In the civil society, the citizen is subject number one - *persona prima*. Society belongs to the citizens, together with all social institutions - governmental and NGOs, because they are made to serve the citizens, to their interests and needs. Therefore, putting the citizen in a second or third plan is contrary to the principles of the civil society and civic democracy.

The police, in order to cooperate with the citizens, should be composed of morally impeccable persons. Citizen cooperates with a person who is morally pure, because from it he / she can expect to receive attention

⁸ See article 18 of the Code on Police Ethics. ("Government Gazette of RM", No. 72 / 2007)

and care. Unfortunately, many members of the Macedonian police are not adorned with the epithet of moral purity, and some police officers are maybe far from perfect for this profession. Indicative of this are frequent occurrences of police involvement in various unlawful activities, such as accepting bribes, theft, aid in committing crime, abuse of their work position, etc, about which they repeatedly informed the media.⁹ Citizens do not want to cooperate with such officers, and are afraid to cooperate with others who are, maybe responsible and honest, if they personally do not know them as honest, conscientious and responsible people.

Reason for the infiltration of morally discredited police officers in the police force, undoubtedly lies in the legal provision of Article 95 of the Law on Police which does not provide restrictions for hiring police officers because of convictions for offenses against the constitutional order and security of the Republic of Macedonia, against the economy, against freedoms and rights of the citizens, the armed forces of the Republic of Macedonia, official duty, heavy offenses against life and body, against property or crimes committed by cupidity or avarice, etc. Identical provisions regarding terms of employment in the Ministry of Interior are provided in the Law on Internal Affairs. Interpreting these provisions, without exaggeration, we can conclude that the employee in the Ministry of Interior, and of course in the police, can be a citizen of the Republic of Macedonia who has committed serious criminal offenses under condition, by a legally valid judgment has not been imposed to ban on performing the profession, activity or duty. This means that a candidate for police officer may be a murderer, robber, rapist, pedophile, member of a gangster gang, person involved in people trafficking or illegal trafficking of narcotics etc. Citizens, who know these provisions, not only will cooperate with the police, but on the other side, with fear they will flee from police officers. Such officers can not be creators and protectors of security and freedom, but rather, triggers of fear and unfreeze. Creators and guardians of security and freedom of citizens can only be highly skilled, physically and psychologically healthy and morally clean police officers. The citizen will trust them, and trusting, will address them for help and cooperation. Bearing this in mind, no doubt that the Law on Police should incorporate restrictions on employment in the Police contained in the provisions of Article 48 of the Law on Internal Affairs from 1995.¹⁰

⁹ According to data presented in the newspaper Nova Macedonia, from the 26th April 2011, the Internal Control of the Ministry of Interior, in the first three months of 2011 received 379 complaints about incorrect work of police officers, of which, in 261 cases were found certain irregularities in the work of the police officers, which means that complaints have been valid and founded.

¹⁰ "Government Gazette of RM", No. 19 / 95.

Service placement of police related to protection of security and freedom of citizens imposes a need for daily presence of police officers on the terrain. This will be achieved by restoring the local policemen or invigilators that will always be known and accessible to citizens. Past experience shows that police invigilators were effective in preventing crime, and thereby in preserving the security and freedom of citizens. The invigilator is acting preemptively with their constant presence on the terrain. Citizens can easily and quickly address them if they notice anything suspicious. They know the area and the people in it, as well as those who are prone to criminal behavior. They are able to monitor their movements and their actions. On the other hand, the citizens know them. They are their protectors and friends. Understanding and accepting it as such, they will be a kind of intelligence service of the citizens, for all which is suspicious that they observed on the terrain.

Inspectors, or officers for prevention, are not present on the terrain, though according to the statements of the competent officials in the Ministry of Internal Affairs, they should be present. But, if they are present, the name of “prevention inspectors” associated with the static aspect of those police officers, with the officers separated from the people who follow the situation more than they actively act on the field. Their role is only preventive. The role of the invigilators is preventive and active, which is better for protecting the security and freedom of the citizens. Yet, in the cases when it is necessary, they are active in discovering and capturing the perpetrators of crimes. They will be effective if cooperation with citizens. They will cooperate if they are good and honest people, if they are dignified and conscious of the extraordinary importance of their work in protecting law and order, security and tranquility of the citizens. The presence of police invigilators on the terrain is a relief for the citizens and a fear for the criminals. Invisible and omnipresent police is a feature of the police state. Police which is visible, recognizable, uniformed, which protects and assists the citizens should be a feature of the civil democratic. The competent authorities of the state government, especially the Ministry of Interior, should take all the necessary measures to return the dignity and reputation of the police officers. Their vocation is responsible and dangerous. This is why only tested and high moral persons are being accepted into police nowadays. Quality and responsible policemen should be rewarded in order to motivate them, to more conscientiously and responsibly perform their official duties and reduce incentives for corrupt behavior.

Conclusion:

The man is a social being - zoon politikon, ingenious, Aristotle says. Only people cannot live alone, they need to live in community with the other people in the society. The state is an organized society with order and regularities established by the laws. Law and order are dialectical opposite of disorder and anarchy. In conditions of peace and order people feel secure and safe. In disorder and anarchy they are unsafe and insecure. In such conditions, they fear, worry, feel insecure and threatened. That feeling of insecurity and vulnerability are grounds for non-freedom. There is no freedom where there is disorder and anarchy. Disorder and anarchy are in inversely proportional relationship to the safety and freedom. The more disorder in the society there is - the less security and freedom for citizens we have.

Security and freedom are social conditions of a free and democratic society, of democracy and freedom in the state as a social organization. They are social values and as such, they are a need of the citizens of the democratic society. The citizens have a constitutional right to them. To secure that right, the state is obliged to organize effective control and protective institutions: police, courts, prosecutions, inspections, ombudsmen, etc.

Police is the most scattered social institution in the front of the protection of order and regularity in society, of security and liberty of citizens. As the most scattered institution, it is the most responsible for the protection of law and order in the state, and, of course, for security and freedom of citizens. Responsibility and efficiency are in dialectical unity. Indifferent attitude brings inefficiency in protecting order and regularity in the state. Inefficiently protected order and regularity brings threat to social or civic values.

Respondent police constitute responsible police officers. The responsibility of the individual officer involves high expertise in the activities of its competence and high level of ethics or morality.

The police officer, performing police work aimed at protecting the safety and freedom of citizens, should be characterized by responsible attitude to work, high expertise and moral purity. He should be able to find out the most adequate solution in any situation, to be resolute and bold, dedicated to his vocation, serious, with highly developed sense of duty and responsibility and willingness to face the toughest tasks in protecting of law and order, which is the basic and ultimate objective of police work. Citizens will trust such police officer, and they will cooperate with him / her. Such police officer must protect the basic human values: life, property, dignity, peace, etc., which are the basis of the safety of citizens within the order and

regularity in the society, and thus provide a basic condition for their freedom, understood as the absence of fear, worry and concern of endangering those values.

LITERATURE:

1. Collection of Human Rights International Documents, Pearson Peacekeeping Centre, Cornwallis, Nova Scotia, Canada, 2002.
2. Dimitrijević V. i Paunović M.: Ljudska prava, Beogradski centar za ljudska prava, Beograd, 1997.
3. Кодекс на полициската етика, „Службен весник на РМ“, број 72/07
4. Кроушоу Р.: Човековите права и полицијата, МВР, Скопје, 2000.
5. Нова Македонија од 26. 04. 2011. година.
6. Politicka enciklopedija, Savremena administracija, Beograd, 1975.
7. Закон за полиција, „Службен весник на РМ“, број 114/06 и 6/09.
8. Закон за организација и работа на органите на државната управа, „Службен весник на РМ“, број 58/00
9. Закон за внатрешни работи, „Службен весник на РМ“, број 19/95.
10. Закон за внатрешни работи, Службен весник на РМ“, број 92/09.

SOME VIEWS OF TRAFFIC SAFETY AND PREVENTION OF ROAD TRAFFIC TORTS IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Boris Murgoski, Ph.D.

bmurgoski@yahoo.com

Faculty of Security - Skopje

Abstract

Traffic safety is a situation of optimal normal flow of traffic and protection of road users as well as material goods by eliminating possible sources of danger or their control in a pre-set level. Traffic delinquency represents a massive negative social and individual phenomenon that manifests itself through diverse illegal and immoral behavior of road users, which incurs many and various accidents (crashes), whose consequences are a huge number of lost lives, serious and minor injuries and enormous material damage. Therefore, without a doubt, traffic accidents on roads, in modern conditions of life (especially in underdeveloped countries) represent a serious security and public-health problem and challenges, both national and regional, as well as global level in general. The paper will present some ideas about traffic safety and process some features of traffic delinquency in the road traffic in the Republic of Macedonia. At the end of the paper some specific recommendations aimed at improving prevention in the field of road traffic are given.

Keywords: *traffic safety, traffic delinquency, police, prevention, traffic culture, car accident*

Introduction

Undoubtedly, traffic in general and road traffic as a way and style of social and individual life is one of the contemporary challenges of our time. The phenomenon of traffic exceeds the framework of the industry and economy and represents a range of technical inventions of means to meet some existential and broader social, political, economic and cultural needs of man, and manifests as a wide diffusion of technical resources, energy and participation of huge number of heterogeneous actors in it. Among them, specific volatile social relations are developed, susceptible to rapid changes in the use of too many and varied vehicles and facilities.

But on the other side of the coin, traffic is at the same time a very serious source of various threatening, dangers and accidents whose consequences are: human lives, serious and minor injuries and major

property damages. For example, according to data from the World Health Organization (WHO)¹, the world, every year, loses about 1.2 million people (which represent 2.1 % of global mortality) in accidents. Approximately, 20 - 50 million people are injured and left with lifelong consequences. That would mean that every day, approximately 140.000 people are injured on roads worldwide, over 3.000 die and about 15.000 are disabled for life. In addition, about 85 % of the fatal traffic injuries are in countries with low and middle development. Estimates of material damages from traffic accidents are 518 billion dollars annually, or approximately 1-2 % of the gross national income. According to WHO - traffic crashes are the second leading cause of death among people aged between 5 - 25 years.

In the Republic of Macedonia (in the period 2005 - 2010)², in the road traffic, a total of 23,153 traffic accident occurred, in which a total of 36,015 people were killed (including 940 people who have died and 35,075 people who suffered of severe or minor injuries). On average, each year in the road traffic 158 people lose their lives and 5,847 people are gaining serious or minor injuries. In addition, in traffic accidents, about 40 % of the participants are at the age of 25 years and one quarter of the dead people are under the age of 25 years. Data is alarming enough, but negative trends in the non-safety of the road traffic are still alarming, disturbing and unacceptable for the world in general, and especially for our society. Therefore, the safety of the traffic on roads in the world in general and here in particular, is considered a serious, complex and current security-traffic and public-health problem.

Some views of the security and traffic safety

In the everyday communication and functioning of the people, the safety concept is often interpreted differently. For example, it says that a man is safe, or group of people are materially secure. Furthermore, we talk about security of facilities, personnel security, security of cultural goods, property safety, traffic safety, personal safety and social secrets etc. In the literature, there is not identical and clear commitment to the linguistic term that would be determined by the content of security, says Professor Spaseski³. It is not always clear what is meant by the term security. In the professional and theoretical papers, and even more in the free speech, are used the following three words: security, reliability, and protection to

¹ World Health Organization - 2004, WHO Office – Skopje, Ministry of Health, Also see: Peter Hugh, *The Notion of Global Security - accident threats for security*, Tabernakul, Skopje, pp. 238 - 255;

² See in the paper, Table, no. 2

³ Spaseski, J. и Aslimoski, P.: *Defendology*, Ohrid, 2002, p. 27

presume the same content, i.e. to equalize it according to their importance. But it does not make a content distinction among them. According to J. Spaseski, the term security – is used to explain that the values in the society are safe due to the functioning of the whole system which regulates the overall relations with legal and moral norms, and functioning of the complete security system through measures and activities which “creates” security, storage and improvement. “When we say that we live safely, then we imply the general “milieu” in which people realize their life and work - creative existence. When there is no endangerment of what we call “normal” - what can be tolerated, then we can say that there is an average safe condition”.⁴ According to the theory of hierarchy of the human needs of Abraham Maslow, human security stands next to the need for food and minimum biological existence. The term security - according to the author, is very often found in the Croatian literature; by it, in lexical terms, is replaced the term security. In our language (speech) this term is used, but with particular significance. The term “care” - is used more to explain a specific kind of protection of the wellbeing. Then we have a concrete object (human, material or spiritual good) and a specific measure that protects (physical, technical, health, etc)⁵. Thereby the term is used in sociological, legal and technological sense. According to Draskovic,⁶ the term “security” in the broadest - sociological sense, means the dynamic structure of relationships and processes in society that ensures a smooth realization of the production activity of the people, i.e. their creation of material and social values or their smooth practical action in “manufacturing” of those values. According to Professor Spaseski⁷ in the encyclopedic sense, the term “security” means the removal of all activities (costs) and omissions which endanger or may endanger people, public order, material and spiritual goods, facilities, certain space or some other values. In the legal terms, security means the existence of legal order and order in the state with prescribed offenses (incriminations), effective system for detecting, preventing and combating criminal offenses and the existence of an efficient judicial system for timely and fair adjudication.

Starting from this broadly sociological meaning of the term security, we can talk about different species and subspecies of security depending on the species and subspecies of the human activity. For example, if we go by which values and goods should be safe, then we could distinguish higher priority for the following types of security: national

⁴ Spaseski, cit. work, p. 28.

⁵ Spaseski, cit. work, p. 28.

⁶ Draskovic, D.: *Bases of the Methodology of Searching of the Security Phenomena*, Skopje, 1984, p. 92

⁷ Spaseski, cit. work, p. 27

security (the state and society), personal safety, traffic safety (roads, rivers, lakes, seas and air), safety in tourism security in customs operations, safety of space, data security and other values.

Some complex issues of security in the literature still exist as well as many different concepts and approaches. Basically, there is a certain consensus that security actually means freedom from threats to basic personal and social values. However, there are different conceptual approaches and disagreements over the focus of research in terms of whether their focus should be on individual, national, regional or international security⁸. It is noted that security represents a complex, multidimensional problem with various challenges. There are still disputes over this concept of security, and it is also open to further research on contemporary security issues and challenges.⁹

Under “traffic” in the wider sense we mean various forms of organized movements in space (land, water, air) in order to transfer (transport) people, goods, energy and communications (news, speech, thoughts, images, sounds, waves, impulses) from one to another place. In fact, the modern traffic system has emerged out of the processes and relationships among people through organized activities and rational practice of their personal preferences and overall social, economic, technical, cultural, scientific and other development needs and interests. In that way, traffic gives a special contribution to the general development and welfare of humanity, because, as a development branch it occupies a special place in the modern societies.

Traffic science (science of traffic) is a subsystem of the general system of science that classified and further develops all the knowledge on the phenomenon of traffic. Safety is extremely interdisciplinary area before which are lying numerous and complex tasks of theoretical, phenomenological, etiological, preventive and therapeutic plan. According to Inic¹⁰, traffic safety as one of the scientific disciplines through application of scientific methodology followed, studied and explained emergent shapes (phenomenology), the causes, conditions and other factors that occur because hazards appear and endanger people and property in the traffic and especially traffic accidents (aetiology) and the strategy of prevention and reducing traffic

⁸ See: Nikodinovska, S.: *On Security - New Concepts*, Annual Book, Faculty of Security - Skopje, 2009, pp. 220 - 228

⁹ See: Mojanoski, C.: *The term Asphaliology (Science of Security)*, Annual Book, Faculty of Security - Skopje, 2010, pp. 12 - 21

¹⁰ See: Inic, M.: *Security of the Road Traffic*, second reviewed edition, Contemporary Administration, Belgrade, 1987, pp. 32 - 40; Pantazijevic, S.: *Security of the Road Traffic*, College of Interior Affairs, Belgrade, 1994, pp. 64-81; Lipovac, K.: *Traffic Security*, Government Gazette, SRJ, Belgrade, 2008, pp. 61 - 64;

accidents and other occurrences that threaten social values in traffic (construction of an effective system of protection), which despite its own results, uses the results of some other scientific disciplines.

According to Lipovac¹¹, traffic safety is a scientific discipline which studies the interdependence between transport and other processes in society on one side, and harmful effects of traffic on the other side. It studied and attempts to uncover causalities of the occurrence of the harmful effects of traffic in order to optimize the transport processes and reduce the harmful consequences. In a broader sense, the subject of traffic safety is the harmful effects of traffic. These includes accidents with all the easily measurable consequences, taking the living space, depletion of natural resources and environmental pollution (noise, emissions and waste materials arising from traffic), the negative psychological impacts of the traffic on individuals, the negative social impact of the traffic, social environmental pollution etc. In a narrower sense, the subject of traffic safety is dedicated to traffic accidents, or more accurately, to easily measurable consequences of the road accidents.

The overall goal of the traffic safety is the reduction of all harmful effects through smooth flow of traffic. Traffic safety is neither independent nor isolated scientific discipline, either in terms of the subject of study, or in terms of the methods of research. It relies on the great achievements and knowledge of the natural, technical and social sciences.

Basic indicators for traffic torts in the Republic of Macedonia

There are different views¹² in the literature for the term of “traffic delinquency”, depending on whether the authors prefer the criterion of variance from criminal or other legal norms. Basically, traffic delinquency covers all types of disrespect of the rules of behavior in traffic: offenses as socially dangerous behavior which as a rule cause specific effects (traffic accidents and crashes); offenses as a form of irresponsible, undisciplined and irregular behavior in traffic of the responsible persons; traffic violations as a form of undisciplined behavior that causes abstract danger, like other forms of social behavior of the road users that violate the established moral norms of behavior. A traffic accident is an accident on the road in which a vehicle

¹¹ Lipovac, K.: *Traffic Security*, Government Gazette, SRJ, Belgrade, 2008, pp. 61 - 64;

¹² For more see: Milutinovic, M, *Criminology*, Contemporary Administration, Belgrade, 1969, pp. 184 - 188; Makra, A., *Handbook*, Zagreb, 3/1988, pp. 243 - 249; Šeparović, Z.: *Road Accidents, Safety and Responsibility on the Roads*, second reviewed edition, Law Faculty - Zagreb, Zagreb - Belgrade, 1987, pp. 283-287; Vodinelik, V, *The Subject of the Road Criminology*, *Handbook*, Kragujevac, 2/1988, pp. 121-123; Arnaudovski, Lj., *Etiology of the Road Delinquency - one approach to its studying*, Skopje, 1998, p. 8

in motion participates and in which one or more persons were killed or injured or material damage was caused.¹³

Modern road traffic is a very dynamic and complex phenomenon in which to many conflict situations happen. In order to increase traffic safety, it is necessary to take more measures and activities aimed at eliminating or reducing hazards. We can observe the structure of the road traffic system as a mechanical structure, which consists of the relationship "vehicle - road", and biomechanical structure, which consists of the relationship "man - vehicle - road". Analyzing the possible causes, the comprehension of the road traffic can be simplified observing the three basic substructures: human, vehicle and road. The danger of occurrence of accidents becomes a function of five factors that make up the composition: human - vehicle - road - traffic on the road - incidental factor. In view of the main factors for traffic accidents in the world, today there are different opinions about the percentage of participating individual factors in the occurrence of road traffic accidents. Widespread is the view (by many authors) that human misbehavior causes about 85 % of the total number of traffic accidents, while the poor condition of roads, irregularity of vehicles and other factors are represented by about 15 %¹⁴.

Without pretensions of more fully elaborated and processing complex problems and many questions about the factors and causes of accidents (the phenomena in general are not subject of our review), here, we are just trying to give an overview of some of the most important criminological (phenomenological and aetiological) characteristics of the traffic delinquency in the Republic of Macedonia, which are of importance for criminology and criminal policy in traffic. Instead of the causes of the traffic accidents or traffic delinquency, we think that it is right to talk about factors for traffic safety. The following notes will present some basic indicators of the perpetrators of the traffic crimes and their representation in the overall structure of crime, then the scope, dynamics, structure and causes of traffic accidents.

¹³ Art. 10 item 40, Law on Security on the Road Traffic, Government Gazette of RM, No. 54/07-03.05.2007, 86/08-14.07.2008, 98/08-04.08.2008, 64/09-22.05.2009, 161/09-30.12.2009, 36/11-23.03.2011, 51/11-13.04.2011

¹⁴ According to: Rotim, F: *Elements Of the Security of Road Traffic - Research on the Traffic Accidents*, Handbook 1, Zagreb, 1990, pp. 2 - 5;

Table 1. Comparative review of reported, accused and convicted adult perpetrators for total crime and for crimes against traffic safety (CATS) in the Republic of Macedonia in the period 2004-2009¹⁵

		004	005	006	007	008	009	AL	
								L	
r eported	total	2.591	3.814	3.514	3.305	6.409	0.404	150.037	
	ATS	.299	.477	.667	.174	.167	.064	6.848	1 %
a ccused	total	.916	0.639	1.317	1.648	1.310	1.905	66.735	
	ATS	.498	.458	.712	.908	.998	.030	0.604	6 %
c onvicted	total	.097	.845	.280	.639	.503	.801	55.165	
	ATS	.348	.306	.572	.753	.885	.903	.767	8 %

Table 1., gives a comparative overview of reported, accused and convicted adults for general crime and crimes against traffic safety (CATS) in the Republic of Macedonia in the period 2004 - 2009. From the accompanying statistical data we can conclude that the reported adult perpetrators for CATS represent 11 % of the total reported perpetrators of all crimes, the accused adult perpetrators for CATS represent 16 % of the total accused perpetrators of all crimes and convicted adult perpetrators for CATS represent 18 % of the total convicted perpetrators of all crimes.

¹⁵ Statistic data are listed from: State Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Macedonia, Statistic overview: transport, tourism and other service, Transport and other Communications, Skopje, 2005 - 2010

Table 2. Review of road accidents and road accident casualties in the Republic of Macedonia in the period 2005-2010¹⁶

		005	006	007	008	009	010	LL	A
road traffic accidents		.821	.313	.037	.403	.353	.226	3.153	2
road accident casualties	killed	43	40	73	62	60	62	40	9
	seriously and slightly injured	.176	.936	.133	.724	.731	.375	5.075	3
all road accident casualties		.319	.076	.306	.886	.891	.537	6.015	3

Table 2., provides review of accidents and their casualties in the Republic of Macedonia in the period 2005 - 2010. During the six-year period which is analyzed in this paper, there are total 23,153 traffic accidents. A steady increase in the number of accidents is noticed, and after 2007 their number is constantly over 4.000. The number of dead people in these accidents ranges from 140 to 173, and the number of seriously and slightly injured persons especially after 2007 consistently exceeds 6.000. The total number of victims in the road accidents was 36.015 people, from which 35.075 persons (or 97.4 %) are seriously and slightly injured and 940 persons (or 2.6 %) died. From the total number of killed persons during the analyzed period, each year approximately 5 % were children (persons under 14 years of age). Regarding the structure of the killed people in accidents, the most numerous category are car drivers and their passengers, followed by pedestrians and drivers of bicycles, motor bikes and motorcycles, and much less drivers of freight cars, tractors and so on. The distribution is similar for the seriously and slightly injured persons in road accidents. Indeed, this distribution is expected, according to numerical representation of these road traffic users. Otherwise, most casualties are from traffic accidents caused by mutual collisions of vehicles in motion, followed by accidents caused by overthrow or trampling of pedestrians, cars thrown off the road, collision on the road structure, collision in a stopped vehicle or when turning the vehicle off the road.

¹⁶ Statistic data are listed from: State Agency of Statistics of the Republic of Macedonia, Statistic overview: transport, tourism and other service, Transport and other Communications, Skopje, 2006-2010

Table 3. Causes of road traffic accidents in the Republic of Macedonia in the period 2005-2010¹⁷

		005	006	007	008	009	010	TOT	
								AL	
								LL	
speeding		90	.124	.431	.461	.238	.219	.463	0.6
violation of rules of priority of passage		19	78	53	57	46	45	.898	1.2
driving under the influence of alcohol		43	02	40	33	55	32	05	.4
wrong side and direction of movement		31	95	42	23	67	92	.250	2.2
improperly movement and turning		97	80	68	39	80	11	.775	5.1
illegal overtaking		58	75	19	31	06	01	.190	.5
TOTAL	A	.238	.654	.253	.544	.392	.300	8.381	
	%	2.2	4.3	7.7	9.3	8.5	8		00

Table 3., gives reasons for accidents in the Republic of Macedonia in the period 2005 - 2010. The main cause of accidents, according to the data for the analyzed period of six years of time is speeding on roads (40.6 %), followed by disobeying of the rules of priority in passing (21.2 %), improperly movement and turning (15.1 %) wrong side and direction of movement (12.2 %), illegal overtaking (6.5 %) and driving under the influence of alcohol (4.4 %). The distribution of accidents by the liability factor looks like this: the most responsible for accidents are drivers, followed by pedestrians and negligible accountability have vehicles, roads and other passengers, which confirms the conclusion that the most responsible for accidents is the subjective factor – people.

The data clearly indicate the alert and the unfavorable worrying situation and negative trends in the non-safety in the road traffic. This implies the need for additionally enhanced engagement, profound interdisciplinary research on the traffic factors, and more effective coordination

¹⁷ Information are downloaded from the official web site of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Macedonia
<http://www.moi.gov.mk/DesktopDefault.aspx?tabindex=0&tabid=387> [retrieved on the 25.12.2011]

of all authorities, institutions and entities involved and responsible in implementing the National Strategy for improving traffic safety on roads in the Republic of Macedonia for the period 2009 - 2014. In this context, the Ministry of Interior and the special - traffic police as a professional entity in the police organization for traffic safety are based on thorough analysis of the phenomenological and etiological characteristics of traffic offenses; it should be worked continuously on problems related to prevention (education, campaigns, etc.), but also on effective repression of the causes of the hardest types of traffic violations. In this sense it is necessary to increase the intensity of the control on roads for a place and time in direction of effective prevention and repression of traffic offenders. In that way, positive and larger effects in the field of special and general prevention among road traffic users could be achieved, improving traffic discipline, awareness and responsibility for developing the traffic culture in general.

The National strategy is the first strategy for improving the traffic safety on roads in the Republic of Macedonia and it should contribute to safer road traffic in the period 2009 - 2014. The main objective of the Strategy is the number of deaths in the road traffic in the Republic of Macedonia until 2014 to reduce by 50 % and 0 (zero) children - victims involved in the road traffic accidents (forecast made following the plans and acts of the European Union).¹⁸ The National Strategy provides proposed solutions to achieve the main goal.

Measures related to preventive police action are aimed at:

- increasing of the road safety related to the number of controls for exceeding the speed and respecting the red light at the intersections,
- reduce accidents and their consequences from participation in traffic under the influence of alcohol, drugs and other psychotropic substances through the action of traffic police,
- control of using safety belts,
- fully respect the legislation by all road traffic users by improving efficiency in the work of traffic police and administrative authorities in it, etc.

Police campaigns as a preventive measure, and their benefits

In the following section of the paper there is an overview of police preventive activities undertaken in the previous 5 years in the

¹⁸ National Strategy of the Republic of Macedonia for improvement of the traffic safety on roads, 2009 - 2014, Skopje, 2008, p. 21

Republic of Macedonia¹⁹, in the form of campaigns, projects, briefings, publications, reports, analysis, tips and other specific measures.

- “Wear a seat belt” - Campaign for traffic safety - through video;
- Campaign “Switch on the Light” - through posters, billboards and TV presentations;
- Campaign "Three basic rules for safe driving" (campaign whose main purpose are foreign citizens).
 1. Use safety belts;
 2. Turn on the lights (even in daylight);
 3. Do not use mobile phones (hand-free devices are not allowed).
- Campaign “Against the use of mobile phones while driving a motor vehicle”. Its main motto is: You have 2500 reasons to... do not phone while driving;
- Campaign for "Use of safety belts" with the motto “Use belts - just a single click protects your life – Just click”;
- Project “Action for safer pedestrian in traffic” realized in the period September - October 2009 by the Skopje police stations in the city supported by the OSCE mission in the Republic of Macedonia. The project was implemented in two phases. In the first phase, which took place during a period of one month, propaganda material of reckless pedestrians and drivers who do not use the marked pedestrian crossing were distributed and spread around. In the second phase there was zero tolerance, and there was punishment of all drivers and pedestrians who do not respect the law;
- Campaign “Summer guide for radars” - realized in the month of June 2010. Through the cooperation of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Macedonia with the newspapers, a map of the Republic of Macedonia marked with the places on the roads where there is a radar control was printed. Within this campaign, along with the maps for radars, some caution advices for the sign "80" on highways were provided, then, the fine amount for refusing alcotest, advice that on the highway police cars may only stop you at the blue squares that are part of the highway traffic unit of the Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Macedonia, and other useful information.

Concluding observations and proposals

Prevention of the social negative phenomena is the best policy trend in the society: as in medicine - here may also be applied the principle

¹⁹ Police preventive activities are listed according to the official web site of the Ministry of interior of the Republic of Macedonia www.moi.gov.mk

that “it is more rational to prevent than to cure”. In general, measures and actions should be focused and intensified in the following contents:

- Prevention of traffic delinquency as a negative phenomenon of social indiscipline in traffic, with specific means of prevention and repression
- Traffic accidents prevention, as a general policy of maintaining the traffic safety – security in various ways.

Reducing the number of traffic offenses (offenses and criminal acts) reduces the number of traffic accidents - reducing the number of suffering (loss of lives, serious physical injury, temporary or permanent disability) and enormous material damage.

An organized, meaningful, adequate, rational, and therefore efficient and effective response to the negative social phenomena in traffic, especially traffic accidents, is necessary to know the etiological, phenomenological and other features of these phenomena. Basis of any action to prevent road accidents must be set on precisely diagnosed conditions and clearly differentiated conditions in which these phenomena occur. Complex influence of various subjective and objective factors can only be explained on the basis of science and scientific methodology. Otherwise, prevention would be reduced to only sterile declarations and non-scientific measures could not overcome the limitations of the positivist and routine problem solving. Further coordinated and synchronized activities of all relevant and interested parties to promote traffic safety on roads are absolutely necessary.

LITERATURE

1. Спасески .Ј. и Аслимоски.П.: *Дефендологија*, Охрид, 2002;
 2. Драшковиќ. Д.: *Основи на методологија на истражување на безбедносните појави*, Скопје, 1984;
 3. Никодиновска, С.: *За безбедноста-нови концепти*, Годишник, 2009, Факултет за безбедност-Скопје;
2. Мојаноски, Ц.: *За поимот наука за безбедноста (асфалиологија)*, Годишник, 2010, Факултет за безбедност -Скопје;
3. Иник, М.: *Безбедност друмског саобраќаја*, Савремена администрација, Београд, 1987;
4. Пантазијевиќ, С.: *Безбедност друмског саобраќаја*, Виша школа унутрашних послова, Београд, 1994;

5. Липовац, К.: *Безбедност саобраќаја*, Службени лист, СРЈ, Београд, 2008;
6. Milutinović, M.: *Kriminologija, Savremena administracija*, Београд, 1969;
7. Макра, А.: Загреб, *Prirucnik*, 3/1988;
8. Šeparović, Z.: *Stradanje u prometu, Sigurnost i odgovornost u saobraćaju*, друго знатно измијенјено и проширено издање књиге, Правни факултет – Загреб-Београд, 1987;
9. Arnaudovski. Lj, “*Etiologija na soobrakajnata delikvencija - za eden pristap kon nejinoto proucuvanje*”, Скопје, 1998;
10. Пир Нју, *Poim za globalna bezbednost - nesrečni zakani za bezbednosta*, Табернакул, Скопје, 2009;
11. Национална стратегија на Република Македонија за унапредување на безбедноста на сообраќајот на патиштата 2009–2014, Скопје, 2008;
12. официјална веб страна на Министерството за внатрешни работи на Република Македонија <https://www.moi.gov.mk>
13. Светска здравствена организација: *Брошура за Светскиот ден на здравјето*, 7.04.2004;
14. The UK’s national cyclists’ organization: CTC, Campaigns Briefing: Traffic Policing /Other Enforcement Agencies, *Traffic Police and other enforcement agencies*, downloaded from http://www.ctc.org.uk/resources/Campaigns/10_Traffic-Policing_brf.pdf [retrieved 25.12.2011]

POLICE PROFESSION IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA IN THEN CONTEXT OF EUROPEAN STANDARDS AND PERSPECTIVES

Frosina T. Remenski, Ph.D.
ftremenski@fb.uklo.edu.mk
Faculty for Security - Skopje

Abstract

The term “profession” refers to any work activity in the frameworks of the social and technical categorization of labour, when it is permanently performed, i.e. in terms of occupation and serves to the benefits of acquiring means for a living, and when for conduction of this activity, special knowledge, skills and education are needed. The term “profession” is in a direct connection to the terms “professionalization” and “professionalism”. Professionalization is a process of acquiring of the distinctions or qualifications of a certain profession. The final aim of the professionalization is legitimization of a certain occupation in the society, with acknowledgement of its social status. Professionalism implies to existence of distinctions of the profession of some activity in a broader sense, and the attitude of doers of some profession toward their own duties and organization. The doers of a certain profession must acquire and respect certain values and attitudes which comprise the professional ideology. The three most important, elementary distinctions of the police profession are:

- *permanent and*
- *paid occupation, on the base of*
- *appropriate educational and professional grounds*

The police profession in this context must be broadly socially acknowledged and respected, i.e. to acquire social accreditation. This process of professionalization must include: standards of the professional responsibilities, abiding by the codex¹ of the professional ethics, clear guaranty for political neutrality of the police, transparent and lawful acts towards the public and the members of the police profession.

This paper is with the aim to give analysis and presentation of the state and the perspectives of the police profession in Macedonia and the process of professionalization in accordance with the European standards and requirements in the integration of Macedonia in EU. This analysis will use the Bitner criteria for professionalization of the police and the results from the longitudinal research of the attitudes of the citizens about the functioning of the Macedonian police in the period from 2008 to 2012, a research carried out at the Faculty of security in Skopje.

¹ Tulez, J., *Police and the Public*, MOI, Republic of Croatia, 2005, pp. 139-42;

Key words: *police profession, professionalization, reform, EU, Republic of Macedonia.*

Introduction

“Profession” as an expression derives from the Latin word *professio* which means profession, occupation.² Sustainability is a feature of the police profession that delivers employment and commitment in terms of permanent full time work which differs significantly from the occasional or voluntary engagements. Reliability of the profession means stability in the workplace of the employee who binds their economic existence of the job for a long, usually indefinite period. Termination and voluntary termination of the employment is legally regulated and subjects to legal proceedings. The relationship of the employee (police officer) with the organization ultimately leads to the creation of dependency between personal existence and success of the organization, thus linking the interests of officers to the interests of the organization.

The second feature of the police profession, the salary, represents the amount of money paid to the employee for his / her work, who should be given sufficient basis for personal economic existence and a living for their family. The third characteristic of the police profession is a professional degree, or professional knowledge, skills and education needed to perform certain police duties. Police profession as a whole rests on the work of people who are experts in their work. Besides these basic features, the concept of professionalism in modern police is the existence of other important features, above all selection of the personnel according to specific standards, a system of titles acquired in the hierarchy of the work, the opportunity for a career or promotion to higher and better paid positions, existence of systematic internal hierarchical control, political neutrality of employees, adopting rules of professional ethics, etc. The developed professionalism is supposed to cover the functional specialization of the staff, using modern technology at work, responsible use of discretionary powers, to some extent - autonomy in acting and some landmarks. Professionalism in the police as Skolnik³ says, does not imply only obligation of the police officers to be honest and capable, but opens the question of what that concept suggests about the police in the society, committed to the rule of law.

² *Sociological lexicon*, Belgrade, 1982, p. 750;

³ *Op. cit.*, p. 149;

The process of professionalization in the history of the police organization as a social institution began long ago and it is not balanced in all the countries and centuries.⁴ Although the characteristics of professionalism occurred long ago, the facts show that 19th century was the “golden age” of professionalism. Today, one of the most important attributes of a modern police professionalism that allows accumulation of professional, ethical and experiential facilities (staff) is the performance of police work. Professionalization allows developing of a system of selection of personnel, professional training, advancement, responsibility and payment system, and development of internal specialization, technical modernization and improvement of the important prerequisites for successful execution of tasks. Professionalization is a dynamic process, as opposed to opinions that may be viewed as a static category. This leads to the conclusion that future development should be directed towards rising of the level of professionalization of the police, which should lead to:

- removal of the remains of old practices and elements that are contrary to professionalism,
- removal of certain doubts about the concept of police professionalism, and
- wider social recognition and appreciation of the police profession.⁵

Dilemmas about the concept of police professionalism originate from traditional sociological understanding of the meaning and sense of professionalism in general.

In the sociology of professionalism, on one side is the development of ideal categories (values) and sanctions for providing these values (E. Durkheim), and on the other, the adoption of technical knowledge and skills

⁴ Strengthening of the position, salary in cash and specialized training for officers as natural features of professionalism was first introduced in France, Prussia, Holland and other European countries. In Great Britain professionalism began in 1829 at the London Metropolitan Police and later affected all the other police services in Great Britain. The notion of professionalism was reinforced in 1870. The main reason for the late professionalization are considered the British reservations toward bureaucrat clusters of the strong belief that the police could threaten freedom of the aristocracy. In accordance with these views on professionalism, Britain without hesitation approached professionalization of the police in their colonies. Russian police became professional in the mid 19th century, the Japanese guards in 1891. Professionalization in the US took a wide swing until the early 20th century. The main obstacle in this process was the retention of the backward system, under which the staff of the police was not recruited by qualifications for the job, but by political involvement in the parties in power. More in: Butler, A. J. P, *Police Management*, 2nd ed., Aldershot: Partmouth, 1992, p. 3;

⁵ Kappeler, V., *The Police and Society*, Illinois, Waveland Press Inc., 1999;

that serve for rational and efficient performance of work (M. Weber).⁶ These two notions, united in the context of policing, balance between a general ideology and the ideology of efficiency subordination to the rule of law, led to different concepts⁷ of police professionalism: one founded on managerial efficiency and others, on fundamental legal and moral values. Managerial conception tends to favor the interests of the organization, administrative efficiency, a technically perfect and formally correct treatment based on expert knowledge and experience, the calculated and legally predictable behavior of employees who act without entering personal initiatives and feelings in their work and so on. This concept is supported by most of the police leadership and totalitarian regimes and can serve as a cover to avoid police confrontation with the requirements of the rule of law. In contrast, professionalism must have a humane element and favors charge - in the interest of the community, the rule of law, and the civil liberties and rights - police conduct. In this conception of professionalism more important are the core values of the democratic legal order (no mechanical approach to the problem of maintaining law and order, initiative and ethics of the police and similar qualities) than Technological mark and administrative efficiency.⁸

The tendency to professionalize the police as a social organization should lead to broad social recognition and esteem (social accreditation) of the police profession.⁹ Despite the fact that professionalism is the elemental attribute of the modern police, we should take into account the fact that police work is not yet defined in the modern and indisputable way as a special and socially respectable profession, as is the case with the doctors and the medical profession in general.

Bearing all this in mind, Bittner deemed that professionalization of the police can now speak only in trial form. According to him, for the police profession to be socially recognized, it is necessary to fulfill the following conditions:

- formalizing the police skills as a separate occupation of the social ladder of professions,
- establishment of the police profession of scientific knowledge,
- introduction of professional schools for all officers,

⁶ Weber, M., *Economy and Society*, New York, Los Angeles, London, University of California Press Berkeley, 1978; Bayley HD, *Police and Society*, Beverly Hills, London, Sage Publications, 1976, pp. 78 - 91; Tasheva, M., *Contemporary Sociological Theories*, Philosophy Faculty, Skopje, August 2, Stip, 2002;

⁷ MORE IN BAILEY, W. G., (ED.), THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF POLICE SCIENCE, NEW YORK: PRESS, GARLAND 1989;

⁸ Also,

⁹ Tashevska-Remenski, F., *Police as a social institution - the contribution to sociology of police*, "Horizanot 2" University "St. Clement Ohridski" -Bitola, 2011;

- clear formulation of those skills and knowledge that police officers must possess to belong to the profession.¹⁰

According to Bittner, the main obstacles to the fulfillment of these conditions are insufficient in precision of the work which is performed by the uniformed police officers - not counting the specialized technical services, most officers in the schedule of their daily work or the work experience perform various tasks (patrol, traffic regulation, investigation, control of public unrest, providing facilities and people, paperwork, etc.).

Although the possibility of such use of the human resources has a particular advantage (easier management, etc.), in effect it has an arbitrary division of labor which is not based on specialized knowledge and skills, but the rudimentary knowledge of the general type or the same types of training (as opposed to modern notions of professionalism). Uniformed police officers are often used for various auxiliary, administrative, and technical works which is also contrary to the situation in the recognized occupations. It is thought that the obstacle to the proclamation of police skills as a profession is the lack of an open labor market for those skills and experiences (e.g. unemployed teachers, doctors or lawyers have their occupation in the labor market, a policeman who goes out of business is just former policeman - his skills are valuable only for the police).¹¹

By the modern model of professionalism (in addition to the stated characteristics), we mean the formulation and adoption of virtually uncontested features that distinguish the police profession from other professions in the society and are valued accordingly. This model of professionalism should include standards for greater professional responsibility, code of professional ethics, clear guarantees of political neutrality of police and similar values. In that way, the police will be a socially respected profession or as such which provides services needed to the society and its individuals. The need for public order, peace, personal and property security, ranks among the most important needs of each individual and the society generally. This fact should serve the political leadership as outgoing attitude awareness of police officers on the standards of their profession.

Significant contribution to the development of professionalism should be provided by: the professional association of police officers

¹⁰ BITTNER, E., ASPECTS OF POLICE WORK, *NORTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY PRESS, BOSTON, 1990, PP. 56 - 67;*

¹¹ BITTNER, E., THE FUNCTIONS OF THE POLICE IN MODERN SOCIETY, *CENTER FOR STUDIES OF CRIME AND DELINQUENCY, ROCKVILLE, MARYLAND, 1970, PP. 122 - 132;*

(union), scientific research and theories, (police) organization which is expected to offer qualitatively new addition to the police craft systematic theoretical form, etc. In this context, many authors consider that the characteristics of the profession should include membership of police officers in the professional associations, indisputable moral ethics, commitment of the police officers to their professional development, development of scientific research for police, the structure of the professional literature, the existence of a unique and identifiable academic field of knowledge which is confirmed by the university-level education.

When it comes to the lack of scientific knowledge about the police profession as one of the obstacles for its social recognition, we should take into account the fact that the condition *sine qua none* of any modern profession is to be based on scientific knowledge, and that public confidence in the effectiveness of professional practice is partially based on the assumption that the work of the practitioners is relevant from a scientific perspective (e.g., the medical profession has become a recognized profession, having received the knowledge of scientific character). In that sense it is necessary to create a set of relevant scientific knowledge for the police. In practical terms, it should be achieved - the police officers themselves do not understand it as people trained to use weapons, but as professional officers trained for their work - training based on specific programs of scientific knowledge.¹²

The longitudinal scientific research at the Faculty of Security in Skopje - "The citizens' views of the work of the Macedonian police (2008 - 2012)", included a survey on a representative statistical sample - citizens of the Republic of Macedonia for several groups of questions (criminalization of the Macedonian society issues for the police as an organization, the police profession, and position of the work of police officers). The research provided the basis of empirical data from large scientific importance for the analysis of the perception of citizens about police work in the Republic of Macedonia and the development of science for the police in general.¹³

In relation to the three elements of the police profession (consistency of work, salary and education) citizens' opinions are expressed in the next paragraphs. The largest percentage of citizens in all five years when the survey was conducted (from 35.6% (2008) to 37.2% (2012)), disagree with the view that "Police work is properly paid / rewarded." Rather, they consider that it is not paid, having in mind the percentage of respondents

¹² Also, p. 56 - 58;

¹³ Research team at the Faculty of Security - Skopje, "Attitudes of the work of the Macedonian police (2008 - 2012)" (2008) 1163 respondents, (2009) 1318 respondents, (2010) 1309 respondents, (2011) 1440 respondents, (2012) 1286 respondents.

(from 74.5% (2008) to 76% (2012)), who consider that "Police work is risky" and the percentage of respondents who believe that "Police work is tough / hard "(from 62.4% (2008) to 61.3% (2012)).

In the presented theoretical views of the most authors dealing with the question of the police profession in the context of the contemporary processes of modernization and professionalization dominates the generalization that for many reasons, the police profession still has the required level of social accreditation. For the most part, the longitudinal research has confirmed these views which are also related to the status of the police profession in the Republic. However, highlighting the fact that the largest percentage of respondents (from 48.2% (2008) to 50.3% (2012)), considered that "The police profession is a respectable profession", while the paragraph - "Today to be a cop is a real challenge" represents the largest percentage of respondents who chose the optional positive responses (agree, partially agree).

In requiring from the citizens to declare their position on the positive assertion that "The police are professional and trained", the largest percentage of respondents (from 32% (2008) to 33.6% (2012)) agrees with the positive assertion. It is a small percentage of respondents who "cannot assess" whether the police are professional and trained (by 28.6% (2008) to 27.6% (2012)). The lack of a clear (positive or negative) attitude to the claim due the fact that a larger percentage of respondents (in all five years of the research), said they did not know enough about the powers of the police and the police in the future should pay more attention to the campaigns to acquaint citizens with their responsibilities, rights and obligations. Besides this fact, the lack of attitude of the respondents for their professionalism and training of the police influenced the lack of information and accurate data on the processes within the police organization, directly or indirectly related to the required standards of professionalism. There is a slight increase (by 5% from 2008 - 2012) of the percentage in the extremely negative response (Strongly disagree) in the claim of professional responsibilities and their performance by the police officers. This trend is due to the fact that during the survey in 2010 and in 2011, few events in which police had direct and indirect participation in the media plagued their professional conduct.

If professionalization, according to the contemporary trends in the development of the police profession means a separate system of recruitment, selection, training and education of police officers, then a retrograde process - which will be a transparent way of receiving clear evaluation criteria and selection of candidates for police officers, or impacts in all phases of providing status police officer - would entail a process of professionalization of the police. In this context, as opposed to the reform of the police of the Republic in the EU integration and providing of the

regulatory and the organizational conditions for admission, it is the opinion of citizens on this issue - whether today anyone can be a policeman. To this claim, respondents in all five years continuously respond with positive options in the offered answers (agree, totally agree) or 32.1% (2008) "agree", 27.6% (2009), "disagree", 26.5 % (2010 "completely agree", 27.3% (2011) "agree" and 29.9% (2012) "completely agree". The data show a small percentage of the deviations from the trend in the answers of respondents, indicating the position of citizens that the police officer can be anyone. This talks about: non-recognition of the police profession as a profession that requires special skills, expertise and education, non-recognition of the criteria for selection of employees in the police, and so on.

In the context of the citizens' responses to the previous claim for highlighting the views of the citizens, is the next paragraph that "The police employ people who are not appropriate to be cops". This assertion as the previous one dominates the percentage of highly positive responses (totally agree) to the offered optional answers. They mostly answered with "completely agree" in the five years of research going - 41.2% (2008), 44.7% (2009), 48.1% (2010), 44.9% (2011), and 48% (2012). This statement is a notable trend growth of extremely positive responses, which talks about the perception of citizens of the people working in the police. This attitude of citizens is due to the impact of several factors: the efficiency of the police in general, specific police actions in certain cases, respect of the system of selection and recruitment in the police, the media presentation of the police work, (in)visibility of the political influence, political neutrality of the police system in the development, control, supervision, etc. If these factors prevail in a negative context, the effect of a negative public opinion is expected, but it can help to identify those who have professionally and socially recognizable qualities required for performing police work.

Respondents in the five years of the research agree (dominated by extremely positive attitude "completely agree"), that: 1) The success of the police depends on the expertise and scholarship of the police personnel, 2) To be successful in carrying out police duties, police officers should continually improve, and, 3) To increase the degree of professionalization of the police, political influence must be removed. These three claims compose Bittner's criteria for professionalization of the police. The fact that citizens recognize these positive values and standards emphasizes the process of professionalization. Despite these positive values that are recognized by the citizens of the claim, the negative that "the influence of the political parties harms the perception of the police work", brings to the desired politically neutral police and the need to meet the real professional standards.

Conclusion

The picture of the Macedonian police includes several elements through which our analysis talks about the image of the police. These are processes of professionalization which imply: de-politization of the police (not depending on political parties), efficiency in the suppression of crime, protection of the citizens' privacy and basic human freedoms and rights, prevention of crime, etc. which are significant in comparison of the relationship "police - public", etc. The Ministry of Interior is very slow in the implementation of the key concepts for building professionalism in accordance with the required standards. The key concepts of the above-mentioned processes involve quality human resources which should make an important connection between knowledge, expertise and responsibility arising from the job of police officers and experienced and properly educated police personnel. In the process of transformation / reformation in accordance with the European standards, the Macedonian police are to return the course of professionalization and de-politization, which means proper education of the police officers and neutralizing of the political party influence in the selection, hiring and advancement of the criminal police and staff, etc. Parallel to these processes, the police should build and foster positive relations among its employees and relations with the citizens and the public in general, through timely, objective, impartial and non-selective indirect (through media) and direct information.

REFERENCES

1. Bailey, W. G. (ed.), *The Encyclopedia of Police Science*, New York: Garland Press, 1989;
2. Bailey, H. D., *Police and Society*, Beverly Hills, London, Sage Publications, 1976, str. 78-91;
3. Bittner, E., *Aspects of police work*, Northeastern University Press, Boston, 1990;
4. Bittner, E., *The functions of the police in modern society, a review of background factors, current practices and possible role models*, National Inst. of Mental Health, Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, Rockville, Maryland, 1970;
5. Butler, A. J. P., *Police Management*, 2nd ed., Aldershot: Partmouth, 1992;
6. Dai, M., *The ways that police deal with people, The theory and practice of process-based policing*, Edwin Mellen Press, Lewiston, 2010;

7. Holdaway, S., *Recruiting a multi-racial police force*, a research study, HMSO, London, 1991;
8. Kappeler, V., *The Police and Society*, Illinois, Waveland Press Inc., 1999;
9. Miller, L., Braswell M., Whitehead, J., *Human relations and police work*, 6th ed. Waveland Press, Long Grove, Ill, 2010;
10. Milosavljevich, Bogoljub, *Nauka o Policiji*, Policijska Academy, Belgrade, 1997;
11. Tulezi, Josip, *Policija i javnost*, MUP, Republika Hrvatska, 2005;
12. Vollmer, H. M., & Mills, D. L., *Professionalization*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1966;
13. Weber, M., *Economy and Society*, New York, Los Angeles, London, University of California Press Berkeley, 1978;
14. Faculty of Security – Skopje, "*Attitudes of the work of the Macedonian police (2008-2012)*";
15. *Sociological lexicon*, Beograd, 1982;
16. Tashevska-Remenski, F., *Police as a social institution - the contribution to sociology of police*, "Horizanot 2" University "St. Clement Ohridski "-Bitola, 2011;
17. Tashevska-Remenski, F., *Police as Social Institution - Contribution to Sociology of Police*, in "Horizanot 2" University "St. Clement Ohridski "-Bitola, 2011;
18. Tashevska-Remenski, F., *Theoretical conceptualization of sociology at the police*, "Sociological review", Faculty of Philosophy, Institute of Sociology, 2011;

POSITION OF POLICE SCIENCES WITHIN THE SYSTEM OF SCIENCES

Rade Rajkovcevski, M.A.

raderaj@yahoo.com

Mirceva, Stojanka, Ph.D.

stojankamirceva@hotmail.com

Faculty of Security – Skopje, Macedonia

Abstract

In the recent years, the Republic of Macedonia and its surrounding countries increasingly follow the contemporary trends in the police area. Expert public faces the dilemmas associated with the need for allocation of the police science as a separate area within the social sciences. However, the problem of separation of Police Science and finding an appropriate place for them within the security sciences opens many controversies among the experts dealing with police in Europe and North America.

Since the Second World War, police experts from US began to think actively about this challenge. They found a solution that proved that the main characteristic of the police science is its applicative nature. Centres for police training brought the police skill in an academic environment that makes it science. Functioning within the academic police environment in Europe, the labour in direction of finding out answers to questions related to the definition and classification of the police science resulted in creation of the Final report of the Project Group on European Approach to Police Science in April 2007.

This paper explains the affiliation of the police science with application of qualitative methods. It is used to give a convenient explanation of the differences between the police science and the policing. It also analyses and compares European and North American approach to the dilemmas of introducing and defining the police science. For this purpose, historical and comparative method is used. The paper should contribute to the development of the police science in Europe and further, together with participation of the Macedonian academic community in segments of this area.

Keywords: *police, crime, dilemmas, science and security.*

Introduction

Creation of the police science is initiated by the police and social needs, development of crime and technology. The “science” means the broad

array of methods and technologies that police have confronted over the last half century. This includes advances in forensics such as DNA testing, digital fingerprinting and other technologies meant to improve detection and identification. It also includes social science which had often been neglected by the police before, but it has begun to play an increasingly important role over the last few decades, both in terms of advancing of the crime analysis and in evaluating and assessing traditional police practices and innovations in the police strategies. By this science it is also implied to advancement of the use of scientific models of inquiry, such as the problem-oriented policing.¹

Today, police science gets a wider dimension by involving external stakeholders in its definition and development. Many of them, such as media, academies, NGO's and other factors have a significant role in making the police better, more transparent and more democratic in terms of obeying the rule of law, human rights and freedoms. Moreover, it should not be allowed that the police science loses the link to the subject, for which it is primarily designed - the police. Police will always be a main source for scientific surveys and researches related precisely to this establishment or other security issues.

In defining the position and role of the police science, there was an enormous contribution from the experts and institutions dealing with training and education of the police. They served as mediators in overcoming the critical attitude of the external stakeholders and the police community. Most of them work in fields which belong to the group of social sciences; social sciences on their part, especially in Europe, are overlapping with the tendency of understanding the police science as part of the group of social sciences and set the beginnings of the police science mainly as a forensic science. Contemporary police science is focused on issues related to police and dealing with crime, and this makes it different from the military or generalized security science. Also, when the policing overpasses the national borders and there is need for police cooperation, the Police Science uses data, expertise and experiences from many countries. That implies involvement of many police entities in solving the police issues. Besides the fact that there are many differences regarding the national political and police systems, there are also many similarities which allow building of common methodological approaches within Police Sciences.

Needs for Police Science

¹David Weisburd and Peter Neyroud. *Police Science: Toward a New Paradigm*. (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, 2011)

<https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/228922.pdf> (accessed on March 01st, 2012). p. 2

Many social events and processes contributed to the development of Police Science as a distinct scientific field. Police Science was developing at the time when the major political changes occurred in the developed world. With the democratic changes in the society, citizen protection of their freedoms and rights, respect of the rule of law and fight against organized crime became nucleus of the policing. These changes are also analysed in terms of demilitarization and partially as decentralization of the police. The contemporary police organization defocuses its purposes from the state officials to the individuals. The policing represents an executive measure which in the same time is too complex, has its principles of work, its own methodology, system of values and builds its own system of knowledge. It makes the fundamentals of science, i.e. Police Science. The beginnings came with the skills developed by the police training centres and used by the police officers. The subject of policing, after certain period of evolution, grew up from police routine to science within police academic entities. So, applicative police work evolved to a research-based Police Science which serves to increase the police efficiency and to understand the aetiology and phenomenology of crime and other police concerns.

Today, there are different target groups of police studies evaluated, which also became wider - incorporated in many scientific fields which deal with police issues. Most of them were addressed to university students and academic communities, some to the public within political action, and others to the police. They followed their self- understanding as practitioners who were not familiar with the academic rules and procedures but rather with the law and professional police standards gained by the experience of generations of police officers. Knowledge of policing was not, according to the police doctrine, a result of scientific reflection but of police practice and long term experience. During the 1960s and 1970s the police in the Western world considered the expanding police studies, more or less, as attacks from outside on its professional self-concept.² Democratic developments and principles of the modern management methods made the police more open for criticism from outside and even from inside the police organisation. The police organisation realized the purpose of scientific studies for police management and their positive impact on the police practice. Thus, tensions between the police culture and the academics were reduced, and police authorities started to establish their own research departments, or cooperation

²Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al. *Perspectives Of Police Science In Europe*. (Hampshire, United Kingdom: CEPOL House, 2007),

http://www.cepol.europa.eu/fileadmin/website/Research_Science/PGEAPS_Final_Report.pdf

(accessed on March 01, 2012), pp.15-16.

with the independent researchers outside the police. This picture is not only a result of the police learning process; moreover, it is a result of social and political impacts of a more complex society, which needs a modern police force.³ The level of independency of academics gave them the power to criticise, to discuss and develop new police methods, to write articles about police issues and to be involved in police expertise. The police officers have their work competences to act, to give or to execute orders, even when they are out of the principles valued in the society. At the beginnings, it went against the police culture and it did not give them a lot of opportunities to be involved in the police studies' activities. Today's picture is largely changed.

The attempt to differentiate Police Science within the social and other sciences, led to the conclusion that it is a quite difficult process due to policing covering multi-disciplinary topics. Even at its beginnings, the Police Science was incorporated within the forensic science, criminal justice, criminology and other related sciences. First in US and then in Europe, it succeeded to build its own field of research. Normally, Police Science is a multi-disciplinary science and it makes it difficult to separate it from the up-mentioned sciences. These sciences should be considered as the root of the Police Science, but with evolution, the policing and the Police Science became much more complex and developed, compared to them.

The five different sections of such a Police Science could be the following:⁴

- Political (governmental) Police Science, which is mainly concerned with the normative definition of tasks and competencies of the police and of its relationship with the administrative and legal authorities, and the population.
- Social Police Science, which is mainly focused on the actual and the desirable functioning of the police body in relation to its own goals, but also to the same extent, to its relationships with the authorities and the population; its own organisation and persons; and general conditions and developments in society.
- Technological Police Science, within which technical and organizational means are developed in order to enable the police body to function in a way it gives evidence of a sense of political responsibility and which seems desirable from the social scientific point of view.

³Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., 15.

⁴Cyrille Fijnaut. "Over de traditie van de politiewetenschap in West-Europa", in *Theoretische opstellen rondom de politie*, Peter van Lochem, et al. (Apeldoorn: Nederlands ePolitie Academie, 1983), pp. 36-37.

- Historical Police Science, which on one hand evolves in the direction of the current socio-historical research, but on the other hand, branches out in direction of the present day scientific historical research.
- Comparative Police Science which is specific to the history and the current organisation of police structures in Europe.

Researches related to Police Sciences – European and US aspect

Europe:

In Europe, research topics which have become common property and were traceable during the period from 1960 to 1990 can be classified as follows:⁵

- Selectivity of the conduct of the police
- Use of violence / use of authority
- Discretionary power
- Professional culture
- Efficacy of police work / operating procedures
- Surveillance
- Relations between the police and the population

All of them are crossing with sociology, political and organisational sciences and analogically they belong to social sciences. The trends of developing an independent Police Science should follow the direction of establishing the Police Science as a science incorporated within security sciences. Most of the European countries follow this tendency. In EU only, which unites police educational entities of the Member States within the European Police College - CEPOL there are many similarities regarding to classification and placement of Police Science.

In 2006, the police researched the infrastructure in 26 European countries including Norway and come to some interesting conclusions. The study found that the police research is regarded as one of high or relatively high interest in nine countries outside the police, in eight countries within the Police Academies, and in five countries within the Police organisation.⁶

⁵ Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al. pp. 64-65.

⁶ Gerhard Hanak and Veronika Hofinger. "Police Science and Research in the European Union," in *Theory and Practice of Police Research in Europe* (CEPOL Series No. 1), ed. Janos Fehervary et. al. (Hampshire, United Kingdom: CEPOL House, 2006), http://www.cepol.europa.eu/fileadmin/website/Research_Science/tppre.pdf (accessed on March 1, 2012), pp. 55-62.

Today the complexity of society and the demanding tasks of the police in a changing world lead to the increasing request for scientific methods, police research and Police Science. European-focused, comparative research on causes of crime, crime prevention and countermeasures is on the way.⁷ In 2007, CEPOL's Project Group published its Final report on a European Approach to Police Science. The analysis and findings from this group which use experiences from the European countries and US, largely contribute for differentiation and establishing of the Police Sciences as different sciences within the national police education systems.

Mainstream police research is conducted on crime-related topics, both in a criminological (social control, legal policy) and criminal investigation perspective. A second core topic relates to policing and police work, sometimes with a focus on management and leadership tasks, in other cases stressing the management of public order and community policing. These two standard topics obviously play a prominent part in several countries".⁸ In surveying research institutions outside the police, the authors found that there were "both highly specialised research institutions in the field of forensics and criminal investigation techniques, and others with an emphasis on a not-so-narrow social sciences perspective on issues of security policy, legal policy, law enforcement, criminology etc".⁹

United States:

As a matter of fact, since the 1960s, studies on police and policing have expanded rapidly. Caused by ethnic conflicts and the student rebellion from 1964-5, the old American crime-fighter model of policing got into trouble and was reviewed and analysed. A lot of field surveys and case studies on the reality of police action followed the riots. Studies of Banton (1964), Skolnick (1967), Wilson (1968) and others, made it clearer that some Police actions in practice did not fit into the rule-of-law system and moral standards of the democratic society.¹⁰ Studies gave an insight into the professional culture of the police and its impact on the functioning of the police. They demonstrated the impact of the norms of the informal organisation and about the working ideology of police officers: their value system, beliefs and ideology.¹¹ During CEPOL's Project Group search for

⁷Horst Entorf and Hannes Spengler. *Crime in Europe: Causes and Consequences* (Berlin, Germany: Springer - Verlag Berlin and Heidelberg GmbH & Co. K, 2002).

⁸Gerhard Hanak and Veronika Hofinger. *Police Science and Research in The European Union* (Vienna, Austria: Institute for the Sociology of Law and Criminology, 2005), p. 20.

⁹Gerhard Hanak and Veronika Hofinger, p. 30.

¹⁰Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., pp. 14-15.

¹¹Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., p. 56.

the different denotations which have been conferred to the term Police Science, in the 1950s and 1960s they come across a particular understanding in the USA which has not found its peer in Europe: Police Science as being equivalent to the police administration.¹² In 1950, O.W. Wilson published his book *Police Administration*, which has had a profound impact on the development of the study of policing. The book was a product of the principal approach to administration prevalent in the 1940s. Based on the scientific management principles of Frederick Taylor, Wilson's book stressed efficiency, hierarchy, and bureaucratic regularity as the key towards police reform. One of the most recognised hallmarks of his book is the 300-item checklist at its conclusion. A check mark in each of the 300 boxes equates to a well-run police agency. So the study of policing was the study of efficient police administration, and this approach came to be called Police Science.¹³

Taking into consideration that the researches in the field of police issues are mostly from US, they are recognized as founders of the modern empirical criminology and Police Science in the USA and Europe. In that time, scientific researches were influenced by political reasons. It explains the status of police autonomy, i.e. the political impact of the state officials on police experts due to the use of police as an instrument of state. This status of police is still a subject of change worldwide. But after this first try to incorporate the police researches as valuable for the police organization and the whole society, followed the critical approach on policing during the 60's and 70's. The opponents of internal police views (or contributors for developing of the Police Science) were lawyers, social scientists and citizens' movements. Policing was crossed with their narrow speciality or field of expertise. As a consequence, police studies became part of criminology, social sciences and law, university faculties offered studies, and magazines were founded as well as scientific associations.

From the other side, there were opponents who stated that the police do not see the social science as essential to the work of police agencies. Explanation of this is derived from the core police education and training.¹⁴ There is little concern with either scientific evidence or evidence-based policing.¹⁵

¹²Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al, p. 19.

¹³Larry T. Hoover. "From Police Administration to Police Science: The Development of a Police Academic Establishment in the United States," *Police Quarterly*, no.8 (March 2005): p. 12.

¹⁴David Weisburd and Peter Neyroud, p. 4.

¹⁵Janet B.L. Chan, Chris Devery and Sally Doran. *Fair Cop: Learning the Art of Policing* (Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press, 2003).

Evolution and contemporary placement of the Police Science

Police Science is the scientific study of the police as an institution and of policing as a process. As an applied discipline it combines methods and subjects of other similar disciplines within the field of policing. It includes all of what the police do and all aspects from outside that have an impact on policing and public order. Currently, it is a working term to describe police studies on the way to an accepted and established discipline. Police Science tries to explain facts and acquire knowledge about the reality of policing in order to generalize and to be able to predict possible scenarios.¹⁶ “Police included everything”. In the second half of the nineteenth century, what remained of the old Police Science was a political (or: jurisprudential) Police Science as a scientific branch, which a few decades later is completed with a criminological Police Science. The latter developed into a fully-fledged exact science (forensics), whilst, from the 1960’s onward, social science research contributed to the development of Police Science in the modern sense, the current meaning of the term.¹⁷ The discipline of Police Science consists of the key questions about police work, functions and organization, research interests, methods and objectives. The development of the Police Science means establishing the connections between the Police Science and the subjects that it is aimed at - police education and training. From the sub-themes of the Police Science, academic individuals and institutions developed special scientific disciplines related to the applicative police skills, such as: police tactics, police law, police management, police psychology, police deontology, etc. Most of them are part of the contemporary study programs within the higher police education.

As the police work covers a wide range of activities, the Police Science represents a multidisciplinary science. It adapts itself to police work, needs and challenges of the contemporary society. Basically it embraces many scientific areas of the social sciences, such as: history, law, criminology or sociology of crime, statistics, psychology, ethics, and others. Organizational sciences and management, which are part of the social sciences, are represented via police management, risk management, ruling of procedures, deontology and others. History and philosophy of policing are closer to the human sciences, but they have a great contribution to the understanding of the need and development of policing. Criminalistics takes a significant part as a fundament of Police Science, but only criminalistics methodology and tactics belong to social sciences. In the forensic science, which covers criminalistics issues, there is a large contribution of the natural

¹⁶Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., pp. 23-24.

¹⁷Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., p. 26.

sciences: mathematics, medicine and technological-technical sciences, such as: chemistry, kinesiology (in term of sport disciplines used by the police), human anatomy, mechanics, electro-technology, electronics, ballistics and others. The same example follows the topography and cartography as part of the geography science, i.e. natural mathematics science. The sciences related to functioning of arms, ammunition and police equipment also refers to technological-technical sciences. The sciences related to the use of information system, data processing, telecommunications and other ICT issues also refers to technological-technical sciences. Traffic security also belongs to technological-technical sciences.

Police Science is not an absolutely social science, but social sciences dominate within the police studies. The crossing over several steps determines the constitution of Police Security Science. There are following steps:¹⁸

- a definition of a special scientific subject which exists independently and is not a subject of research to any other science;
- a definition of an entirety system of empirical and theoretical knowledge about the subject of research;
- an elaboration of a relative entirety theory (or theories) which should develop interpretative, exploitative and predictive functions of the police security science;
- a creation of a conceptual (especially category) apparatus and professional police and security terminology, because current professional police language suffers from its indefiniteness, incorrectness and a lack of uniformity; and
- a creation of an effective methodology and a system of active scientific methods, because the level of a methodology development depends on the level of theory development and on the vice versa.

Special scientific subject of the police science is police work which incorporates police organization, functions, placement of police within the society, relations between police and public, police behaviour, police powers and other related sub-disciplines of the police science. Police work as a special scientific subject of the Police Science is seen from the police aspect. Police aspect means a point of view from inside - from the police organization and from outside - external stakeholders that treat police issues,

¹⁸Gustáv Dianiska& Ivan Simovcek. "Constitution of Police-Security Science", in *Policing in Central and Eastern Europe: Comparing Firsthand Knowledge with Experience from the West*, ed. Milan Pagon (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, 1996). Proceedings from the conference organized by College of Police and Security Studies, Slovenia, <http://www.ncjrs.gov/policing/con93.htm> (accessed March 01, 2012).

such as: academics, experts, advisors, specially established groups and NGO's, and others. That corresponds to the Weber's and CEPOL's Project Group opinion about the involvement of external parties which contribute to the establishment of police science as a social science. A European approach to the police science cannot be reduced to one single target group. It is not only the police that have scientific approaches on board.¹⁹ The civil society, intellectuals, the media and the social sciences discovered the police as an important part of the political system which clearly proves the monopoly of the legitimate use of physical force within a certain territory.²⁰

The system of empirical and theoretical knowledge about the searching subject comes from the researches, projects and funding within the police. They could be internal as part of the internal police activities. For example: as tasks and competences of analytics unit within the police. They can also come from external entities interested in police researches, mostly academics and NGO's organized at national level or within international consortium. The main focuses of these researches are the internal influences within the police, as well as the impacts on police from the social events and the impact of the police on the society.

The questions remain: Is there a specific way of posing questions and finding answers? What is the science that can be called police science and which are the links to the other sciences like sociology, economy, psychology, etc.?²¹ The methodology proposed by the CEPOL Project Group was inspired by other social sciences (such as social anthropology), which also have a large and complex social object of investigation. But, the police science developed its own methodology with the time, mainly present within the social sciences. Using methodology helps to understand the police and its issues as an integral part of the society. It is not used for investigation only, but it covers the issues such as: police behaviour, police conduct, police subculture, and organizational phenomenon which come as a result of relations within the police organization and between different police organizations. For these purposes, Police Science uses different research tools, such as: experiments, surveys (with using questionnaires and interviews), standard tests, participant and structure observations, and content and discourse analysis. Police Science is an applied science and it follows the comparative perspectives and methodological standards of the other sciences. The methodology includes two ways: seen from top-down, it is near the methodology of social sciences; seen from the reality of policing, it generates methods in the line with the problems. Police Science is not a

¹⁹Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., p. 163.

²⁰Max Weber. "Politics as a Vocation", in *From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology*, eds. Hans Heinrich Gerth and Charles Wright Mills (New York: Oxford University Press, 1946), p. 78.

²¹Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., p. 105.

methodological belief system that is applied to the problems. On the contrary: first, there are problems and research questions; then, as a second step, a useful methodological approach will be selected and developed.²²

Contemporary relations of police science with other sciences

In the recent years, due to many similarities (common research methods and scientific subjects), police science is mainly related to the criminology and administration of justice sciences, even the police science analyses the police work from its own aspect.

Police science adopted a broader array of theory from criminology, a theory about individuals, groups, communities, and institutions, which help us to better understand the question “why policing,” while at the same time incorporating the advantage of a methodological revolution in criminology. From the administration of justice perspective, police science has integrated a broader policy research viewpoint, as well as a greater emphasis on the evidence of what works through better and more systematic (and scientific) evaluation research. By incorporating the best from the perspectives of criminology and the administration of justice, police science has greatly accelerated scientific knowledge about what constitutes policing, how it is made operational in a variety of social settings, how its institutions reflect or diverge from broader social and political values, what theoretical frameworks guide policing, how police perform, and the effect of their performing. So, nowadays the police science integrates the social theories of criminology with the institutional and systems perspectives of the administration of justice. In this respect, police science has become more theory-driven and evidence-led. Even with the inclusion of criminological and administration of justice perspectives, the police science still remains different in focus and in the use of other conceptual frameworks that inform our understanding about the police. Police science is concerned with policing in its broadest sense, ranging from policing as an individual set of behaviours through the interconnections of policing across the world. It rests at the intersection of law, the physical sciences (in the case of forensics), psychology, social psychology, sociology, public policy, history, economics, and evaluation methods and statistical analysis, as well as criminology and the administration of justice. Variety is considerable in the domains of knowledge that informs our understanding of policing. The breadth of entries in this volume attests to the complexity of studying the police, and the multiplicity of perspectives used and indeed needed for such

²²Hans-Gerd Jaschke et al., p. 164.

understanding.²³ While often difficult to distinguish from each other, police science departments usually focus more on the technical aspects of policing: administration, management, crime analysis, and the “doing” of law enforcement. Criminology, when it deals with the police province, more often uses a “system in action” focus. Thus, criminological approaches to the problem of policing are apt to be sociological in nature and to focus on informal structures and relationships.²⁴ Police science will never isolate the connection with areas covering the crime justice and criminology. That is because many areas of the policing are based on adapting policing to the legal grounds (on which is formed the police law), monitoring the trends prevailing in the national legislation (incrimination and development of criminal policy), sociological aspects, the emergence and dynamics of crime, representation of socio-pathological phenomenon in the community and wider.

Conclusion

Police science, as a need of creating science from the police work, must be accepted in both communities – academic and police. The monopoly of use of force that is given to police will always attract public interest within the society. It makes the police to be viewed as a social phenomenon as the police science tries to explain the police work as a social science. Thus, at the beginning, a lot of transformation of the police science was made, but yet, for a long time it will be related to relevant and similar scientific areas - criminology and criminal justice.

After establishing the police science in Europe, it is too early for divisions to be made. Actual scientific communities that cover police science via criminology, political science, sociology and other related disciplines will grow into the independent scientific community of the police science. The dilemma will remain about their exact title (Departments of Police Science, Police studies or Police related research). The social scientists and police officers involved into the academic research will dominate in the police science literature, conferences, and work groups established for police issues. Their approach will be inter or trans-disciplinary.

²³Jack R. Greene (ed.).*The Encyclopedia of Police Science*, Third Edition (New York: Routledge, 2006), xix-xx.

²⁴ Jack R. Greene (ed.), p. 362.

Bibliography

Chan, Janet B.L., Chris Devery and Sally Doran. *Fair Cop: Learning the Art of Policing*, Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto Press, 2003.

Dianiska, Gustáv & Ivan Simovcek, "Constitution of Police-Security Science". In *Policing in Central and Eastern Europe: Comparing Firsthand Knowledge with Experience from the West*, ed. Milan Pagon. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, 1996. Proceedings from the conference organized by College of Police and Security Studies, Slovenia, <http://www.ncjrs.gov/policing/con93.htm> (accessed March 01, 2012).

Entorf, Horst and Hannes Spengler. *Crime in Europe: Causes and consequences*. Berlin, Germany: Springer-Verlag Berlin and Heidelberg GmbH & Co. K, 2002.

Fijnaut, Cyrille. "Over de traditie van de politiewetenschap in West-Europa". In *Theoretische opstellen rondom de politie*, Peter van Lochem, Cyrille Fijnaut & Pieter van Renen. Apeldoorn: Nederlandse Politie Academie, 1983, 21-42.

Greene, Jack R. (ed.). *The Encyclopedia of Police Science*, Third Edition. New York: Routledge, 2006.

Hanak, Gerhard and Veronika Hofinger, "Police Science and Research in the European Union," in *Theory and Practice of Police Research in Europe* (CEPOL Series No. 1), ed. Janos Fehervary et. al. Hampshire, UK: CEPOL House, 2006. Contributions and Presentations from CEPOL Police Research & Science Conferences 2003 – 2005. http://www.cepol.europa.eu/fileadmin/website/Research_Science/tppre.pdf (accessed March 1, 2012), 47-62.

Hanak, Gerhard and Veronika Hofinger, *Police Science and Research in the European Union*. Report. Vienna, Austria: Institute for the Sociology of Law and Criminology, 2005. http://www.irks.at/downloads/Police_Research.pdf (accessed March 1, 2012).

Hoover, Larry T. "From Police Administration to Police Science: The Development of a Police Academic Establishment in the United States." *Police Quarterly*, no.8 (March 2005): 8-22.

Jaschke, Hans-Gerd, Tore Bjørgo, Francisco del Barrio Romero, Cees Kwanten, Robin Mawby, and Milan Pagon. *Perspectives of Police Science in Europe*. CEPOL's Final Report of Project Group on a European

Approach to Police Science (PGEAPS). Hampshire, UK: CEPOL House, 2007.

http://www.cepol.europa.eu/fileadmin/website/Research_Science/PGEAPS_Final_Report.pdf (accessed March 01, 2012).

Weber, Max. "Politics as a Vocation". In *From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology*, eds. Hans Heinrich Gerth and Charles Wright Mills. New York: Oxford University Press, 1946.

Weisburd, David and Peter Neyroud. *Police Science: Toward a New Paradigm*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice, 2011. <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/228922.pdf> (accessed March 01, 2012).

POLICE AND CRISIS INTERVENTION: COMMUNICATION IN CRISIS SITUATION

Dragana Batic, Ph.D.,
Faculty of security Skopje

Abstract

Given that police officers are the first to react to crisis situations, in cases when human security is threatened whether of individual or mass disasters caused by natural disasters or by man, they should be trained to deal with such situations. Police must be governed by their skills to communicate with citizens who are in crisis situations such as kidnapping, hostage situations, natural disasters, terrorist attacks and other personal crises.

The key concept in crisis intervention is the understanding that people's reaction to crisis is, in general, a normal reaction to an abnormal situation. In other words, if we know how people normally react to a crisis and what is the normal course of events in such reactions, we have a very important tool in treating the majority of people mentally affected by the crisis, the knowledge that they will put themselves together within a short period of time if they rest, take refreshment and talk about their experience. In this regard, police officers can play a significant role in the initial intervention and help citizens, if they are governed by crisis intervention.

Two intervention models are described: The PIE-model ("Proximity, Immediacy, Expectancy"), and Kfir model (according to Kfir, three characteristics are always present in a crisis: lack of information, loneliness and no alternatives).

Within the range of this kind of situations there are specific techniques that police should be applying in contact with the citizens in crisis situations, and that will contribute to reducing of the negative reaction to the crisis.

Key words: concept of crisis, psychological first aid, crisis intervention, intervention models

Introduction

Disasters are unfortunately part of people's lives and lead to disruption of the established balance in relation to the environment that goes far beyond the already built mechanisms. Such events have traumatizing effects and cause suffering among individuals exposed to them.

Disasters are events of such intensity that, for shorter or longer period, they are tearing down the established way of life of the individual or

group of people. They threaten the adequate, physical and mental healthy function of the human being. Disasters often happen suddenly, unexpectedly and it is impossible to predict them. They can happen to an individual (death of a loved one, their own physical illness, violence), but also in terms of the overall community (wars, refugees, natural disasters with great destructive power). Disasters affecting the whole community, or most of the community, are called mass accidents or disasters. When they are over, the illusion of security in the world we live in breaks down, and then the people face their own vulnerability and passing of life.

The consequences of accidents are manifested in: a physical way (loss of life, disability), emotional (short-term emotional reactions: fear, acute anxiety, grief, etc. and lasting: depression, prolonged anxiety, post-traumatic stress syndrome), economic (the destruction of significant resources of society) and in the community and the functioning of society (disruption of the social structures of the society).

Psychological responses to disasters

“The psychological conditions that occur in response to situations of accidents are: stress, trauma and crisis.”¹ Without going into theoretical concepts derived from these three terms, we can say that they always involve disruption of the relationship between the individual and the environment that sets requirements which an individual cannot meet.

That is why traumatic events and disasters cause emotional responses and behavior aimed at alleviating stress and restore balance. Psychological or cognitive-emotional-behavioral responses of an accident, are often described with the term coping. “Coping means permanently changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to cope with specific external and / or internal demands that are assessed as difficult to exceed the resources and opportunities that a person has.”² The characteristics of coping is a constant effort, a request for the best adaptive responses in a situation of misbalance, it is a process that goes through more or less recognizable phases and follows the pattern "two steps forward, one step backward." Coping mechanisms lead to achieve the balance, to estimate the extent to which bad or uncomfortable feelings are present, the extent to which interpersonal relations are preserved as possible sources of support of the person.

Normal responses to trauma include transient, severe anxiety, depression and psychosomatic reactions. Symptoms are largely withdrawn

¹Vlajković J.: From the victim to the survived, psychological help of the ones who suffered, IP ŽarkoAbulj, Belgrade, 2009

²Lazarus,R.S.: Folkman S.: Stress, estimation, facing, Naklada, Slap, 2004

for several weeks after the trauma. During the normal processing, there is oscillation between viewing and suppress of the topics related to trauma, which ultimately lead to new understanding and kinds of consequences and emotions that are tied to it.

Such experiences are not characteristic only for the victims. Witnesses who have seen heavy traumatic situations also experience trauma. Rafael believes that a traumatic event produces trauma with varying intensity for the most people. It provides a model of concentric circles that are called "circles of threat or vulnerability." "Thus, in the middle of the circle are the direct victims of the event, then come the family and witnesses, then come the relatives, friends, associates, and rescue teams, the final are the acquaintances, helping services, local community and all who were indirectly involved to the accident."³

Police officers as support of the citizens in situations of stress

How to help people who survived an accident? The simplest answer would be: the psychological help. The concept of psychological assistance gradually becomes popular after the Second World War, especially during the era of the cold war. In the following decades, this form of aid was neglected. After the September 11th 2001, the terrorist attack on the New York twin towers reminds people that this form of help is really necessary. This event shows the American authorities that citizens need to learn to provide psychological assistance to themselves and to others. Besides the term "psychological help", we may use the following terms as well: psycho-social assistance / support, psychological first aid, psycho-social intervention, crisis intervention, or crisis intervention in the community.

When we talk about providing psychological assistance to the victims, it is referred to as a "professional help that is offered by professionals in the field of mental health (psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers) and the assistance of non-professionals."⁴

The basic assumption of psycho-social intervention, is that people exposed to stress are normal people who did not have psychological disorders before, but the stressful experiences they were exposed to, influence them as a risk to their mental health. That is why it is possible for the first aid to come from non-professionals. Although police officers are not professionals in the field of mental health, because of their professional engagement in situations of crisis, they are among the first to react in crisis

³Raphael B.: When disaster strikes: How individuals and communities cope with catastrophe, Basic Books, New York, 1986.

⁴Vlajković J.: From the victim to the survived, psychological help of the ones who suffered, IP ŽarkoAbulj, Belgrade, 2009

situations and in situations where human security is threatened. Whether it is about an individual or a mass accident caused by natural disasters or by man, they should be aware of how to react, or how, in stressful situations for citizens, to provide psycho-social support.

Psycho-social support actually covers two types of support, psychological and social support. Psychological (emotional) support is a special kind of contact that involves the skill of listening, understanding, empathy, emotional warmth and unconditional acceptance. Social support refers to the structure, quality and function of the social network of which the person belongs.

What police officers can do, and what forms of psychological help they should provide to the victims?

Conversation

When faced with difficult situations, survivors have the need to talk, because by conversation they are trying to understand what is going on and try to comprehend what has just happened. Moreover, through conversation, they check whether their view of the accident is correct. In talking about it, they externalize thoughts and feelings and establish control over emotions.

Getting stronger

One of the primary tasks of those in contact with the victims is to help them as soon as possible to leave the role of victim and accept the role of survivors, and to begin to develop active strategies of coping as well as gaining a sense of control over the present situation.

Normalization

Normalization consists of assuring the survivors that their symptoms are "normal reactions to an abnormal situation", that most people in the same situation would have felt and behaved in a similar way.

Establishing a social network

In a situation of extreme stress, we should know that creating a network of social support is crucial. So, police officers should know that children should not be separated from their parents, that reunion of the families should be a priority, and then followed by reunion of neighbors, teams from work, etc... If the establishment of a natural social network for some reason is impossible, they may help survivors through various group

activities (self-help groups, peer groups), to help them build new networks of support.

Psychological first aid

This is the name for the psychological help provided by the non-professionals. It is analogous to the medical first aid of which most community members are trained to do; for example in situations of traffic accidents, community members should be trained to provide emotional or psychological first aid and not just in situations of major accidents, but also in everyday life. While mass accidents are relatively rare, in everyday life all kinds of stress are present and in these situations police officers are often present.

According to Singer, the psychological first aid includes:

- Adoption of a sensitive, compassionate and flexible attitude to the wide range of reactions that victims manifest;
- Providing a physical company for those who are alone and scared;
- Taking care for the physical wellbeing of the individuals (providing blankets, food, drinks, etc.);
- Encourage verbal expression of feelings associated with the experience of a disaster;
- Providing accurate and reliable information to survivors about their loved ones and the situation in which they are;
- Identifying individuals who need assistance of professionals and provide such assistance;
- Encourage survivors as soon as possible to engage in dealing with the consequences of the accident.⁵

Raphael considered that psychological first aid includes:

- Comforting, sometimes even by words, simply by talking with someone sitting by, respectively, to be present for someone;
- Protection against further threats. Endangered person must feel protected from further harm;
- Emergency care for physical needs;
- Providing psychological support during identification of a close death, or if their love ones could not be found among the living;
- Encouraging manifestation of feelings;
- Structuring routine to regain a sense of control;

⁵Singer T (1982): An introduction to disaster: Some consideration of a psychological nature, American Psychological, p. 25

- Restoring or building a network of social support. It is recommended that survivors occasionally meet and talk about their experiences...⁶

Instead of the misconception according to which people who find themselves in a bad position do not want talk about it - we should leave them alone, the greatest authorities on dealing with trauma found that communication has the greatest healing effects. Namely, expression of emotions comes to their discharge and establishes control over the situation. It has been said that, "burden shared is a burden split." The person who listens to the expression of emotions has to do it with empathy, understanding and normalization. So, through interpersonal communication is established the building of support system that has a healing effect on the individuals under stress. Also, by communicating, it is important to obtain the necessary information and allow the individual under stress, to get his / her control back over the situation with the possibility of predicting future events. The opinion which has a positive effect in dealing with trauma is oriented towards building confidence and positive expectations (hope). Also, a healing effect is the establishment of support systems like family, colleagues. Even a group of people who accidentally find themselves caught up together with the same traumatic event, they each have a healing effect if they become a system of mutual support. Indeed, membership in a social group that represents a system allows individuals to feel loved, understood, and respected, it gives a sense of belonging. On these principles and effects are practically based many self-help groups.

The key concept of the crisis intervention is the understanding, that people's reaction to crisis is, in general, a normal reaction to abnormal situation. In other words, if we know how people normally react to a crisis, and what is the normal course of events in such reactions, we have a very important tool in treating the majority of people mentally affected by the crisis, the knowledge that they will put themselves together within a short period of time if they take a rest, take refreshment and talk about their experience. More extreme reactions such as introversion and hyperactivity will need professional treatment, not just an understanding of the process. In this sense, the police officers would be able to have a significant role in an initial intervention because this would not need a professional treatment from a psychologist or psychiatrist.

The difference between therapy and crisis intervention is that the crisis intervention focuses only on the present. It relates primarily to the situation not to personality or personal history. Intervention is direct, and

⁶ Raphael B.: When disaster strikes: How individuals and communities cope with catastrophe, Basic Books, New York, Rafael, 1986

immediately controls the session. The goals must be immediate, direct and feasible. The intervention is needed to prevent exacerbation of the situation and facilitate the returning to the normal, rather than treat some previous psychological disorder.

Reactions to crisis can be seen on a longitudinal scale, from extremely passive (hysterical paralysis) through introversion on one side, and hyperactivity (extreme activity) on the other side. Most people will fall in the center of this scale and will be in state which can (if needed) be treated by a trained non-professional intervener. Those who indeed fall into the category of hysterical (on both extremes) will need professional medical / psychological treatment. People reacting to creases by panicking should be separated from the general public because they could seriously affect others by their intense reaction.

Intervention models

The PIE-model

As a result of the observations of the psychiatrist Salmon (1919) on combat stress reactions of soldiers during the First World War, a set of principles regarding treatment for soldiers was devised. With certain refinements, these principles have proven effective in civilian situations.

PIE stands for Proximity, Immediacy and Expectations⁷.

Proximity means that treatment should be carried out as close as possible to the scene of the event (for soldiers, that would be the battle site), for civilians that means treatment with the community for the local residents following a disaster, rather than transferring them to some convalescent home disconnected from their community, family and friends.

Immediacy

Immediacy refers to giving appropriate intervention as soon as possible. Immediate intervention will reduce the extant of PTSD and will facilitate return to a normal life style. It must be stressed; however, that recovery from some aspects of disaster is a long process (bereavement, for example) and intervention in the form of support of outside agencies rather than the agencies themselves.

⁷ Short term crisis intervention , Helping the helpers, Seminar II The Former Yugoslavia Project, Israel, 1996, internal material

Expectation

In the case of soldiers, this refers to the message given over to them from the beginning of their treatment that will shortly be expected to return to their units and function fully and capably. In the civilian cases, people will be given the message that it is expected of them to retake control over their lives and start making plans for the future, with, of course, appropriate information and assistance.

Pacing and Leading

This technique is for dealing with the immediate aspects of disturbed behavior following a crisis. It is based on the assumption that people in a crisis will be in a high state of suggestibility. Their behavior can be “paced”, and then “lead” in the desired direction. The following guidelines are recommended in accomplishing this technique.

- Mirror the client’s actions. This will not be seen as mimicking of condescending by a person in crisis, they will feel that someone is “tuning in” to their current mode and empathizing with them.
- Relate to their belief systems. Where appropriate, adopt their manner of speaking and reinforce valuable statements such as : „With the help of Good, I can cope with this“.
- Move from a world of cognitive appraisal to a world of experience. People who have suffered a disaster can sometimes be stuck at the stage of looking at the enormity of the disaster and what has happened to them. If they are put in touch with their feelings at the atmosphere in the present moment, then they can progress through the stages towards recovery.
- Create a “yes – set”. In order to create an atmosphere in which the suggestible disaster – victim will comply with the helper’s advice, the helper should make some statements that the victim will agree with, and when a pattern has been established, then the advice can be introduced in the same way.
- Reframe by putting something that has happened in other terms, particularly some aspects of behavior about which the victim is troubled. This could for example mean explaining to the victim that his behavior was cautious and logical rather than cowardly (as he may perceive it at the moment).
- Connecting two non-related elements can sometimes help the suggestible victim, by latching onto some external stimulus (such as

noise) or internal one (such as vomiting) and connect it with positive sensation. For example, “the louder the noise is outside, the calmer you can feel inside or more you sick now, the quicker your body will get rid of unwanted material and the sooner you will start feeling better”.

- Neutralize the victim’s negative inner talk. Such expression as “I’m never going to manage” or “My life is completely ruined” should be neutralized if possible by explaining that although the victim has experienced a serious disaster, with help and determination he / she will once again live normally.
- Confrontation must be avoided, however, when dealing with the victim. Arguing will defeat any progress made.
- Give the victim chance to chose, the options presented would be along with the lines of therapeutic procedures, such as “Will you come with me now, or you prefer to rest a couple of minutes”, or, “Would you like your hot drink with or without sugar”?
- Encourage whatever the victim does, if they tell you they do not want to drink, thank them for giving you this information and use it in planning further moves.
- Give supportive feedback if things are progressing in a positive direction in any way, such as they are shaking less, talking more or generally responding to your intervention.

These guidelines should bring about a reduction of the negative reactions to the crisis (e.g. activity for those in a state of introversion, or calming down for those who are highly agitated).

Kfir’s model

According to Kfir (1989), three characteristics are always present in a crisis: lack of information - no means of interpreting the unknown; aloneness - a break in all the usual support systems; and no alternatives - a dead-end feeling⁸.

People cope on automatic pilot in times of crisis. What has helped them in the past is mobilized, and in totally unexpected situation coping mechanisms fail, due to the lack of information. A sudden realization of aloneness triggers anxiety at the onset of crisis. If person’s social structure has been disrupted, either through disaster, illness or bereavement, then aloneness can be felt even through the person is surrounded by people including his closest family. This aloneness is felt as though it will last an eternity and it cannot be perceived by those close to a person in crisis.

⁸Ibid

Crisis causes a person to regress to concrete thinking. Imagery and abstract thinking do not function. The person feels he / she is going through a nightmare that cannot be stopped and will go on forever. This frame of mind generates a feeling of no choices or options.

Intervention consists of counteracting these three constituents of crisis. Information given should be simple and concrete, suited to the needs of a person with characteristically diminished ability to abstract, access or remember the total picture. Information should be on three levels depending on the ability of the individual to absorb: referral information about the available services, communications, and help; information about similar kind of situations, norms and standards; professional feedback, information to person about how we assess what the person is undergoing, how long it can be expected to last and what can be expected from the process.

Support and help offered to someone in crisis will not stop the sense of aloneness, but are needed to ease the path to recovery. Support provides assurance that one is still in touch with reality. It is most needed when one's behavior seems like he / she needs help and support, simply to say to that person: "You're OK", and "Everything will be OK".

Conclusion

Police officers could carry out a psycho-social intervention as a preventive action that requires proper training by professionals. The model of their training should be a combination of didactic training and experience in the work which is supervised (Zax, Specter, 1974, according Vljakovic, 2009). Training should begin with the simplest tasks that police officers could instantly apply in practice.

Implementation of these models at the national level is very important for the police officers who daily encounter situations in which citizens are stressed and do not know how to react.

REFERENCES

Ayalon O. (1992): Rescue, C.O.P.E. Handbook, Helping children cope with stress, Guided group activities, Chevron, Haifa.

Desimirović V.: Trauma itraumatskoiskustvo, u :Vljaković, Srna, Kondić, Popović: Psihologijaizbeglištv, IP Nauka Beograd, 1997

Lahad.M, Cohen A (1993): Community stress, prevention, vol 2, Merkaz, Habriut, The health Centre, KiryatShmona, Israel

Lazarus,R.S.: Folkman S.: Stres, procena, suočavanje, Naklada, Slap, 2004

PTSD-A Review of diagnostic and treatment issues of RS-Epstein, Contemporary Psychiatry, 1989.

Singer T (1982): An introduction to disaster: Some consideration of a psychological nature, American Psychological, 25

Raphael B.: When disaster strikes: How individuals and communities cope with catastrophe, Basic Books, New York.

Vlajković J.: Odžrtve do preživelog, psihološka pomoć nesrećenima, IP Žarko Abulj, Beograd, 2009

Short term crisis intervention , Helping the helpers, Seminar II The Former Yugoslavia Project, Israel, 1996, internet material

LAW PROTECTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS ON THE PART OF THE POLICE OFFICERS

Tatjana Gerginova, M.A.
tanjagerginova@gmail.com
Faculty of Security - Skopje

Abstract

In the period from 2001 until 2010 in the Republic of Macedonia, unlawful activities by some police officers were done, and occurrences of abuse and overstepping of official and police powers were noticed together with some violations of human rights in the performance of police tasks by the police officers. Besides the establishment of the independent, timely and effective mechanisms for oversight of the police work as a prerequisite for removal of illegal conduct and abuse in the work of the police officers in exercising the police power, it is also necessary education of the police officers and organizing constant trainings of the police officers concerning the protection of human rights.

Keywords: police, police powers, protection of human rights, education.

Introduction

The Police service is part of the Ministry of Interior in which police work is performed by police officers, while police officer is authorized official in accordance with the provisions of the Law on Internal Affairs, uniformed and non-uniformed police officer with police powers, which is authorized to exercise the police powers in accordance with the law. One of the primary functions of police is protection and respect for fundamental rights and freedoms of man and citizen guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, the laws and ratified international agreements. In the performance of police work, police officer is authorized to use police powers and is obliged to act humane and with respect of the reputation and dignity of persons and fundamental rights and freedoms of man and citizen. The term "police powers" means a legitimate opportunity to persons authorized by law to take legal measures, methods and means in order to prevent the commission of offenses or to ensure their detection and capture of the

perpetrators of such crimes,¹ or legally defined measures and activities whose application is taken by police officers in the performance of police work in the sphere of protection of rights and freedoms guaranteed by the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia, which are right and duty to police officers in order to protect public order from incriminating forms of threat and to apprehend or discover their perpetrators.²

In the performance of police powers the police officer is obligated to act humanely and to respect the reputation and dignity of persons as well as the basic rights and freedoms of the citizen. The use of police powers must be proportionate to the need for which it is applied. In performing certain police work, the police officer shall apply only those police powers with least adverse effects will reach the goal, and in the shortest period of time. In certain situations in order to perform police work, police officers use force. Their powers include legitimized use of force³, if the goal cannot be achieved otherwise.

The term “coercion”⁴ under the provisions of the Law on Police is considered as the use of legitimate, appropriate and proportionate use of physical or mechanical pressure, using means and manners stipulated by the law, directed against a person by a police officer, only when the goal cannot be achieved otherwise. The police officer will always use the means of coercion which are the least harmful to achieve that goal. The police officer must not apply means of coercion in order to extort a confession or statement. Before each use of means of coercion, the police officer considering the conditions will legitimate it and clearly warn the person for the use of force. When the conditions for use of force are fulfilled, the police officer would not warn the person if the warning would jeopardize the performance of police work. The police officer is obliged to cease the use of means of coercion as soon as the reasons which led to their use stop. The

¹ See more at Kalajdziev Gordan : “The Police and Human Rights”: Handbook for police training, Helsinki Committee for Human Rights of the Republic of Macedonia, Skopje, 2003, pg. 35th Similar, Pavlov, Turpen: “Police in a democratic society”, Skopje, 1997, pg. 208; Milosavljevic Bogoljub; “Police Science”, Belgrade, 1997, p. 20

² Zafirovski Vojislav: “Detention in police procedures ” (conditions, experiences and problems), Macedonian Review of Penal Law and Criminology, Year. 9, no. 1-2, Skopje, 2002, p. 116

³Zafirovski Vojislav, Jankulovski Zvonimir: "Police powers and human rights in the Republic of Macedonia", Skopje, 1999, pg. 159 and in the “Decree on the use of means of coercion and firearms” Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, no. 22/1998, 17/2004) no. 22/1998, 17/2004), pp. 11 - 19.

⁴ Coercion can be defined as legally permissible actions of officials of the state administrative authority for the imposition of citizens and other social entities, such behavior necessary for law enforcement. Quote by: Milosavljevic Bogoljub: “Police Science”, Belgrade, 1997, p. 207

reasons and justification of the use of means of coercion in any particular case are assessed by the immediate superior police officer. The immediate superior police officer shall inform the competent public prosecutor for any use of firearms. The grounds and justification of the use of firearms and the use of means of coercion can cause serious bodily injury or death of a person, or means of force can be used against several persons; assessment is made by the organizational unit of the Ministry responsible for internal control and professional standards which examines the circumstances under which the means of coercion are applied and prepares a report with an opinion on the grounds and justification of the use of force and submit the report to the Minister.

Police, government and human rights

The police in the nature of its functions are an anomaly of the free society. The authority to use force, to imprison, to detain is frightening to a certain degree with consequences that can harm the freedom of individuals or violate their privacy. However, democracy is dependent on the police to keep the order which will make the free society possible and real. Assigning the police with special police power is justified by the need to establish the necessary compromise between freedom and security as a framework in which freedom exists. If we accept this necessary compromise, we must set the limits on the authority that is assigned to the police. In fact, a balance should be placed and maintained between controls over crimes and rioting on one side and respect for the civil rights and liberties on the other. The criteria that are suggested as guiding for the quantum of power with which police should be supplied are in the context of highlighting the need for this balance. Thus, it is recommended that the authority of police is measured by these criteria; how it infringes the citizens and their rights and liberties and how this power increases our freedom from crime.

The question of balance leads to the common interest of the community to be protected from crime and the individual's interest to be protected from the ability of the police to harm the individuals. The request to restrict the power of police on behalf of the rights of citizens, imposed through the law and public opinion must not be seen by the police as an obstacle in its functioning.

The police must behave as a means for social order. The aspect government should not prevail over the aspect service, because it may lead to further limitation of the rights and freedoms of citizens that the police are obliged to protect.

Democratic regimes are more efficient than police that will be very powerful. The power that is provided for the police is neutral, but the

potential to harm someone is great. In organized societies, the use of force requires clear determination within the law. The use of maximum force is undesirable in any democratic society. Even extreme cases of criminal behavior such as terrorism, human trafficking and drugs, must not provoke such a concept of disposal of force by the police.

"In moral terms any violence is evil, and the power is justified only if it is applied to remove the evil greater than itself."⁵

Some authors use the term "doctrine of minimum force" and according to this doctrine it is necessary that the police draw its force from the cooperation with the public as an alternative to use maximum force in crime prevention. In fact, the doctrine of minimum force highlights the issue of balancing the relationship between police and public that can be defined as: "the police force in its action is inversely proportional to its public support. Therefore the use of force must move within the balance of evil which should be removed with it."⁶ The doctrine of minimum force is a guaranty that the power would not be abused for the purpose and scope out of the needs of police action.

The attempt to reconcile liberty with security was undoubtedly a major challenge to all governance systems throughout human history. Desires for freedom and security are two great hopes of the people, and every police system that is able to set a certain balance within the system of law will be superior in providing social control over the lives and behavior of humans. Incorporation of the basic tenets of human rights in the relations between the police, as holder of the monopoly of legal force in the country and citizens, has universal significance and importance. Transformed through the norms of law, they represent the basic legal rules on how to create law, strengthen the connection between the police service and the law and reduce the arbitrariness in the use of force, leading ultimately to predictability and reliability, consistency and coherence are more powerful than the police service. But even when these postulates are not explicitly formulated through the norms of the positive law, they are the foundation upon which an objective system of social values that is autonomous from any organization in the country should be built. The need for autonomy of this system derives from ancient experience of the state organizations through the police service, and it is inclined to abuse the monopoly of physical force to

⁵ Zafirovski Vojislav, Jankulovski Zvonimir: "Police powers and human rights in the Republic of Macedonia, Skopje, 1999, p. 18

⁶ Zafirovski Vojislav, Jankulovski Zvonimir: "Police powers and human rights in the Republic of Macedonia, Skopje, 1999, p. 18

the detriment of the individual. Linking human rights⁷ with the police service is crucial for the liberal states, because the possibility to pass the border is within the police service. Setting the border of police action in the sphere of rights and freedoms, we protect the core value of any democratic system - the citizens and their dignity. It is therefore necessary to consider how it is immediately placed and maintained balance between the desire for freedom and security. It is necessary to consider the police function through the prism of the rights and freedoms of citizens. The section that follows has exactly that purpose, reviews exactly those rights and freedoms that are most sensitive in police action and many can easily be violated if not taken into account when dealing with citizens.

In Macedonia, the domestic and international institutions have noted the existence of police misconduct, and the most prevalent ones - excessive use of force. But on the other hand, these data are not identical and each institution comes forward with a different number of registered cases, by which it would be difficult to assess the true number of complaints by citizens about police abuse of powers by police officers.⁸ In cases when citizens complain about the use of force by the police, the question about legitimate and excessive use of force is set.

In accordance with Article 83 of the Law on Police,⁹ under the use of physical force is considered the use of different wrestling skills or similar actions by police officers on the body of another person, aimed at rejecting the attack, preventing escape of a person or overcoming resistance from that person. In Article 38 of the Code of Police Ethics¹⁰ is found that "police officers may use means of coercion only when necessary and only to the extent needed for achieving a legitimate aim." International standards¹¹ restrict the use of force by those responsible for law the enforcement. In accordance with these standards, force can only be used if necessary, and at a

⁷ For the term of human rights and the historical development of these rights see more at: Dr. Cvetan Cvetkovski, Human Rights - First Book - Sources, institutions and procedures, CARITAS, Skopje, 1999, pp. 17 - 37.

⁸ For the cases of police abuse and violation of human rights in the period 2004-2009 see more at "Legitimacy in the work of police officers and protection of human rights" by Mr. Tatiana Gerginova published in the scientific magazine "Horizons" University "Ss. Kliment Ohridski" - Bitola, No. 6 / 2010 and the paper "Control mechanisms to protect human rights in cases of abuse of police powers" published in the scientific magazine "Horizons" the University "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" - Bitola in 2011 by 3-5.

⁹ Law on police, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, no. 114/2006, 148/2008 I 6 / 2009 Art. 34.

¹⁰ Code of Police Ethics, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, no. 72/2007.

¹¹ Code of Conduct for persons responsible for applying the law - Fair Trial manual - Amnesty International 1998, publisher Fund for Humanitarian Law, p. 88

minimum possible level, depending on the circumstances.¹² Persons deprived of their liberty are entitled to be treated humanely and that is guaranteed in Article 10 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.¹³

In accordance with Article 3 of the Regulation on the use of force and firearms, authorized police officers of the Ministry of Interior in the case of overcoming the resistance of the person deprived of liberty, will primarily apply nonviolent means (identification, warning, order, and similar stipulated means and measures) and the means of coercion shall be applied only if it is not possible otherwise to achieve the desired goal. In Article 14 of the Regulation on the use of force and firearms it is stipulated that the authorized police officer is obliged to stop the use of force once the direct attack or resistance stop by the person against whom physical force is used. In the case of inflicting serious bodily injury or death in accordance with Article 28 of the Regulation, a commission should be formed to examine the circumstances under which the means of coercion are applied, which prepared a report with an opinion on the merits and justification of the use of forcible means.

Control of police work is essential to achieve the responsibility of police officers to perform tasks, to ascertain appears on unlawful activities of police officers and phenomena of abuse and overstepping of official and police powers; violations of human rights and rights in the performance of police work, respecting the stipulated procedures in each segment of the work of the Ministry of Interior; emergent forms of corruption and corruption within the police, various forms of violation of the police code of ethics and rules of conduct, providing assessment and justification for the use of coercive means by police officers in cases where the consequence is serious bodily injury or death.

The situation and needs of the legislative and institutional mechanisms established in the country, investigating cases of alleged abuse of powers by authorized police officers for law enforcement with special emphasis on those cases that resulted in serious human rights violations, shows that there is no compatibility of national legal and institutional system with the requirements of Article 2 and 3 of the European Convention on Human Rights, its case law and other applicable international standards, that the legislative and institutional mechanisms established in the Republic of Macedonia are not in accordance with some of the key requirements, such as

¹² Code of Conduct for persons responsible for applying the law - Fair Trial manual - Amnesty International 1998, publisher Fund for Humanitarian Law, p. 88

¹³ International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1966. This document can be found in "Human rights" - fundamental documents of the UN, Skopje, October 1998 (all human rights for all; fifty anniversary of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights from 1948 to 1998).

the principles of impartiality, effectiveness, independence and transparency. Hence, for the Republic of Macedonia is very important the establishment of independent, timely and effective mechanisms for oversight of the police work as a prerequisite for removal of illegal conduct and abuse in the work of police officers in exercising the police powers. The main objective of the control mechanisms for protection of human rights is to oversee the application of police powers objectively and impartially and to take action against those police officers who have violated the rights of citizens in exercising the police powers.

In the Republic of Macedonia, a draft mechanism for strengthening the system of external control over police and other agencies with police powers is prepared, and it is based on three pillars: the first pillar- enhanced role of the Public Prosecutor; second pillar - strengthened role of the Ombudsman and the third pillar - Independent Commission to supervise the work of police and other authorities with police powers.¹⁴ The draft includes the adoption of legislation to strengthen external control by establishing a complete, comprehensive and consistent system of external control of police and other agencies with police powers and the importance in the establishment of external control over police work is the need to protect citizens' interests and providing impartial justice in proceedings against ill-treatment by police officers; this control enhances public confidence in the objectivity and fairness of the proceedings on appeal to citizens' complaints.

Education of police officers to protect human rights of police powers

In order to achieve efficiency and legality of police officers in the performance of police work and the application of police powers, it is necessary several times a year to maintain training of police officer in normative regulative which is about police obligation in doing police work¹⁵

It is necessary to organize training and education of police officers about exercising police powers specifically for summons, arrest and detention under the provisions of the Law on Police as well as training on

¹⁴ For the role of the Ombudsman see more at "The Role of the Ombudsman as a control mechanism over the work of police officers," MA Gerginova Tatjana, published in the Yearbook of the Faculty of Security for 2007/2008. For the role of public prosecutors see more at MA "Improving the role of Public Prosecutor of the Republic of Macedonia as a control mechanism of the police officers," MA Gerginova Tatjana published in the scientific magazine "Horizons" the University "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" - Bitola, No. 3 / 2008.

¹⁵ Normative regulative which is about police obligation for police officer for doing police stuffs, contains the Constitution of the Republic of Macedonia from 1991, the Criminal Code, Criminal Law procedure, the Regulation on the use of force and firearms, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the European Convention on Human Rights.

human rights of persons being held, detained or deprived of liberty. This type of training should be conducted several times during the year. It is required training of police officers in ways of achieving effective communication with the citizens about the implementation of the Law on Police and the provisions of the Code of Police Ethics. In police training at all levels it should be included the application of the provisions of the European Convention on Human Rights and its jurisprudence. Encouraging democratic values in the police is of crucial importance, and training is one of the most important ways to promote values among police officers.

The international documents on human rights should be compiled with special emphasis on the recommendations of the Committee for Prevention of Torture that requires zero tolerance for harassment by the authorities responsible for law enforcement.

It is necessary to provide documents for each police officer and also is needed constant education and training to enhance the professional knowledge of the police officers. The police officers should know the legal procedures to carry out their duties. Taking into account the principles expressed in the European Code of police ethics, police training should be based on fundamental values of democracy, rule of law and protection of human rights and freedoms, and should be developed in accordance with the objectives of the police.

Basically during these training sessions, important topics for discussion with all police officers are the following:¹⁶

- to discuss and define the term "primary force", to establish a clear definition of what is using force in cases of apprehension or prosecution of suspects;
- to discuss the circumstances in which it might be reasonable to apply force against a person who is detained on suspicion of having committed a crime;
- to formulate some clear and precise instructions about the circumstances in which police officers may use means of force or firearms;
- to discuss the meaning of the term that the application of force should not be more than "absolutely necessary" or that "the applied force must be strictly proportional with the achievement of the objectives set out in the legal acts. Specifically to highlight the extent of the use

¹⁶ See more at CRAWSHAW, Ralph: Human rights and their protection under international law - A pamphlet for police, Council of Europe, 2000.

of forcible means and firearms, and their necessity and proportion with the goal that should be achieved;

- to discuss the scope of responsibility of senior police officers for the actions of those officers who are subordinated to them, related to unlawful use of force;
- to discuss what are the legal grounds, in accordance with the national regulations for the application of force by police officers;
- to discuss the meaning of the term "mental torture" and to define some concrete examples;
- to discuss the various ways in which senior police officers should ensure that police officers are aware of the prohibition of torture and are appropriately trained to treat detained persons;
- to discuss what techniques and methods of conversation should be developed for police officers in order to reduce the likelihood that they will illegally treat the detained persons during the questioning;
- to discuss the cases in which a police officer interrogates the suspect in a police station, armed with firearms. Does this represent professionalism in the actions of a police officer and what surveillance techniques could be implemented to prevent this kind of unlawful conduct with detained persons?

During the implementation of the training, the importance of police and its role in protecting the right to life through the measures that are taken to prevent deprivation of life and re-examination of already committed murders must be pointed out. Furthermore, police officers should be aware of the importance of the legal application of force in relations between the police and the public, the importance of recognition, full and absolute prohibition of torture and abuse, and no circumstance, including superior orders or exceptional circumstances, must not be used as justification for torture or abuse. During the training of police officers is necessary to be pointed out the importance of recognizing that the rights to liberty and security of person are fundamental human rights and the importance of recognizing that basic police powers of police officers which deprive persons of liberty must reasonably be conducted in accordance with the law.

Responsibilities of police commanders¹⁷

- Recruitment and training of police officers – senior police officers must be sure that only those persons to whom they can entrust

¹⁷ See more at CRAWSHAW, Ralph: Human rights and their protection under international law - A pamphlet for police, Council of Europe, 2000.

authority to use force are selected as police officers and all police officers are properly trained to use that power;

- Rules and equipment - they should ensure the existence of clear rules concerning the application of force by police and all police officers to be properly supplied with defensive equipment and equipment for the application of force and to be able to use force only when necessary;
- Application and wrong application of force and firearms - senior police officers should ensure that police officers will use force and firearms only under circumstances stipulated by the law and that wrong use of force and firearms is illegal and punishable.
- Responsibility for the actions of police officers - police officers should be responsible for the unlawful use of force and firearms by those who are subordinated.
- Command and control over the police action - they need to maintain command and control of police operations involving the application of force through proper analysis of information and reporting, planning and giving instructions to those who are subordinated introducing an effective command and control system, analysis and review of the action after its completion.

Responsibility of all police officers is necessary to determine the following¹⁸

- Whenever possible, before using force or firearms, police officers have to use all peaceful means;
- Police officers must respect the law, rules and recommendations concerning the application of force and firearms;
- Police officers should be aware that they are bound not to pursue any order or instruction that requires them to perform torture or abuse;
- Police officers should be aware that in all countries that are signatories to the European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, the Committee against Torture is empowered to visit places of detention, including police stations - facilities for retention.
- The police officers should be aware that the term "reasonable suspicion" that a person has committed or will commit a crime, should be based on objective facts or information.

¹⁸ See more at CRAWSHAW, Ralph: Human rights and their protection under international law - A pamphlet for police, Council of Europe, 2000.

- Police Training - they should ensure that police officers are aware of the prohibition of torture, to be properly trained to treat detained persons, and to have the necessary skills for interrogation of the detained persons without exposing their methods of interrogation with which reduces their ability to make decisions and reasoning;
- Review and surveillance - they should review the methods of interrogation and the conditions and treatment of detained persons and to supervise police officers to ensure compliance with the law, rules and guidelines on these issues;
- Review of the allegations of torture and abuse - with supervision to ensure all allegations of torture or ill-treatment to be reviewed urgently and thoroughly;
- Police training - to provide police officers to be aware of their authority to deprive persons of liberty and restrictions on these powers.
- Supervision - to supervise those who are beholden to ensure that the rights of detained persons after arrest are respected, and that appropriate procedures are applied;

Conclusion

There is a basic assumption that citizens have confidence in the state institutions and systems and therefore they do not want to initiate proceedings for prosecution of police officers. The severity of this phenomenon is even greater if we consider that even the media exposed cases of police abuse and torture do not want to complain and thus seek adequate investigate on infringement of rights in police procedure. It is necessary to establish a mixed secondary external control system which will bring together representatives of the citizens and in cases when there is excess of force and police torture, and to establish a special unit for investigation cases of police abuse and torture within the Public Prosecution. It is necessary to be organized special training for uniformed police officers in the field of application of force to respect the basic principles of the United Nations to use force and firearms as well as international standards of human rights of persons deprived of liberty and continuing education for police officers for the practice of European Court of Human Rights regarding the violations of rights in police actions.

REFERENCES:

1. Code of Police Ethics, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, no. 72/2007;
2. Conclusions: "Legal regulation for use of weapons and means for compel by the authorized officials of the Ministry of internal affairs", Skopje, organized in October 17th, 2007 by the Project. Zakluchoci of the Round Table: "Legislation on the use of weapons and means of coercion by the authorized officials of the Ministry ", Skopje, organized on 17.10.2007, by the Project;
3. "Control mechanisms for the protection of human rights in cases of abuse of police powers" published in the scientific magazine "Horizons" the University "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" - Bitola in 2011;
4. Decree on the use of means of coercion and Firearms, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, no. 22/1998, 17/2004;
5. G.Kalajdziev, Z. Jankulovski, V. Zafirovski, V. Gavrovski, U. Pirovska, Z. Ibrahim, "Analysis of national legislation, institutions and practice in cases of abuse of powers among police officers: External supervision of enforcement law analysis of international standards, domestic legislation, mechanisms, institutions and practices", Skopje, December 2007;
6. Law on police, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia, no. 114/2006, 148/2008 I 6 / 2009;
7. "Legitimacy in the work of police officers and protection of human rights" by Mr. Tatiana Gerginova published in the scientific magazine "Horizons" the University "Sv. Kliment Ohridski" - Bitola, issue 6 / 2010;
8. Rulebook of the Department for Internal Control and Professional Standards- Ministry of Interior adopted in May 2007 and entered into force on 11.11.2007;
9. Rulebook of the Ministry of Interior, Official Gazette of the Republic of Macedonia no. 149/2007;
10. Zafirovski Vojislav, Jankulovski Zvonimir: "Police powers and human rights in the Republic of Macedonia", Skopje, 1999.
11. CRAWSHAW, Ralph: Human rights and their protection under international law - A pamphlet for police, Council of Europe, 2000.

NEW CHALLENGES OF THE REGIONAL POLICE COOPERATION WITHIN MARRI INITIATIVE

Sergej Uljanov, LL.M

sputnik970@gmail.com

*Research Fellow of Institute for Comparative Law in Belgrade
Department for International Operational Police Cooperation MOI*

Dragan Djukanovic, Ph.D.

dragandjuk@yahoo.com

Institute of International Politics and Economics, Belgrade

Abstract

Due to the fact of the perspective integrative process of Western Balkans towards Europe, the authors focus their attention to the importance of Migration Asylum Refugees Regional Initiative (MARRI) as a specific form of the regional police cooperation. As new challenges of the MARRI initiative are considered: combating illegal migrations, harmonization of the national legislative frameworks regarding the EU asylum policy, and the solving of the problem on refugees and displaced persons in the region of Western Balkans. The crucial support for the MARRI initiative is to be provided by the international organizations as: UNHCR, IOM, INTERPOL, OSCE, EUROPOL, FRONTEX, and SELEC. The Western Balkan countries are to implement bilateral agreements in the fields of legal and illegal migrations, asylum and refugees status being challenged by the phenomena of people smuggling, trafficking in human beings, drug and weapon smuggling, travel documents forging and the other forms of trans-border crime. Speeding up of the EU accession process of Western Balkan states will enable overpowering of the MARRI's challenges by finding out adequate ways of enhancing regional police cooperation.

Key words: *MARRI, regional police cooperation, Western Balkans, migration, asylum, refugees*

Introduction

The region of Southeastern Europe has been enduring the significant changes in the post-Cold War stage of international relations. Those were results of the intentions of the newly appeared political elites' to create national states on the territory of former Yugoslavia. Such efforts were not bypassed by ethnic conflicts and tensions, which caused notable migration of

citizens in the region of Western Balkans as well as a situation of a large number of dislocated persons and refugees. The matter of solving those persons' statuses is still opened, no matter of the Sarajevo Declaration (2005) and Ministerial Statement (Belgrade, 2010). That is why the bilateral relations of the Western Balkans countries are *inter alia*, burdened with the quoted issue regarding refugees' statuses just as obvious decrease of the number of refugees to their prewar domiciles.¹

Besides the mentioned, spreading of the European Union in 2004 and 2007, put the Western Balkan states into a special position, making them a barrier for entering of numerous illegal migrants and opening the question of asylum policy in these countries. Therefore, states of the region have to redefine their previous Acts on Asylum, gradually, and enhance the possibility of giving shelter for the persons being pursued in the domicile states for political, confessionnal, ethnical or some other matter of affiliation. In 2003, by patronage of the Stability Pact for Southeastern Europe, the Migration Asylum Refugees Regional Initiative - MARRI has been created as one of the institutional frames for cooperation among the states in the Western Balkans and Southeastern Europe, considering the mentioned issues.² The basic objectives of the initiative are related to the border management of the states, challenges of migration, and establishing of asylum policy and visa regimes.

Due to the fact that the Western Balkans is still facing numerous problems related to the so-called war inheritance, MARRI achieved its importance during the last decade, after the transformation of the Stability Pact for Southeastern Europe at the Regional Cooperation Council - RCC, in 2008.³ MARRI cooperates with many international organizations on European and world-wide level having as their goal further stabilization of the Western Balkans. According to the process of stabilization MARRI had become a part of Justice and Home Affairs Unit of the Regional Cooperation Council, as well as a significant mechanism for cooperation among the

¹ Dragan Đukanović, „Priorities of the Foreign Office of Serbia in the Bilateral and Multilateral Relations with the Neighbours”, in: Ph.D. Edita Stojić-Karanović and M.A. Slobodan Janković (urs), *Elements of the Strategy for Foreign Policy of Serbia*, Institute for International Policy and Economy, Belgrade, 2008, pp. 85-105.

² Duško Lopandić, Jasminka Kronja, *Regional Incentive and Multilateral Cooperation on the Balkans*, European Movement in Serbia, Fridrih Ebert Stiftung, Belgrade, 2010, pp. 204-205.

³ Dragan Đukanović, „Transformation of the Pact for Stability in South-East Europe: new motives for regional cooperation”, in: Dragan Đukanović (ed.), *International Forums for Collaboration in Europe: Comparational Models*, Institute for International Policy and Economy, 2007, pp. 173-190.

Western Balkan states, regarding legal and illegal ways of migrations, as well.⁴

MARRI - structure and goals

Having in mind the importance of the interstate cooperation on migrations, asylum and the matters of solving refugees' statuses, international leading actors, within the frame of the Stability Pact for SEE, established the Regional Forum as a body for consultation among the Ministries of Interior.⁵ The body enhanced cooperation among the Ministries of Interior of Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Albania, Montenegro and Serbia. So, the Regional Forum is an executive unit of MARRI and, led by annually rotated coordinators representing their home states in the Western Balkans region, becomes important as an instrument for consultation, trainings, information exchange, and strengthening of collaboration and institutional capacities.⁶

Representatives of OSCE, IOM and UNHCR take part in the Steering Committee of MARRI, which is self-explanatory considering the stands of the European Union and the named international organizations specialized for migrations, asylum, and statuses of refugees, and regarding the importance of MARRI's role. In May 2005 MARRI's Regional Center was founded in Skopje, Macedonia, as a special body competent for intensifying dialogs and cooperation among the states on the Western Balkans. This followed after the signing of the Memorandum of establishing MARRI in April 2004 in Herceg Novi, Montenegro and signing of the Memorandum of understanding in July 2004, in Tirana, Albania.⁷ At the beginning of the next year, MARRI Regional Center started to work on the basic goals to enhance the dialog and the cooperation among the member states of this multilateral initiative and to harmonize their national legislations within the legislative framework of the European Union, considering matters of migrations, asylum and statuses of refugees. As a special executive body, MARRI Regional Center has the important task to connect and maintain relations between the Regional Forum and the MARRI member states. The Head of the MARRI Regional Center is the director running all activities related to administrative managing, human resources

⁴ See: www.rcc.int.

⁵ Internet, <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=28&Lan=EN>, 12/01/2012.

⁶ Ibidem.

⁷ Duško Lopandić, Jasminka Kronja, *Regionalne inicijative i multilateralna saradnja na Balkanu*, op. cit., pp. 204-205.

and enabling of cooperation with the Regional Forum, as well as with the other partners, either states or international organizations.⁸

Although the starting years of working of MARRI were followed by numerous problems regarding financing, after 2008 the situation was upgraded due to the contributions of the member states and continuing of the cooperation with the European Commission. MARRI initiated realization of a large number of projects considering combating regional trafficking in human beings, supporting victims of sex trafficking and enhancing implementation of internal agreements on readmission. Also, there are projects which deal with strengthening of the collaboration with the member states of SEPCA, considering border crossing points and international airport issues. ATR Data Collection is, for sure, one of the most important projects of MARRI, as a regional incentive, having formed the unique database considering trafficking in human beings in the Southeastern Europe. Besides, MARRI Regional Center intends to realize many other very ambitiously designed projects.⁹

Challenges of MARRI

As challenges of MARRI are considered: combating people smuggling, trafficking in human beings, harmonization of the national legislative frameworks regarding EU asylum policy, and the solving of the problem on refugees and displaced persons in Western Balkans. As an answer of possible solutions, there are projects for implementation still to come.

The new MARRI project named “Joint comprehensive approach in building co-operation between the member states’ border police of MARRI and SEPCA on the international airport border crossing points” is a follow up of the MARRI Project “Establishment of network for cooperation among border police on the international airport border crossing points in the MARRI member states” implemented in the course of 2010, which resulted in completion of the main Project outcome - “Establishment of Permanent Regional Working Group-Network” for Cooperation and information exchange consisted of commanders of the border police units from the main International airports border crossing points in the member states of MARRI. The Objective of the Project is to improve the capacities of MARRI and SEPCA Member States’ national authorities responsible for border management, especially border police on the international airport border crossing points to address issues of irregular migration and crime /

⁸ Internet, <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=28&Lan=EN>, 12/01/2012.

⁹ Internet, <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=31&Lan=EN>, 12/01/2012.

terrorism on sustainable and permanent basis, and to support joint comprehensive inter-regional approach in building cooperation in that respect.

Specific objectives of the Project are: to establish and maintain effective inter-regional co-operation and information exchange mechanisms among border police on the international airport border crossing points in MARRI and SEPCA Member States; to improve capacities of border police on the international airport border crossing points; to strengthen performances of Permanent Regional Working Group-Network for Cooperation; to increase efficiency in secure movement of persons and goods; to prevent or reduce crime / terrorism and irregular migration. The main output of the Project is establishment of an overall effective interregional cooperation network among border police on the international airport border crossing points as well as establishment and setting to function of an enlarged permanent interregional working groups which will be upgraded on executive-strategic level with participation of the Heads of the Border Police Services and on operational level, with participation of the commanders of the border police units on the main international airport border crossing points from three SEPCA member states (Romania, Bulgaria and Moldova). This project has been financed by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation and in partnership with SEPCA, PCC SEE and possible partnership with FRONTEX.

The project “Migration for Development in the Western Balkans” is a Project of the European Commission under IPA MB Program in which the MARRI Regional Center, as a partner with IOM, is directly involved for the first time. Its beneficiaries are migrants, societies and governments in the Western Balkans region and the communities in the European Union member states which benefit from the skills of the migrants.

The overall objective of the project is to support the informed migration from the Western Balkans to the European Union member states and to contribute to a positive impact of the labor migration on the socio-economic development in the Western Balkans. The specific objectives are: to strengthen the capacity of the Migrant Service Centre in the Western Balkans in order to facilitate the entry of the potential migrants to the labor markets in the European Union, and reinsertion of returning skilled migrants; to provide opportunities for return of the skilled people and human capital and foster partnership between the countries of origin and destination.

Main activities are: to promote and support cooperation incentives between the relevant actors in the European Union member states and in the Western Balkans, to facilitate the entry of potential migrants to the labor markets in the European Union and the Western Balkans; to develop measures to facilitate the return of the skilled labor forces, reintegrating them

into their society and supporting the dissemination of new acquired skills. The main output of the Project is establishment of an effective regional cooperation network among Migration Service Centers in the Western Balkans in order to facilitate the entry of potential migrants to the labor markets in the EU and reinsertion of returning skilled migrants. MARRI Regional Centre will perform the role of the supporting agency for implementation of the Project.

The project “Establishment of network for cooperation among border police on the international airport border crossing points in the member states of MARRI” is a matter of the MARRI member states national authorities responsible for border management in particular border police on the international airports border crossing points, as beneficiaries. The MARRI Regional Centre is to perform the role of the implementing agency coordinating and managing all the activities necessary for implementation of the Project.

The overall objective of the project is to improve the capacities of the MARRI member states national authorities responsible for border management, in particular border police on the international airports’ border crossing points to address issues of irregular migration and crime and / or terrorism on sustainable and permanent basis, thus contributing to harmonization of regional standards in combating irregular migration and to channel irregular flows to the regular ones. Specific objectives of the Project are to establish and improve a more effective regional cooperation and information exchange mechanisms between border police on the international airports border crossing points in the MARRI member states, to increase the efficiency in secure movement of persons and goods as well as to prevent and reduce crime and / or terrorism and irregular migration.

The main output of the Project is establishment of effective regional cooperation network among border police on the international airport border crossing points as well as establishment and setting to function of a permanent regional working group.

Last but not least, the Programme for the Enhancement of Anti-trafficking Responses in Southeastern Europe named “Data Collection and Information Management” has started with its first phase in September 2006 and was implemented by the International Centre for Migration Policy Development in partnership with EUROPOL, Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement and the MARRI Regional Centre in Skopje, Macedonia. The countries participating in this Programme were Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Romania and Serbia. The second phase of the Programme was focused on data processing, maintenance and analysis; it was launched in September 2008 and funded by the Royal Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The

International Center for Migration Policy Development is implementing the Programme in partnership with MARRI, the Office of the Dutch National Rapporteur on Trafficking in Human Beings, EUROPOL and the SECI Center. The participating countries in this Programme are Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia. The overall objective of the second phase is to build upon the achievements of the Programme for the Enhancement of Anti-trafficking Responses in Southeastern Europe, Data Collection and Information Management (DCIM), and to strengthen the capacities of participating countries to monitor, evaluate and review their National Anti-Trafficking Responses. Specifically, the project builds up the capacities of the participating institutions to process, analyze, present and consequently transform into relevant programmatic information and activities from the information contained in the DCIM databases and developed in the course of the DCIM from the first phase of the Programme, while ensuring that the criteria and methods for analyzing and presenting Trafficking in Human Beings statistical data are regionally harmonized and correspond to the commonly accepted international standards and norms. To this end the project aims to train the local actors on the utilization of the collected data in the design of effective policies and targeted programmatic activities corresponding to the specific needs and trends of each country. Additionally, the project aims to assess to what extent countries are able and willing to compare and exchange data on trafficking in human beings with other states. In order to achieve these objectives, the project will aim to strengthen cooperation between the relevant national repositories and other relevant actors working in the field of collection of data on trafficking in human beings including governmental and nongovernmental actors.

Partners of MARRI

Partners of MARRI are actually the MARRI related organizations. These are the following regional, international and organizational institutions related to the European Union:

Regional organizations:

- Regional Cooperation Council (RCC)
- International Centre for Migration Policy Development (ICMPD)
- International Organization for Migration (IOM)
- RACVIAC - Centre for Security Cooperation
- SELEC Center - Southeast European Law Enforcement Centre
- SEPCA – Southeast Europe Police Chiefs’ Association

- South-East European Cooperation Process
- Central European Initiative
- CERMES (Centre for European Refugees, Migration and Ethnic Studies)
- Europe and the Balkans International Network

International organizations:

- Council of Europe
- DCAF - Geneva's Center for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces
- EUROPOL
- INTERPOL
- OSCE
- United Nations
- UNHCR
- UN Center for International Crime Prevention (CICP)
- UN Office for Drugs and Crime (ODC)

Organizations connected to European Union:

- Presidency of the Council of the EU
- European Union
- European Parliament
- European Commission
- European Commission (Area of Freedom, Security and Justice)
- Council of the European Union
- FRONTEX

It is to be stressed out that these organizations are related among each other in the complementary way and have joint comprehensive approach in analyzing, solving, preventing and combating the problems of the statuses of refugees, illegal migration, trafficking in human beings and harmonization of the national legislative frameworks regarding the European Union asylum policy.

Right of asylum in the European Union and MARRI

One of the top priorities of MARRI is harmonization of the national legislative frameworks of the member states considering the European Union standards regarding right of asylum. It is to be highlighted that the Western Balkans countries are having difficulties caused by immigration of a large number of immigrants from the Middle East and from

the Afro-Asian Complex. Emigration countries of source predominantly are: Afghanistan, Iraq and Somalia, including the area of Palestine, as well.¹⁰ That is why it is so important to define priorities considering the right of asylum regarding standards of the Western Balkans states, as well as to accept the related European Union standards in creating an asylum policy. This will be of help in the avoidance of an eventual breaking of the human rights of the migrants.

Another big problem in the Western Balkan states is the matter of accommodation of the migrants. This fact is confirmed by the existence of overloaded housing capacity burdened with significant ethnic distances in the relations between citizens and immigrants in the places with asylum centers.

All regional countries have ratified the international documents regarding the right of asylum, especially the United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees¹¹ in 1951, with additional Protocols and European Convention on Human Rights.¹² Also, it is of a great importance to improve the living conditions considering the position of the asylum seekers in the states of the Western Balkans, particularly regarding their accommodation, participation in the local community and protection of the other fundamental rights.

In the forthcoming times, it is essentially important that every Western Balkan state, as being specific “outskirts” of the European Union, prevents illegal migrations successfully, but also to ensure rights and shelters to persons endangered truly in their domicile states through harmonization of the asylum policy. This means removal of the possibility to abuse the right of asylum. According to that, the Republic of Serbia has regulated all quoted issues by enacting the new Law on Asylum, in 2008.

Conclusion

Regional integration is imperative for countries in the Western Balkans, because they need to solve the vast majority of problems through international, European or regional cooperation network. The perspective of European integration as a common goal of all states in the Western Balkans region gives a leading role to the European Union considering establishment and promotion of the regional cooperation in the Western Balkans, having in mind a full scale of problems still existing.

¹⁰ „*O azilu*“, Center for protection and help of the asylum seekers, Belgrade, 2011, pp. 4-6.

¹¹ “The United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees“, 28 Julz 1951.

¹² “European Convention on Human Rights and its Five Protocols“, Rome, 4 November 1950.

Essential motives for establishing regional cooperation and integration are security and development. Although, trading and securing arrangements are usually a solid ground for starting phase of building up of regional structure, regional cooperation can be made of numerous dimensions of economic and social life, political infrastructure, inner security, environmental protection, cultural base etc. So, this is a complex and multidimensional process of regional netting, including not only relation among states and national administrations, but among social actors as businessmen, politicians, civilians, as well. In the process, the local communities are getting more and more important role to develop different ways of transborder collaboration.

In general, the regional cooperation has contributed to the idea of single state self-sufficiency to be overpowered. It enhances cooperation of administrations, civilians' representatives and public economies by enabling solutions through making communication easier and creating various cooperative networks. The very existing of regional incentives, as MARRI is, affects the public opinion and creates awareness for the common goals facilitating preparation of transborder projects and engagement of international financial aids.

Joint intention of all regional incentives in the Western Balkans is developing of multilateral cooperation which is the ground for economic progress, political and economic stabilization and consolidation of good relations of the neighboring states. These are the preconditions for successful integration of the countries of the region to the European Union, and MARRI is just a reflection of their need and willing to get this job done being aware of the necessity to have a new approach towards the migration management in Southeastern Europe.

LITERATURE

1. "European Convention on Human Rights and its Five Protocols", Rome, 4 November 1950.
2. "The United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees", 28 July 1951
3. Đukanović, Dragan, „Spoljnopolitički prioriteti Republike Srbije u bilateralnim i multilateralnim odnosima sa susedima”, u: dr Edita Stojić-Karanović i mr Slobodan Janković (urs), *Elementi strategije spoljne politike Srbije*, Institut za međunarodnu politiku i privredu, Beograd, 2008, str. 85-105.

4. Đukanović, Dragan, „Transformacija Pakta za stabilnost u Jugoistočnoj Evropi: novi podsticaji regionalnoj saradnji”, u: Dragan Đukanović (ur.), *Međudržavni forumi za saradnju u Evropi: uporedni modeli*, Institut za međunarodnu politiku i privredu, 2007, str. 173-190.
5. Đukanović, Dragan, Uljanov, Sergej, Ivanović, Zvonimir, „Mreža regionalnih inicijativa u oblasti bezbednosti na jugoistoku Evrope (JIE): uporedna analiza“, u: *Revija za kriminologiju i krivično pravo*, Vol. 48, Br. 3, Srpsko udruženje za krivičnopravnu teoriju i praksu i Institut za kriminološka i sociološka istraživanja u Beogradu, Beograd, 2010, str. 331-346.
6. Đukanović, Dragan, Ivanović, Zvonimir, Uljanov, Sergej, „Forms of International Police Co-operation in the Terms of Transition in the Western Balkans“, in: *Serbian Law in Transition: Changes and Challenges*, Institute of Comparative Law, Belgrade, 2009, pp. 315-336.
7. Lopandić, Duško, Kronja, Jasminka, *Regionalne inicijative i multilateralna saradnja na Balkanu*, Evropski pokret u Srbiji, Fridrih Ebert Stiftung, Beograd, 2010, str. 204-205.
8. Uljanov, Sergej, Ivanović, Zvonimir, „Međunarodne policijske organizacije“. *Strani pravni život*, (2), Beograd, 2010, str. 65-84.

Internet sources:

- <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx>, 26/02/2012
- <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=27&Lan=EN>,
27.02.2012
- <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=28&Lan=EN>,
12.01.2012
- <http://www.marri-rc.org/legislation/Legislation.html>, 26.02.2012
- <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=31&Lan=EN>,
27.02.2012
- <http://www.marri-rc.org/Default.aspx?mid=14&Lan=EN>,
27.02.2012

DEVELOPING SKILLS FOR CRITICAL THINKING IN THE PROCESS OF SOLVING OF SECURITY PROBLEMS

Slavko Angelevski, Ph.D.

slavko.angelevski@ugd.edu.mk

Metodi Hadzi Janev, Ph.D.

metodi.hadzi-janev@ugd.edu.mk

Orce Popovski

orce.popovski@ugd.edu.mk

University "Goce Delcev" – Stip

Military Academy "General Mihailo Apostolski" - Skopje

Abstract

This elaboration discusses on the most important essential skill for Leaders in the security sector: critical thinking. It is hard to imagine a leader today, especially those who are involved in solving security issues, who does not think critically, or at least uses the concept in making decisions. Critical thinking leads to a greater certainty and confidence in an uncertain future. This skill helps us to simplify complex scenarios and brings clarity to the ambiguous situations. In essence, critical thinking is about learning how to think and how to judge and improve the quality of thinking.

In the elaboration, we start with the definition of critical thinking and its philosophy, and we consider the purpose of the thinking and components of critical thinking with brief definitions of each of the categories in the elements of reasoning. Further, we consider the uses of critical thinking in the decision making process. Critical thinking is useful only in those situations where human beings need to solve problems, make decisions, or decide in a reasonable and reflective way what to believe or what to do. At the end, we discuss about the use of scientific methods in the security problem solving process, and we propose a model in which scientific methods are implemented on the base of operational researches, statistical analyses, mathematical and computer modeling, simulations, analytical reasoning, and common sense. This model can be implemented in the process of understanding and improvement of the conduction of some security operations.

Key words: *critical thinking, decision making process, problem solving, education, curricula, scientific methods, information technology, modeling and simulation*

Introduction

Critical thinking consists of mental processes of discernment, analyzing and evaluating. It includes all possible processes of reflecting upon a tangible or intangible item in order to form a solid judgment that reconciles scientific evidence with common sense.

Becoming a critical thinker is an admirable goal requiring a committed effort to learn the concepts, practice the elements, and teach the ways. It is critical for the military professionals, and also for decision makers in any crisis situations, to develop this essential strategic leader skill. Clausewitz recognized the value of critical thinking for strategic leaders when he wrote, "...the human mind is far from uniform. If we then ask what sort of mind is the likeliest to display the qualities of military genius, experience and observation will tell us that it is the inquiring rather than the creative mind, the comprehensive rather than the specialized approach, the calm rather than the excitable head to which in war we would choose to entrust the fate of our brothers and children, and the safety and honor of our country."¹

A primary task of any military or security system educational institution is the development of leadership, management, and decision making skills. We believe that underlying these skills is the ability to exercise consequential / critical thinking. Including critical thinking in an educational curriculum is not something peculiar to the military or security system educational institutions. Critical thinking is nominally included in many elementary, secondary, and faculty level curricula. Critical thinkers gather information from all senses, verbal and / or written expressions, reflection, observation, experience and reasoning. Critical thinking has its basis in the intellectual criteria that go beyond subject-matter divisions and which include: clarity, credibility, accuracy, precision, relevance, depth, breadth, logic, significance and fairness.

Decision makers today are faced with an increasingly complex world in which resources, particularly financial ones, are severely limited. Decision analysis, which takes a rational approach to decision making, can help decision makers structure their approach, gain a greater understanding of the situation they face and ultimately arrive at a decision with more confidence.

¹ Carl Von Clausewitz, "On War," Edited by Michael Howard and Peter Paret, (Princeton NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976), p 112.

Definition of critical thinking

Today, a number of definitions of thinking and of critical thinking in particular exist in academia. We have used definitions from a number of authors; some related to thinking in general (Rubinstein and Firstenberg 1987)², and some who were focused specifically on critical thinking (Brookfield 1987:7-11),³ (Walters 1990)⁴, and (Paul 1993)⁵.

The definition which is the most appropriate for connection of critical thinking with decision making is the following:

“Critical thinking is defined as disciplined, self-directed thinking displaying a mastery of intellectual skills and abilities - thinking about your thinking while you are thinking to make your thinking better.”

There are also developed a series of shorthand labels such as “thinking about thinking” and “quality control of the mind.” The shorthand for critical thinking that has become most popular is “thinking outside of the box.”

The following is one of the definitions of critical thinking that summarizes our approach:⁶

Critical thinking is the ability to think about one’s thinking in such a way as:

- to recognize its strengths and weaknesses and, as a result,
- to recast the thinking in an improved form.

Such thinking about one’s thinking involves the ability to identify the basic elements of thought (purpose, question, information, assumption, interpretation, concepts, implications, point of view) and assess those elements using universal intellectual criteria and standards (clarity, accuracy, precision, relevance, depth, breadth, and logicalness).

² Rubinstein, Moshe F. and Firstenberg, Iris R.,(1987) "Tools for thinking, Developing Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Abilities," J.E. Stice (ed.), *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, No. 30, Summer, Jossey - Bass San Francisco.

³ Brookfield, Stephen D., (1989) *Developing Critical Thinkers - Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of Thinking and Acting*, Jossey Bass Publishers, San Francisco, p 7-11.

⁴ Walters, Kerry S., (1990) "Critical Thinking, Rationality, and the Vulcanization of Students," *The Journal of Higher Education*, Robert J. Silverman (ed.), OH: Ohio State University Press in Affiliation with the American Association for Higher Education.

⁵ Paul, Richard, (1993) *Critical Thinking - What Every Person Needs to Survive in a Rapidly Changing World (Third Edition)*, edited by Jane Willson and A.J.A. Binker, Foundation for Critical Thinking, Santa Rosa, CA.

⁶ Paul, Richard, (1993) *Critical Thinking - What Every Person Needs to Survive in a Rapidly Changing World (Third Edition)*, edited by Jane Willson and A.J.A. Binker, Foundation for Critical Thinking, Santa Rosa, CA.

Fundamentally, critical thinking is a form of judgment, a specifically purposeful and reflective judgment. Using critical thinking, we make a decision or solve the problem of judging what to believe or what to do, but do so in a reflective way. That is by giving due consideration to the evidence, the context of judgment, the relevant criteria for making that judgment well, the applicable methods or techniques for forming that judgment, and the applicable theoretical and construct for understanding the nature of the problem and the question at hand. These elements also happen to be the key defining characteristics of professional fields and academic disciplines.

The philosophy of critical thinking

Universal concepts and principles of critical thinking can be applied to any context or case but only by reflecting upon the nature of that application. Critical thinking forms, therefore, a system of related, and overlapping, modes of thought such as anthropological thinking, sociological thinking, historical thinking, political thinking, psychological thinking, philosophical thinking, mathematical thinking, chemical thinking, biological thinking, ecological thinking, legal thinking, ethic thinking, musical thinking, thinking like a painter, sculptor, engineer, business person, etc. In other words, though critical thinking principles are universal, their application to disciplines requires a process of reflective contextualization.⁷

We are often asked why we go to the effort of trying to teach critical thinking; people already know how to think. The first answer to this question is that yes, we all think, but do we do it well and are we able to evaluate the quality of our thinking? We can respond to this question with the statement that reflects our philosophy: "We are always thinking, the question is, are we in charge of our thinking, or is our thinking in charge of us?"⁸

There are also more complex answers to the question of why we need to teach critical thinking. These start with an understanding that the security environment has changed fundamentally since 1989. The old paradigms that we lived in have shifted or been demolished, and responses that worked for us during the period of "cold war" may no longer be applicable. As a result of the changes on many fronts, the defense and security sector has an immediate and widespread need for people who can examine assumptions, work through problems and evaluate different courses of actions, consider the implications of situations, and look not only to first order consequences

⁷ B.W. Hamby, (2007) *The Philosophy of Anything: Critical Thinking in Context*. Kendall Hunt Publishing Company, Dubuque Iowa, ISBN 978-0-7575-4724-9

⁸ Walters, Kerry S., (1990) "Critical Thinking, Rationality, and the Vulcanization of Students," *The Journal of Higher Education*, Robert J. Silverman (ed.), OH: Ohio State University Press in Affiliation with the American Association for Higher Education.

of actions, but second and third order consequences as well.⁹ In other words, we need people who can think critically. This is reflected in the Army's new leadership doctrine. The *FM22-100, Army Leadership*, describes critical thinking using the term "critical reasoning" (page 7 - 12) and identifies it as one of the key conceptual skills leaders must possess starting at the junior leader level.¹⁰

Components of critical thinking

While an issue can be examined starting at any point along the wheel, we normally start at the top with the purpose of the thinking. The following are brief definitions of each of the categories in the elements of reasoning, and they are reproduced from the material presented by Dr. Paul in 1993:¹¹

- **Purpose, goal, or end in view.** Whenever we reason, we reason to some end, to achieve some objective, to satisfy some desire, or fulfill some need. One source of problems in student reasoning is traceable to defects at the level of goal, purpose, or end. If the goal is unrealistic, for example, or contradictory to other goals the student has, if it is confused or muddled in some way, the reasoning used to achieve it is problematic.
- **Question at issue or problem to be solved.** Whenever we attempt to reason something out, there is at least one question at issue, at least one problem to be solved. One area of concern for assessing student reasoning, therefore, will be the formulation of the question to be answered or the problem to be solved, whether with respect to the student's own reasoning, or to that of others.
- **(Information) The empirical dimension of reasoning.** Whenever we reason, there is some "stuff," some phenomena about which we are reasoning. Any "defect" then in the experiences, data, evidence, or raw material upon which a person's reasoning is based is a possible source of problems.
- **Inferences.** Reasoning proceeds by steps in which we reason as follows: "Because this is so, that also is so (or probably so)," or "Since this, therefore that." Any "defect" in such inferences is a possible source of problems in our reasoning.

⁹ Richard Paul and Linda Elder, (2001) "Critical Thinking: Tools for Taking Charge of Your Learning and Your Life," (Upper Saddle River NJ: Prentice Hall, 2001).

¹⁰ See more in *FM22-100, Army Leadership*

¹¹ Paul, Richard, (1993) *Critical Thinking - What Every Person Needs to Survive in a Rapidly Changing World* (Third Edition), edited by Jane Willson and A.J.A. Binker, Foundation for Critical Thinking, Santa Rosa, CA.

- **The conceptual dimension of reasoning.** All reasoning uses some ideas or concepts and not others. These concepts can include the theories, principles, axioms and rules implicit in our reasoning. Any “defect” in the concepts or ideas of the reasoning is a possible source of problems in the student reasoning.
- **Assumptions.** All reasoning must begin somewhere, must take some things for granted. Any “defect” in the assumptions or presuppositions with which the reasoning begins is a possible source of problems in student reasoning. Assessing skills of reasoning involves assessing their ability to recognize and articulate their assumptions, again according to the relevant standards. The student’s assumptions may be stated *clearly* or unclearly; the assumptions may be *justifiable* or unjustifiable, *crucial* or extraneous, *consistent* or contradictory.
- **Implications and consequences.** No matter where we stop our reasoning, it will always have further implications and consequences. As reasoning develops, statements will logically be entailed by it. Any “defect” in the implications or consequences of our reasoning is a possible source of problems. The ability to reason well is measured in part by an ability to understand and enunciate the implications and consequences of the reasoning. Students therefore need help in coming to understand both the relevant standards of reasoning out implications and the degree to which their own reasoning meets those standards.
- **Point of View or Frame of Reference.** Whenever we reason, we must reason within some point of view or frame of reference. Any “defect” in that point of view or frame of reference is a possible source of problems in the reasoning. A point of view may be too narrow, too parochial, may be based on false or misleading analogies or metaphors, may contain contradictions, and so forth. It may be restricted or unfair. Alternatively, student reasoning involving articulation of their point of view may meet the relevant standards to a significant degree: the point of view may be broad, flexible, and fair; it may be clearly stated and consistently adhered to.

Implementation of critical thinking in the decision making process

Critical thinking is useful only in those situations where human beings need to solve problems, make decision, or decide in a reasonable and reflective way what to believe or what to do. That is, just about everywhere and all the time. Critical thinking is important wherever the quality of human

thinking significantly impacts the quality of life (of any sentient creature). For example, success in human life is tied to success in learning. At the same time, every phase in the learning process is tied to critical thinking.

Irrespective of the sphere you thought, “a well cultivated critical thinker”:¹²

- raises vital questions and problems, formulating them clearly and precisely;
- gathers and assesses relevant information, using abstract ideas to interpret it effectively
- comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, testing them against the relevant criteria and standards;
- thinks open-mindedly within the alternative systems of thought, recognizing and assessing, as they need to be, their assumptions, implications, and practical consequences; and
- communicates effectively with others in figuring out solutions to complex problems.

A lack of leaders’ critical thinking in the Decision Making Process (DMP) is a causal factor for failure in the process of security operations execution. However, critical thinking can improve the DMP of the leaders in the security sector. Critical thinking applied to the decision making process of the staff, increases the probability of successful decisions by minimizing errors in visualizing operations, assessing evidence, questioning assumptions, selecting alternatives, monitoring objectives, and knowing when to stop with the analytical thinking. The DMP is useful as a tool to organize and display the results of the analysis and thinking. Critical thinking is about how to think, while the DMP is what to think about.

What is the role of critical thinking in the analytical and intuitive decision making in the process of solving security problems? The DMP is a tool for problem solving. If thinking is not done correctly then decisions are wrong and the problem is not solved. Instead, poor decisions create more problems. Therefore, critical thinking increases the probability of solving the security problem through better choices and decisions.

There are two types of decisions made in the DMP: *intuitive* and *analytical*.¹³

In a fluid fast-paced tactical battlefield situation, or any other crisis situation, intuitive decision making is the gut level response in time sensitive situations. The human brain is “hardwired” to make intuitive decisions.

¹² Richard Paul and Linda Elder, (2006) *The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking: Concepts & Tools*. Published by the Foundation for Critical Thinking. ISBN 0-944583-10-5

¹³ Richard Paul and Linda Elder, (2006) *The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking: Concepts & Tools*. Published by the Foundation for Critical Thinking. ISBN 0-944583-10-5

Hardwired means that our innate neural structure is fixed and predictable, much like the internal hardware in a computer is fixed. Approximately 90% of all decisions are intuitive and approximately 85% of decisions are made in less than a minute.¹⁴

The other 10% of decisions that require analytical thinking are the ones of which most people lack the skills to accomplish. The problem with relying only on intuitive decisions is that the decision maker does not consider alternatives and can be blinded by mindsets. Additionally, the decision maker frequently “satisfies” by choosing the first Course of Action (COA) that seems satisfactory or good enough, instead of the optimal COA.

Conversely, analytical decision making is a conscious reasoning based on breaking down a complex problem into its component parts for closer inspection and usually involves a systematic procedure. For the leaders and staffs, analytical decision-making is frequently used:¹⁵

- when time is available;
- within new and ambiguous situations;
- to justify the decision;
- when there is a conflict among people with different concerns;
- and when an optimal COA is required.

Since critical thinking can enhance the DMP, how do leaders and staff begin to use it? Combat commanders and other security leaders will benefit from critical thinking rather than applying old solutions to new problems. Thinking about thinking is a realization that the greatest computer ever invented, the human brain, is subject to programming errors which cause a skewed perception of the world, according to how we want to see it, not how it really is. To become proficient at the critical thinking, it should become a daily habit.¹⁶

Combat commanders, other security leaders and their staffs can practice critical thinking in everyday problems: buying a car, deciding on children’s college, financial investments, career choices, reading the Early Bird, After Action Reviews, mission planning and debriefs, developing plans for operations (OPLANS), war games, etc. However, just talking about critical thinking will not improve the DMP. To see a real performance improvement requires practice and a willingness to change a mindset over time, if needed.

¹⁴ Watman, Kenneth. “Critical Thinking.” Lecture. U.S. Naval War College, Newport, RI: 18 March 2004.

¹⁵ See more in United States Army Research Institute, “Study Report 95-01, Critical Factors in the Art of Battlefield Command”, 1994

¹⁶ Mark Bowden, *Blackhawk Down* (New York: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1999), p. 354.

Scientific methods in the problem solving process

Professionals aim to provide rational bases for decision making and problem solving by seeking to understand and structure complex situations and to use this understanding to predict system behavior and improve system performance. Much of this work is done using analytical and numerical techniques to develop and manipulate mathematical and computer models of organizational systems composed of people, machines, and procedures.

Perhaps no single factor has as much potential as the information explosion for changing the way in which military and other security organizations function during peace and war (or any other crisis). Breakthroughs in sensors, information processing, communications, and visualization will make huge amounts of information available to the individual soldier. Time will shrink, and space will expand. Furthermore, emerging technologies will allow knowledge-level information to become largely the responsibility of computers rather than responsibility of individuals. To effectively implement these technological developments, military needs unprecedented delegation of decision-making authority, decentralization, and flatter organizational structures.

Decision makers today are faced with an increasingly complex world in which resources, particularly financial ones, are severely limited. Decision analysis, which takes a rational approach to decision making, can help decision makers structure their approach, gain a greater understanding of the situation they face and ultimately arrive at a decision with more confidence.

The emphasis of the education and training of leaders in security sector should be put on critical thinking; value orientation towards professionalism, ethics, and cooperation; good academic background in the field of Operation Research, System Analysis, Artificial Intelligence, Networking, Organization of Life Cycle Support; Foreign Languages, Law and Economics Competence, as well as development of research experience and strive for quality.¹⁷

Problem Solving Process, in which scientific methods are implemented using operational research, statistical analyses, mathematical and computer modeling, simulations, analytical reasoning and common sense, consist of several steps:¹⁸

- **Perception of situation** (may involve current operations or response to an unexpected crisis.);

¹⁷ Spacecast (1995): Professional Military Education in 2020. *Airpower Journal*, 9.2 (Summer 1995), pp. 27 - 41.

¹⁸ Frederick S. Hillier & Gerald J. Lieberman, (2005) *Introduction to Operations Research*, McGraw-Hill: Boston MA; 8th. (International) Edition.

- **Problem formulation** (describe system, define boundaries, state assumptions, select performance measures, define variables, define constraints, data requirements);
- **Constructing a model** (problem must be translated from verbal, qualitative terms to logical, quantitative terms. A logical model is a series of rules, usually embodied in a computer program. A mathematical model is a collection of functional relationships by which allowable actions are delimited and evaluated.);
- **Solving the mathematical model** (many tools are available - Linear Programming, Discrete-Time Markov Chains, Network Optimization, Continuous-Time Markov Chains, Integer Programming, Queuing, Nonlinear Programming, and Decision Analysis. Some lead to “optimal” solutions, others only evaluate candidates - trial and error to find “best” course of action);
- **Implementation** (a solution to a problem usually implies changes for some individuals in the organization, often there is a resistance to change, making the implementation difficult, user-friendly system needed, those affected should go through training);

The goal is to solve a problem. We always have to consider that the implemented model must be valid and tractable, and the solution must be useful. In the model, the scientific method is used to investigate the problem of concern. In particular, the process begins by carefully observing and formulating the problem, including gathering all relevant data. The next step is to construct a scientific (typically mathematical) model that attempts to abstract the essence of the real problem. It is then hypothesized that this model is a sufficiently precise representation of the essential features of the situation that the conclusions (solutions) obtained from the model are also valid for the real problem. Next, suitable experiments are conducted to test this hypothesis, modify it as needed, and eventually verify some form of the hypothesis. This step is frequently referred to as a model validation.

It is evident that no single individual should be expected to be an expert on all the many aspects of this kind of work, or the problems typically considered in the respond to complex crisis situations. This would require a group of individuals having diverse backgrounds and skills. Therefore, when a full study of a new problem is undertaken, it is usually necessary to use a team approach. Such a team typically needs to include individuals who are collectively highly trained in mathematics, statistics and probability theory, economics, business administration, computer science, engineering and the physical sciences, the behavioral sciences, and the special techniques of operational research. The team also needs to have the necessary experience

and variety of skills to give appropriate consideration to the many ramifications of the problem throughout the organization.

This model can be implemented to the understanding and improvement of the security operations. Improvement can be measured by minimization of cost, maximization of efficiency, or optimization of other relevant measures of effectiveness.

Conclusion

To summarize, it is clear that critical thinking is not going away. As time goes on, more and more personnel in security organisations will have been exposed to it in some fashion before they even get to the organisation. Paradoxically, given stereotypes of the military or any other security organisation because of recruiting and retention differences, we may well see critical thinking have an earlier and deeper impact in the uniformed part of the Army, Police, or other security organisations. Certainly, the rate of change within those organisations, the need to make good decisions in the absence of absolute, definable right answers, and the increasing volume and complexity of information coming at leaders will not make critical thinking less valuable.

Security leaders and their staffs should model and encourage habitual critical thinking because a lack of critical thinking in the Decision Making Process is a causal factor in failure at the operational level. Frequently, the Decision Making Process solution is plagued by a lack of analytic depth, faulty assumptions, vague analysis and wishful thinking. However, critical thinking can be used to sort through complex, incomplete and ambiguous information when using a structured analytical process and introspective thinking. Critical thinking is a means to improve the quality of analytic and intuitive decisions. It does not only evaluate possibilities, it generates new possibilities by challenging individual and group thinking. Recognizing predictable mental barriers is a first step in weeding out errors in the Decision Making Process.

REFERENCES

1. Carl Von Clausewitz, "On War," Edited by Michael Howard and Peter Paret, (Princeton NJ: Princeton University Press, 1976).
2. Paul, Richard, (1993) *Critical Thinking - What Every Person Needs to Survive in a Rapidly Changing World (Third Edition)*, edited by Jane Willson and A.J.A. Binker, Foundation for Critical Thinking, Santa Rosa, CA.

3. Rubinstein, Moshe F. and Firstenberg, Iris R.,(1987) "Tools for thinking, Developing Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Abilities," J.E. Stice (ed.), *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, No. 30, Summer, Jossey - Bass San Francisco.
4. Brookfield, Stephen D., (1989) *Developing Critical Thinkers - Challenging Adults to Explore Alternative Ways of Thinking and Acting*, Jossey Bass Publishers, San Francisco.
5. Walters, Kerry S., (1990) "Critical Thinking, Rationality, and the Vulcanization of Students," *The Journal of Higher Education*, Robert J. Silverman (ed.), OH: Ohio State University Press in Affiliation with the American Association for Higher Education.
6. Richard Paul and Linda Elder, (2001) "Critical Thinking: Tools for Taking Charge of Your Learning and Your Life," (Upper Saddle River NJ: Prentice Hall, 2001).
7. Milan N. Vego, (2000) *NWC 1004 Operational Warfare* (Newport, RI: Naval War College, 2000)
8. B.W. Hamby, (2007) *The Philosophy of Anything: Critical Thinking in Context*. Kendall Hunt Publishing Company, Dubuque Iowa, ISBN 978-0-7575-4724-9
9. Richard Paul and Linda Elder, (2006) *The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking: Concepts & Tools*. Published by the Foundation for Critical Thinking. ISBN 0-944583-10-5
10. Watman, Kenneth. "Critical Thinking." Lecture. U.S. Naval War College, Newport, RI: 18 March 2004.
11. United States Army Research Institute, "Study Report 95-01, Critical Factors in the Art of Battlefield Command" (Alexandria, VA: November 1994).
12. Klein, Gary A., (1989) "Strategies of Decision Making." *Military Review* (May 1989).
13. Mark Bowden, *Blackhawk Down* (New York: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1999).
14. Spacecast (1995): *Professional Military Education in 2020*. *Airpower Journal*, 9.2 (Summer 1995).
15. Frederick S. Hillier & Gerald J. Lieberman, (2005) *Introduction to Operations Research*, McGraw-Hill: Boston MA; 8th. (International) Edition.

THE IMPACT OF THE MULTIDISCIPLINARY EDUCATION TO THE EFFICIENCY OF MANAGERS FROM DIFFERENT LEVELS OF THE SECURITY SYSTEM – WITH SPECIFIC REVIEW IN THE FIELD OF DEFENCE IN THE REPUBLIC OF MACEDONIA

Kemo Djozo,
Senior Lecturer
kemo.gozo@ugd.edu.mk

Katerina Mitkovska-Trendova,
katerina.trendova@ugd.edu.mk

Nikola Kletnikov,
nikola.kletnikov@ugd.edu.mk
Military Academy "General Mihailo Apostolski" Skopje

Abstract

Modern globalization trends bring great challenges to managers in different levels of the security systems. Globalization and the high technological development have brought many advantages to humanity, but created many favorable conditions for expansion of security challenges as well. Integration of the function systems in all areas of society (economy, health, education, etc.) has made the multidisciplinary knowledge of different science areas mandatory for managers.

Key factor to the successful managing of security organizations represents the possession of knowledge from different areas. The knowledge of the areas of law, economy, politics, philosophy, military history, military doctrine, strategy, management, operative skills, tactics and other scientific disciplines is necessary for the efficiency of managers on tactical, operative and strategic level.

Within this paper, specific scientific areas will be determined, and to a certain degree - the specific scientific contents within each scientific area that are necessary for efficient functioning of the managers in the security sector. There will also be a specific empiric research, through a questionnaire designed for this purpose. Students from the second cycle of studies, "Specialization in command and staff duties" at the Military Academy "General Mihailo Apostolski" in Skopje will be the participants in the study. The group of respondents consists of persons included in the field of defense in all three levels of management, tactical, operative and strategic. Given that these people have relevant experience in management, the obtained results will clearly determine their real need for knowledge from different scientific disciplines in the course of work, and the same will confirm or reject the hypothesis from the first part of the paper.

Key Words: Security, management, knowledge, education

Introduction

Management is a subject which has long piqued the interest of people, especially these last years, with the tendency of increased interest. The questions of management have long been a subject of speculation, because scientific experiments concerning management had not been conducted until the 20th century. In 1991, Hunt claimed that there are over 10000 empirical studies on the subject. Considering the speed of the development of science in the last two decades, we can only assume how much this knowledge has grown. Social scientists have attempted to determine which traits, capabilities, actions, knowledge, sources of power or aspects of situation determine how successfully will a leader influence his subjects and fulfill his goals. The reasons why some people arise as leaders and the determiners that define how some leaders act have also been subjects to studies, but mainly have been studied the effects of management. There has been some success in revealing the secrets of management, but many questions still need answering.

There are different views as to where the theory of management falls into different sciences and scientific fields. Great importance is also placed in the adaptability and usage of civil theory of management into the military theory of management, considering that military management has the great responsibility of human lives. Many military experts claim that the theory of military management is a part of tactics, operation art and strategy. On the other hand, many sociologists, psychologists and cyberneticians claim that it is a part of their science.

However, military theorists claim that a successful management requires knowledge from all those sciences. The military theory has few or many overlapping parts with other theories, thus allowing a certain influence to other scientific fields and vice versa. Because of this, there are different aspects of management. For a successful functioning of a military organization, a need arises for knowledge from philosophy, politics, operational concept, strategy, organization, economy, tactics, technology, technique, and this list is gradually upgraded and classified with new modern areas or combinations of several areas, connecting all these theories together. For a successful function of management, all areas of knowledge must also be successfully governed. The question is to what extent does all this formal knowledge need to be covered in the level of management, i.e. how does need for knowledge at different levels of management change, what is the structure of the necessary knowledge for military management. Empirical

studies on the subject of the need of formal knowledge in military management in the Army of the Republic of Macedonia are rare, even though there are a significant number of theoretical studies and professional analyses. The purpose of this is to determine the significance of the formal knowledge and the standards of the formal organization in relation to the extent of the performance (effects) in the Army of the Republic of Macedonia, and to increase individual and organizational efficiency.

The fact that military management is a part of our professional vocation, but also very current scientific area today, with this study we attempted to research these really important and significant questions, followed by introductory theories and findings for the management of knowledge. The implementation of this type of study that follows the needs of modern managerial military personnel is of valuable importance in regard to the promotion of the representation of the necessary areas of knowledge during the overall education and training of the same, especially when the findings come from an experienced staff that has been through all formational positions, combined with the theoretical knowledge of the scientifically-educational staff.

Military management - skill or science

Management is a word taken from common dictionaries and integrated into the technical dictionary of the scientific disciplines, without a single definition, which as a result carries secondary meaning which makes the primary definition vague. The term continually changes into a different shape or becomes vaguer because of its complexity, creating even greater amount of names in order to clear it further, but despite all this, it is not yet clearly defined. Researchers usually define it in regard to their individual perspective and with those aspects that interest them the most. Most of the definitions of management reflect the assumption that it covers a process with which a person intentionally affects other people, in order to guide them, structure them and cause activities and relations in a certain group or organization. Management is an activity with which a set goal is realized. Leaders are experts that carry out certain tasks. Management in the army is the most fundamental element in the functioning of the military organization.

Management represents a responsibility divided between all military leaders, officers, commanders, no matter what their functional duty or managing level is, because through leading they create the future of every military or military-organizational unit. Management implies working with people. Therefore, the military leader, officer, commander, or manager, is defined as a person that makes things happen through other people's effort. Military management is a function of the organizations of the armed forces

which guides individuals, organizational units and armed forces as a unit in the completion of the set tasks and realization of the set goal. It is achieved by individuals (officers of a unit and its organs) and governing bodies (commanders, staff)¹. By analyzing² the theory from the field of military management, their following views can be systematized:

- Military management is a skill: the development of the military management as a skill represents a process of learning new knowledge, ideas, information, concepts and techniques and their practical use.
- Military management today is a skill, but it can grow into a science in the future: it will grow into a science because this function of the military organization is increasingly based on scientific principles and methods.
- Military management is at the same time a skill and a science: it receives its scientific theory through the principles and the use of the scientific method. When we talk about military management as a skill, it refers to an individual ability in the application of the scientific method in the work of the military leaders.
- Military management is a science: it is a science because a skill is the ability of performance acquired by experience, observation or the ability of doing something as a result of knowledge and practice. This refers to applied military management, knowledge that is gained through learning.

Management is not an easy task. It requires knowledge and practice. That is why there is a hierarchy and ascent through it. There is no man who has gone straight from military academy or college to a top management, command or general position³. Management in the army is called commanding. Commanding is a complex and responsible process, because during the execution of the military responsibilities there are many risks, which is why human lives often depend on the decisions of the commanders. That is why they must develop good professional and human relations among the people they command, and cohesion in their units. The characteristics of the military in modern conditions are the new assignments and new formations, and they can be seen in the new particularities. The increased complexity of the problems requires specialized knowledge from

¹ NSA. (2009). Allied Tactical Publication ATP 3.2.2. Command and Control Allied Land Forces pp. 18 - 24

² Nikolovski, B.(2003). *The Bases of Military Management*. Alfa 94, Skopje, pp. 65 - 77

³ NSA. (2009). Allied Tactical Publication ATP 3.2.2. Command and Control Allied Land Forces pp. 18 - 24

several areas, which a person can possess, especially a military leader, commander, general.

Levels of military management

The development and consolidation of the organizations and contemporary management operations led to the need of grouping the management and managers in different levels. Because management is developed simultaneously in two directions, horizontal and vertical, it leads to a partition of the managers in the levels of management according to a vertical and horizontal differentiation. Even though there are different perceptions in regard to the number of levels of management, three hierarchical levels of management are generally accepted:

- top management
- middle line management
- first line management

Managers continually plan and organize an activity in the organization, coordinate the efforts of the individuals and the groups within, motivate the employees and control the achieved performance. In that regard, in the execution of their functions, the managers have different roles (separated into three groups according to Mintzberg: interpersonal, informative and decision roles)⁴.

The entire life of the army is filled with relations created with subordination, establishing a linear system of management, in which on the top of every organizational unit is a general manager, personally responsible to the manager in the higher organizational unit (all part a hierarchically connected with a line), establishing the relation of subordinate-superior. Military managers as well as staff units are classified according to the levels of management and the work they do. In regards to the levels of management the staff is composed of several groups of specialists that are coordinated by a head of staff. The officer that performs his functions mechanically in the staff, no matter how impeccable, without understanding how the commander makes decision is useless to his commander, the manager. The work on all levels of military management is the same. For example, they plan, decide, control, organize, coordinate and motivate.

The managers at top and middle line of management are oriented toward long-term and medium problems in the execution of their missions and the contact with people outside their organizational units.

At the lower line the manager is daily oriented and controls the officers and staff within his organizational units. The staff officers must be

⁴ Shuklev, B. (2009). Management. Faculty of Economy, Skopje. p. 11 - 19

capable of predicting the outcome of current operations, in order to develop concepts for tracking the missions. They must also understand and use the generally familiar doctrine of completing their missions. The size and complexity of military operations is too big for any one officer or part of the staff in isolation to fill the need for management information.

There are different understandings in regard to the number of levels of management. Some opinions state that the military management has two levels: administrative (referring to the highest level of military management, state level) and operative (referring to lower levels)⁵. The abovementioned three generally accepted levels of management give the classification at levels of management in military conditions: Top level of military management, or, in military terminology, strategic level; Middle line level of military management, or operative level; Lower line level of military management or tactical level. The levels of military management differ according to the jurisdictions in forming the character of the goals and measuring the execution, the results⁶.

Because of the entire discussion aforementioned, with which we see the complexity and responsibility of the management staff in the army at all levels of management, they must possess knowledge from many areas, which justifies the entire analysis in this research. The rise of the staff in the management system is one of the tasks of the management functions. Training the management staff in the armed forces represents a big area in the theory of military management.

Knowledge management in the army

An organization is a complex human creation and as such has a large number of elements that make it a complex unit. The presence of people makes it a specific system, thus making people its most important element. The organizational reality is very complex and the leaders must be aware that in the process of management coping with lack of information (lack of knowledge) is natural. They must make a difference between facts and physical reality on one hand and a subjective reflection on the other, and what are the consequences from lack of knowledge and lack of understanding of the objective and the truth. That is why they must nurture a systematic approach towards organizations and the people as its components. Aware of their limitations and lack of knowledge and understanding of the multidimensionality of the organization as a complex reality, the leaders must continually learn and create a learning environment. Knowledge is also

⁵ Shuklev, B. (2009). Management. Faculty of Economy, Skopje. p. 11-19

⁶ Grujić, Z. (1996). Relations in the Military Organization. Vojno delo, 48 (6),

necessary for a facilitation of communication among the organizational members and mutual help and support among them, because one of the ways to overcome individual inferiority is team work. The human component of knowledge is represented through the members of the organization with their individual knowledge, but also with the overall social network, or rather network they belong to. Knowledge has the ability to influence and cause the desired (effective) behavior with people. Knowledge is power, or power resides with the useful types of knowledge that we possess. Knowledge is not as explicit and specific “thing” as information, but information combined with experience, context interpretation and indication. Knowledge includes the complete personality, integrating the elements of thinking and feeling. There are two types of knowledge: explicit and implicit, and this division can be encountered as a division of rational and intuitive knowledge, or formal and informal knowledge. Knowledge is a resource that must be dealt with accordingly in an organization. Knowledge management may be one of the more current subjects or areas of research today, but successful are those that have understood its true value early on. The value of an organization is the people, their knowledge and their abilities. The only stable source of competitive advantage is knowledge. Those that wait until the knowledge management becomes more current will probably stray behind and never overcome the difference (Draker). Information and knowledge are corporate property and strategies, policies and tools of management with that property are necessary as a basic opportunity for acquiring of competitive advantage, increasing of the performance of the employees and reaching significant savings. The need to manage knowledge is evident, and although discussions on the subject of intellectual capital are more common, those that act in compliance with the importance of knowledge management are rare. Current conditions of increased competitiveness and the constant growing rate of innovation, the reduction of available time for acquiring experience and knowledge and the reduction or loss of employees that carry important knowledge are more than enough reasons for knowledge management. Knowledge management encompasses activities that focus on gaining the knowledge for the organization from personal or the experience of others, and the usage of the said opinion in accomplishing the mission of the organization (R.Gregory Weing). It is a set of processes that allow the creation, transfer, distribution, presentation and application of knowledge in an organization. These processes exist and have a big influence on the decisions that are reached and the actions that are taken, because all decisions are based on a certain type of knowledge. Many of these decisions and actions have big and long-lasting influence, so the recognition and understanding of these processes that effect the decisions is of big importance, and wherever it is possible, efforts must be made for their

improvement, thus improving the actions and decisions. In modern times, leaders and managers have the need to reach decisions faster than ever before, which requires precise, timely and true information. The information that is used in the process of decision making is turned into knowledge. On the other hand, the basic purpose of the systems of knowledge management is to allow access to the necessary knowledge in the process of decision making through successful management of knowledge or intellectual property, and through that process, achieve the organizational goals and gaining the competitive advantage. That is why the need for knowledge in leaders and managers (whose work is closely associated with decisions) must also be observed from the aspect of decision making, which some theorists see as one of the functions of the management. Not only does knowledge management need to find the answers to questions in the process of decision making or provision of necessary knowledge, but also be active in the process of learning from the same, starting from the moment of creation, through analyses, to storage and distribution of knowledge. When it comes to management, its connections to decision making is multiple. It has been proven empirically that in the structure of management decision making is largely present, and the fact applies to all levels of management. The problem with decision making is distinctively interdisciplinary.

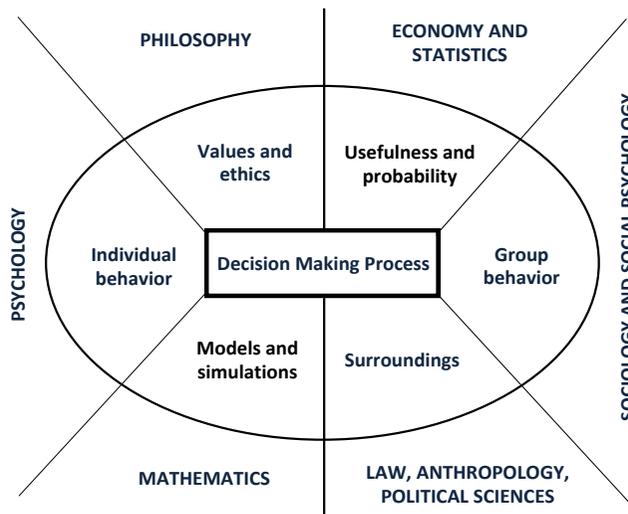


Figure 1: Interdisciplinary framework of decision [Harrison, 1987]

The behavioral approach or aspect to decision making implies emphasis on the study of sciences such as: philosophy, psychology, sociology and social psychology, as well as law, anthropology, and political sciences. On the other hand, the classic theory of decision making has the

expressed tendency to direct its focus on the quantitative aspects of decision making, wherein, for example, Harrison entails economy, statistics and mathematics, which is quite traditional and conservative, because latest achievements have not been taken into consideration. Later on, a more complete framework was designed, integrating the behavioral, quantitative and informational approach to decision making (Klein, Methlie, 1995). With the appearance of the area of artificial intelligence, support systems for the decision making based on knowledge have been added.

It is important that organizations “know what they know” and make the most of the knowledge they possess. Hence, organizations must identify: Knowledge (as intellectual property) that they possess or should possess. That knowledge must be kept and used at its fullest, by the individuals and the organization; the processes of knowledge management (in regards to knowledge) which generate, organize, transform, transfer, use and keep the knowledge, and must be carefully and explicitly managed in all areas. A bigger problem than the lack of knowledge and the ways of obtaining it is having the knowledge but not the ability to use it properly. Often, an operation is done twice, without knowing that somebody has already done it within the same organization, or it is not done good enough, because all the knowledge that an individual or a group of people that are part of the organization were not included in the realization of the operation. This leads to the idea that knowledge management must allow the necessary knowledge to be available at the time and place it is required.

Organizations need executives that are capable of leading the process of changes, who are ahead of others, who think long-term and understand that taking the stance of a status quo is fatal in conditions of turbulent changes in the surroundings. Knowledge is necessary for the implementation of organizational changes, especially for the developmental process in the careers of the staff during transitions from a lower station of management to a higher one, i.e. organizational sections, for the control of rules and procedures, as well as leadership. One of the more important information in regards to management is what the specific knowledge that managers must possess encompasses, and what knowledge is more important for what position (lower, middle or top level management).

In order to perform their activities, managers must possess the necessary knowledge and abilities (skills), of which most important are technical, human and conceptual skills. The skills, or abilities, are not equally important for different levels in the hierarchy of management. That is why all managers do not possess the three types of skills to the same extent. Assuming that the general methodology of management above can be applied to military management, the following display will be used, which will later on be confirmed throughout the research conducted in this paper.

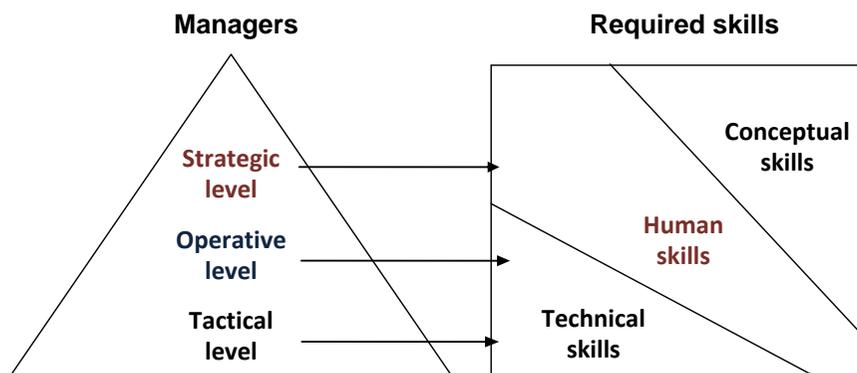


Figure 2: The connection between the levels of management and the skills of managers

These skills are interdependent and distinctive for all managers of the organization. None of them can be partially granted to separate managers. Only their union in one person can produce a successful manager. The conceptual skills are needed most at strategic level, and their need gradually declines as it “descends” in the hierarchy of management. Technical skills are needed most in lower levels. Human skills are needed equally in all three levels. The entire discussion so far has been focused on knowledge management in general, as well as knowledge management in military organizations, and in order to complete their tasks managers must possess certain formal knowledge for work and management, commanding, depending on the levels of engagement.

For the functioning of the military organization, there is a need for necessary knowledge from: philosophy, politics, conceptualism, strategy, organization, economy, tactics, technology, technique, and in recent times they are upgraded and classed with contemporary areas. The theories from all areas are mutually related. The rule and accumulation of the necessary knowledge can be observed from the aspect of the need for implementation of the functions of management aforementioned. For example, management and performance, as activities of the organization, absorb all mentioned areas of knowledge, but at different degrees. Some researches claim that the state of acquisition and application of knowledge is unsatisfactory. The only way out of that state is through the improvement of the acquisition of knowledge from all areas, not just one.

Research

This paper covers empirical research on a relatively small, but quite relevant example of twenty four high military managers in the Army of the Republic of Macedonia, students in the second cycle of studies, Specialization of command and staff responsibilities at the Military Academy in Skopje. The objectives of their education require large training and educational facilities which are defined in their study program. For the purposes of our research we used the techniques of polls and interviews to receive its research data, while the results are statistically processed and displayed in the research in three comparative charts that visually capture the results closely. The questionnaire, besides the questions for the necessary areas of knowledge, contains the information regarding age, sex, work experience (years and positions), and the experience in missions in foreign countries of the surveyed, as all this is considered as having an effect in the answers of the questions.

All participants in the survey are carriers of tactical level, but the moment before the start of their education in the second cycle, they were working in teams from all three levels: six at the strategic level, eight at the operative level and ten at the tactical level. Therefore, all respondents were interviewed for all three levels, i.e. the aim of the survey was to hear their opinion on the need for formal knowledge at the levels they already passed, but also for the strategic level, where some of them already work in teams, some will work in the future, and some may become carriers.

The familiarity and differentiation of the levels of knowledge that exist is of great practical and theoretical importance. The idea had been thoroughly developed and the question of what areas of expertise should be covered within the survey was pondered, considering the modern trends of increased need of understanding of several areas. That is why, for the needs of this survey, the questions included areas from the Frascati classification using the recommendations from the Ordinance for normative and standards for establishment of higher education institutions and the performance of higher education from the Government Gazette of RM, No. 103, from 30th July 2010. 23 areas of knowledge were covered, with the conclusion that the area of integral security must be proficient at all levels: strategic, operative and tactical. This does not encompass all areas of knowledge, but the need for this list to be complete gave precedence to the areas which we considered more important. Finally, we believe that this research should be a start of a bigger, continual and more comprehensive process of research with similar goals, because such processes and their results must not be set once and for all, but continually updated and improved. The respondents had the tasks of

choosing one of the three categorizations: priority, necessary and unnecessary, for the stated areas of formal knowledge, for the completion of the duties on the three levels: strategic, operative and tactical. Furthermore, the results were summarized and displayed as following:

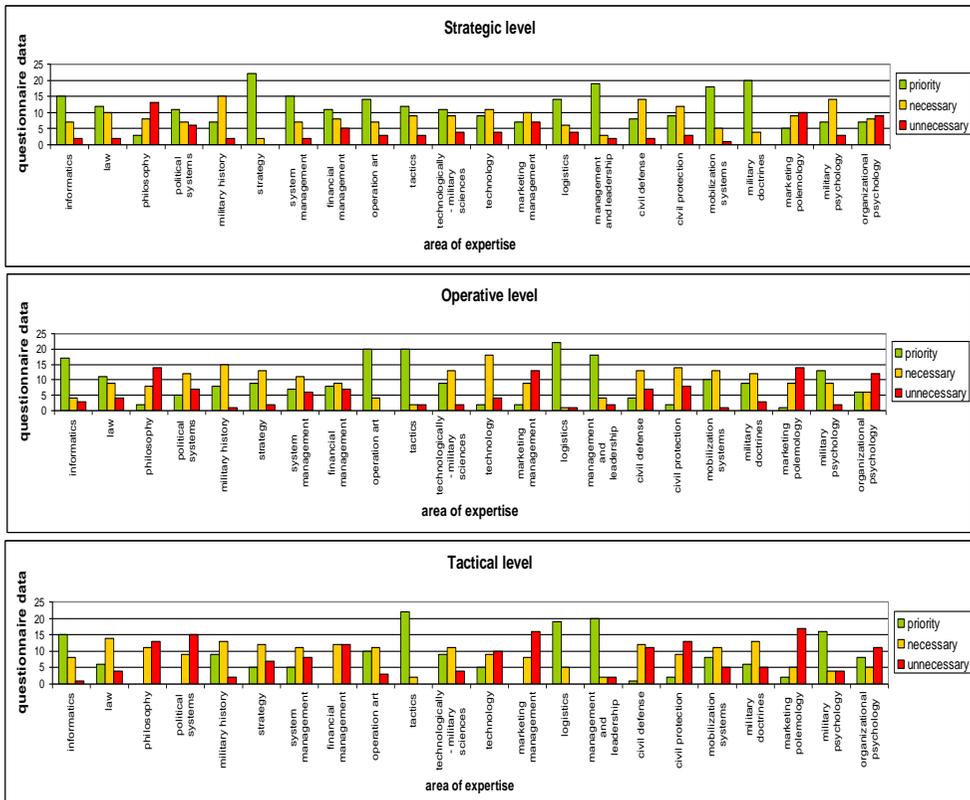


Figure 3: Comparison of the questionnaire results on all three levels of management

Charts contain data from all respondents, for all areas, for all levels of management. Therefore, they are placed one under another, to make parallel comparison for each area on each level. Responses of all participants for each area on each level are summarized separately, and the total sums of the three possible answers for each area are set next to each other, to compare horizontally and vertically.

Conclusion

The results from our questionnaire show that most respondents believe that the management skills and knowledge are gained, i.e. that it is a knowledge that can be learned and transferred with implicit or explicit

mechanisms, although some theories claim that a person is born with predetermined inclinations towards leadership, without the abilities of acquiring it. In that sense, our respondents support the attitude or expertise that is a result of previous studies. Considering the responsibility and complexity of the work of the military manager, it is required that he possesses a high level of knowledge and tactically-technical skills. A military manager must also know how to command his / her subordinates, motivate them, lead them forward and support their education upgrade, the way how to achieve that, if the manager does not possess the necessary knowledge and skills. As we move from one stage to the other of the work, managerial cycle, the manager will have more and more different needs for possession of certain formal knowledge, which has the purpose of stabilizing the overly high disorders, respond to new challenges and motivate his / her subordinates for greater results.

Examining the structure of the respondents in regards to the theoretical assumptions and questionnaire questions, it was expected that all of them consider the areas closest to their field of study as most important, which resulted in a slight differentiation or broadening of the answers in the three categories of some of the more specific areas. But, it is normal that all were given a realistic assessment and were not expected uniformed answers, because of their different background as well as work experience and accomplishments. Besides, the fact that the data from a small sample of respondents was statistically processed must also be considered. In order to receive more differentiated conclusions, a bigger sample was necessary. However, things in practice are not as smooth as they are in theory. The goal was not getting idealistic results by any means, but receiving a realistic representation of their needs, analyzing the results from every respondent individually. In fact, the results themselves are quite close to the given theoretical assumptions. For example, we can see it quite clearly in the areas of strategy and tactics, where they consider that strategy is more necessary for higher levels of management, while tactics for lower. Besides, the educational content that older generation had been through is different than today's modern one, and the areas from the questionnaire are taken from a more modern classification which we believe may also influence the results. An increased need for knowledge from information technology is also increased on all levels, and the skills and knowledge for computers become necessary for all. The results for all areas were analyzed separately and compared to the theoretical expectations, which can sometimes be outdated in some sources that do not follow modern trends, but here only the figure is displayed, which says a lot by itself.

In the course of this research we found the need for flow of knowledge within the organization, among its parts, more specifically, the

transfer of knowledge as planned sharing outside the lines of the organizational level and the transferability as a very important characteristic for any type of knowledge, on inter or intra organizational level. The military academy is one of the key links in the chains of knowledge transfer in the army and one of the relevant factors that must give solutions to knowledge management in the army. This research has left some questions open, which will be the subject of further analyses.

REFERENCES

1. Brown, A (1975): *Bodyguard of Lies*, Harper Collins
2. Grujić, Z. (1996): *Odnosi u vojnoj organizaciji*. *Vojno delo*, 48(6),
3. MoD/Republic of Macedonia (2008): *ARM Concept of operation ARMD1 - GS of ARM*.
4. Department of the Army (2003): *Field Manual No.6-0*. Headquarters. Washington, DC Headquarters.
5. Milenkovski B. (1994): *Osnovi na teotijata na voenoto rakovodenje i komanduvanje*, VA Skopje
6. Nikolovski B. (2003): *Voenoto rakovodenje, organizacija na shtabovi i shtabni funkcii*, Alfa 94, Skopje
7. Nikolovski B. (2003): *Osnovi na voenoto rakovodenje*, Alfa 94, Skopje
8. NSA (2009): *Allied Tactical Publication ATP3.2.2. Comandand Control Allied Land Forces*
9. Pagonis, William G. (1992): *Moving Mountains*, Harvard Business Publishing
10. Petković M. , Aleksić, Mirić A. (2010): *Korporativno liderstvo i menadžment znanja*, Ekonomski fakultet, Univerzitet u Beogradu
11. U.S. Department of the Army (September 2006): *FM 2-22.3 (formerly FM 34-52) Human Intelligence Collector Operations*11.
12. Huntington P. Samuel (1957): *The Soldier and the State: The Theory and Politics of Civil-Military Relations*. Belknap Press, United States,
13. Hungtinton, Samuel P. (1957): *Vojnik i država/Teorija i politika civilno-vojnih odnosa/prev. Djozo D*.
14. Headquarters, Department of the Army (1997): *FM 101-5-Staff organization and operations*. Washington, DC.
15. Shuklev B. (2009): *Menadzment*, Ekonomski fakultet Skopje

THE POLICE PROFESSION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF IMPLEMENTATION OF FINANCIAL INVESTIGATIONS*

Oliver Lajić, Ph.D.,

Lecturer

oliver.lajic@kpa.edu.rs

Nenad Milić, Ph.D.,

The Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade

Abstract:

The overall progress of society, as well as the socially harmful phenomena which society confronts in the framework of its institutions, has a great impact on the increasing and complicating of the police apparatus. However, in the context of dealing with activities aimed at gathering information and evidence related to criminal offenses, including offenses in the sphere of organized crime and corruption and research trends of property acquired by these works, pays special attention to the role of the Criminal Investigation Department or its organizational units specialized in the fight against organized crime, or other specialized bodies. The interactions of the various factors, within the police service and outside, which find the origin of the activity in the same mission, are a potential source of disagreement; this emphasizes the characteristics of the police profession, and the associated subculture. This paper analyzes the general characteristics of the police profession that can have repercussions on the efficiency of financial investigations and the necessary conditions in favour of their success, as well as processes to which the police officers involved in financial investigations are exposed, in order to improve their efficiency. Also, the paper identifies other circumstances at strategic and operational level, which can significantly affect the results achieved in the investigation process.

Keywords: *police profession, financial investigations, characteristics of the police profession, specialization, inter-agency cooperation.*

Introduction

* This paper is the result of the realisation of the Scientific Research Project entitled "Development of Institutional Capacities, Standards and Procedures for Fighting against Organized Crime and Terrorism in Climate of International Integrations". The Project is financed by the Ministry of Education and Science (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, Ph.D.

The police is a complex body in organizational and functional way, which has a wide spectrum of powers grounded on bylaws and laws. In the context of dealing with the activities aimed at collecting data and information relating to criminal offenses, including offenses in the sphere of organized crime and corruption as well as confiscation of property derived from those crimes, the Crime Investigation Department (CID), or its organizational units that are specialized in the fight against organized crime are primarily relevant for the subject of this paper. In addition to this type of police service, as a key holder of financial investigations in most of the legal systems, exceptional importance belongs to the specialized law enforcement bodies for implementation of financial investigations, which may be part of or outside the CID, depending on the structure of subjects in the fight against crime, which is different in particular jurisdictions.

Specialized police formation and organizational model are present in Serbia, represented in the form of the Financial Investigation Unit,¹ the organizational unit within the Ministry of Interior under whose jurisdiction is the implementation of this type of investigating. Specifically, FIU is an organizational part of the Service for Combating Organized Crime,² the organizational unit of the CID in the Ministry headquarters in whose jurisdiction is fight against this form of crime. The unit (SBPOK) is organized according to a geographic criterion. In addition to the organizational unit of FI in the Headquarters of SBPOK, there are the unit's branches in the regional centers. Other police agencies, in terms of the mentioned case studies, are important only as a source of information on criminal activities which have gained significant financial benefits and, possibly, in providing logistical support related to the implementation of concrete actions (Banović, Lajić, 2008: 78).

The term "police" meaning CID will be used below, while the compatible terms will be used for specialized police units to combat organized crime and financial investigations. However, before we look at the detailed discussion of factors that may affect the quality of the investigation, we will deal with some general questions related to members of the police profession and experience in this regard, coming from comparative policing practices.

About police substructures in general

Members of the police profession in the context of dealing with this type of work are regarded as a specific category. The manifestation of the

¹ Hereinafter referred to FIU

² Hereinafter SBPOK

specific professional police subculture is strengthened by a sense of social isolation, risk of job specific powers and responsibilities, the need of mutual solidarity in the common actions, an internal system of training and acquisition of professional knowledge in practice and the nature of information used in their work (Milosavljević, 1997: 587). Research of the police culture conducted in the sixties and later showed some of its dominant characteristics which are still present in the modern time. Milosavljević, citing Reiner, states that these dominant characteristics are: (Milosavljević, 1997: 588-589): (1) commitment to the mission, (2) cynicism, (3) suspicion, (4) social isolation and solidarity, (5) conservatism, (6) machismo, (7) racial prejudice, and (8) pragmatism. Dealing with any kind of police investigative activity, and moreover, dealing with financial investigations, should be reviewed in the framework of the exhibited characteristics of police subculture, as they certainly affect inter-personal relations in the workplace and impact the success of the activities undertaken.

In the aspect of the financial investigation, the most important previously numbered features (1, 3, 5 and 8), will be briefly reviewed below. As a central category in the police culture appears the sense of duty and conscience. Working in the police is not an ordinary job, but something like a way of life (Milosavljević, 1997: 588). "Dedication" to the mission, as Reiner called it, and commitment, are the required characteristics to become a police officer involved in financial investigations. These types of investigations, as well as any other activities related to combating organized crime, are always a complex task, whose solution requires extra work. Therefore, the employees on these and similar works do not have the usual working hours. They work when it is necessary, and this type of distribution of the working hours is not considered a burden, but rather a necessity, while the job is not seen as obligation arising from normative rules, but from belief.

In a survey of police practices related to financial investigations Levi and Osofsky record that, despite the apparent work overload, none of the officers involved in this type of work have complained of working conditions. Moreover, they were willing to assist their colleagues in the work of the criminal aspects of the case, although in these times financial investigations were "marking time". (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: 38). The mentioned authors see this circumstance as a specific feature of the psychological profile of the police officers, who are willing to help in emergencies, which is the essence of their job. In addition, they point out to the fact that police officers are mostly concerned about the outcome of seizure of property, since they are the ones who have spent most time searching for the suspects and their finances, which gives them the right to

see the successful work done as a tribute to their own involvement (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: 53).

Regarding the other relevant characteristics of the police subculture, it may be said that suspicion is a character trait of every police officer, deeply set in the mind during the time of the basic police training, and then developed through learning from their older colleagues and practical situations. Four centuries ago, Descartes said: "*Cogito ergo sum*", and the famous phrase, widely accepted in criminology, is the motto of every dedicated police officer. In essence, this is a useful feature of the police officers which may contribute to the recognition of the whole spectrum of different characters in an environment that indicates illegal behavior in general, and the possible flow of illegally obtained funds. However, if exaggerated, it can bring more harm than benefit, given that suspicion may turn into paranoid behavior (Milosavljević, 1997; 589).

Conservatism and pragmatism, as two characteristics that define the police subculture, have different impact on the practical effect of policing. Conservatism, understood as a reluctance or resistance to using new techniques or technology, is usually harmful, because it causes a waste of resources and an unnecessary waste of time, along with the lack of benefits that are the consequences of automated searches or other benefits of information technology. In the police, in general, there is a trend of resistance to the innovations in the technological development, despite the obvious advantages they bring. According to the head of one Canadian police department, police officers do not see the need to search the databases, since "suspects will not be found there" (Le Beuf, 2001: 15). The fact is that some police officers see the work on the computer as a waste of time, and that younger police officers usually have more inclination towards new technologies, but it would be wrong to generalize things in this way, "because some younger people fear new technologies, while some older, with twenty-five years of service, simply enjoy it" (Le Beuf, 2001: 9). Conservatism can be reflected in the absence of proactive financial investigation which would aim to determine in advance the financial profiles of the "targeted" offenders. Levi and Osofsky, in this regard, note that the police action is mainly oriented at reactive treatment (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: 39). Contrary to conservatism, pragmatism as a general feature of police culture can be considered as a very useful one, because it contributes to focusing on the practical solutions that deliver immediate benefits and improvements.

Division of labour within the police organization seen in the context of financial investigations

In the structure of the CID service there are different types of jobs, a fact closely related to the processes of specialization which would later be considered in more details. Specialization is needed since it is a way to acquire professional knowledge and skills which allows for a shorter time of solving the problems, as well as achieving of better results. It should be noted that the Police Services are constantly working under the pressure of their efficiency, which is imposed externally, due to the influence of the public opinion, which often sees the lack of proper policing as the main cause for expansion of crime. The pressures come also from within because of the demands of the highest police management which follow the line of subordination to the base, and moreover, crime prevention policy is proclaimed by the top of the executive power. In this aspect, priority is given to violence and property crime due to the fact that the perception of threat to the citizens is directly caused by the large number of crime offenses belonging to the previously mentioned types of crime. It is therefore possible that the focus of the police force is distracted from the prior offenses on which they should put the emphasis.

This phenomenon may reflect the awareness of police officers; Levi and Osofsky state that the majority of the police officers engaged in investigation of financial transactions are not satisfied by the way their colleagues look upon their work, because these are inclined to believe that investigation of financial frauds is not “a real” police work. Even when the top police management generally supports the financial investigation, the police are sometimes frustrated by the lack of essential understanding of their work (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: 38). Police work should be fun, challenging, and exciting brain game, so, tracing the tracks through the papers cannot be recognized as any standard which exists in police work (Nelen, 2004: 527). Nevertheless, to give an adequate response to the requirements in accomplishing the goals of fighting against crime, separate, highly specialized departments should be established. This structure of the police organization is imposed as a necessity. It should be emphasized that the previously presented circumstances, however, are not the deciding factor which led to the process of specialization. This is a general trend among the subjects of crime combating. However, the existence of a special police department has its downsides, as it often disturbs the contacts between police officers, whether out of traditional or cultural reasons (Le Beuf, 2001: 14). Joint police work today is characteristic of the small police units, in which “everybody is performing all kinds of work” and in such environments officers do not usually feel the tensions arising from different perspectives of

a common mission, or, sometimes, from less common and dishonourable motives, such as vanity or personal animosity.

Given the fact that the financial investigation unit belongs to the special, strictly specialized police units, it is common for them to follow all the negative phenomena that stem nowadays from the informal ranking of the police departments. High opinion of themselves, which is usually attributed to members of the specialized police units, is opposed to the feeling of inferiority of others, "minor" police services. In addition, there can be rivalry between individuals working in the same unit, positioned high in the informal ranking of police structures. On the other hand, one should bear in mind that financial investigations cannot be initiated spontaneously, and usually the first information about the property that was earned illegally derive from services that provide traditional police work, investigation of crimes and collecting of evidence. Therefore, it is more than important that these subjects thoroughly exchange elements that indicate on existence of property derived by criminal actions and inform the authorities if the financial investigations to be conducted do not belong to their jurisdiction. The previously mentioned animosities, combined with a lack of knowledge and / or interest, can impede financial investigations. Therefore, it is necessary to look for a solution in the proper organization of resources by managers in police departments of the classical type, and the adequate training of its members in relation to the circumstances relevant for the recognition of "symptoms" that indicate on the existence of illegally acquired property (of any form), and its further movement.

Therefore, in direction of successful financial investigation, a strong relationship and good coordination between the aforementioned subjects is necessary, as well as initiation of the financial investigation immediately upon obtaining the information about the conducted crime, or the illegally obtained profits. Many authors emphasize these facts and indicate that investigation should be initiated promptly (Ilić, Banović, 2007: 312; Golobinek et al., 2006: 47), and that only then they can give good results. Otherwise, if the suspects have enough time, it is certain that they would try to change the form and the owner of the property they acquired illegally, and this would significantly obstruct and perhaps disable further investigation; in such cases, the expected results are very likely to fail. The necessity of initiation of the financial research at the initial stages is listed as a normative rule in the solutions of certain states. Thus, the legislation in Germany provides that the financial investigation must be conducted at an early stage in cases of organized crime, against the suspects and all persons who are recognized as helpers (Vettori, 2006: 63). The foregoing circumstances underline the need for good cooperation among the investigators of the classic type and financial investigators. Due to this, the quality of

coordination might be in direct proportionality to the amount of the final results.

Specialization of police officers in the financial investigations, inter-agency cooperation and some practical problems

The essential difference which leads to separation of the procedures of criminal and financial investigations, in fact, produces practical consequences in other areas related to the implementation of activities aimed at exploring different elements of the crime. It can be said that the diversity of procedures directly affects the need for specialized subjects that deal with financial researches. Given the fact that the criminal and financial investigations are aimed at completely different circumstances, it is certain that the possession of knowledge and skills necessary for clarifying the circumstances of offenses related to the determination of guilt and circumstances related to the personality of the offender, will not necessarily provide guaranty that the financial aspects of this offences and other criminal acts will be performed correctly. These factors necessarily affect the desired profile of a police officer who appears in the function of financial investigators. While the investigation of "classical" circumstances of the offense required a standard criminal and forensic knowledge and skills, the investigation of the cases of crime requires a different type of specialized knowledge, which is primarily based on economic and accounting disciplines.

The normative legal framework of financial investigations mainly determines the police authorities or government agencies as the primary subject of their implementation, agencies that are independent in their work, or under control of a public prosecutor. It is therefore very important that these authorities, if pleading to the success of investigative activities, must have experienced and competent staff, with profiles of professionals who possess an adequate level of appropriate professional knowledge and skills. Bowles and colleagues report that criminals are becoming more effective in hiding the assets, which represents a major challenge for law enforcement. Therefore, if these authorities want to use the opportunity to get the illegal assets efficiently, as a corrective standard of criminal sanctions, it is necessary to work simultaneously on the development of forensic and accounting capacity (Bowles, Faure, Garoupa, 2000: 547).

In the foreign literature, authors usually mention the so-called "Multi-agency cooperation", which includes the joint participation of several state institutions and agencies in the fight against organized crime in all its segments, which includes work related to investigation of financial flows of money earned in criminal activities. Bell, in this sense, makes comparison

with the engagement of appropriate experts by criminal organizations. If the drug cartels, as stated, use business managers trained in the best colleges, then the crime investigation authorities must act in the same way, so that they can determine the origin of the illegally acquired assets (Bell, 2000: 20). The author points to the need to determine the level and types of expertise needed to implement quality financial investigations carefully, and promotes the thesis according to which a multidisciplinary team of police officers, customs officers, tax and trade inspectors, as well as experts in accounting professions, information technology specialists and prosecutors, are the right solution for appropriate investigative actions. Manning also points to the importance of cooperation of subjects of crime investigation experts, with the accounting profession, during the implementation of financial investigations, and states that it has become very clear and obvious that it rarely came to the failure of criminal cases in which the aforementioned subjects acted as a team (Manning, 2005: VII).

It should be noted that the phenomena of organized crime and terrorism, in which context the financial investigations are very often mentioned, usually involve action on the territory of several countries. Consequently, multi-agency approach brings new perspectives, materialized in various forms of cross-border cooperation. Schneider and Hurst stated that in the last few years, and almost universal consensus was reached on the need to adopt a coordinated approach for achievement of state security with joint efforts of government agencies of different countries, including the subjects of crime investigation, legislative, administrative, military and national security organs (Schneider, Hurst, 2005: 2008: 360). This cooperation proved to be necessary, because criminal acts in the field of organized crime and terrorism often include actions in more than one jurisdiction, concurrent with the obvious limitations of national resources aimed at combating these phenomena.

However, in addition to the perceived necessity of joint ventures and advantages of the multi-agency approach, the available papers identified the problems that stand as obstacles to the realization of this concept. Le Beuf stated that old habits adopted during basic trainings are difficult to change, and sarcastically remarks that it seems less important "to start a crusade against organized crime," than to force the police departments to cooperate (Le Beuf, 2001: 9). More than a decade and a half ago, Levi and Osofsky also noticed that the proactive cooperation among agencies can become a source of criticism (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: 41). Schneider and Hurst thoroughly analyzed the problems of cooperation of various government agencies in fighting organized crime. Their work, titled "Obstacles to an integrated, joint-forces approach to organized crime enforcement," is a recent study that identified a number of problems which occur as obstructions in the

work, both in terms of obstacles for initiation, as well as preventing its full efficiency in the systems in which it is established (Schneider, Hurst, 2008). The aforementioned authors imply a number of factors that affect the poor cooperation among agencies, such as permanent limitations of their territorial jurisdiction, different levels of power, rivalry,³ policing based primarily on statistical data, as well as inadequate communication and information exchange among the relevant factors (Schneider, Hurst, 2008: 360). On the other hand, the typical problems that the joint teams faces, are the lack of willingness for active participation by the individual agencies, or their formal participation without productive contribution, elitism, inadequate exchange of information between the actors and the conflicts arising from inconsistent powers and tasks defined by the agencies (Schneider, Hurst, 2008: 361).

It seems that most of the previously mentioned problems arise from the lack of mutual trust among the members of different agencies. Practical research has shown that personal knowledge and close cooperation of the Financial Investigation Unit with members of the CID save time and energy of the financial investigators. Specifically, in cases of good inter-agency cooperation, financial investigators do not feel the need to participate in the search warrant and other activities carried out by CID, thinking that the job will be done well without their participation. (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: 61).

The solution for many of these problems could be sought in changing and harmonizing the basic training to the real needs, as it was previously indicated that the habits are difficult to change. Active and long-term efforts should also be dedicated on comprehension of the work of the counterpart agencies and strengthening of the mutual cooperation, primarily by their leadership. It is certain that the *status quo* over time will not bring any improvement in the inter-agency cooperation, because left on their own, with the lack of system incentives - things usually tend to go from bad to worse. In order to achieve some progress in this respect, the efforts should undoubtedly be followed by action of the responsible managers. The most effective way to overcome the practical problems that affect the inter-agency cooperation is building a system of specialized training, through which all efforts can go in the desired direction. Of course, this system is not omnipotent, and other factors such as environmental effects and the usual way of work should be also considered. Otherwise, the training itself would be a waste of time, personnel and material resources.

³ The aforementioned authors, citing sources from the U.S., state that a long-term rivalry and minimal exchange of information between national security and investigative agencies were main reasons for which the U.S. authorities did not detect, predict and prevent terrorist attacks of 11. September 2001 (Schneider, Hurst, 2008: 374).

Other factors of importance for successful implementation of financial investigation related to the police officers

Good cooperation among the subjects of criminal and financial investigations in which it is enabled initiation of financial investigations immediately after getting information about the crime and the assets obtained, and specialization of investigative subjects are only basic elements needed for success of the financial investigations. In addition, it is needed a great effort of a number of other factors to identify the illegally acquired assets and overtake measures for their seizure. Most of these factors are directly or indirectly related to the police officers who work in the field of financial investigation. Knowledge of the regulations and their applications is usually presumed within the active participants of the financial investigation, but the factor of will is the key factor that can significantly affect the success of the investigation team in achieving the expected results. It is therefore desirable that the general interest, presented in the normative framework, is consistent with the prevailing beliefs of investigative subjects, i.e. it is essential that these entities have a high level of belief in the purpose and validity of what they do. Nelen emphasizes the strong connection among these elements and shows the results of numerous studies that have recognized the element of will as a crucial one (Nelen, 2004: 527). As stated by the author, the implementation of new legislation is predetermined to failure if the general interests are incompatible with the interests and beliefs of the law enforcement services and the interests of the individual officials.

Despite all this, the realization of all these assumptions, *per se*, does not always guarantee that the investigated funds would be successful. Many objective circumstances may be barriers in that way and the final decision in this process is entrusted to independent judicial instances. Monitoring the flow of property acquired through crime is a hard work that can be followed by a number of frustrations. Researchers who have studied the investigative process, particularly its practical aspects, were able to notice the lack of systemic incentives for improving of the implementation of financial investigations, even in those jurisdictions where such option is an integral part of the legal system for nearly two decades. Commenting on one such study, Levi and Osofsky concluded that any benefits gained by the staff engaged in financial investigations lead to a feeling of satisfaction that police and prosecutors have obtained (a) due to the well completed work against the “crafty” opponent and / or (b) due to causing stress to temporarily disabled smugglers or traffickers because of the removal of their "working capital" (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: VI).

In the same study, the authors note several assumptions or circumstances which would undoubtedly contribute to the achievement of successful financial investigations, as well as increasing the volume of proceeds of crime. Presenting the circumstances that could improve the process of financial investigation they talk about the measures and actions of different entities (Levi, Osofsky, 1995: IX), which can be classified into two categories. Specifically, these are the assumptions which include different levels at which they should be operationalized, from strategic to operational. The first group includes the following conditions:

- constant communication between the policy makers and political elites, the legislature and the entities responsible for law implementation
- considering the idea of financial support to the Financial Investigation Unit and other stakeholders in the fight against crime by the portion of the confiscated assets derived from crime.

The group of assumptions that have the potential to improve the operating efficiency level of financial investigations is classified in the following manner:

- constant communication between the competent prosecutors, courts and the relevant police units;
- police standardization of material (documentation) that represents the outcome of the financial investigation, which would significantly facilitate the work of prosecutors, judges and lawyers;
- training of the police personnel in the field of financial investigations;
- avoiding brain drain, especially by the experienced and competent staff from the Financial Investigation Unit.

Under the circumstances enumerated, we can notice one set of circumstances that does not contribute directly to successful outcome of financial investigations, but gives an indirect contribution to the analysis and evaluation of their performance, both in the aspect of regulations, and the practical treatment. Such an assumption would be the adoption of *uniform statistical criteria* related to financial investigations, which is one of the basic fundamentals for any long-term analysis of work by the subjects involved in their implementation.

Conclusion

Investigation subjects play a significant role in the implementation of financial investigations. When talking about the confiscation of proceeds of crime, these subjects in most jurisdictions come from the ranks of specialized

police services. The previously mentioned general characteristics of the police subculture and the effects produced by formal or informal ranking of the police departments necessarily reflect on the quality of interpersonal relationships, as well as on the cooperation of the police departments of the "classic" type with the departments specialized in financial investigations. This cooperation is extremely important, because in some cases the "classic" investigators must carefully detect elements that indicate existence of property derived from crime and to inform the specialized agencies responsible for financial investigations. The previously mentioned animosities, combined with a lack of knowledge and / or interest, can sometimes fail in their discoveries, so the solution must be sought in the proper organization of resources by the managers of the police departments of the classical type, and in adequate training of its members related to the circumstances relevant for recognition of "symptoms" that indicate the existence of illegally acquired property (in any form), and its further development. On the other hand, it is necessary to improve the relations between the general and specialized services and law enforcement officials, and to indicate that these are different methods of fight against the same evil, which is the primary task of all the mentioned subjects. An important contribution in this area is finally provided by the employees through the building and strengthening of the interpersonal relationship among the members of these traditional and specialized departments, which greatly facilitates the future cooperation.

Proper cooperation among the subjects of criminal and financial investigations which ensures initiation of financial investigations immediately after getting the information about the crime and the assets obtained and specialization of the investigation subjects, are the basic preconditions for success in financial investigations. Besides these, it is possible to identify a number of objective or subjective factors, which may affect the success of the implementation of financial investigations mentioned in the paper. Special attention, especially in the context of societies with underdeveloped institutions and the questionable rule of law, deserves the will factor. Specifically, knowledge of regulations and the ability of their applications are usually assumed with the active participants of the financial investigation, but the aforementioned factor emerges as a key element that can significantly affect the success of the research team, and indeed the expected results. It is therefore desirable that the general interest, presented in the normative framework, is consistent with the prevailing beliefs of the research subjects, i.e. it is essential that these entities have a high degree of belief in the purpose and the contribution of what they do. Otherwise, the results will be negative, and the regulatory framework will appear as an empty form, without meaning and content.

REFERENCES:

1. Бановић, Б., Лајић, О. (2008). Улога полиције у поступку утврђивања имовинске користи стечене извршењем кривичних дела. *Ревуја за кривиминологију и кривично право*, 46(2), 71-87.
2. Bell, R.E. (2000). Proving the Criminal Origin of Property in Money-Laundering Prosecutions, *Journal of Money Laundering Control*, 4(1), 12-25.
3. LeBeuf, M.-E. (2001). *Organized Crime and Cybercrime Criminal Investigations and Intelligence on the Cutting Edge*. Ottawa: Police Sciences School, Canadian Police College.
4. Bowles, R., Faure, M., Garoupa, N. (2000). Economic analysis of the removal of illegal gains. *International Review of Law and Economics*, 20 (2000), 537-549.
5. Голобинец, Р., Вуичић, А., Трнинић, Д., Богвић, Ј., Миловановић, М. (2006). *Финансијске истраге и одузимање имовине стечене кривичним делима – приручник за припаднике полиције и правосуђа*, Стразбур: Савет Европе.
6. Илић, Г. П., Бановић, Б. (2007). Међународни стандарди одузимања имовине стечене криминалом и домаће законодавство, *Правна ријеч*, IV(12), 299-317.
7. Levi, M., Osofsky, L. (1995). *Investigating, seizing and confiscating the proceeds of crime*, London: Home Office Police Department.
8. Manning, G. A., (2005). *Financial Investigation and Forensic Accounting*. Boca Raton: CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group.
9. Милосављевић, Б. (1997.) *Наука о полицији*. Београд, Полицијска академија.
10. Nelen, H. (2004). Hit them where it hurts most? – The proceeds-of-crime approach in the Netherlands. *Crime, Law & Social Change*, 41(5), 517–534.
11. Schneider, S., Hurst, C. (2008). Obstacles to an integrated, joint forces approach to organized crime enforcement – A Canadian case study. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 31(3), 359-379.
12. Vettori, B. (2006). *Tough on Criminal Wealth - Exploring the Practice of Proceeds from Crime Confiscation in the EU*. Dordrecht: Springer.

POLICE DIPLOMAT - EXAMPLE OF THE EURO-ATLANTIC INTEGRATIONS' GOOD PRACTICE

Obrad Stevanović, Ph.D.

obrad.stevanovic@kpa.edu.rs

Steva Jaćimovski, Ph.D.

stevo.jacimovski@kpa.edu.rs

Dalibor Kekić, Ph.D.

dalibor.kekic@kpa.edu.rs

Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade;

Abstract

One of the many forms of the Euro-Atlantic integrations is designed for creation and development of the international security environment where Member States cooperate with each other by protecting the interests of national security of their countries and, at same time, contribute to the common security interests. This kind of international security cooperation specifically includes the exchange of security information and coordinated approach to planning and implementation of security operations within the defined legal framework, the authority and responsibility of the national security organizations and their representatives. An essential and unique part of this kind of cooperation between the countries is, without any doubt, the international police cooperation. As a result of understanding the need for this type of police activity, in the modern police organizations are increasingly being established separate organizational units for international cooperation. One of the specific formal operators of police activities is the police diplomat, at the level of police attachés or police liaison officers. This paper is based on the analysis of the practice of the Euro-Atlantic integration, indicating the nature, importance and scope of the police diplomacy as specific police activity and indicating organizational form, scope, authority and responsibility of police diplomats in the modern inter-state security relations.

Keywords: *international police cooperation, police diplomacy, police diplomat, Euro-Atlantic integration, security, police*

Introduction

The police attaché or diplomat concept is not a new one in the international police relations. Specifically, the term has appeared at the beginning of the last century, but full recognition of this term happened at the end of the XX century. With the appearance of the first forms of international organized crime, there were indications of international police cooperation as well. Agreement on the creation of the Interpol was signed in 1956. The foundations for realization of the long research for establishing an international police law, and thus institute a police attaché. The evolution of the development of police attachés in particular is emerging in the recent years, after signing the Treaty of Schengen. The concept of police diplomat has two forms - a liaison officer and a police attaché.

Diplomacy is profession that has existed since the ancient times. One of the first diplomatic activities between two countries in the history took place between the king of the Hittites and the Egyptian pharaoh Ramses II. Specifically, these rulers have repeatedly fought against each other, but several times joined the alliance in the fight against the Persians. Diplomacy in the Hellenic states was established by the General Congress of Greek States in 448th BC. Within the common body, the diplomats debated on the major issues of communal interests of the Greek State policies, free insurance on marine navigation, strengthening of peace in the whole of Hellas and the restoration of the ruined temples in the Persian campaign.

The first real beginnings of diplomacy are related to the Renaissance and the development of the permanent institutions of diplomacy, when Venice, Milan, Tuscany, Florence, and some other Italian cities introduced the permanent appointment of diplomatic representatives. During the XV century, diplomacy stood out as an ongoing activity, and not as only an occasional profession. The permanent diplomatic representatives have clearly stated their rights and duties, with determination of the rules for their actions.

The French Cardinal Richelieu, in 1626, established the first Ministry of Foreign Affairs, as the central body for conduction of affairs in international relations. After France there were other European countries which established their ministries of foreign affairs. More concrete definition of the position and the rules related to diplomatic agents and their functions happened in 1815, when there were state participants at the Vienna Congress, after the Napoleonic wars - the first multilateral agreement which regulated important issues in the field of diplomacy.

Parallel with the development of the state diplomacy, there was the development of military diplomacy, and the beginnings of diplomacy in general related to it. There are many examples of the military diplomacy as

old as the diplomacy and government in general. Military diplomacy has had a continuous formation and development, operating as part of the general diplomacy. Thus, Napoleon sent Captain La Grange to be the second secretary at the embassy in Vienna. Characteristic for the period from 1810 till 1852 was that, following the introduction of the legal, permanent military, diplomatic representatives appeared as well. In the framework of the military diplomacy, the prior diplomatic activity of the defence minister of the international activities is to regularly open and close opportunities for development of diplomatic relations.

By “branching of the global structure”,¹ there has been increasing inventory of the diplomatic relations. Diplomats were no more only part of the government, but also non-government actors. The members of some NGO’s acquired certain privileges and immunities as accredited representatives of their countries. Of course, the non-governmental organizations are determined to work on a voluntary principle for their states. Those NGO members are assigned to these positions, in times when the reputation of a NGO in the world is highly ranked.

The development of the police diplomacy has been going in multilateral directions, and later, specific development of bilateral relations. Thus, the development of this vision is antithetical to diplomacy in relation to the other. If we analyze the history of diplomacy, there are the primordial forms of bilateral diplomatic communication between states. On the other hand, the development of the police diplomacy coincides with the development of international crime, especially terrorism. Representatives of the state, struggling with these security problems, gathered at the meetings organized in order to overcome and adapt their mutual impact. Then, because of proximity, because of similar problems, their bilateral exchange liaison officers, so that problem was solved in a proper manner.

Development of the police diplomacy in Europe

The first forms of organized crime date from the late XIX century in Europe. At that time in Italy, it was noted that there were: “consistently established connections between individuals and businesses in a variety of criminal business, including sales and distribution blocks, drugs, extortion and usury.”² In America, the period following the introduction of organized crime is related to the appearance of Prohibition, while some sources

¹ James Rosenau, “The Dinamism of a Turbulent World”, in: Michale Klare, Yogesh Chandrani, *World Security*, Third Edition, St. Martin's Press, New York, 1998, p. 19.

² Known as: „*The Mafia*” i „*The Family*”. See in: Elanine Cassel, Daouglas A. Bernstein, *Criminal Behavior*, Allyn and Becon, Boston, 2001, p. 269.

attribute this phenomenon to the XIX century, during the expansion of gambling and prostitution.

The development of international crime and terrorism forced the Government to consider the issue of opening diplomatic missions represented by professional police officers with the aim of preventing and combating these scourges. By the early nineties (XX century), all police services had aspirations to be realized through international co-operation in terms of a centre, or at least be familiar with the centre of the contacts, which was quite understandably, since the notion of sovereignty, understood in the light of the Peace of Westphalia from 1648.

Contacts between the police services are as old as the service, which is justified by the desire for a more efficient fight against crime which is now delicate for the national sovereignty. For example, in 1780 the chief of police of Paris became a consultant and advisor to the Pope and to the Russian Empress Catherine II, and Austrian police sought to establish cooperation with the Prussian and French police in the fight against the revolutionaries, after the Great Revolution in 1848.

The desire to cooperate in this area dates back from the late XIX century. The International Congress of prison management was held in Frankfurt 1846 and 1857, in Brussels in 1847, but had the character of an international panel, which was not represented by particular representatives of the governments. Increased government participation was at the Congress in Stockholm (1878). Austria, Netherlands and Belgium have established in 1888 joint police information centre in Hamburg, but Austria has also had close cooperation with representatives of the police of New York and Japan. Also, there was the International Conference for Combating Anarchism in Rome (1898), which aimed to suppress the international anarchist movement. The International Police Bureau was established in 1899 in order to combat human trafficking.

The current status and responsibilities of police diplomats encouraged the development status of the members of Interpol. International personality of Interpol was confirmed by international treaties and agreements. The first of these was concluded between the Council and Interpol Secretary General by exchanging of letters between the two organizations in February 1960. Interpol has concluded several agreements with individual governments. In addition to the Agreement between Interpol and the Government of the Republic of France, Interpol was given personal privileges and immunities on the French territory. Interpol, with other interested governments, signed similar contracts in its regional headquarters in Harare, Buenos Aires and Abidjan, and the agreement on the privileges and immunities of the bureau in Bangkok.

A specific example of international police officers is EU Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (European Union Police Mission - EUPM). The staff of the police mission guaranteed all the privileges and immunities as well as any diplomatic officer, in order to fully carry out the tasks. In addition, the personnel of the mission have current international legal status of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and also, work positions for which they are engaged provide for them greater privileges than the established diplomatic representatives.³ When we talk about police mission we refer to the international police force, which in the opinion of Hans Morgenthau can occur only under conditions of a global society.⁴

Present police diplomacy in EU

Today there are two intertwined names for police diplomat – the liaison officer and a police attaché. Liaison Officers are in our region, according to some security experts, so to speak - a novelty. These are police officers who were sent in the host country to accomplish police cooperation in the struggling against crime and terrorism. The main function of the liaison officer's commission is to strength cooperation between law enforcement agencies of the two countries, although in certain circumstances they may be directly involved in police action. This category has essentially, looking from the perspective of international cooperation and relations, equivalent levels of many common points with the category of military attaches, although so far it has not been set equal on the international legal basis.

The institution of Liaison Officer is regulated mainly at certain regional and international legal regulations and bilateral agreements. As part of the universal conventions, this prerogative for the first time was explained in the UN Convention against Illicit Traffic of Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances (1998). According to the Article 9e, there is a base for establishing a liaison officer as well as elevating the cooperation of experts and members of the police in order to harmonize the relevant services and agencies. Convention on the implementation of the Schengen Agreement (1990) provides for the exchange and detachment of liaison officers to set up cooperation by exchanging information, assisting in the criminal justice field or control limits. Defining their mission and status is subject of bilateral agreement, but the Convention provides a framework that they can represent the interests of all States Parties and to work on their

³ “COUNCIL JOINT ACTION OF 11 MARCH 2002 ON THE EUROPEAN UNION POLICE MISSION“. (2002/210/CFSP), *OFFICIAL GAZETTE OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES*, 13. 3. 2002. L 70.

⁴ Hans Morgenthau, *Politics among Nations*, A. Knopf, New York, 1971, p. 408.

behalf in other countries. Europol Convention was founded in 1995, where it is explained that Member States must set at least one liaison officer to the headquarters of the organization. Europol shall have legal personality, and its staff shall enjoy the privileges and immunities necessary for the smooth conducting of activities within their jurisdiction. The same privileges and immunities shall be enjoyed by the liaison officers.

Within the FBI there is a Liaison and International Affairs (OLIA - Office of Liaison and International Affairs) whose job is to care about performance of the “Program of Attaches to Regularity” of the FBI agents. The program began in 1986. Attaches of issues of law are divisions of the Embassy staff “friendly countries”, and they can directly conduct investigation in a foreign country when it is necessary. An engagement of this kind requires the consent of the U.S. ambassador and the competent authorities of the home country.⁵ It is interesting about the agreement that it was signed by the French Interior Minister and the Minister of Justice of the United States on cooperation in combating illicit drug traffic in 1971. This agreement establishes the responsibilities of information exchange, assistance in manpower and technology in solving concrete cases, with special reference to the detachment of police officers and defining their status. Secondment officers are accredited together with colleagues from the office from where they are directed, and participate in conducting investigations of common interest.

The status of liaison officers varies. Sometimes they are an integral part of the embassy staff and are headed by the Ambassadors. It does not necessarily indicate that the position of liaison officers is at the embassy, in particular during the performance of their duties. The U.S. services on the contrary, have no individual liaison officers, but they have offices that act more or less singular. There are such cases when their liaison officer’s work is related to police services in the country from where he / she were sent, not the embassy of the country that sent them. It is mostly practiced, where there is a high degree of political consensus, like between Germany and France or Germany and Switzerland, that such countries have a policy of mutual incorporation of liaison officers in the police-friendly country institutions. The practice was implemented on the TREVI group (Terrorisme, Radicalism, Extremism et Violence Internationale - International terrorism, radicalism, extremism and violence), while it existed.⁶

The idea of police delegates and police diplomats is based on the idea of the existence of institutions of international police law. However, some

⁵ *Document Security (Justice Can Improve Its Controls Over Classified and Sensitive Documents)*, Internet, 26/12/07, <http://www.gao.gov/cgi-bin/getrpt?GAO/GGD> pp. 93 - 134.

⁶ Dalibor Kekić, Dane Subošić, „Police Diplomacy”, *International problems* Vol. LXI, No. 1-2/2009, Institute of Interanational Politics and Economics, Belgrade, 2009, pp. 141 - 62.

experts are trying to obtain the right to police as a separate branch of law internationally recognized and justify it by calling them "impatient writers." The idea of police diplomats was supported by the establishment of the institute of international criminal law and the creation of the International Police (EU Police mission in Kosovo and Metohija, the Police mission in Haiti for example.).

The high standard of police diplomat has been established within the European Union. The Convention on the implementation of the Schengen Agreement (1990) is regulated by the detachment and exchange of liaison officers to set up cooperation by exchanging information, assisting in the criminal justice field or control limits. At the Europol Convention was found that the Member States must set at least one liaison officer at the headquarters of the organization. Police authorities must adhere to the principle established in addition to the strengthening of police control clearly and sharply, which was defined at the Convention. By the entry into force of the Convention it was required a closer description of the nature of compensatory measures, ensuring closer cooperation in the field of prevention and enforcement investigation of a criminal offense, speeding up and strengthening police cooperation in border regions by concluding bilateral arrangements, the establishment of cross-border cooperation in monitoring, providing legal assistance, extradition, the fight against drugs, the conclusion of agreements on arm control, and others.

The Convention allowed the possibility of the member states of Schengen integration to appoint joint liaison officers in third countries, i.e. that liaison officers are members of a secondment in a third country and to represent the interests of one or more members. This solution was developed in the case of non-existent TREVI group, but the problem was in the practical operation. There were certain risks of some detachment of the liaison officers - the establishment of parallel channels of communication between the police services. There was concern that information could go in the wrong place, and harm the procedures related to crime, especially in track and hunt. Setting liaison officers provokes unnecessary complexity and possible bureaucratic suspicion which occurs in practice; the result is an axiom that it was established a consensus on the need to take effective means to combat crime and knowledge; that is needed in order to establish cooperation among the law enforcement agencies that do not prejudice the sovereignty and the state institutions. This contributes to the establishment of functional relationships and enhancing mutual trust, which is of particular significance in the everyday contacts between the law enforcement and the judicial officers of the countries that share the connection.

For example, since 1995, Switzerland has deployed police attachés abroad to support the Swiss police and judicial authorities in the fight against

transnational crime. At present, Switzerland has a network of police attachés in the following countries: Brazil, Italy, Kosovo and Metohija, Serbia, the Czech Republic, Thailand, in the USA and two police attaches are in EUROPOL/Netherlands. Through cross accreditation, the Swiss police attaches network also covers:

- Macedonia (via Kosovo and Metohija),
- Albania in preparation,
- Bosnia & Herzegovina,
- Croatia,
- Montenegro (from Serbia),
- Indonesia and Malaysia (from Thailand),
- Cambodia in preparation,
- Hungary,
- Poland and Slovakia (from the Czech Republic),
- Malta and Slovenia (from Italy),
- Canada (from the USA).

Additionally, a Swiss Liaison Officer is stationed at Interpol in Lyon. Police attachés are integrated into the Swiss embassies or general consulates. They have to work efficiently and under difficult conditions, and try to increase cooperation with the authorities of the host country. This requires know-how, a great deal of instinct, patience, determination and personal responsibility. Equally important for establishing contacts and exchanging information is knowledge of the development in the host country and in Switzerland.

The tasks of a police attaché are varied and challenging. The transnational fight against crime and the ever-increasing bilateral contacts are currently two aspects that have a significant influence on the work of the attaché who has to ensure the flow of information between Switzerland and the host country and assist the law enforcement agencies in the prosecution of crime. The police attaché is also in charge of the Swiss law enforcement delegations on official trips to the host country.

The police attaché channel is a necessary tool for fighting crime and enforcing the law. Through its fast, secure and reliable exchange of information at international level, and the building of a reliable network of contacts, the police attaché makes an irreplaceable contribution to the law enforcement. The Police Liaison Office acts as an advisory desk for the Ambassador on security matters. The Office also assists Swiss and US Law Enforcement and Justice Officials in the exchange of information and knowledge in order to guarantee an efficient flow of information between the two countries. The Police Attaché is an officer of the Swiss Federal Criminal Police, an agency whose main goal is the fight against terrorism and its

financing, money laundering, organized crime, illegal drug and weapon trafficking, and other serious offenses where close contacts and cross-border relations are very important.

Regional police cooperation

One of the first meetings of the Regional Anti-Corruption Incentive (RAI) which was established with the aim of intensifying cooperation in the fight against corruption, the Member States were Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Montenegro, Croatia, Macedonia, Moldova, Romania and Serbia, while Kosovo and Metohija – UNMIK was with the status of observer. The basic mission of RAI's regional development strategy is to combat corruption which was decided on a forum for cooperation of government structures, international organizations and the public, and coordination of donor assistance in the region. RCC provides political support to the RAI and supervise the implementation of the projects in the fight against corruption. RAI Secretariat had difficulties related to financing activities and projects, but everything is in direction to overcome the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding in the cooperation and funding of the Secretariat in Zagreb 2007. In accordance with this document, the Member States have taken some responsibility and equity in financing. In RAI's annual budget of 350,000 Euros, a 30% provides the state with their contributions.

The Police Forum is a form of informal cooperation between the Balkan states formed in 2000, with the main function to support and accelerate the establishment of the police reforms. As part of the Police Board, three projects were realized - the Regional Police Training, "Stolen Vehicle" (Stolen Car Project) and the Organized Crime Training Network. More intense forms of cooperation have established the Association of Police Chiefs of the South-Eastern Europe, the SECI Regional Centre for Combating Organized Crime and the Association of European police officers. Enormous financial support was received from the Police Forum of the EU Commission.⁷

The Southeast Police Chiefs Association - SEPCA was created in Pula in 2002 to assist in the reform of police organizations in the countries of Southeast Europe. The first statute was adopted in October 2002, and revised 5 years later. SEPCA's main objectives are to raise the level of public safety in the countries of Southeast Europe, and to improve police cooperation in the region by involving citizens and organizations of the civil society with

⁷ Duško Lopandić, Jasminka Kronja, *Regional Incentives and Multilateral Cooperation on the Balkans*, European Movement in Serbia, 2011, p. 206.

support of the international organizations. The Association of Directors consists of representatives of the police from: Albania, the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Republika Srpska, Bulgaria, Montenegro, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia and Canada. The SEPCA Secretariat is located in Sofia since 2006 and before that, it was in Belgrade. SEPCA activities are financially supported by the member states as part of donor assistance. The SEPCA work is accomplished through the General Assembly, the Executive Secretariat of the five committees (community policing, police education, the fight against organized crime, projects and legislation). It is expected that this police incentive, which is one of the few of indigenous character, in the future assumes greater responsibility and incentive-led front in the region to combat terrorism.⁸

Southeast European Cooperative Incentive, i.e. the Regional SECI Centre in Bucharest was founded by the signing of the cooperation in preventing and combating crime and supporting the establishment of the Charter of the Regional Initiative of South-eastern Europe. It was formed in 1996 after the armed conflict in Croatia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Regional Centre was established in Bucharest in May 1999. The operative function began from 1 November 2000, with funding from the U.S. that was initiated by the Centre. As part of this multilateral arrangement are the following countries: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Greece, Hungary, Montenegro, Macedonia, Moldova, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia and Turkey. SECI Centre Partners are countries which are not part of the region - Austria, Liechtenstein, USA, the Czech Republic and Switzerland.

The observer countries are: Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Canada, Georgia, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Portugal, Spain, USA, Ukraine, France and Netherland. The Joint Cooperation Committee – JCC is the highest political and coordinating body for making all important decisions related to the operation of the Centre. It has one designated representative of the states – Parties and representatives of Interpol and the World Customs Organization, and for the system of one country - one vote. Apart from this, the Centre has a Director, a Deputy Director and the Secretariat. The personnel of the Centre cover seven areas:

- combating drug trafficking routes
- fight against fraud and smuggling
- fight against economic and cyber crime

⁸ In: Dalibor Kekić, Dane Subošić, Dragan Đukanović, „Southeast Europe Police Chiefs Association”, in: Milan Milošević, Ostoja Krstić, Saša Mijalković, *Prevention and Combating Contemporary Forms of Crime*” – IV, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Belgrade, 2009, pp. 105 - 14.

- fight against human trafficking and migrant smuggling
- combating terrorism
- hazardous materials transportation safety
- fight against trafficking in stolen vehicles

In Bucharest, in December 2009, was signed the Southeast European Convention on Law Enforcement Centre – SELEC and when the Parliaments of all countries ratify it, the SECI Centre will become SELEC. The first project related to SELEC is on strengthening capacity to fight cross border crime.⁹

Within Southeast Europe Police Chief Association – SEPCA was initiated the creation of the Women Police Officer Network – WPON of Southeast Europe. WPON was officially established in Sarajevo, on November 26th 2010. It is expected that the network operates as an independent service under SEPCA. The aim of this project is to assist SEPCA in establishing the Network, providing support and expertise in the stages of creation, as well as support for long-term institutionalization of the Network. Working in collaboration with the colleagues from the police and / or institutions which enforce the law in the Member States of SEPCA, WPON strives to provoke positive changes in terms of acceptance of Equal Treatment of gender, gender diversity management, as well as to optimize the position of women. Future and existing tasks of WPON are: exchange of experience and “best practices” on fight against violence on women within the police service in South East Europe, promotion of the existing knowledge, experience and expertise in achieving cooperation and coordination in terms of the gender of police officers in South East Europe, the exchange and expansion of already developed or developing adequate training programs, to support the development of partnerships among the police departments of South East Europe, the establishment of an international network of police officer, who - as part of their police work - want to be actively involved in combating violence against women.¹⁰

Migration, Asylum, Refugees Regional Incentive – MARRI was established in 2003 in the context of the former Stability Pact for South Eastern Europe. MARRI Incentive was founded on integration of migration and regional incentives on the return of displaced persons. Objectives of MARRI are related to border management and asylum and visa regimes

⁹ Stevo Ivetić, „Organizational structure of the SECI Centre in Bucharest”, in: Željko Nikač, *Combating Criminal and European Integrations*, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Hans Sidel, Belgrade, 2010, pp. 404 - 13.

¹⁰ *Women Police Officers Network*, Internet, 11/02/12, <http://www.seesac.org/activities/regional-gender-action/1/>

similar to the European standards and practices. Institutionally, the MARRI consists of two bodies: the Regional Centre in Skopje - coordinating and executive body, and the Regional Forum - the political body composed of relevant Ministers and senior advisers. MARRI has a Steering Committee composed of representatives of the Member States, the European Commission and international organizations (IOM, OSCE, UNHCR, etc.). MARRI affected on the Memorandum on the Establishment of Regional Centre signed in Herceg Novi 2004, and the Declaration of the meeting of the Ministers Interior for Southeast Europe. Funding was a major problem for the MARRI until 2008, but this was partly resolved by agreement of the Member States to participate in the financing. The most important task of MARRI is to create a unified database to combat human trafficking in South Eastern Europe and support victims of MARRI since June 2006. It has got the status of an international organization.¹¹

The Police Cooperation Convention for SEE – SEE PCC was signed in 2006 in Vienna, when Austria had the EU Presidency. The Convention represents the most important document on judicial and police cooperation in South Eastern Europe. The Convention was signed by Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Montenegro, Macedonia, Moldova, Romania and Serbia. For the Convention to become operative, the States Parties had to enter into reciprocal bilateral agreements, and standardize the systems of communication of personal data. The Convention stipulates the promotion of cooperation of the law enforcement for prevention of illegal dissemination of information about investigations, and communication before, during and after the specific police actions. The Secretariat of the Convention is located in Ljubljana since 2008, and it has the task to oversee the implementation of the Convention. The Secretariat also prepares agreements, provides guidance, and regulates all bilateral and multilateral agreements in the final Convention. The Convention is financed by Austria, Liechtenstein, Slovenia, Switzerland and DCAF.

The Incentive for establishment of the Coordination Centre for border police cooperation has been launched at the Sixth Ministerial Conference on Cooperation of Border Police, which was held in Belgrade in March 2009. It was planned that the Centre should be located in Sarajevo and managed by the State Border Service in cooperation with DCAF. Other States Parties would have to designate contact points for cooperation. The objectives of the Coordination Centre are to coordinate, promote, and monitor the activities of regional cooperation by reporting of contact and border police. Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia now have an

¹¹ “Joint Statement, Ministerial SEECF Meeting/Regional Forum of MARRI”, Herceg Novi, April, 2004.

obligation to protect their newly established borders, where they must cooperate on sensitive security issues, as is the case in the fight against cross-border organized crime and international terrorism. This requires not only improvement of the functions of the personnel and the infrastructure, but also a complete change of discourse and the introduction of strategic thinking in terms of understanding and acceptance of the international relations as unavoidable in the successful control of national borders. Also, in the near future, all Western Balkan countries will be EU members; the question of borders will lose the importance which it has at the present moment.

The Western Balkans Prosecutors Network is a professional network of public prosecutors established in 2005. In line to the Memorandum of Understanding between the heads of the public prosecutions signed in 2010, it is composed of prosecutors from 6 countries of the region and operates through direct contacts among the national contact points who are also judicial officers responsible for implementation of the international law at national level. The network enables enhanced cooperation in investigations and indictments against the suspected members of organized crime and criminal organizations and associations.

The Southeast European Prosecutors Advisory Group – SEEPAG was created in December 2003 in Belgrade, where the Declaration was signed. Members of the Advisory Group are: Albania, Bulgaria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Greece, Macedonia, Moldova, Montenegro, Romania, Serbia, Slovenia and Turkey. The functions of the Advisory Group which is a network of experienced prosecutors who assist the SECI, is to achieve swift exchange of information and records in cross-border investigations and to provide leadership, any kind of help, especially help which fills the lack of regulators for issues in force of rights and laws. One of the main partners of the SPOC Advisory Group is the Incentive for the Fight against Organized Crime. The incentive is designed for connection of the bodies of the Member States – Prosecutorial Contact Points - PFP, which are organized by each participating state. The centres have a unique model, but are made depending on each state.¹²

The Ministers of Interior of Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, Macedonia and Serbia signed a Declaration on cooperation in border security and the Annual Plan of activities for 2011 in Belgrade, in March 2011. The Moto of the integrated border management is to facilitate the constant flow of people, goods and capital, but also to stop the flow of criminal activity. At the meeting the participants discussed on the progress in

¹² In: Dane Subošić, Dalibor Kekić, “Council Group of public prosecutors of Southeast Europe”, Momčilo Talić, Dragomir Jovičić, Milan Daničić, *Security and Protection in Republica Srpska and Bosnia and Herzegovina - state and perspective*, Faculty for Security and Protection, Banja Luka, 2008, pp. 321-35.

the field of border security in South Eastern Europe in 2010, as well as the proposals for strengthening of the regional operational cooperation which was to be implemented in 2011.

Conclusion

It is clear that, especially in the recent years, there is more and more cooperation in the field of police and internal affairs in the region, according to the former third pillar of the EU - cooperation in internal affairs and judicial actions. In this regard, the EU has a special relationship with the countries of the South East Europe. It mainly relies on cooperation of multilateral forms, but there are forms of bilateral cooperation between the countries. Recently, for example, the cooperation between Croatia and Serbia, and Serbia and Montenegro, was intensified, and is expected that similar forms of cooperation will increasingly appear in the region.

The high standard of the police diplomat has been established within the European Union. The Convention on the implementation of the Schengen Agreement is regulated by the detachment and exchange of liaison officers to set up cooperation by exchanging information, assisting in the criminal justice field or control limits. The Status of liaison officers varies. Sometimes they are an integral part of the embassy staff and are headed by ambassadors. It does not necessarily indicate that the position of liaison officers is at the embassy, in particular, during the performance of their duties. The police attaché channel is a necessary tool for fighting crime and enforcing the law. Through its fast, secure and reliable exchange of information at international level and the building of a reliable network of contacts the police attaché makes an irreplaceable contribution to the law enforcement.

REFERENCES

1. Cassel E. (2001), Douglas A. Bernstein, *Criminal Behaviour*, Allyn and Becon, Boston.
2. "Council Joint Action of 11 March 2002 on the European Union Police Mission (2002/210/CFSP)", *Official Journal of the European Communities*, 13.3.2002. L 70.
3. *Document Security (Justice Can Improve Its Controls Over Classified and Sensitive Documents)*, Internet, 26/12/07, <http://www.gao.gov/cgi-bin/getrpt?GAO/GGD-93-134>.

4. Ivetić S. (2010), „Organizaciona struktura SECI centra u Bukureštu”, in: Željko Nikač, *Suzbijanje kriminala i evropske integracije*, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Hans Sidel, Belgrade, pp. 404-13.
5. “Joint Statement, Ministerial SEECF Meeting/Regional Forum of MARRI”, Herceg Novi, April, 2004.
6. Kekić D, Subošić D. (2009), „Polijska diplomatija”, *Međunarodni problemi*, Vol. LXI, No. 1-2/2009, Institute of International Politics and Economics, Belgrade, pp. 141–62.
7. Kekić D, Subošić D, Đukanović D. (2009), „Southeast Europe Police Chiefs Association”, in: Milošević M, Krstić O, Mijalković S, *Sprečavanje i suzbijanje savremenih oblika kriminaliteta – IV*, Academy of Criminalistic and Police Studies, Beograd, pp. 105-14.
8. Lopandić D, Kronja J. (2011), *Regionalne inicijative i multilateralne saradnja na Balkanu*, European Movement in Serbia.
9. Rosenau J. (1998), “The Dinamism of a Turbulent World”, in: Michale Klare, Yogesh Chandrani, *World Security*, Third Edition, St. Martin's Press, New York.
10. Subošić D, Kekić D. (2008), „Savetodavna grupa javnih tužilaca u Jugoistočnoj Evropi”, Talijan M, Jovičić D, Daničić M, *Bezbednost i zaštita u Republici Srpskoj i Bosni i Hercegovini – stanje i perspektive*, Faculty for Security and Protection, Banja Luka, pp. 321-35.
11. Morgenthau H. (1971), *Politics Among Nations*, A. Knopf, New York.
12. *Women Police Officers Network*, Internet, 11/02/12, <http://www.seesac.org/activities/regional-gender-action/1/>.

HOW TO APPROACH THE CRISES IN THE WESTERN BALKANS?

Sergej Cvetkovski, M.A.

sergej@fzf.ukim.edu.mk

*Institute of Security, Defence and Peace Studies,
Faculty of Philosophy, Skopje*

Abstract

The crisis can take place at any time and at any place. If we accept the reality of its existing point - if we perceive that in the current complex and unpredictable times nothing is impossible, including crises which can present devastation for all of us, than perhaps it is the right time in our minds to accept the argument that: with the appropriate planning, the positive aspect of the crisis can be extracted. Typically, crises and their management are divided into three activities: prevention, dealing with the crisis at the moment while it happens, and the recovery from the crisis. Certain universal elements are a pre-condition for crisis management. Each national strategy needs to identify threats, vulnerability, and critical accuracy and their connection with the real and achievable objectives, policies and available resources.

In the Western Balkan countries, in the national documents which treated the crisis, it can be noticed a strong normative component. In particular, the idea that the crisis could be a warning that things are not going well can be emphasized, or that things have gone in the wrong direction in the existing social balance and that the goal should not only be returning of pre-crisis order, but to promote changes in the general social conditions which would rarely lead to crisis. The three conditions that are likely to have potential for creation of crisis in the Western Balkans are: the conflict of identities, groups in the shadow, and the massive corruption in the public services. Recommendations for dealing with crises in the Western Balkans are related to the use of accurate information; objective indicators for determining what the establishing crisis threshold is; a stratified response from several agencies and departments; a plan for provision and use of resources, and the existence of mechanisms for dealing on a regional basis which will be connected with the European incentive.

Key words: *Crisis, crisis management, Western Balkans, preconditions, incentives*

Introduction

Crisis can be played at any time, any place. It may be announced, but it may also occur suddenly and without warning. It may be imperceptible, but yet present somewhere there. In dealing with the crisis and the crisis situations, we can learn that fate can be cruel. It can also be learned that crises can also be very good. The crisis has its positive aspects. If we accept its reality as existing then perhaps it is the right time in our minds to abandon the concept of bad or negative crisis and to accept the argument that: with proper planning, we can extract the positive aspect of the crisis. The Chinese have been adopting this concept for centuries. The symbol for their word “crisis” called wei-ji is a combination of two words, “danger” and “opportunity”.

The ability to manage such situation and make good thoughtful decision - which is just another way to look at the crisis management - is vital for achieving success in the critical point milestones in life, politics, world, etc. in general. As the crisis does not happen in one isolated area, it is quite certain that every crisis has a heavy effect in the life of its surrounding. The crises played out in the Western Balkans share common features of all crises. Depending on the type of crisis, crisis techniques to those managers who are (or will be) assigned to deal with national or regional crises differ significantly between each other. There are frequently asked questions about the technique and the instruments, what their common characteristics are, the way of its application; techniques and instruments which prove to be successful depending on the environment in which they apply, etc.

Currently, remains unanswered the following question: which is the purpose (function) of the crisis management in the Western Balkans? To prevent and to deal with crises by increasing the efficiency of the individual state by coordinating the activities and resources in conditions which require urgent and complex actions, or simply to realize someone’s interests (within the state or wide abroad) or something else?

Crises and crisis management in general

„The notion of the word “crisis” is with multiple meanings and almost boundless. In the lexicon, crisis is a word of Greek origin. The lexicon can offer two definitions for the word crisis, namely the positive connotation (one degree in the series of events which are decisive for the human future, and that can lead to change the position to better or worse; in other words, crisis means a turning point), as well as in a negative

connotation (to the instability of the situation for example in the economy, society, political or international relations, by coming to a reversal).”¹

The crisis may take place at an individual level or at a societal level. It can be a traumatic or stressful change in someone’s life or unstable and dangerous situation in the society, in political, social, economic and military sense, or as big environmental event, especially one which causes close and sudden changes. Concretely, it is a term meaning “time check” or “extraordinary event”.

It can be a social situation which is characterized by unusual instability caused by an increased stress or threat, or sense of threat, to the continuity of the individual or group, especially the social condition of the transformation of cultural patterns and habits.

Crises can affect all segments of society - politics, economy, religion, education, family, governments and so on. It can be caused by a wide range of reasons. Although the definitions of a crisis may rather vary, however there are three elements that are common to more definitions of crisis:

- a threat to a system;
- an element of surprise;
- a short decision making time.

If the crisis is understood as a turning point, contrary to the customary belief, it is not always bad. It is just characterized by some degree of risk and uncertainty. All those who can predict and plan for the crisis - the turning point (as a substitute for the phrase, if among us, in our minds there is a problem with presenting the wrong-making connotations of the word crisis), everyone who can guess and plan for the *turning point* has better chances to profit from that opportunity than someone who was unprepared for the crisis. Readiness for the appearance of the crisis is a precondition for its successful tackling or at least for it to be called a *damage control*.

In this sense, crisis management is a systematic attempt to avoid crises or to manage the crisis events that are happening. „Crisis management-planning of the crisis, the turning point - is a possibility of removing most of the risk, and uncertainty, so we can achieve greater control over our own destiny“.²

According to the American Heritage Dictionary, crisis management is a complex of special measures taken under pressure to solve the problems caused by the crisis.

¹ Mitrevska, Marina: „*Krizen Menaxment*“. Skopje: Evropa 92 - Kocani, 2008

² Fink, Steven. “Crisis management: Planning for inevitable”. Lincoln, USA: iUniverse, Inc, 2002

“The crisis is often characterized by confusion, or even panic, which may lead to negative consequences. Thus, the question of whether the crisis is manageable is posed.”³ Certainly, the answer is positive, but only if we have accounted the following three rules: that crises are inevitable, that crisis management requires certain procedures for management which can be pre-adjusted and as used by the emergence of the crisis, and that crisis management is an integral part of the responsibility of each Head.

The issue of the crisis management on a state level is primarily a political and security monitoring issue, but the answer is a quite different. “When it comes to crisis management, it can be emphasized its military, political, economic, social, humanitarian and environmental aspect. Each of these aspects is presumed as an adequate readiness of certain state agencies to deal with them and to reduce their consequences.”⁴ The various general context in which crises arise, can give unique features to a crisis. “The reasons for the crisis, or whether its structural roots are political, economic, social and security challenges in the western democracies or the democracies in transition, or the reasons about the poor situation of post-conflict societies with the effort for a green light to the stabilization and development, can give a specific character to the crisis”.⁵ Linking the crisis with different socio context should give an answer when, who and how handles the crisis. “Whether the crises are managed by more or less political or by military means, or whether they are treated by more or less democratic means, is issue that is locked not only in normative procedures, but in the practical realization as well”.⁶

The essence of the crises and the crisis management in the Western Balkans

One decade after the end of the twentieth century, if we look backwards through the restless epoch of events we can notice the two world wars, the end of the colonial era and many crises and conflicts. Besides all that, “the long expected peace” between the two superpowers is absent, the period of the post cold war in the international system was characterized by a constant violence in many regions. The most common type of the enemy

³ Mitrevska, Marina. „Crisis Management: Is Crisis manageable? Annual compilation, Book 59. Skopje: Faculty of Philology, 2006, p. 498.

⁴ Gocevski, Trajan. „The need of a Law on Crisis Management, *Crisis Management in the Republic of Macedonia - Contemporary Macedonian Defence* (2005), pp. 17-22.

⁵ Georgieva, Lidija. “Post-Conflict Dilemmas in Macedonia: Crisis Management, *Crisis Management in the Republic of Macedonia - Contemporary Macedonian Defence* (2005), pp. 78.

⁶ Ibid.

interaction in global politics in the past century was the inter-State military - security crisis.

In the post cold-war era, the types of crises that are a result of human plans, which are the sources of threats, risks, vulnerabilities and reactions of the countries that were block-divided, are significantly changed. Natural crisis as flood or earthquakes are happening as well as always, but the need and the method of their response will be very different in the democratic compared to the former autocratic political systems.

The events are only crises if they threaten the very survival of the state and society (e.g. Civil wars), and if they undermine the ability of the state and the civil society for maintaining the minimum level of social stability that is required to ensure a reasonable level of security and protection for all (e.g., massive corruption in the government agencies) or if those in the case of the Western Balkan countries have the potential to undermine the move towards democratic form of governance or to advocate for the return of birth of autocratic and repressive government (e.g., coalitions or criminal groups and government personnel). One such example is the constitutional crisis. Constitutional crisis represents roughly violation of the established order of government. In general, constitutional crisis is a situation in which certain fractions within the government differ with the scope to which each of these fractions possesses sovereignty. Usually, constitutional crisis includes some degree of conflict between the various departments of government (executive, legislative and / or judicial) or between the various levels of government in the federal system. The constitutional crisis can happen because the one or more of the parties in the dispute intentionally violated the provision of the Constitution or of unwritten constitutional conventions, or it can happen when the parties in the dispute did not express consensus to some reading of such provision or convention. If the dispute is growing because of a certain aspect of the Constitution which is ambiguous or unclear, resolution of the crisis often establishes a precedent for the future.⁷ The constitutional crisis can lead to paralysis of the government, its collapse or a civil war.⁸

A very different crisis is the crisis in the living environment. It means:

⁷ For example. Constitution of the United States is silent on issues whether the states are permitted to separate from the Union, but still, since the separation of several states forcibly was prevented in the American Civil war and generally accepted that the states may not to leave the Union.

⁸ Constitutional crisis is different from the riot, which is defined as a challenge to the sovereignty of the government by the fractions outside the government as to the national strike which shall implement military or civilian protesters.

- *Ecological catastrophe*, which arises as a result of a permanent human activity and should not be identified by the natural disaster. In this case, the lasting human impact on the ecosystem changes led to the widening and / or long duration of the consequences. It can include the death of people, animals and plants or severely disturbed normal residence which is likely to require migration.
- *A natural catastrophe* is due to natural disasters (as earthquakes, fire, flood, wind, etc.) that impel from the potential to the active status and as a result act over human activities. The human vulnerability aggravated by a lack of planning or lack of appropriate urgent management, leads to financial, structural and human losses. The extent of the losses depends on the capacity of the elasticity of the population to submit or to withstand the catastrophe.⁹ This understanding is based on the formulation: “disasters can happen when dangers meet vulnerability.”¹⁰ It is about, the ratio between the danger and resistance. The natural hazard will never result in natural disasters in areas where there is no vulnerability, for example strong earthquake in the uninhabited area.

Crises are events that develop over time and as a consequence to that, the management of the crises requires different skills for different stages of the crisis. Any strategy for dealing with crises must identify the threats, vulnerability, and critical accuracy and their connection with real and achievable objectives, policies and available resources. Such calculations-to exact and without exaggeration are process that removes the possible beneficiaries of the crisis¹¹ in a precise order and according to the objective criteria of what is more important for the country and what is less important, in a democratic political human system of this type of behavior is extremely delicate and should go to keep the planning process in each country that is prepared for the crisis.

The self-evaluation documents for the potential of crisis in the Western Balkan countries strive to treat the crises as similar events which differ mainly on the basis of legal definitions (e.g., military status, emergency) than under specific-term nature of the event. However, it is important to note that floods are different events; or illegal trafficking in women by organized criminal groups; organized smuggling of drugs due to the Balkan route is a different tangle of events, rather than regional ethnic

⁹ G. Bankoff, G. Frerks, D. Hilhorst (eds.) (2003). Mapping Vulnerability: Disasters, Development and People.

¹⁰ B. Wisner, P. Blaikie, T. Cannon, and I. Davis (2004). At Risk - Natural hazards, people's vulnerability and disasters. Wiltshire: Routledge.

¹¹ In terms of the flow of resources, status and so on.

conflict. Reactions to them respectively, will vary. Some crises can develop slowly and become a crisis only because neither has been done previously. Health epidemic starts slowly and certain epidemics may be prevented if they are disclosed on time and quickly well-balanced if there are funds to counter and prevent. The other crisis, as to the terrorist attacks, is immediate and, if not prevented in their occurrence, their mass dimensions will lead to state of emergency or war.

Planning and management for prevention on certain types of crises requires different resources and includes various strategies. Planning of violent ethnic conflicts will require political and economic activities that satisfy to a certain extent the aspirations of ethnic minorities. The prevention of the smuggling of drugs by the Balkan route is persistent problem for the border control and police, but it is not fully clear whether it is a crisis or when it turned into a crisis (e.g. in a situation when it is dramatically increased domestic use of the drugs). Planning of how to deal with these two types of the artificial events also raises the need for different skills and actors. Ethnic conflicts can involve armed forces, paramilitaries and other enforcement services that should help in establishing a minimum level of law and order. Drug smuggling is a problem even for the police, the border services and Intelligence agencies. Return in normal state after ethnic conflicts, especially because these were extended in mass violence and destruction, will be totally different than back to a normal state of drug trafficking. Also, it is not even fully understood how the recovery from transnational activities seems to be conducted except that it is known that those activities should be kept countered.

Another problem in the crisis management in the Western Balkans is the temptation, certain events to be exaggerated to the level of crisis. For that, of course, there are quite practical reasons. The crisis, which is a legally declared, allows the governmental services much greater flexibility in terms of dealing with the situation¹² and allows more resources and enhances the status and in return brings political points if dealing with it is done properly and efficiently.

The potential for emerge and development of the crises in the Western Balkans.

The most commonly asked questions are about the risks and threats in the Balkan region that create a strong probability that the crisis will take place!?! The three likely conditions that have the potential for creating a crisis are: the conflict of identity, the groups in the shadow, and the massive

¹² Such as restriction of civil liberties and due to process of legality.

corruptions in public services. Conflicts of identities (ethnic, religious) within state borders and outside them, which provoke public targets, violence, civil unrest and organized aggression against persons who belong to a group of other identity, may destabilize the country and undermine the democratic process.

Groups in the shadow of irregular and paramilitary forces, organized crime, etc. who object to the government and its democratic reforms (of all kinds of reasons) can create the potential for social and political unrest and crisis. Corruption, if it occurs in a mass scale, could have capability to delegitimize the state and the government. The potential for crisis originating from internal and transnational organized crime lies mainly in the power of the crime for corruption, co-decision making and control of the government agencies that may become partners in crime. Corruption is a problem which is hardly addressed with the policy in any country and its effects are slow and partial, and therefore we do not initially see it as a crisis.

There are examples of how natural disasters, criminal activity, migration of the refugees, etc. which are certainly threats to the people and to the property, can lead to extensive disturbance of the social order. However, they become a crisis only by means of the decisions being used, if the reactions of the state (in the preparations for it in management of the crisis, and the recovering efforts) are so limited, incompetent, ineffective and inefficient to suggest to the civil society and the political alternative to the existing regime that the state is not concerned what has happened to the public or has become so weakened by corruption, political manipulation, the personal interest or assimilation from shadow that is not capable to deal with such an extraordinary situation.

Analysis of the capabilities for crisis management among the countries of the Western Balkans

Among the countries of the Western Balkans as a whole, there is a general agreement that the world is changing constantly and that new threats and risks appear and they are the most often cause of challenge to the governments of the transition state. The national documents which treat the crises, place their interest on the legal questions of the authority and power, more precisely, to underline who has the right to call on or to declare war or irregular (crisis) situation in the country. Those reports do not offer convincing definitions of the crisis.

They also, additionally fail to make the difference between the various types of crises and the successive need for different assessment of the different management abilities. They are focused almost exclusively on the crises management since the crises occur. For all of them are also

missing precise discussion of how that crisis management is conducted in an integrated manner, not going beyond the announcement of the description of the work of various commissions and agencies for planning. The roles on the service on the tactical level are almost not mentioned at all, or those of the so-called *first response*.¹³ The focus is also placed on the national conditions much more than on the terms of a regional nature and the skills required for regional crisis management.

There are scant and superficial allusions to various coordination mechanisms related to regional political and security alliances and institutions such as NATO, EU or OSCE.

However, it is not sufficiently discussed and analyzed whether the plans for crisis management ability in fact will be effective, from where the funds for management later recovery will be pooled, what their weaknesses are, and whether they may be implemented in a systematic or effective way.

What can be noted is the strong normative component. The crisis is conceptualized as certain distortions that threaten the established order or balance. The goal of this crisis management is to prevent from such disturbances and return stability to the crisis period. Such a concept ignores or puts less emphasis on the idea that the crisis could be a warning that things do not go well, that they went in the wrong direction in the existing social balance, or that the goal should not only be return of pre-crisis order, but to promote changes in the general social conditions of what will rarely lead to a crisis.

Instead of conclusion: What is the best approach to crisis and crisis management in the Western Balkans?!

The approach to the management of the crises in the Western Balkans is based on the following recommendations:

First, as it was explained before, proclamation of the existing crisis should be based on accurate information that shall assess the real risk, vulnerability, and critical accuracy. Local expertise supported by international assistance, should be developed in order to establish an information system which will be appropriate for such an assessment;

The consecutive task would be developing objective indicators for establishing the existence of a crisis, which requires making reference to the prepared plans, policies and responses tailored for specific types of crises. If not so, then proclamation of the existing crisis will be determined by political pressure from civil society and political leaders, which would lead to inefficient use of the already limited resources;

¹³ Police, border services, firefighters, medical personnel or volunteer civil service.

The complex crisis requires a stratified response from several agencies, and that also means the development of the capacity for coordination and cooperation between the governmental services and civil groups. Harmonization of the groups that have delegated roles and power in the crisis management is typically the biggest problem for the effective response to the crisis. Coordination should be provided in the description of the work of the commissions or other operating force appointed by preparation of the coordination of several services and their response to the crisis. Such plans should exist on a higher level of authority. In order for coordination to be effective, it should extend downwards to the level of implementation; provide the people who in fact will be doing the work (policemen, border guards, soldiers and civilian volunteers, local government services officers, medical personnel) with greater skills and knowledge that will enable them to cooperate in a joint effort. International aid can be useful in further developing of the ability implementation;

Furthermore, resources are usually the biggest problem in the crisis management. Quite clearly it is to devise a comprehensive and even refined plan of how to handle with crisis, but if resources cannot be prepared or intended for crisis answer, than no plans can be implemented. Natural disaster is becoming a crisis when there is no resources for management of the occurred disaster (to save the people, to prevent the spread of the destruction) and to commence a process of recovery of (as reconstruction of infrastructure, solution of medical consequences, etc). International support may be useful in determination of the types of resources that are needed, and in providing some of them.

In the end, more of the crises in the Western Balkans are with the potential to cross the state border. Therefore, here are the necessary mechanisms that exist on a regional basis in order to solve the problems of the regional nature. Most of these mechanisms are connected with the European institutions and initiatives. There is very little cooperation to tackle the regional crisis, which is directly organized or controlled by the states themselves in the Western Balkans, and that is not a result of, or connected with the European incentive. Therefore, it is necessary to encourage more direct cooperation in the Western Balkans.

Attention is needed, as well as to bear in mind the advice that crises historically develop in the cyclic form, and that one (anyone) that suffers crisis has no such luxury to deal exclusively with only one crisis. Since the crises are not arranged in a suitable range, the very crisis cycle makes it difficult to see where and when one crisis ends and the other one begins. This is particularly true in situations where wavy effects on the complications of one crisis, cause another crisis. That is why it is critical for us to be able to identify real crisis. Because when there are crisis, they come

in pairs, in groups... And the crisis is very difficult to isolate, it is never black and white...

Bibliography

1. B. Wisner, P. Blaikie, T. Cannon, and I. Davis. *At Risk - Natural hazards, people's vulnerability and disasters*. Wiltshire: Routledge, (2004).

2. Commission of the European Communities, 2008b: *Enlargement Strategy and Main Challenges 2008-2009*. Brussels. COM(2008) 674 final: 5 November 2008.

3. Delevic, Milica, 2007: *Regional cooperation in the Western Balkans*. Chaillot Paper No 104, Paris: Institute for Security Studies, July 2007.

4. Fink, Steven. "Crisis management: Planning for inevitable". Lincoln, USA: iUniverse, Inc, 2002

5. G. Bankoff, G. Frerks, D. Hilhorst (eds.). *Mapping Vulnerability: Disasters, Development and People*. (2003).

6. Georgieva, Lidija. „Postkonfliktni dilemi vo Makedonija: upravuvawe so krizite“. *Upravuvawe so krizi vo Republika Makedonija-Soveremena makedonska odbrana* (2005).

7. Gocevski, Trajan. „Potrebata od donesuvawe zakon za upravuvawe so krizi-ili zo{to ja ureduvame ovaa materija“. *Upravuvawe so krizi vo Republika Makedonija-Soveremena makedonska odbrana* (2005):17-22.

8. Mitrevska, Marina. „*Krizen Menaxment*“. Skopje: Evropa 92 - Ko~ani, 2008.

9. Mitrevska, Marina. „Menaxirawe na krizata: Mo`e li krizata da se upravuva?“. *Godifen zbornik: Kniga 59*. Skopje: Filozofski fakultet, 2006.

COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT IN THE FIGHT AGAINST TERRORISM AND RESPECT FOR HUMAN RIGHTS

Goran Amidžić, M.A.

direktor_vsup@education.muprs.org

Gojko Šetka, M.A.

gojkosetka@yahoo.com

*Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic Srpska,
Police College, Banja Luka*

Abstract

If the police want to be successful in preventing terrorist activities, they need to develop and maintain partnership with the community they serve.

Community members are in a position to give the police a lot of information that may be useful for identifying and arresting terrorist groups before they commit a terrorist attack. Unfortunately, the community may be hostile towards the police, and as a consequence the communication between the citizens and the police would not be as good as it is necessary. Through the human relationship among the individuals in the community, as well as those who are detained in police and correctional facilities, police began to develop positive relationships with the community, reducing the fear and the lack of confidence, and encouraging trust and cooperation.

Working together, police and communities can make a relationship that helps to protect and defend the community as a whole.

Keywords: Engagement, community, struggle, terrorism, human rights

Introduction

In many communities there is a high threat of terrorist attacks. Terrorist groups operate in some communities; they plan and practice their attacks. Often, members of these terrorist groups are involved in ordinary criminal activities, such as money laundering, theft, kidnapping, drug smuggling and illegal sales of goods to finance their planned actions and obtain financial resources they need to perform their attacks (Mijalkovski, 2010: 226). The members of these terrorist groups are not very different from the Law obedient citizens.

Members of terrorist groups, and their activities, are often well-hidden from the police, which is usually focused on solving crime, and is not apparently focused on terrorism. Police officers, who tend to be present in the community especially during the 8-hour shifts, are usually not in position to notice strange behavior of people, strange patterns of movement, visits to the buildings or premises and departures from them, unusual packages that are submitted, strange odors that spread from the premises or building and other signs that could indicate terrorist activity, despite the fact that much of the responsibility for preventing and responding to acts of terrorism lies with the local police. However, community members who live in this neighborhood can see a lot more than the police itself.

Community members are in position to provide the police with a big amount of information that may prove useful for identifying and arresting terrorist groups before they are able to carry out the attack. The problem is how to make the community members willing to help the police.

Unfortunately, the community may be hostile, with mistrustful attitude toward the police officers and police authorities, which stops all communication with officers and prevents them from obtaining any information they need to help this community to become a safer place to live and work. This distrust may be based on perceptions of injustice, inhumane treatment and the absence of rule of law on the part of the police officers and police authorities.

For police officers and police authorities, the biggest challenge is how to overcome this distrust and find out the way to engage the community in the fight against terrorist activities and crime.

Partnership with the community

To be successful in preventing terrorist and criminal activity, police needs to develop and maintain partnerships with the community to which it serves. The community is a group of people united by some common characteristics, such as geography, values, traditions, etc. There are different types of communities such as: schools, religious institutions, business associations, towns, etc. (Willard,2003:32).

The police needs to engage community groups and citizens as equal partners in the problem solving and public safety, and support the police in the fight against criminal and terrorist activities. This partnership can be of great value in preventing terrorist activities because it can lead to increased sharing of intelligence, target hardening and improve a coordinated response to the terrorist actions.

In addition, the partnership that may provoke other positive changes:

- Individuals often develop a sense of community, which makes them to interact and communicate with their neighbors - they find out more about what is happening in their neighborhood.
- The sense of community can enhance a sense of control in an individual, which then further increases its participation in the community affairs.
- The problems in the community, such as the need for more light, or disclosure of the environmental hazards, can motivate individuals to act and to improve the condition of the community.

Through a partnership built on mutual interest of public safety and trust, police officers and police authorities can become more effective in preventing, responding and resolving criminal and terrorist activities. The bottom line is that everyone is safer and more secure.

Police engagement in the community

The engagement of the police in a community is based on mutual respect, understanding and trust between the police authorities, police officers, and the community. With the police engaged in community policing, agencies establish policies and procedures that require fair, humane and equitable treatment of all citizens. Police officers are trained to perform their actions within this policy and procedures (Gianakis, 1992: 428). There have been established disciplinary measures against those who do not abide by these policies and procedures. As a result, communities often respond by providing support and information - information that is often made of integral importance to the fight against criminal and terrorist activities.

Open and frequent exchange of information and discussions with the community - both formal (e.g. press releases, town hall meetings, workshops on community safety and security programs designed specifically for children) and informal (e.g. discussion with tenants while you are on foot patrol) - members of the community offered a degree of influence on the improvement of conditions in their neighborhood (Palmiotto, 2000: 159). Their influence helps community members feel that they are pledged to become law-abiding citizens and help the police identify and arrest those involved in the criminal activities. They are also beginning to realize that engagement with the police is in their interest - to maintain the engagement of their safety and improve their quality of life. Community engagement easier for the police and the mutual police - community support multiplies the power of police to fight crime and terrorism.

Building and maintaining trust

In order for the community to become engaged as a partner of the police, community members must first trust in the police - believe that they (the community) will be treated fairly, they must believe that the police treat all members of the community impartially, without prejudice, to believe that the police would protect community members of the community who collaborate with the police and they must believe that those who violate the law will be guaranteed fair and humane treatment. This trust allows the community to live without fear of the police or police authorities. When people live without fear of the police, they feel able to choose the right thing - to stand up for the law and order within their communities and their country (Pena, 2006: 108-109). Maintaining confidence in the police is very hard. Confidence is gained gradually and easily lost. Police officers and police authorities must be very sensitive to the fragility of this trust and careful to take appropriate disciplinary action against officers who violate the trust of the community (Champion, Rush, 2003: 28).

Components of the police engaged in the community

Effective police engaged in a community is based on four main components:

- Rule of law and fair judicial proceedings,
- Policies and procedures based on respect of the human rights,
- Vision and commitment to community engagement,
- Strategy and plan for community engagement.

The rule of law and fair judicial proceedings. The right to equality before the law - or the equal protection under the law - is essential to any lawful society. Whether you are rich or poor, a member of the ethnic majority or religious minority, political allies or enemies of the state, you are entitled to equal protection under the law.

Those who manage the system of criminal justice in any society have the power - a power that can be implemented fairly and justly, or control the abuse of power and tyranny. While every country should have the power to maintain order and punish criminal acts, regulations and procedures which the country enforces, the laws must be public and transparent, not secret, arbitrary, or subjected to political manipulation by the state.

The rule of law and due process are the means by which people assess whether the criminal justice system is fair and protects the rights of the individuals and the public interest. The rule of law is the commitment of the Government and the police to act in accordance with the principle that

nobody is above the law. Powers and duties of the Government are defined as legally promulgated laws. The rule of law includes good governance, access to the courts, enforcing contracts, trust in the police and due process.

Designed to guarantee the lawful rights of the individual, the due process is a fundamental principle of fairness in the legal proceedings, both civil and criminal, especially in the courts. The rights to fair court proceedings include:

- Notification of the charges at the time of arrest,
- Notification of judicial proceedings and the right to attend and listen,
- The right to confront witnesses, the rule against hearsay information,
- Freedom of speech,
- Freedom of association,
- The right to privacy.

Adherence of the police to the rule of law and fair judicial proceeding - in word and deed - helping to establish trust between the community and the police and create this kind of relationship with the community needed to engage the community in the fight against criminal and terrorist activities.

People who see to be treated fairly and justly are willing to become part of the solution and not part of the problem.

Policies and procedures based on respect for human rights.

Respect for human rights is an idea that should be in the core of people, as human beings. These rights exist in morality and law at national and international level. The main source of modern ideas about human rights is the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). UDHR is a non-binding declaration adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948 (Babic, 2008: 245). UDHR is considered a central component of international customary law, and encourages member states to respect a number of human, civil, economic and social rights, arguing that these rights are part of the "fundamental freedoms, justice and peace in the world."

UDHR states over twenty specific human rights that countries should respect and protect, among which are:

- The right to security, which protects people against crimes such as murder, massacre, torture and rape,
- The right to due process, which protects people from abuse of the legal system, such as imprisonment without trial, secret trials and excessive sentences,
- The right to freedom, which protects freedom of belief, expression, association, assembly and movement;

- Political Rights which protect freedom of participation in politics through actions such as communicating, gathering, protesting, voting and performing public service,
- The right to equality guaranteed by the Constitution: citizens are equal before the law and not subjected to discrimination,
- Social rights require the provision of education to all children and protection from severe poverty and starvation.

There are many regional conventions and regional organizations and courts that deal with basic human rights, among which:

- African Charter on Human Rights and Peoples' (Charter Bandjulska)
- American Convention on Human Rights
- American Declaration on the rights and duties of a person
- European Convention on Human Rights
- Cairo Declaration on Human Rights in Islam
- The African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights
- African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights
- Inter-American Court of Human Rights
- The European Court of Human Rights

The police must be careful and protect the fundamental rights of the community members who obey the law, and those who were arrested, detained and imprisoned in the cores of the police facilities. Policies and procedures must be sensitive to human rights and protect them. Police officers must adhere to the highest standards in relation to the protection of human rights. Abuse is not tolerated.

In addition, all persons who are under the supervision of police officers or police authority must provide the basic means of living, including adequate food, sanitation, shelter, clothing and basic health services.

Police indicates that they respect their human rights policies, procedures and practices, by which they will obtain trust and respect for the community members. This trust and respect is essential for community engagement in the fight against criminal and terrorist activities.

Vision and commitment to community engagement. The program for community engagement starts from the top. The heads of the police must create a vision for the program and then provide the support and loyalty of their subordinates in the program. This vision - a mental concept to describe the idea of executive leadership program for community engagement, including how the leadership wants the communities to see the police authorities and their officers (as friends, or as enemies), the scope of the program (if the program should be for the entire community, or start with

one segment or one part of the community), a general description of the types of changes that should be entered (in the policy and procedure, site, structure of the police) and examples of how to reach the community (by attending local meetings, organizing informal meetings or gatherings, by publishing the changes that will be entered). At this point, the vision will be nothing more than inspirational, visionary statement about the changes ahead and to generalize about what changes we are talking about. The purpose of this notice is to gain the loyalty, and support officers who will be the main figures in this process. During this period of notice, the executive management needs to emphasize the benefits of changes to police authorities as well as the police officers (Pena, 2008: 207-208).

It is necessary to influence the police officers in the sense that they must commit themselves and support the changes in order to successfully complete the program and if they do not support the change, they will overtly or covertly sabotage the program - and lead to its failure. Police officers should be required to sign a formal oath of loyalty to this particular program. Often, the obligation is formalized in this way, to deepen the level of commitment to the program.

It should also be noted that this kind of change can be difficult for some police chiefs and police officers. The Chief Executive must be determined to change and should not tolerate any efforts that lead to its failure. If necessary, you may need to rearrange some police officers to patrol the community to ensure the success of the program.

Plan and strategies for community engagement. The Chief Executive shall appoint officers and community members to plan and implement a program of community engagement.

The planning team should focus on realization of the vision of the chief executive officer of the police. This plan should present a practical approach, including specific strategies for building confidence in the police community, creating a working relationship between the community and the police, the mechanisms for collecting feedback (suggestions for improving the program) and measuring success (how will we know that the program works?).

This program should be comprehensive; it includes a variety of strategies to deal with multiple levels of interventions that result in real change. The plan should address the change within the police authority:

- Review of current policies and procedures,
- Review of all policies and procedures to ensure that members of the police strictly follow the rule of law and due process,
- Develop all policies and procedures to ensure that they address human rights,

- To ask officers to be friendly and respectful relations with citizens who respect the law and to apply a controlled, minimum force against the arrested suspects,
- To ensure that the policy and procedures clearly state that it will not tolerate harassment of its members and that the consequences for such behavior will be taken care of quickly,
- Train police officers and civilians working in the police force in the new policies and procedures,
- To consolidate the revised policy and procedure as often as possible in meetings and through job trainings, job advertisements, newsletters and similar methods of communication.

It is necessary to make plans to ensure the humane treatment of all actions of the police:

- Provide a basic means of subsistence that are arrested in police supervision, including adequate food, sanitation, shelter, clothing and basic health services,
- Develop and implement procedures for treatment and care of the wounded detainees,
- Develop procedures to assist and protect the weakest in the community, including elderly and children.

Methods of gathering information from the community:

- The establishment of community advisory committee that would serve as a spokesperson for the interests of the community,
- Community survey on current attitudes about the police,
- Identify and work with the community members who can help the police to accept community as a whole,
- Seek help from the community
- Hold meetings in the town hall and ask for suggestions box to allow community members to anonymously report information. If the Police Department has a website, open the email link to send comments or suggestions,
- Convening meetings with associations of neighbors and business leaders to explain the vision of community engagement and request their suggestions for success of the program,
- Encourage police officers to talk informally with the members of the community while on patrol,
- Identify programs, community outreach and education programs, such as a group of local securities who can build a community as partners in the maintaining of law and order in the community,

- Engage the community in activities funded by the police, such as fairs, safety workshops, programs on safety and security of children on bicycles for children, use of school programs such as the threat of aliens, drugs, the practice of safe movement, etc., in order to build trust with the next generation of citizens.

It is necessary to publish a program of community engagement:

- Communicating with the media about the program and the expected outcome,
- Attending meetings in the community to discuss the program,
- Emphasize the expected results and benefits to the community,
- Encourage community members to ask questions about the revised policies and practices.

It is necessary to select the part of the community in which to apply the “pilot project” or test program:

- We must be aware of the fact that this change and gaining trust will come slowly,
- First start with a small actions and focus on success,
- Maintain daily or weekly meetings during the "pilot" program to collect feedback on the success and how to modify the program as needed;
- Present a report on the success of the program,
- We should not give up!

When the "pilot" program succeeds, it is necessary to expand the program to other areas in the community. It is necessary to provide a permanent mechanism for obtaining feedback from the community. Also, it is necessary to adjust the programs in order to maintain and encourage community engagement.

Change can also be achieved from the bottom up by the start of individual officers. While this change is not as fast or complete, any police officer who treats members of the community with respect and courtesy, and applies only the minimum amount of force necessary to control the incident, is worthy of respect, trust and loyalty of the community he / she serves (Kidd, Brazier, 1999: 35-40). While changes in relation to the community of individual officers are not an effective method for engaging the community in general, it is sometimes the only way to achieve change, particularly in the atmosphere of police resistance to changes.

Conclusion

Any change - regardless of its potential benefits - will have its advocates and opponents. Preparation for change includes not only the spread of enthusiasm for the process of change and work with those who accept early and adapt to change, but also prepared to challenge the skeptics. Individuals and groups resist change when they have an idea of change as a threat to them. The threat need not to be realistic or large to lead to resistance (Geoffrey, Piquer, 2000: 363-372). People resist change for many reasons. Some of the most common reasons are:

- Identify the existing (casual) way of doing things,
- Fear of the unknown,
- The uncertainty in their own ability to act appropriately after the change occurs,
- Fear of lack of competence for change,
- The feeling that it overloads and power transcends the individual,
- The skepticism with respect to the likelihood that change will lead to success,
- The fear of a hidden plan,
- Feeling that the identity of an individual (the old way of doing things) is threatened,
- Fear of loss of status or quality of life,
- The true belief that change is a bad idea.

In addition to these reasons, it should be noted that the police can oppose the program to engage the community, because of concerns that community engagement indicates that the police is weak or ineffective. They may also object to a given program because of the feeling that they do take part of their power. In preparing the program for community engagement, it is necessary to consider all the circumstances and facts, and take appropriate steps to overcome resistance to changes that are necessary for the implementation and maintenance program, both within and outside the police organization.

REFERENCES

1. Babic, M. (2008). Criminal law-general and special part. Banja Luka: Faculty of Law.
2. Champion, D. Rush, G. (2003). Office of Public Affairs Embassy of the United States of America Sarajevo Bosnia and Herzegovina.
3. Geoffrey, A. Piquer, A. (2000). Community Polising Conterporary Readings, Waveland Press.
4. Gianakis, G. (1992). Appraising the Performance of Police Officers Reserbe, Journal of Criminal Justice.
5. Kidd, V., Braziel, R. (1999). Community Oriented Policing Cop Talk, Essential Communication Skills for Community Policing.
6. Mijalkovski, M. (2010). Terrorism and organized crime. Belgrade: Faculty of safety.
7. Palmiotto, M. (2000). Community Policing, Policing A Strat for the 21 st century, Maryland
8. Pena, U. (2006). Community policing and its implementation with particular reference to Bosnia and Herzegovina. Banja Luka: Graduate School of Interior.
9. Pena, U. (2008). Strategies to counteract crime and the concept of community policing. Banja Luka: Graduate School of Interior.
10. Rosenbaum, D., Lurigio, A., Davis, R. (1998). The Prevention of Crime, Social and Situational Strategies, West / Wadsworth.
11. Willard, O. (2003). Community-Oriented Policing, A Sistemic Approach to Policing, Prentice Hall.

THE STEPS OF THE COUNCIL OF EUROPE IN COMBATING TERRORISM

Nenko Doykov, Ph.D.*

Introduction

This research, due to the limited volume of the report, is not exhaustive. It will analyze only the European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism of 27th January 1977 and the Council of Europe Convention for the Prevention of Terrorism, signed at Warsaw on May 16th, 2005.

Since the second half of XX century, terrorist activity has gained new dimensions and terror has established itself as one of the most brutal and violent methods of political struggle and destabilization of the individual countries and the new world order as a whole. The countries of the region and a lot of other democratic countries are facing serious challenges to their internal security. Among these challenges is the terrorism, a phenomenon of never-ending danger, with possibilities to cause serious consequences and turmoil in the overall public life. To this constantly increasing threat contributes the complex processes of decomposition and formation of new states on the Balkans which is a prerequisite for emergence of phenomena that influence the changes of the objective realities in the region. To these processes is further added the globalization of the international terrorism as well. In this regard, things become even more complicated by the fact that from geographical, historical and contemporary political point of view the countries of the Balkans are located in one of the most neuralgic regions of the world. The region is characterized by ethnic, cultural and religious diversity and sustained resistance to the ideological and political heritage.

* Nenko Doykov is chief of the department for "Special police tactics" at the Academy of the Ministry of the Interior (AoMI). He has a Ph.D. in "Crisis management during a terrorist act". He has specialized in different structures and international institutions in the following directions: "Combating terrorism", "Combating organized crime", "Organizing and management of the system of National security", "Crisis management", "Organizing the counteraction of using improvised explosive devices with criminal intent", "International relationships and security", "National system for management during crisis and conflicts", "Theoretical and practical aspects of peaceful regulation of conflicts". He has taken part in the preparation and realization of many projects in the field of security, HR management, decision taking and risk evaluation. He is a member of the International Police Association (IPA), the Union of the Bulgarian commandos, the International Martial Arts and Special Tactics Institute (IMASTI). He has many publications on terrorism – analysis and combating.

Two continents meet here and there are several civilization borders that are crossed, which is a part of the prerequisites for the continuous existence of different values, orientations and identities. In the last decade, based on international law, it is formed the opinion of experts in counter-terrorism from different countries, that fight against terrorism must be global and based on the solidarity of the whole democratic community. This opinion finds more and more supporters among the politicians, which is clearly visible from many international initiatives.

The phenomenon of terrorism is not a new one. Its roots lay as far as the ancient times. Its historical review shows that the beginnings of this phenomenon are together with the appearance of social relations appear¹. In the literature there are various theories about the emergence of terrorism². For instance:

Theory based on “reasons for root cause”. Here theorists numbered the following causes of terrorism: relative deprivation, corrupt or inefficient legal system, territorial disputes, class or ethnic hatred. These are some of the most common preconditions in which the terrorist activity has been developing since ancient times. The purpose of terror is to remove the injustice and inequality.

The theory of Ted Robert Gurr - based on the premise that there is always a gap between expectations and capabilities of an individual or a group. This condition, however, does not lead to a terrorist act, while the gap does not become overwhelming. And this can happen in one of the following three ways:

- In the waning deprivation, where expectations remain the same, but the capabilities decrease;
- In aspiration deprivation when expectations rise, while capacity remains the same;
- In progressive deprivation when after increase of expectations and the capabilities in the same level for a certain period, there is a sudden loss of capacity.

Theory based on “reasons for deliberate choice”. This theory argues that terrorism is not necessary to reflect any mass discontent or deep social divisions and changes of society. It is more likely that it is the discontent of certain fragment of the criminal elite that wants to take control into their own hands. Also, according to this theory, the terrorism is an effective strategy for small organizations that want to attract attention, provoke the authorities,

² See. Domaranchik, H. Terrorism. S., 1981

² See. Carr, K. Lessons of Terror. S. 2002.

their immediate opponents and enemies. Deliberate choice theorists believe that terrorism is a gradual increase in commitment to the aims of the terrorist group, rather than responding to some inner call to terror.

Postmodern theory of “New Terrorism”. The theory launched the idea of the emergence of “new terrorism”, which is much more complex and difficult to monitor and penetrate by the services for internal order and security. The difference consists essentially in the structure of the terrorist organizations. While the old organizations are strictly hierarchical, with clear command structures, the “new terrorism” is characterized by amorphous, free, implanted in the community cells who act as “freelance amateurs”.

The analysis of these theories tells us that terrorism is not a new phenomenon and the historical review shows that many groups and individuals are engaged in terrorist acts since ancient times.

International terrorism attracts attention of researchers from different disciplines and fields. International law and international law science has long been dealing with cooperation on prevention, prosecution and punishment of different crimes classified as international terrorism. In this regard, currently there are 13 universal conventions with protocols to some conventions and 8 regional organizations to combat terrorism. As a result of snowballing increase of the acts of terrorism, the research in this area and the rulemaking in this matter also gained new dimensions. The majority of the recent studies relate to the issues concerning the definition of the term “international terrorism”, taking into account the difficulties related to achieving a common approach by anti-terrorist coalition in the fight against terrorism. The issue of the definition of “international terrorism” has been addressed and debated repeatedly including the definition created by the resolution 51/210 of the UN General Assembly Committee on Counter Terrorism, where it was discussed on the draft of the Comprehensive convention on international terrorism and, on the basis of numerous discussions and refinement of the various proposals, the International Convention for Suppression of Acts of Nuclear Terrorism was created.

Alongside the UN, the European Union also participates actively in the efforts of the international community for the development of operational mechanisms to combat terrorism.

Also in the **Maastricht Treaty**, which created the “third pillar” of the EU - Cooperation on justice and home affairs, the main instruments of counter-terrorism and police cooperation in this field were listed.

In this regard, one of the barriers for restriction of the movement of the terrorists is the **Schengen agreement on border controls between member states, which came into force in 1995**. This Agreement constitutes the base for reliable control of the borders of the European Union and the channels for penetration of criminal groups including terrorist are limited. In

compliance with the provisions of this agreement a database of suspects is maintained and information is exchanged between the police forces of member states of the European Union, especially with regard to the illegal trade in radioactive substances and money laundering which could be used by terrorist organizations.

The Council of Europe also takes part in the fight against terrorism. Under its patronage the European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism of 1977 has been adopted, by which it was made an attempt for claiming terrorism as a criminal and punishable act.

Based on international conventions adopted by the UN (i.e. the Convention on Suppression of Unlawful Seizure of Aircraft from the Hague - 1970 and the Convention on Suppression of Unlawful Acts against the Safety of the Civil Aviation of Montreal - 1971) the European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism specifies the types of terrorist activities (i.e. using grenades against the security of third parties, hijacking of airplanes, etc.) and the perpetrators must be subjected to extradition to stand trial in the concerned country.

The European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism was signed in Strasbourg on 27th January 1977. The history of drafting the convention dates back to 1973. During its 25th session in May 1973, the Consultative Assembly adopt the recommendation 703 (1973) on international terrorism. It condemns international terrorist acts regardless of the cause and requires severe punishment for serious crimes constituting murder or endangering innocent lives. The Recommendation invites the Committee of Ministers to invite Member States to establish a common definition of “political crime” in order to be denied any “political justification” when a terrorist act threatens the lives of innocent people. The Committee of Ministers considered this recommendation and on its 53rd meeting on January 24th 1974 adopted the Resolution (743) about international terrorism. The basic idea is to overcome qualifications like “political” used for some severe crimes for which an extradition could not be required previously. Countries that receive demands for extradition are recommended to take into account the particular gravity of these acts. If a government does not have the practice to extradite, it should submit the case to its competent authorities for prosecution. It is known that some member states of the Council of Europe have restricted jurisdiction as far as crimes committed abroad are concerned. In these cases it is recommended to predict that the terrorist must undergo neither extradition nor prosecution.

At the meeting of the Ministers of Justice of the member states at the Council of Europe in Obernai, France on the 22nd May 1975, the emphasis was put to the need of coordinated actions in this field. It was also noted that at that moment terrorist acts had local dimensions, i.e. they were committed

with specific “political” purposes within the member states of the Council of Europe. This could threaten the very existence of a country by paralysis of the democratic institutions, and to inflict a crushing blow to the rule of law. A call for relevant European actions has been made.

European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism has been brought by a committee of government experts under the auspices of the European Committee about Crime Problems (European Committee on Crime Problems - ECCP). The Committee of governmental experts was proposed by the ESRB on its 24th session in May 1975 and it was approved by the Committee of Ministers on its 246th meeting in June 1975. The Committee delivered the draft convention of two workshops (6th to 8th October 1975 and 2nd to 6th February 1976). It was presented of the 25th session of ESRB in May, 1976, where it has been decided that the work of the committee will be forwarded to the Committee of Ministers for approval. In November 1976 the Committee of Ministers approved the text and opened the Convention for signature by the Member States. In the explanatory report attached by the European Convention on combating terrorism, were given different explanations that help to analyze the motives, objectives and approaches of the European Member States of the CoE. The basic objective of the Convention was to contribute to the elimination of terrorism by complementing and, where necessary, by amending the existing agreements on extradition and mutual assistance agreements among the Member States of the CoE, including the European Convention for Extradition of 13th December 1957 and the European Convention for Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters of 20th April 1959. In the explanatory report to the European Convention on combating terrorism it was explicitly emphasized the “de-politicized” nature of the crimes under Art.1 and 2 of the Convention. For the purposes of this Convention, extradition must be applied with respect to the human rights not only to the accused or convicted of acts of terrorism, but also to the victims or potential victims of such acts.

On the other hand, with the European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism, the possibility of the requested State to invoke the political nature of a crime to oppose the extradition request is eliminated. This objective is achieved by the provision that for the purposes of extradition, certain crimes will not be considered as “political” (Article 1) and certain other crimes specified in Art. 2 cannot be regarded as political, regardless of their political content or motivation.

Although there are positions expressed by a number of states that certain provisions in the European Convention on combating terrorism violate basic human rights, the Convention should be interpreted as one that enhances the protection of fundamental human rights. This was clear from the Explanatory Report, which noted that one objective of the European

Convention on combating terrorism is to preserve the traditional right of asylum.

The Convention and the Explanatory Report note that all Member States of the CoE have ratified the ECHR and thus, the prosecution, punishment or discrimination against people because of their race, religion, nationality or political opinion is unacceptable. By amending the Protocol of 15th May 2003 the mechanism for combating terrorism was improved, by creating a new body: the Conference of States Members against Terrorism (COSTER), consisting of one expert appointed by each Contracting State and these experts meet once a year in ordinary sessions. Extraordinary meetings can be held on request of the Secretary General of the CoE or at least of one third of the Contracting States.

Convention for Prevention of Terrorism – Warsaw

The Convention for Prevention of Terrorism signed in Warsaw on May 16th 2005, was the last regional treaty concerning the prevention of terrorism made under the auspices of the Council of Europe. The Convention is a solid, swift and resolute response to the terrorist attacks of September 11th 2001 in the USA. On November 8th 2001 the Multidisciplinary Working Group for international action against terrorism started its work, with the task to review and analyze the possibilities for upgrading of the existing international instruments that CoE has for combating terrorism. As a result of this action, on 13th February 2003 the Committee of Ministers approved the Protocol, amending the European Convention for Suppression of Terrorism which was opened for signature on 15th May 2003. An important element in the development of the **Convention for Prevention of Terrorism** is the 25th Conference of European Ministers of Justice held in Sofia on 9th and 10th October 2003. On the conference it was proposed the establishing of a Committee of Experts on Terrorism (CODEXTER), which will provide the Committee of Ministers with its opinion on the value of a future comprehensive convention on terrorism CoE and its contribution to the efforts of the United Nations in this area. On June 11th 2004, the Committee of Ministers delegated special powers to CODEXTER. It should develop one or more instruments with specific scope of dealing with the existing gaps in the international law or action against terrorism. After many workshops and consultations, CODEXTER adopted the text of the Convention on the second reading, at its 17th meeting (February 2005). In late February was presented the text of the draft Convention and the explanatory report thereto, to the Committee of Ministers. The purpose of the convention was to strengthen countries' efforts to prevent terrorism and its negative consequences for full implementation of human rights and the right to protection of life in

particular. The convention complements other international standards related to the common goal of preventing and combating international terrorism. The preamble of the convention stresses that it is directed primarily to the adoption of effective measures to prevent terrorism and particularly public provocation, recruitment and training of terrorists. In the preamble a great concern is also expressed about the increase of terrorist crimes and terrorist threats and the solidarity for the victims of terrorism and their families is stressed. All countries are called to prevent such crimes and, if unable to prevent them, to pursue them and provide punishments which takes into account the serious nature of their crimes. The preamble also provides a theoretical basis for definition of “international terrorism” – **“Acts of terrorism are intended by their nature or context to seriously frighten the population or to compel illegally a government or an international organization to do or to refrain from any action or to seriously destabilize or destroy the fundamental political, constitutional, economic or social structures of a country or an international organization”**. From the analysis of this Convention it is clear that innovations in the Convention are the definitions of “public provocation to commit a terrorist crime” and “recruitment and training in terrorism”. According to Article 5, paragraph 1, “public provocation to commit a terrorist offense” means spreading or in any other way making available messages to the public with the intent to incite a terrorist crime, when such a conduct directly or indirectly supports terrorist crimes, causing a risk of one or more such crimes. Each Party shall take appropriate measures to investigate “public provocation to commit a terrorist offense, as defined in Article 5, paragraph 1, when carried out unlawfully and intentionally, as a crime according to its domestic law (Art.5 and 2). Further, the purpose of the convention is to calm the indirect provocations and with this to fill the existing gap in the international law or the actions against terrorism. “Recruitment for terrorism” implies to urge another person to commit or participate in terrorist crime or to join an association or group for the purpose of contributing to the performance of one or more terrorist offenses by the association or the group (Art. 6 and 1). Each party will also be criminalized according to its domestic law on “recruitment for terrorism” as defined in Article 6, paragraph 1, when committed unlawfully and intentionally (Art. 6, Para. 2). Recruitment may be preceded or accompanied by incitement of ethnic or religious tensions. It can provide the basis for distribution of hostile speeches and to encourage ideologies conducive to terrorism. This provision requires the parties to criminalize the recruitment of potential terrorists, understood as a request to commit a terrorist crime individually or collectively, regardless of the form of complicity. **“The training of terrorism”** under Art.7, Para.1 means to provide instructions for production and use of explosives, firearms or other weapons or noxious or

hazardous substances or other specific training methods and techniques for carrying out or contributing to a terrorist crime, knowing that these skills are designed to be used for this purpose. These acts must also be criminalized under the domestic law of the States parties, when committed unlawfully and intentionally. The Convention also contains definitions of “weapons”, “firearm”, “explosives” and “harmful and dangerous substances”.

Another innovation in the Council of Europe’s Convention for Prevention of Terrorism is the so called victimization that occurs relatively late in the universal conventions against terrorism. This means protection, compensation and supporting the victims of terrorism, which is set out in Art. 13. Victimization is also established as an obligation of the States Parties to the Convention: **“Each Party shall adopt such measures as it may be necessary to protect and support victims of terrorism, which was carried out of their own territory. These measures may be included by appropriate national schemes and subjects of the domestic law, *inter alia*, financial support and compensation to the victims of terrorism, and close members of their families.”** This provision complies with the latest developments of the international law and the growing concern for the victims of the terrorism. It is also reflected in the European Convention on compensating victims of violent crimes (Art. 2) in the Guiding lines for human rights and combating terrorism and the additional Guidelines for the victims of terrorism, at regional level. At an international level, this principle is embodied in Res. 1566 (2004) of 8th October 2004 and in the International Convention for Suppression of the Financing of the Terrorism (Art.8, Para.4).

Each and every State Party shall be subjected to the following rules laid down in Art. 14. It establishes a series of criteria which are based on similar provisions in most international conventions against terrorism and the Convention on Cyber crime. Each Party shall take such measures that may be necessary, regarding to the offenses set out in the Convention:

- when the offense is committed **within the country**;
- when the offense is committed **on board a vessel flying under the flag of that country or on board an aircraft registered under the laws on that country**;
- When the offense is committed by a citizen of this country.

Each Party may also establish its jurisdiction over the offenses set out in the Convention:

- Where the crime is directed against or arising out of an offense defined in Art. 1 of this Convention **on the territory of or against a citizen of that State**;

- When the offense is geared directly or stems from an offense specified in Art. 1 of this Convention **against a State or government facility of that State abroad, including diplomatic and consular premises of that country;**
- when the offense is geared directly or derived from a crime that is referred in Art. 1 of this Convention, performed **in an attempt to compel that party to perform or refrain from making any act;**
- when the offense is committed by **a stateless person** who has his habitual residence in that country;
- When the offense is **committed on board an aircraft which is managed (operated) by the government of that country** (paragraph 2).

The overall analysis of the Council of Europe Convention for Prevention of Terrorism shows that it clearly distinguished “internal” from “international” terrorism.

According to Art.16, this Convention shall not apply where any of the offenses established in accordance with Art. 5 to 7 and 9 were carried out within a country, the alleged offender is a citizen of this country and no other state has grounds regarding to Art. 14, Para.1 and 2 of this Convention, to exercise jurisdiction where of course the provisions of Art.17 and 20 to 22 of the convention shall apply to those cases. These are crimes, “public provocation to commit a terrorist crime”, “recruitment” and “training in terrorism” and the enabling of crime: inciting, organizing or directing others to commit crimes, and also the trial of them. In these cases, only the State is responsible and they can be prosecuted under its domestic law.

In accordance with the obligation for establishing liability of legal persons regarding to the Convention, cooperation between Member States Parties in this area is also provided. According to Art.17, Para.3, they will cooperate to the limit regarding to the relevant law, contracts, agreements and arrangements of the requested State to investigation or proceedings relating to crime, in which the legal person may be responsible in accordance with Art.10 of the Convention in the requesting country.

Moreover, the State Parties are given a broad opportunity to establish additional mechanisms for sharing information or evidence necessary to ascertain criminal, civil or administrative liability of legal persons. The issues of extradition and prosecution are set out in detail in Art.18 and 19 of the Convention. The Convention for Suppression of Terrorism provides two types of return: conditional and unconditional. The conditional extradition concerns a party that receives the request for extradition from another country with no extradition treaty. The norm is given operative and provides only legal options. The decision for extradition is made by the competent

authority of the country. It may submit that decision to conditions imposed by national law, for example, that the subject of extradition will not be exposed to capital punishment in the requesting country. The unconditional extradition is governed by Art. 19, Para.3: „Countries that do not make extradition subject to a treaty are to recognize the crimes set out in Art.5 to 7 and Art. 9 of this Convention as crimes subjected to extradition between them, subjected to the conditions laid down by the law to the Requested Party”.

The aim of the founders of the Convention was to facilitate international cooperation, to maximize the performance of the prosecution and to cover all cases of extradition for terrorist crimes that have remained unpunished.

The Council of Europe’s Convention for Prevention of Terrorism is conceived as a tool against the international terrorism, which is available to a wide range of countries. First, it is given for signature by Member States of the Council of Europe, then, to the European Community and in third place to the non-member States which, however, participated in its elaboration (Art. 23, Para. 1). This provision is designed to attract the maximum number of interested countries to become Parties.

The territorial effect of the Convention for Prevention of Terrorism is analogous to the modified by the Protocol of 15th May 2003 of the European Convention on Suppression of Terrorism. Any State or the European Community may, at the time of signature or when depositing their instruments of ratification, acceptance, approval (confirmation), or accession, specify the territory or territories to which the Convention shall apply (Art. 25, Para. 1). Each party may at any later date, by declaration address to the Secretary-General to extend the application of this Convention to any other territory specified in the declaration. With regard to such territory, the Convention shall enter in force of the first day of the month in a period of 3 months after the date of receipt of the declaration by the Secretary General (Art. 25, Para. 2). Every such declaration may be withdrawn by notification addressed to the Secretary General of the CoE. The withdrawal will take effect from the first day of the month following the expiration of 3 months after the date of receipt of such notification by the Secretary General (Art. 25, Para. 3).

In this case the Convention for Prevention of Terrorism aims to supplement, not to repeal existing multilateral treaties. Therefore, Para.1 simply indicates a series of conventions of the CoE, which are changed by a following international treaty. Therefore, on general matters, such agreements and arrangements should in principle be applied by the Parties to the Convention for Prevention of terrorism. Regarding the specific matter

with which the last convention dealt, the rule *Lex Specialis derogate Legi Generali* must be in force.

The analysis shows that the Convention was built on the latest trends in the international law-making and the fight against terrorism. Permits have been adopted on international and regional (European) law level.

Conclusion

In recent years, in response to terrorist threats, the international community has taken timely and largely adequate counterterrorism measures.

From the analysis of the applied measures, were outlined the contours of the new world order that will be built on the principles of the international law, the widespread touchdown on the international security structures and cooperation between the countries. But despite the expectations, the recent years are characterized by the emergence and escalation of conflicts with ethnic and religious backgrounds and related to them forms of terrorism.

To prevent these conflicts, a constant interaction between the legislative, executive and the judiciary is necessary in identifying risk factors, development on planning and coordinating documents, mobilizing efforts to maintain readiness in the system of bodies, forces and means for countering terrorism.

REFERENCES

1. Domaranchik, H. "The Terrorism" S., 1981.
2. Dimitrov, Zlatko and Georgieva, Ekterina. "Some international aspects of the issue of human rights in the context of combating international terrorism", the journal "Contemporary Law", Vol.3 / 2003
3. Dragiev, Alexander. "International justice. International Arbitration and International Court of Justice"
4. Drumeva, Emilia and Kamenova, Tsvetana. "Human rights"
5. Girginov, Anton. "Comments on Law on Extradition of June 2005", the journal "Legal Thought", Vol. 3 / 2005.

SOME ASPECTS OF THE TRUST AMONG MACEDONIAN CITIZENS RELATED TO SECURITY AND SAFETY ISSUES

Antoanela Petkovska, Ph.D

antoanela@fzf.ukim.edu.mk

Konstantin Minoski, Ph.D.,

konstantin@fzf.ukim.edu.mk

Mihajlo Popovski

mihajlo@fzf.ukim.edu.mk

Faculty of Philosophy, Institute of Psychology - Skopje

Aleksandar Jovanoski

aleksandarjovanoski3@gmail.com

UKLO, Faculty of Law - Kicevo

Abstract

The paper presents the results regarding the trust of Macedonian citizens in a certain number of national and international institutions based on the data collected within the framework of the international survey project European Values Survey in 2008. Apart from that, it also analyzes the connection of trust with certain socio-demographic features, positions and value preferences and it reviews the possible indirect impact of trust expressed in several aspects of security and safety in the Republic of Macedonia. It has been established that the survey respondents, generally speaking, have a relatively low level of trust in the assessed institutions and that the level of their trust varies more in the cases of national than in the case of the international institutions. The analyses also detect the existence of significant interconnection of trust with gender, age and level of education, religiousness and religious background of the respondents. Furthermore, some contradictions have been established in regard to the connection of trust with certain positions and value preferences for the possible ways of ruling with the state and it has been concluded that the absence of stable and coherent democratic ideological matrix could represent a challenge for stability and safety of our society.

Key words: trust, safety, security

Introduction

The complex network of factors which determine the stability of a society incorporates the citizens' trust in its institutions, and especially in the institutions that are directly or indirectly related to ensuring secure and safe life. The trust in people and institutions in the last few decades is in the focus of surveys conducted by a number of social sciences, among which sociology and psychology played an important part. For many authors, no society can function properly without this trust (Good, 1988), and without trust, lasting and stable social relations are also impossible (Seligman, 1997). According to Zucker, "trust is a set of expectations shared by all segments involved in the exchange, including broad social rules and legitimately activated processes" (Zucker, 1986:54). Putnam believes that intensive cooperation strengthens trust and at the same time it is one of the fundamental preconditions or premises for good collaboration among people (Putnam, 2003). Trust is a complex process of social interaction that makes people face the risk from actions undertaken by other individuals or social groups and it encompasses the expectations for future developments. Sztompka concludes that "...trust is intimately linked to uncontrollability of the future; it comes to our aid when we do not have complete control over future events, as long as those are humanly created" (Sztompka, 2003:20).

In the contemporary theoretical paradigms, trust is linked to the risk that has two manifested forms: natural (external) risk and produced risk which is caused by the actions of humans. For the produced risk Sztompka says that it activates or establishes our choices, actions and decisions (Sztompka, 2003). In this context Beck - the creator of the syntagma "risky society" - considers that people cannot avoid the destiny of being exposed to risk regardless of the contemporary civilisation achievements. The very notion of risky society points at a phase in the evolution of contemporary societies, in which all types of risks are avoided successfully by control of the appropriate social, economic and political institutions. Beck sees risk as the dominating force in the history of society, as well as the central issue of modern culture (Beck, 1992, Beck et al, 1994).

Trust and risk are also interconnected in the abstract level. For example, Giddens claims that "with the development of abstract systems, trust in impersonal principles, as well as in anonymous others, becomes indispensable to social existence" (Giddens, 1991:120). Even more abstract case of this interconnection is evident in the trust in institutions and organisations (schools, universities, army, church, court, police, banks, etc.), which are seen as specific structural solutions within which actions and interactions of different entities happen (Sztompka, 2003).

According to Mollering, the concept of trust in the systems could be linked to the idea of trust in institutions. This trust in institutions could be

treated as trust in their proper internal functioning as well as trust in the manifested forms of their activities (Mollering, 2006).

The fascination with the trust phenomenon, according to Seligman, originates from the fact that its nature in contemporary societies changes intensively and that its significance is fundamental for democratic societies. More specifically the relation or the connection of trust with the legitimisation in the contemporary democratic societies is represented by Seligman in the following way: “The emphasis in modern societies on consensus, the ideology of pragmatism, problem-solving, and technocratic expertise, as well as conflict management (as opposed to ideological fission), are all founded on an image of society based on interconnected networks of trust - among citizens, families, voluntary organizations, religious denominations, civic associations, and the like. Similarly the very “legitimation” of modern societies is founded on the “trust” of authority and of governments as generalizations of trust on the primary, interpersonal level.” (Seligman, 1997:13)

Sztompka (Sztompka, 2003) in the trust phenomenon recognises two components: confidence and dedication, which are basically connected to the concepts of cultural capital and social capital. Acquired knowledge, skills, norms, values and status which have an impact of the level and type of social inclusion of people, are commonly recognised as *cultural capital* (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1979). *Social capital* on the other hand implies a set of horizontal associations among people on which depends the level of integration and productivity of society (Putnam, 2003); or a system of norms, networks and organisations through which the individuals and social groups can have an access to centres of power, to use them for their own interests.

Finally, the significance of trust (in other people, groups and institutions) is linked to the possibility of having an active attitude towards the social living. The higher level of trust drives people towards cooperation that has a positive impact on social cohesion and on creating conditions for the people to feel safer and more secure.

Based on these attitudes, the issues that are the subject of this paper’s analysis refer to the expectation that the citizens of the Republic of Macedonia would have a high level of trust in institutions that are relevant for the safety and security and that their trust in these institutions would correspond to the principle value preferences of the democratic social order. The responses to these questions in this paper are based on data collected in the international research project *European Values Survey* carried out in almost all European countries including the Republic of Macedonia, in 2008.

Method

Sample. The survey was carried out on 1500 respondents from eight statistical regions in the Republic of Macedonia (Eastern North-eastern, Pelagonija, Polog, Skopje, South-eastern, South-western and Vardar regions). The average age of the respondents was 43 years and according to the gender 56.4% of them were men and 43.6% were women. Most of the respondents had secondary school education (56.4%), and the others had college or university education (22.9%), incomplete or complete primary education (18.1%), and only a very small percentage had no formal education (1.3%). According to the religion background almost all the participants belonged to a certain religion, 79.4% declared to be Orthodox Christians and 18.3% Muslims. In regard to their employment status, more than half of the respondents were unemployed (58.8%) and the rest were employed (41.2%). Almost all the respondents were of Macedonian nationality and citizenship (99.2%).

Instrument. The data were collected by using a standardised questionnaire created for the needs of the *European Values Survey* project. For the needs of this paper the responses to only a certain number of questions were analysed, specifically those that referred to the socio-demographic features of the respondents, questions about their trust in a certain number of national and international institutions and their attitudes and value preferences to various ways of ruling with the state. The data were collected individually, in the respondents' homes in the period between July and September 2008.

Results and discussion

The trust in institutions (national and international) that are relevant for security and safety in the Republic of Macedonia was surveyed in respect to the trust expressed by the respondents in regard to various social institutions, starting from religious ones up to public and economic institutions. Institutions relevant for the security and safety are: the army, the police, the legal system, the Parliament, the political parties, the Government, the United Nations, the European Union and NATO. The level of trust in these institutions is established on a four degree scale with values between 1 and 4 (1 - not at all, 2 - not very much, 3 - quite a lot and 4 - a great deal). The arithmetic means and the standard deviations of the expressed trust are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Arithmetic means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of trust in national and international institutions*

Institution	M	SD
Army	2.92	0.87
Police	2.56	0.92
Legal System	2.17	0.90
Parliament	2.36	0.90
Political parties	2.07	0.91
Government	2.43	0.97
United Nations	2.51	1.03
European Union	2.50	1.03
NATO	2.48	1.06

The average values of the expressed trust clearly show the existence of two tendencies: first, the respondents have a small to moderate trust in the assessed institutions; and second, the respondents do not have equal trust in the institutions, and this especially goes for the national institutions. The existence of small to average level of trust in all the assessed institutions is not typical only for the Macedonian citizens, but also for the citizens of other countries encompassed in this survey. Namely, the comparative analysis of trust in the same institutions expressed by the citizens of several Balkan countries (Bulgaria, Serbia, Croatia, and Slovenia) shows that they also have a relatively low level of trust and in regard to certain institutions their trust is even smaller than the one of the Macedonian citizens. For example the average values of trust in the army are as follows: from M = 2.32 (Bulgaria), M = 2.34 (Serbia), M = 2.43 (Croatia) up to M = 2.67 (Slovenia), while the average values of trust in the police start from M = 2.13 (Bulgaria), M = 2.21 (Serbia), M = 2.28 (Croatia) up to M = 2.68 (Slovenia).

In regard to the second tendency, it is evident that the army and the police are most trusted, the Parliament and the Government are less trusted, but the trust in the legal system and the political parties is the least. One of the possible reasons for the higher level of trust in the army and the police should be sought in their perception of these institutions as more organised and more functional. Furthermore, it is possible that these institutions are seen as a guaranty not only of social but also of personal security and safety. As an indirect confirmation of this possibility is also the finding about the connection between trust and resentment towards certain groups of people.

For instance the respondents who do not want to have or fear having in their vicinity people inclined to criminal activities, expressed high level of trust in the army and the police.

Unlike the trust in the national institutions, the respondents have shown smaller variability in the level of trust in the international institutions (the average values of trust vary between $M = 2.48$ and $M = 2.51$). The respondents' attitudes towards these institutions are probably generalised and stereotyped, based on insufficient familiarity with the particularities of their positions and activities in the international relations.

Looking into the connection of trust in regard to all the assessed institutions with certain socio-demographic features of the respondents, we came across numerous significant differences and interconnections. For example, there is a difference between **women and men** in regard to their trust in the army, the police, the political parties, the Government, the EU and in NATO. Namely, the women unlike the men have greater trust in the army ($t = 2.27, p < 0.05; M_M = 2.87, M_F = 2.98$) and in the police ($t = 2.16, p < 0.05; M_M = 2.52, M_F = 2.62$). The men on the other hand expressed greater trust in the following institutions: political parties ($t = 3.04, p < 0.01; M_M = 2.13, M_F = 1.98$); Government ($t = 3.50, p < 0.01; M_M = 2.51, M_F = 2.33$); EU ($t = 2.38, p < 0.05; M_M = 2.56, M_F = 2.42$) and NATO ($t = 2.01, p < 0.051; M_M = 2.53, M_F = 2.42$). The reasons for the existence of such differences in the trust between women and men should be sought among others in the stereotyped gender roles in our society. One of the characteristics in shaping the gender role of woman is emphasising the importance of external sources of protection for her safety and security (for ex. in this case the army and the police). For the gender role of man on the other hand, it is typical for him to be prepared to go into competition, i.e. conquering social positions and social power (political parties, Government).

The respondents also show different trust in the institutions depending on their **age**. The older respondents have greater trust in the army ($r = 0.11^{**}$)¹ and in the police ($r = 0.09^{**}$), and the younger ones in the UN ($r = -0.16^{**}$), EU ($r = -0.13^{**}$) and NATO ($r = -0.15^{**}$). In regard to the **educational level** of the respondents it was established that the respondents with lower level of education have greater trust in: the army ($r = -0.09^{**}$), the police ($r = -0.13^{**}$) and the Assembly ($r = -0.07^{**}$). The respondents with higher level of education have greater trust only in the UN ($r = 0.06^*$).

Other socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents for whom differences were established in regard to the trust are their **religiousness and religion background**. The respondents who identify themselves as religious

¹ Two asterisks (**) mean significance on 0.01 level, while one asterisk (*) means significance on 0.05 level.

individuals unlike those who are not religious expressed greater trust in all the assessed institutions (army: $t = 6.10, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.99, M_{nr} = 1.95$; police: $t = 3.80, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.61, M_{nr} = 2.36$; legal system: $t = 4.17, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.23, M_{nr} = 1.95$; Parliament: $t = 3.92, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.41, M_{nr} = 2.16$; political parties: $t = 2.70, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.10, M_{nr} = 1.92$; Government: $t = 3.74, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.48, M_{nr} = 2.22$; UN: $t = 3.81, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.56, M_{nr} = 2.27$; EU: $t = 3.74, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.54, M_{nr} = 2.25$; NATO: $t = 4.27, p < 0.01$; $M_r = 2.53, M_{nr} = 2.19$) However, when the religious respondents are compared in regard to their religious background - Christians and Muslims - the direction of differences changes. The Christians show greater trust in national institutions and the Muslims on the other hand have greater trust in international institutions¹ (army: $t = 5.48, p < 0.01$; $M_h = 3.03, M_M = 2.72$; police: $t = 4.28, p < 0.01, M_h = 2.66, M_M = 2.40$; legal system: $t = 2.08, p < 0.05, M_h = 2.18, M_M = 2.30$; Parliament: $t = -1.47, p < 0.14, M_h = 2.38, M_M = 2.47$; political parties: $t = -3.75, p < 0.01, M_h = 2.05, M_M = 2.28$; Government: $t = -0.24, p < 0.05, M_h = 2.44, M_M = 2.58$; UN: $t = 12.90, p < 0.01, M_h = 2.37, M_M = 3.23$; EU: $t = -13.61, p < 0.01, M_h = 2.35, M_M = 3.26$; NATO: $t = -15.99, p < 0.01, M_h = 2.30, M_M = 3.38$)

When looking into the connection of trust in the institutions with certain positions and value preferences about possible ways of ruling in our country, a number of discrepancies and inconsistencies were detected in regard to the theoretically expected consistencies. For example, to a certain number of questions the respondents had an opportunity to express their position about four ways of ruling with the state: a) to have a strong leader who will not be preoccupied with the parliament and elections; b) to have experts and not a government who will make decisions based on what they consider to be best for the country; c) to have army that will rule the country and d) to have a democratic political system. (The position on each of the ways of ruling was expressed on a value scale from 1 to 4 where 1 - means a very bad way of ruling, and 4 - a very good one). While the expectations were that people who prefer the democratic political system should also have a more affirmative attitude towards democratic institutions, and to be more neutral or even have negative attitude towards institutions that imply a high level of hierarchical structure and force, the results did not fully confirm that fact. It was discovered that the respondents who considered the democratic system to be the most suitable way of ruling with our country had neither trust nor distrust in the institutions with exceptions only in the case of the police for which they expressed significantly lower level of trust. Unlike

¹ Having in mind that the questionnaire has not provided data on the ethnic background of the respondents one cannot be certain in claiming that these tendencies are typical for the two biggest ethnic communities in our country, the Macedonian and the Albanian, even though this possibility at first glance looks real.

them, all the other respondents i.e. respondents who believe that the other three above mentioned ways of ruling with the state are more suitable for our country express significantly greater level of trust in all the assessed institutions. It shows that they have no defined attitude towards the institutions of the system, which is probably due to the absence of consistent value priorities in regard to the basic determinants of democratic social order.

The absence of stable and coherent democratic ideological matrix could be an important challenge for the stability and safety of any society, including ours. Hence, it is necessary to invest continued efforts for systematic affirmation and development of democratic relations in all spheres of social living. It also means creating conditions for more differentiated and more critical attitude of the citizens towards the institutions of the social order. With their more active involvement in establishing and realising the generally accepted goals, the feeling of safety would increase as well as the perseverance in dealing with the risks from inconsistencies in the democracy development.

Apart from that, it is evident that the established relatively low level of trust in the institutions encompassed with this survey cannot be a good foundation for overcoming a number of manifested forms of alienation and anomie of the Macedonian society and for overcoming the apathy and feeling of diminished security and safety among its citizens. The reasons for this situation are numerous and multilayered and probably should be sought in the so-called “cultural trauma” caused by the transition from one to another social system; furthermore in the real state of non functioning of the institutions of the system and the consequences that in that context the citizens feel as a real existential challenge (poverty, unemployment, increased political instability, etc.); in the involvement and influence of international relations of the Republic of Macedonia as well as within the processes of globalisation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Beck, U. 1992. *Risk Society*. London: Sage.
2. Beck, U., A. Giddens, and Lash, S. 1994. *Reflexive Modernization*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
3. Bourdieu, P. and Passeron, J.C. 1979. *The Inheritors, French Students and their Relation to Culture*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
4. Giddens, A. 1991. *Modernity and Self-Identity*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press.

5. Good, D. 1988. "Individuals, interpersonal relations, and trust." Pp. 31-48 in *Trust: Making and Breaking Cooperative relations*, edited by D. Gambetta. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
6. Mollering, G. 2006. *Trust: Reason, Routine, Reflexivity*. Amsterdam: Elsevier Ltd.
7. Putnam, R.D. 1995. *Making Democracy Work: Civic traditions in Modern Italy*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
8. Seligman, A. 1997. *The Problem of Trust*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
9. Sztopmka, P. 2003. *A Sociological Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
10. Zucker, L.G. 1986. "Production of trust: institutional sources of economic structure, 1840–1920." Pp. 53-111 in *Research in Organizational Behavior*.

CIP –Каталогизација во публикација
Национална и универзитетска библиотека „Св.Климент
Охридски,, , Скопје

351.74:341.171.071.51(4-672ЕУ:497) (062)

351.74:327.51.071(100-622НАТО:497) (062)

БЕЗБЕДНОСТА и евроатланските перспективи на Балканот :
полициските науки и полициската професија (состојби и перспективи) :
Меѓународна научна конференција, 25-26 мај 2012, Охрид / (уредник на
изданието Цане Мојаноски ; преведувач Анче Белата, Александра
Тодору) = Security and euroatlantic perspectives of the Balkans : police
science and police profession (states and perspectives):
International scientific conference, 25-26 May 2012, Ohrid/ (editor
In chief Cane Mojanoski ; translators Anche Belada, Aleksandra
Todoru). – Скопје : Факултет за безбедност ; = Skopje : Faculty of
security, 2012. – 2св. (501 ; 573 стр.) : табели ; 25 см

Текст на мак. и англ. јазик. – фусноти кон текстот. –
Библиографија
кон трудовите

ISBN 978-608-4532-27-9 (Т. 1)

ISBN 978-608-4532-28-6 (Т. 2)

1.Насп. ств. насл.

а) Балкан – Зачленување – Европска унија – фактори – Полиција
– Собири б) Балкан- Зачленување – НАТО – Фактори – Полиција –
Собири

COBISS.MK-ID 92748298