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LAW ENFORCEMENT

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Encyclopedia of
LAW ENFORCEMENT

Volume 3
International

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Child Welfare
Commission on the Accreditation of
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Federal Law Enforcement Officers
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Fraternal Organizations
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Introduction

Security is now and has always been the primary function of government. All societies require some form of law enforcement capability to function effectively. Throughout history, governments of all types have relied on either public police agencies or informal means to effect conformity to social norms, standards, and laws. Given how essential law enforcement is to society, it is surprising how little we really know about how it actually functions. The job of law enforcement is always complex and sometimes dangerous. Police function under much public scrutiny, yet the complexities of what police do and why they do it rarely come to our attention. Readers of this encyclopedia will be introduced to the vagaries and nuances of the field, because it is critical to have a more informed citizenry so that when issues concerning public safety come to our attention, as they do on an almost daily basis, we can judge the situation fairly and wisely.

We cannot strictly equate policing with law enforcement in general, but what we do know on the subject is primarily based on policing in large urban settings. So far, few reference works have been published on law enforcement in the federal, state, local, rural, or private sectors. Our knowledge of international and comparative law enforcement is almost nonexistent, and policing in Western democracies can be qualitatively different from policing in emerging countries or other areas using different legal systems. In many countries, law enforcement—indeed, government itself—is almost entirely lacking. In

worst-case scenarios, police are used primarily as a force of terror to keep dictators in power. Regimes fall and rise daily, and people find themselves in lawless and violent states. In the early 21st century alone, we can think of such states as Afghanistan, Iraq, Somalia, and Haiti, to name only a few, that find themselves without effective policing powers.

Although there is a plethora of studies on crime and punishment, law enforcement as a field of serious research in academic and scholarly circles is only in its second generation. When we study the courts and sentencing, prisons and jails, and other areas of the criminal justice system, we frequently overlook the fact that the first point of entry into the system is through police and law enforcement agencies. My work in the field of crime and punishment has driven this fact home with a sense of urgency. Approximately 800,000 men and women work in law enforcement in the United States alone, and they are held to higher standards than the rest of us, are often criticized, and function under intense public scrutiny. Ironically, they are the most visible of public servants, and yet, individually, they often work in near obscurity. But their daily actions allow us to live our lives, work, play, and come and go. They are “the thin blue line”—the buffer between us and the forces of disorder.

Our understanding of the important issues in law enforcement has little general literature on which to draw. Currently available reference works on policing are narrowly focused and sorely out of date. Not

only are there few general works on U.S. law enforcement in all its many facets, but the student and general reader will find very little on current international policing. Policing has changed dramatically over the past century, but our general understanding of it comes primarily from the news media and police television shows and movies. The public seems to gain much of its knowledge of policing from popular television shows such as *Law and Order* and the *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation* series. What we see on television is simplistic and conflates within its 42-minute hour a year's worth of police work. Those of us in the academic field of criminal justice research see an urgent need for providing students and the general interested public balanced information on what law enforcement does, with all of its ramifications. Because democracy can remain strong only with an informed public, our goal is to provide the necessary information for an understanding of these institutions dedicated to our safety and security. To this end, we have gathered a distinguished roster of authors, representing many years of knowledge and practice in the field, who draw on the latest research and methods to delineate, describe, and analyze all areas of law enforcement.

The criminal justice field is burgeoning and is one of the fastest growing disciplines in colleges and universities throughout the United States. The *Encyclopedia of Law Enforcement* provides a comprehensive, critical, and descriptive examination of all facets of law enforcement on the state and local, federal and national, and international stages. This work is a unique reference source that provides readers with informed discussions on the practice and theory of policing in a historical and contemporary framework. Each volume treats subjects that are particular to the area of state and local, federal and national, and international policing. Many of the themes and issues of policing cut across disciplinary borders, however, and a number of entries provide comparative information that places the subject in context. The *Encyclopedia of Law Enforcement* is the first attempt to present a comprehensive view of policing and law enforcement worldwide.

It is fitting and appropriate that we present this information in an encyclopedia, traditionally and historically the gateway to the world of knowledge, a gateway that leads to further studies for those who want to pursue this fascinating and important field. The encyclopedia is the most comprehensive, durable, and utilitarian way in which to present a large body of synthesized information to the general public. Encyclopedias trace their beginnings back to *Naturalis Historia* of Pliny the Elder (23–79 A.D.), in which he collected much of the knowledge of his time in numerous volumes. They became standard and necessary reference tools during the Enlightenment with Denis Diderot's *Encyclopédie* in 1772 and the first edition of the monumental *Encyclopedia Britannica* in 1771. These seminal compendia attempted to present an entire body of knowledge to its readers. The modern encyclopedias broke new ground in the transmission of ideas, and over the centuries, they have been updated and improved. Some editions have become classics in themselves, such as the 11th edition of the *Encyclopedia Britannica*.

Specialty encyclopedias are more a phenomenon of the modern age. The field of criminal justice has matured in the past generation, and its monographs and journals present a large body of specialized research from which to draw. The subspecialty of law enforcement, however, has not received the focused treatment of a comprehensive reference work until now. The study of policing and law enforcement has come a long way since the first attempts at police professionalism at the turn of the 20th century. At that time, we also saw the initial professional publications in policing by way of such partisan, anecdotal police histories as Augustine E. Costello's *Our Police Protectors* (1885) on New York and John J. Flinn's *History of the Chicago Police* in 1887. In no way can we call these works scholarly, although they did give us a glimpse into the activities of the local police departments. It was only with the age of general crime commissions, beginning in the 1930s and culminating in the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice in 1967, that we saw the development of a large body of data on police activities. And it was also in the 1960s that the first College of

Police Science was founded at the City University of New York (1964), which became the John Jay College of Criminal Justice in 1966, the foremost college of its kind in the world. Within the decade, journals devoted to the scholarly study of the police were founded, and thus, this academic subspecialty of criminal justice was on the road to professional respectability. In the past 40 years, the field of law enforcement has grown and evolved rapidly.

Law enforcement (or lack thereof) is a complex social and political process that affects everyone. Explanations of its role in society are basic to our understanding of the proper maintenance of social order. Older reference works on policing were limited given the few available sources on which they drew. But a large enough body of scholarly work now exists that a reference work such as this encyclopedia can provide coverage of most U.S. law enforcement concepts, strategies, practices, agencies, and types, as well as the comparative study of world law enforcement systems. Police and law enforcement officers do a variety of things in a day and need to draw on a body of knowledge that includes law, sociology, criminology, social work, and other disciplines. This encyclopedia attempts to answer all the questions on what an officer or an agency, here and abroad, does, but also attempts to explain the reasons for an officer's proper and improper actions. In numerous articles, we also show the development of policing, its functions, the impact of technology and modern culture on law enforcement, and the impact that court decisions have on every facet of the field. Law enforcement worldwide was profoundly affected by the terrorist attacks on New York and Washington on September 11, 2001, and many of the field's methods, concepts, principles, and strategies have changed because of the ubiquity of terrorism. Most of the relevant articles in this encyclopedia reflect these changes. As a reference work, it will be essential reading for anyone interested in the field of law enforcement.

The *Encyclopedia of Law Enforcement* offers the professional, the student, and the lay user information unavailable in any other single resource. Its aim is to bring interdisciplinary treatment to the myriad topics that touch on all facets of law enforcement.

To this end, the editors have assembled more than 300 specialists in the field—academics and practitioners alike—to provide the most current treatment on more than 550 topics. These entries range from simple descriptive essays on federal law enforcement agencies to the most sophisticated analysis of contemporary theories of policing. The broadening of the field of law enforcement affected the process of selection of topics. Some selections were driven by theoretical interests, whereas others were practical and more specific. Our goal is to survey the entire field of law enforcement and to be as comprehensive as possible. For ease of use, we have divided the volumes into three areas of law enforcement: state and local, federal and national, and international. Each volume contains a master index. The longest entries cover key issues in law enforcement, large federal agencies, and major countries of the world. Many of the short entries are descriptive, especially when covering a small federal agency police force, or for a smaller country that provides little information on its law enforcement bureaucracy or that has an insignificant law enforcement presence. Some countries, especially those in social and political flux, have been omitted owing to the dearth of information and/or the almost total lack of a police force. Other entries are analytical and cover the most up-to-date theories and philosophies of law enforcement. The main focus of each entry is on currency, although some historical background is usually covered by the author. A glance at the tables of contents gives a good idea of the many perspectives from which a reader can view a given topic. For instance, a brief look at the essay on police accountability leads the reader to investigate the whole panoply of law enforcement, including police impact on constitutional rights, use of force, civilian oversight, theories of policing, and other areas. Given the interrelatedness of these topics, most authors, when possible, treat their subjects using cross-disciplinary or comparative methods. Some authors give a practical viewpoint of law enforcement, whereas others use empirical research and discuss theories and concepts. In general, the encyclopedia combines the disciplines of criminology, sociology, history, law, and political science to

elucidate the most contemporary and up-to-date view of law enforcement as it is practiced and studied in the world today. An encyclopedia of this kind would be incomplete without such comparative and/or cross-disciplinary coverage. As it now stands, it is the most invaluable tool for all who work in or are interested in the field because it brings together in one work the most recent research and practice of law enforcement.

Some of the subjects are controversial, but we have requested that authors cover alternative views evenhandedly and fairly. We did not include any biographical entries, which can be found in the myriad biographical sources available today. But in order to present the most comprehensive coverage possible, important personages are included in the subject entries. All relevant legal cases affecting law enforcement are cited in the text and in the bibliographies. The discussion of legal cases is especially useful for the generalist not trained in the law, and we have attempted to explain these court cases and laws succinctly and concisely. Bibliographies to guide the reader to documentation on the subject and further research are included after each entry. The bibliographies include relevant books, journal articles, scholarly monographs, dissertations, legal cases, newspapers, and Web sites. (A comprehensive reading list is presented at the end of each volume as well). The Reader's Guide classifies the articles into 24 general subject headings for ease of use. For instance, under Terrorism, we have grouped such subjects from Chemical and Biological Terrorism on both the local and national levels to an essay on foreign terrorist groups. Policing Strategies will

guide the reader from the Broken Windows strategy to Zero Tolerance. Entries are organized alphabetically and are extensively cross referenced. The international volume, in addition to presenting all available information on policing in most of the countries of the world, also includes analytical essays on such subjects as Community Policing, Police and Terrorism, History of Policing, and Women in Policing.

It has been a great pleasure working with Sage Publications on this project. I would especially like to thank Rolf Janke, Publisher of Sage Reference; Jerry Westby, Executive Editor; and Benjamin Penner, Associate Editor, for all of their wise counsel in bringing this publication to fruition. I owe a deep debt of gratitude to the administrators, faculty, students, and staff of the John Jay College of Criminal Justice, whose support made this work possible. I could not have worked with three better editors: Marie Simonetti Rosen was responsible for Volume 1, Dorothy Moses Schulz for Volume 2, and M. R. Haberfeld for Volume 3. I also want to thank the members of our editorial board for their valuable assistance during all stages of the project. I owe special thanks to our project manager, Nickie Phillips, for her excellent handling of the numerous technical details that a project of this magnitude entails. None of this could have been done without the assistance of the outstanding librarians of the Lloyd Sealy Library of the John Jay College of Criminal Justice. To them, I owe a deep and lasting debt of gratitude.

Larry E. Sullivan, Editor-in-Chief

About the Editors

Larry E. Sullivan is Chief Librarian and Associate Dean at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice and Professor of Criminal Justice in the doctoral program at the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York. He holds an M.A. and Ph.D. in history from The Johns Hopkins University, an M.S.L.S from the Catholic University in Washington, D.C., and a B.A. from De Paul University in Chicago. He was also a Fulbright Scholar at the University of Poitiers in France where he studied medieval history and literature. Prior to his appointment at John Jay in 1995, he was the Chief of the Rare Book and Special Collections Division at the Library of Congress where he had responsibility for the nation's rare book collection. Previous appointments include Professor and Chief Librarian at Lehman College of the City University of New York, Librarian of the New-York Historical Society, and Head Librarian of the Maryland Historical Society. He first became involved in the criminal justice system when he worked at the Maryland Penitentiary in Baltimore in the late 1970s. That experience prompted him to begin collecting literature written by felons and to write the book *The Prison Reform Movement: Forlorn Hope* (1990 and 2002). A specially bound copy of this book representing the Eighth Amendment was featured at the exhibition of artist Richard Minsky's "The Bill of Rights" series at a number of art galleries in 2002 and 2003. Sullivan's private collection of convict literature has been on public exhibition at the Grolier Club in New York and at

the John Jay College of Criminal Justice. He based his book, *Bandits and Bibles: Convict Literature in Nineteenth Century America* (2003), on these prison writings. He is the author, co-author, or editor of over fifty books and articles in the fields of American and European history, penology, criminal justice, art history, and other subjects, including the above books and *Pioneers, Passionate Ladies, and Private Eyes: Dime Novels, Series, Books and Paperbacks* (1996; with Lydia C. Schurman) and the *New-York Historical Society: A Bicentennial History* (2004). Besides many publications in journals, he has written entries in numerous reference publications over the years, including the *Worldmark Encyclopedia of the States*, *Collier's Encyclopedia*, *Encyclopedia of New York State*, *Encyclopedia of the Prison*, *International Dictionary of Library Histories*, *Dictionary of Library Biography*, *Encyclopedia of Library History*, *Dictionary of Literary Biography*, and the *Dictionary of the Middle Ages*. He serves or has served on a number of editorial boards, including the *Encyclopedia of Crime and Punishment*, the *Handbook of Transnational Crime and Justice*, and the journal *Book History*. Sullivan has delivered papers at meetings of the American Historical Association, the Modern Language Association, the American Society of Criminology, the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences, the Society for the History of Authorship, Reading and Publishing, and the American Library Association, among others. He has consulted on the development of criminal justice libraries and on rare book and manuscript

collections. At John Jay College, in addition to directing the largest and best criminal justice library in the world, he teaches graduate- and doctoral-level courses in Advanced Criminology, Punishment and Responsibility, and the Philosophical and Theoretical Bases of Contemporary Corrections. Work in progress includes the book *Crime, Criminals, and Criminal Law in the Middle Ages*.

Maria (Maki) R. Haberfeld is Associate Professor of Police Science, and Chair of the Department of Law, Police Science, and Criminal Justice Administration at the John Jay College of Criminal Justice in New York City. She was born in Poland and immigrated to Israel as a teenager. She holds two bachelor's degrees, two master's degrees, and a Ph.D. in criminal justice. During her army service in the Israel Defense Force, in which she earned the rank of sergeant, she was assigned to a special counter-terrorist unit that was created to prevent terrorist attacks in Israel. Prior to coming to John Jay, she served in the Israel National Police, in which she earned the rank of lieutenant. She has also worked for the U.S. Drug Enforcement Administration, in the New York Field Office, as a special consultant.

Haberfeld has taught at Yeshiva University and New Jersey City University. Her research interests and publications are in the areas of private and public law enforcement, specifically training, police integrity, and comparative policing (her research involves police departments in the United States, Eastern and Western Europe, and Israel). She has also done some research in the area of white-collar crime, specifically organizational and individual corruption during the Communist era in Eastern Europe. For 3 years (from 1997 to 2000), she was a member of a research team, sponsored by the National Institute of Justice, studying police integrity in three major police departments in the United States. Between 1999 and 2002, she was also a principal investigator on a research project in Poland, sponsored by the National Institute of Justice, where she studied the Polish National Police and its transformation to community-oriented policing. She has received additional grants from the PSC-CUNY Research Foundation to continue her research in

Poland, with particular focus on the balancing act between the public perceptions of the new police reform and rampant accusations of police corruption and lack of integrity.

Haberfeld has recently published a book on police training, *Critical Issues in Police Training* (2002); presented numerous papers on training-related issues during professional gatherings and conferences; and written a number of articles on police training, specifically on police leadership, integrity, and stress. In addition, she has been involved in active training of police officers on issues related to multiculturalism, sensitivity, and leadership, as well as provided technical assistance to a number of police departments in rewriting procedural manuals. She is a member of a number of professional police associations, such as the International Association of Chiefs of Police, International Police Association, and American Society of Law Enforcement Trainers. From 2001 to 2003, she was involved in developing, coordinating, and teaching a special training program for the NYPD. She has developed a graduate course titled "Counter-Terrorism Policies for Law Enforcement," which she teaches at John Jay to the ranking officers of the NYPD. Her most recent involvement in Eastern Europe includes redesigning the basic academy curriculum of the Czech National Police, with the emphasis on integrity-related training.

Marie Simonetti Rosen is the publisher of *Law Enforcement News*, a publication of John Jay College of Criminal Justice, the City University of New York. As publisher of one of the nation's leading publications in policing, she has chronicled the trends and developments that have shaped and transformed law enforcement in America during the last three decades. A well-known expert in policing, she is often cited in the mainstream press.

In the publication's 30-year history, it has reported on the evolution of such developments as problem-oriented policing, community policing, and the influence of "Broken Windows" and Compstat in the nation's law enforcement agencies. Under Rosen's leadership, *Law Enforcement News* has followed the increased use of science and technology in the criminal justice system and has reported

extensively on crime rates, use of force, pursuits, police integrity and oversight, standards and training, and minority relations. It regularly covers both state and federal court decisions and legislation that affect criminal justice policy and practice.

Law Enforcement News has influenced a generation of police leadership. The newspaper's articles are frequently reprinted in college and professional texts. The publication's reporting has been a factor in the development of legislation and public policy in such areas as health and safety issues, bias-related crime, higher education for police, psychological screening of police recruits, and the police response to the mentally ill. The paper has earned major national awards for its coverage of policing on tribal reservations and the impact of the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks on law enforcement practitioners.

Her annual analysis of policing that appears in the publication's Year-in-Review issue is widely cited and appears in the Appendix to Volumes 1 and 2. Rosen received her B.A. from the City University of New York.

Dorothy Moses Schulz is Professor at John Jay College of Criminal Justice at the City University of New York, where she teaches courses in criminal justice, police history, police administration, and women in policing. Schulz joined the faculty of John Jay College in 1993 after a career in policing. She was the first woman captain with the Metro-North Commuter Railroad Police Department and its predecessor, the Conrail Police Department. She was one of the first women to hold a supervisory rank in any rail or transit police agency, and among her assignments was serving as the commanding officer of New York City's Grand Central Terminal, the midtown Manhattan landmark through which about three quarters of a million people pass daily. Previously she had been director of police operations for the New York City Human Resources Administration. Before beginning her career in policing, she was a reporter and copy editor for a number of municipal newspapers and a freelance editor for a variety of magazines and book publishers. Immediately before joining the John Jay College faculty, she was the director of security at the Fashion Institute of Technology at the State University of New York in New York City.

A well-known expert on historical and current issues involving women in policing, she is the author of *From Social Worker to Crimefighter: Women in United States Policing* (1995), which traces the more than 100-year history of women in policing. The book describes how the fluctuating fortunes of feminism helped early policewomen but how in the 1960s women were forced to reject their historical roles when they sought a wider presence in law enforcement. Her new book, *Breaking the Brass Ceiling: Women Police Chiefs and Their Paths to the Top* (2004), highlights the women—police chiefs and sheriffs—who have made it to the very top rank of law enforcement. Based on historical research, questionnaire data, and interviews, the book describes the careers of pioneering and present women police chiefs and sheriffs, who make up about 1% of law enforcement chief executive officers.

A frequent speaker at police and academic meetings, Schulz received a B.A. in journalism from New York University, an M.A. in criminal justice from John Jay College, and a Ph.D. in American studies from New York University. She has addressed conferences of the International Association of Women Police (IAWP), the Women in Federal Law Enforcement (WIFLE), the National Center for Women & Policing (NCW&P), the Senior Women Officers of Great Britain, and the Multi-Agency Women's Law Enforcement Conference sponsored by the U.S. Border Patrol in El Paso, Texas, as well as at the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center in Glynco, Georgia, and the Canadian Police College in Ottawa, Ontario. In 2003 and 2004, she assisted the New York City Police Museum on exhibits documenting the history of women in the department.

Schulz has also retained her involvement with rail and transit policing. From 1994 to 1997 she was the principal investigator on the Transit Cooperative Research Program's *Guidelines for the Effective Use of Uniformed Transit Police and Security Personnel*, the largest transit policing grant funded in the United States, and she has overseen a number of Federal Transit Administration triennial audits of urban transit system police departments. She is completing research for a book on the history of railroad policing in America.

In 1998, she was a visiting scholar at the British Police Staff College/National Police Training,

Bramshill, Hampshire, England, and she has received research grants from the St. Louis Mercantile Library at the University of Missouri, St. Louis; the Newberry Library, Chicago; the Minnesota Historical Society, St. Paul; the City University of New York, University Committee on Research; the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and the National Association of Female Law Enforcement Executives.

Schulz has delivered papers at meetings of the American Society of Criminology, the Academy of

Criminal Justice Sciences, and the American Historical Association and has published in a number of police and historical journals. She was a coeditor of police topics for *Crime and the Justice System in America: An Encyclopedia* and has contributed articles to other reference publications, including the *Encyclopedia of Crime and Punishment*, the *Encyclopedia of Homelessness*, the *Encyclopedia of New York State*, and the *Encyclopedia of Women and Crime*.

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☞ AFGHANISTAN

Afghanistan is a landlocked country in Central Asia bordered by Iran, Pakistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, and Tajikistan. It has a population of 28.7 million people. Colonized by Ghengis Khan, the Ottomans, and eventually the British, Afghanistan became independent in 1919 as a monarchy. The ruling king introduced democratic reforms in 1964; these allowed extremist parties to gain hold and the king was overthrown in a coup in 1973. The Soviet Union invaded in 1979 to support communists after yet another coup, but was forced to withdraw by resistance from various factions including Islamic mujahedeen fighters backed by the United States and other countries. The mujahedeen were not party to peace accords leading to the Soviet withdrawal in 1989, and infighting between them and other warlords continued through the mid-1990s, when the Taliban, an extreme religious movement, took control of most of the country by promising control and order. The United States attacked and overthrew the Taliban in October 2001 for giving a haven to terrorist Osama bin Laden. A peace conference between opposition political groups held in Bonn, Germany, in late 2001 resulted in the plan for a new governmental structure. A constitution was adopted in January 2004, and nationwide elections were scheduled for June 2004.

As a consequence of decades of war, Afghanistan has been left with a crumbling infrastructure, widespread poverty, and high unemployment that is exacerbated by lawlessness; in addition to general widespread criminality, warlordism prevails in many areas, and disputes between factions frequently result in violence. The Taliban's extreme repression resulted in significantly deteriorated status and education for women; the literacy rate is 51% for men and 23% for women.

International involvement in Afghanistan after the fall of the Taliban is significant. The United Nations agencies, which maintained a humanitarian relief presence in Afghanistan before 2001, are responsible under the peace agreements for assisting the Afghan government in transition and organizing elections under the name the United Nations Assistance Mission in Afghanistan (UNAMA). In addition, a peacekeeping force, the International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) is present, although as of late 2003 only in Kabul. U.S. forces continue to conduct military operations in other parts of Afghanistan against any remaining Taliban and terrorist holdouts; U.S. forces do not play a peacekeeping role.

ISAF provides security in Kabul and conducts emergency humanitarian operations, civilian/military activities, and a number of small-scale relief projects. The public has been receptive to it as a security guarantor, although it generally turns all but the most serious cases over to the local Kabul city police.



Although a national police force was being organized as of early 2004, the government has little authority beyond the capital, Kabul. ISAF remains the guarantor of security in Kabul; outside Kabul, the degree of security is largely dependent on which warlord controls the area and the extent of his influence.

POLICING BEFORE THE TRANSITION

Decades of disorder in Afghanistan have meant that an entire generation has known nothing of the rule of law. The most recent official model for policing came from the Soviet occupation of the 1980s, when the police force was redesigned to follow the Soviet models. Typically, warlords and militias also had their own security units. The Ministry of the Interior and the police were eliminated in the early 1990s by the Taliban, who replaced them with the Ministry for the Promotion of Virtue and Elimination of Vice.

THE NEW POLICE FORCE

In 2003, plans for the police force envisaged a force of approximately 50,000, a ratio of 1 to approximately 550 inhabitants. As all members had to be recruited and trained from scratch, it was not foreseen that this force strength would be attained

for a number of years. Officials hoped to have 30,000 in place by the end of 2004.

The envisaged force of 50,000 includes 12,000 border guards. Police headquarters in each of Afghanistan's 32 provinces will report directly to the Ministry of the Interior. Also reporting to directly to the Minister are the State Office of the Criminal Police, the Police Academy, the Logistics Office, and Headquarters for the Divisions of Public Order, Traffic, and Border Control.

An inspectorate and a separate human rights office within the Ministry of the Interior are responsible for oversight and police compliance with international human rights norms.

Afghanistan currently relies entirely on the international community to support its civil service, including its police. Although other countries have provided some bilateral assistance, Germany has taken the lead on reforming and training, through a consultative process. The United Kingdom and France are assisting the development of a forensics laboratory for the criminal police. Germany has supplied police vehicles.

Police salaries and capacity building for the police are supported through the United Nations through a Law and Order Trust Fund of Afghanistan (LOTFA). The total projected value of LOTFA for its first 2 years of operation is around US \$65 million.

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

Although 150,000 people were employed in the police at the time of Afghanistan's transition, their experience and training was extremely varied. There had been no professional police training for over 20 years, and much recruitment was mere transfer of military personnel. Police training courses, and train-the-trainer courses were immediately established, and the Kabul Police Academy opened in August 2002. As of January 2004, 423 officers had graduated from the academy of whom 28 were women (7%), and 2,042 were undergoing training of whom 39 were women (2%). Recruitment of women is prioritized, but low literacy rates among women (partly as a result of the Taliban prohibition of education for women and girls) has meant a dearth of qualified applicants.

There are two courses at the police academy: a *satanman* course (which trains the German equivalent of an intermediate officer) and a *saran* course, (which trains the German equivalent of an advanced intermediate officer). The *satanman* course is 3 months in duration, although additional follow-up training is required for graduates. The *saran* course is 5 years in duration, including 2 years of on-the-job training.

Training for patrol officers (men and women) lasts 8 weeks and takes place in regional centers.

NARCOTICS

According to some sources, more than 50% of Afghanistan's revenue comes from the cultivation, production, and trafficking of opium and heroin. The United Kingdom is the lead nation assigned to counter narcotics in Afghanistan. Forming an effective antinarcotics program within the police is also a priority, and a special unit was established specifically for this purpose.

Afghanistan joined Interpol in October 2002.

Johanna Bjorken

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ALBANIA

BACKGROUND AND HISTORY

A Balkan nation bordered by Serbia, Montenegro, Greece, and Macedonia, Albania has a population of 3,083,300 people (September 2002). In 1990 Albania, the poorest, most underdeveloped, and most isolated of all Eastern European countries, ended 44 years of Communist rule and established a multiparty democracy. Transitioning to this new system has been problematic in the face of government corruption, high unemployment, dilapidated infrastructure, and widespread organized crime.

JUDICIARY SYSTEM

The Albanian judiciary system consists of 346 judges and 226 assistant judges assigned to 29 district courts, 6 appellate courts, 1 military appellate court, and the High Court. Each level deals with civil, criminal, commercial, and administrative cases. Albania's current Law on Major Constitutional Provisions establishes an independent judiciary as a fundamental principle of the Albanian state. However, a severe lack of resources, judges who are poorly trained in the enforcement of new legislation, inexperienced staff, political pressure, and widespread corruption thwart the system's operation. The law on the Organization of the Judiciary and the Constitutional Court established the High Council of Justice to appoint, dismiss, and discipline all judges and prosecutors in district and appellate courts. Recent government-initiated disciplinary actions before the High Council of Justice against more than a dozen prosecutors and judges were successful, but the government ultimately failed to uphold the independence of the judiciary. The inadequacy of the judicial system as well as deep-rooted cultural traditions have led to a form of vigilantism in resolving judicial matters. According to Albania's ancient social code, or *kanun*, one person may kill another to avenge an earlier murder. The practice of *gjakmarrja*, or blood



vengeance, has been revived in the relative chaos of post-Communist Albania, particularly in the northern region of the country. These “blood for blood” killings, once strictly guided by the rules of the *kanun* and tight-knit tribal communities, are now conducted with little respect for or understanding of the *kanun* code. Entire families, including women and children, are often forced into isolation or killed. Private groups are working to reduce the practice with limited success.

SECURITY FORCES

Until April 1991 all security and police forces were under the direction of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which also exercised authority over the judicial system and the implementation and enforcement of the country’s laws. Each security or police organization—the Sigurimi (the security police forces organized to protect the Communist Party and government system), the Frontier Guards, and the People’s Police—constituted a separate directorate within the Ministry. In 1989, the People’s Police had five branches:

1. Police for Economic Objectives
2. Communications Police
3. Fire Police

4. Detention Police

5. General Police

Service in the People’s Police was usually for 3 years, and individuals who had previously served in the armed services were preferred. Under a 1948 law all able-bodied men were required to spend 2 months assisting the local police. Known as the Auxiliary Police, they provided additional manpower. In April 1991, shortly after the country’s first free elections, the communist-dominated People’s Assembly abolished the Ministry of Internal Affairs. It was replaced by a new Ministry of Public Order with authority over the People’s Police. In July 1991, the communist-dominated legislature abolished the Sigurimi and established a new National Information Service (NIS) in its place. The NIS’s stated mission was to enforce the constitution and laws of Albania and the civil rights of its citizens. This was immediately followed by a surge in crime: The rate of reported homicides doubled and robberies tripled over a similar period in 1990. By 1992 public fear and chaos led to a loss of the tight control once exerted by the police and internal security forces. They, and the regime they supported, began to yield to the impact of the popular revolutionary forces that had toppled the other communist regimes in Eastern Europe in late 1989 and 1990. In 1997, following another general breakdown of public order, the Albanian National Police (ANP) was formed and began the slow process of creating a modern police force modeled after law enforcement institutions in democratic societies. The United States, through the International Criminal Investigative Training Assistance Program (ICITAP), assisted in that effort and worked in partnership with the Multi-National Advisory Police Element (MAPE) and assistance programs from Italy and Greece. Reform was slow, but by 1998 the new Ministry of Public Order for Police and Human Rights was in place, and full support for their initiatives was evident. After passing the Law on the State Police in December 1999, the Ministry of Public Order began improving recruitment procedures and training new police chiefs. Despite these changes and the many articles

of the new Albanian constitution in place to protect its citizens from police abuse, police violence and coercion during interrogation were still a serious problem in 2002.

PENAL CODE

Prior to the reforms of the early 1990s, a politically and ideologically oriented penal code facilitated systematic violations of human rights and ensured the Communist Party control over all aspects of Albania's political, economic, and cultural life. In 1990, following widespread public unrest, steps were taken to liberalize the penal code. For example, the number of offenses punishable by death was reduced from 34 to 11, women were exempted from the death penalty, the legal status of lawyers was restored, and the official ban on religious activity was abolished.

CRIME IN ALBANIA

As of 2003, the ANP are working with a large team of international police advisors whose efforts are focused on helping it develop the capacity to effectively combat street crime, organized crime, and the illegal trafficking of drugs, weapons, and humans through strategic planning, technology development, and management training.

Street Crime

Albania has a high crime rate both inside and outside of its capital, Tirana, with routinely reported instances of armed robberies and assaults. Pick-pocketing is widespread. Carjackings are also common, particularly of four-wheel drive and sport-utility vehicles. Armed crime is typical in towns throughout northern and northwestern Albania.

Organized Crime

The vacuum of authority in the immediate aftermath of the post-Communist revolution has led to a great wave of organized crime, particularly in smuggling, auto and art theft, money laundering,

drug marketing, counterfeiting, and theft of state property. Criminal organizations have risen quickly and successfully. In order to combat organized criminal organizations, the ANP recently established a Vice Directorate of Organized Crime.

Illicit Drugs

Albania is an active transshipment point for Southwest Asian opiates, hashish, and cannabis. In addition, cocaine destined for Western Europe is also occasionally transported through the country. Less common but also transported is South American cocaine destined for Western Europe. Production of opium and cannabis is limited. The use of illicit drugs in Albania is popular and growing. The ANP's Anti-Drug Office operates within the Organized Crime Sector. There are said to be no specialized treatment centers for drug users in Albania.

Weapons

After a tumultuous decade of unrest, the entire Balkan region is plagued by a huge quantity—approximately 1 million—of illegally held small weapons. In 1997 alone, approximately 500,000 light weapons were stolen during civil disturbances in Albania. Balkan governments, including Albania, have supported a clearinghouse program developed by the United Nations with the goal of collecting and destroying these weapons.

Human Trafficking

Trafficking in human beings is a serious problem in Albania. Men, women, and children are commonly sent abroad and forced to work as street beggars, in the sex industry, or used for organ transplantation. In 2002, Albanian police began a large-scale operation aimed at halting human trafficking from Albania to Italy. The operation, overseen by the prime minister's office and involving a number of government ministries and law-enforcement branches, is considered a crucial step toward Albania's goal of integration with the West.

Domestic Violence

Domestic violence continues to be a complex and grave situation for Albanian women, with no protection from the government made available in terms of record keeping, shelters, or prosecution of perpetrators. As human rights advocates fight for public education and to change the penal code to recognize domestic violence as a crime, government institutions in Albania have other priorities and view the development and implementation of laws without interest. Albanians, including many women, because of tradition, believe that the state would be interfering in private matters if given power to combat domestic violence through legal reform, and mistrust of the police makes citizens wary of giving them increased ability to intervene in domestic violence cases.

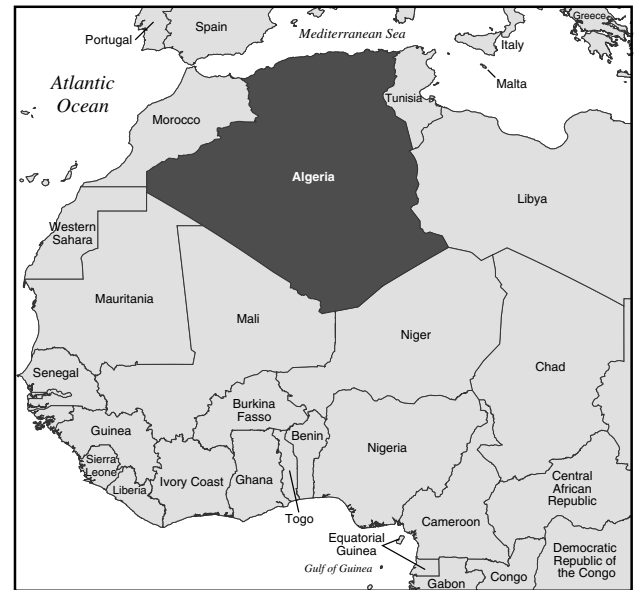
Kimberly L. Spanjol

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ALGERIA

Algeria, a North African country of 2,381,740 square kilometers on the Mediterranean Sea bordered by Tunisia and Morocco, has a population of 32.8 million people (July 2003 estimate). Formerly a French colony, it fought for and won its independence in 1962. Algeria has large natural gas and oil reserves, but unemployment is high and the



standard of living for those outside the energy sector is low. When elections in 1991 revealed strong support for an Islamic Fundamentalist-based party, the socialist government responded by dissolving the party; all political parties based on religion were banned in 1997. A low-grade conflict between fundamentalists and the State's secular institutions has been going on since the 1991 elections, characterized primarily by terrorist attacks and indiscriminate violence from terrorist factions and the disappearance of thousands of individuals (not only those suspected of terrorist activity), believed to have been taken by government security forces. Governmental reconciliation efforts since 2000 lowered the numbers of violations on both sides. Dissatisfaction with widespread corruption and abuse of authority continues to generate public unrest, particularly in ethnic Berber areas.

GENDARMERIE AND SÛRETÉ NATIONALE

Algeria's laws are enforced by a 45,000-member gendarmerie under the control of the Ministry of Defense, which polices rural areas, and a 30,000-member Sûreté Nationale under the Ministry of the Interior (U.S. State Department source). This combined strength of 75,000 means there is 1 police

officer for every 437 inhabitants. In practice, the military also plays a large role in the administration of justice.

Organization and Operations

Both the Gendarmerie and the Sûreté Nationale were formed after independence and modeled after their French counterparts.

The Gendarmerie

The Gendarmerie provides law enforcement in rural areas, and operates under the authority of the Ministry of Defense. While criticized for being unprepared and ill-equipped to deal with civil disturbances in the 1990s, it was lauded for its success in discovering and eliminating desert and mountain terrorist camps.

The Gendarmerie shares the military's administrative structure and has headquarters in the same six cities where the military has regional headquarters. It is organized in battalions whose companies and platoons deploy in communities or rural outposts. It has a training academy at Sidi Bel Abbas, the former headquarters of the French Foreign Legion. Officers are trained at an academy in Isser, not far from the capital, Algiers.

Sûreté Nationale

The Sûreté Nationale is Algeria's primary urban police force, modeled on its French counterpart. Its responsibilities include maintaining law and order, protecting life and property, apprehending offenders, and traffic controlling. In 1993, it had 16,000 members who reported to the Minister of the Interior. Criminal investigation is handled by the judiciary police, a branch of the Sûreté Nationale. Its officers work with customs inspectors at border entry points. The Sûreté Nationale has a division of riot police, but demonstrations from the 1990s exceeded their capabilities, and the military were frequently called in.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

In addition to the main law enforcement services, the military has branches specifically to deal with terrorist issues. One of these branches is the Sécurité Militaire (Military Security), which is formally under the Ministry of the Interior but operates as a military force adjunct to the armed forces. This organization of counterterrorist brigades reports to the Ministry of Defense and has as its mission the investigation and response to intelligence provided by the police and the Gendarmerie, primarily in the vicinity of Algiers. It has been accused of detaining suspects incommunicado and indefinitely, and of using brutal force during interrogations.

The Republican Guards, an elite brigade of approximately 1,200 within the military, also respond to internal disturbances.

ACCOUNTABILITY

Although Algerian security forces were heavily criticized for human rights abuses throughout the 1990s, the improvement in the security situation in the 2000s has opened room for greater discussion of accountability. Key checks in Algerian law require officers to present a warrant before making arrests and require that detainees be brought before judicial authorities within 48 hours of arrest; terrorism suspects may be detained 12 days without charge. Police must identify themselves before making an arrest.

Individuals who make formal complaints against the security forces may do so to the police themselves or to a human rights investigatory body, which acts as an ombudsman, having advisory although not investigatory powers. Police may be investigated internally or, in serious cases when supported by evidence, in criminal prosecutions. In such cases, the Gendarmerie is investigated by military courts. These measures exist on paper more frequently than they are employed, however, and the government has announced a plan for reform as part of its reconciliation efforts.

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ANDORRA

Andorra is a small country of 69,000 people and 468 square kilometers, located in the Pyrenees mountains between France and Spain. Its economy is driven primarily by tourism, although a banking industry attracts significant offshore investment because of Andorra's low taxes.

Andorra is believed to have been first recognized by the French emperor Charlemagne as a buffer zone to prevent Arab and Muslim infiltration of France. It has continued as a zone belonging both to France and Spain since the 13th century, and to this day, although independent, recognizes both France and Spain as its heads of state. Its first police force was founded in 1931 and consisted of six officers and one captain. The force has since grown in response to modern demands and obtained official status with the country's 1993 constitution.

As of early 2004, the police had approximately 240 members, a ratio of 1 officer for every 287 citizens.

The Police is commanded by a director who has a small support staff. It is divided administratively into three branches: Public Security, Criminal, and Support.

The Public Security Branch is responsible for conducting patrols, maintaining the peace, controlling traffic, and controlling Andorra's borders. The Criminal Branch includes an investigation unit, a



forensic department, and Andorra's Interpol office. The Support Branch has units responsible for crime analysis, training, public information, policy development, and legal questions.

In addition, the Andorra police has specialized squads for V.I.P. protection, a bomb squad, a tactical intervention unit, a canine unit, and, because of Andorra's mountainous environment, a search and rescue squad.

Recruits to the police force must pass an entrance examination. Other qualifications include Andorra citizenship, age between 19 and 35 years, minimum height and body composition requirements, a secondary school diploma, ability to speak Catalan and French, a driver's license, knowledge of the culture and history of Andorra, and ability to pass tests of physical and psychological fitness.

Andorra is a member of Interpol. It has cooperation agreements with Spain and participates in European police exchanges.

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ANGOLA

Angola is located in South Africa on the Atlantic Ocean, bordered by the Democratic Republic of Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo), Zambia, and Namibia. It covers 1,246,700 square kilometers and has a population of 10.7 million people (July 2003 estimates). Fighting between factions in Angola started 14 years before it finally became independent from Portugal in 1975. Civil war ended in 2002 after the death of Jonas Savimbi, the head of the rebel force National Union for the Total Liberation of Angola (UNITA). Government forces (the Popular Liberation Movement of Angola, MPLA) announced victory, but the integration of rebel units into society, as well as the destruction and poverty created by decades of civil war, remained as serious obstacles to stability.

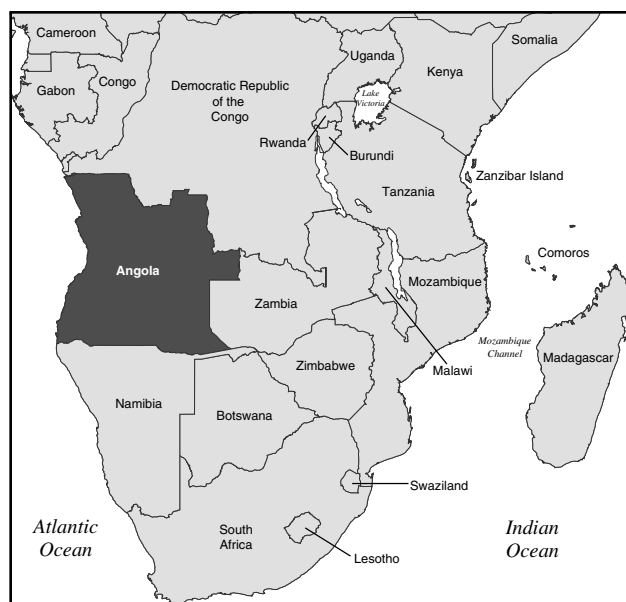
The Angola police took over from the Portuguese colonial police in 1975. Initially, law enforcement functions were dispersed among other agencies, such as border control and traffic, but by the early 1990s all were consolidated as part of the Ministry of the Interior and the general police command. There are reportedly 80,000 police in Angola, a ratio of 1 for every 133 inhabitants.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Ministry of the Interior is responsible for internal security, although the legacy of civil war means armed forces are involved in this function as well. Internal intelligence agents report directly to the president.

At the top of the police hierarchy is the General Command. Below that, the police are organized into Provincial, Municipal, Squadron (*Esquadra*), and Police stations.

The police have numerous divisions and special units, including Public Order, Traffic, a Criminal Investigation Division, Investigation and Inspection of Economic Activity, a rapid intervention unit, a special transit brigade, diplomatic protection, border protection, a helicopter unit, a unit for protecting strategic objects, and a department of arms and explosives. The police are overseen by an Inspector General. Women participate in all divisions of the police.



The 2002 peace agreements called for approximately 5,000 senior UNITA officers to be incorporated into the government police and military forces.

POLICE TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

There are two training academies in Angola, and there are plans to establish an Institute of Police Sciences and an Institute of Criminal Sciences. However, as of early 2004, many serving police had joined without any training as, during the conflict the police frequently operated as part of the armed forces. According to press reports, only 28% have had any training at all, and only 2% of those have advanced training. The United Nations Center for Human Rights is assisting the police force in developing training programs for serving police officers; Angola has also received bilateral assistance from other African countries, including Cape Verde and South Africa. The police announced a modernization campaign in 2003 emphasizing decentralization and training.

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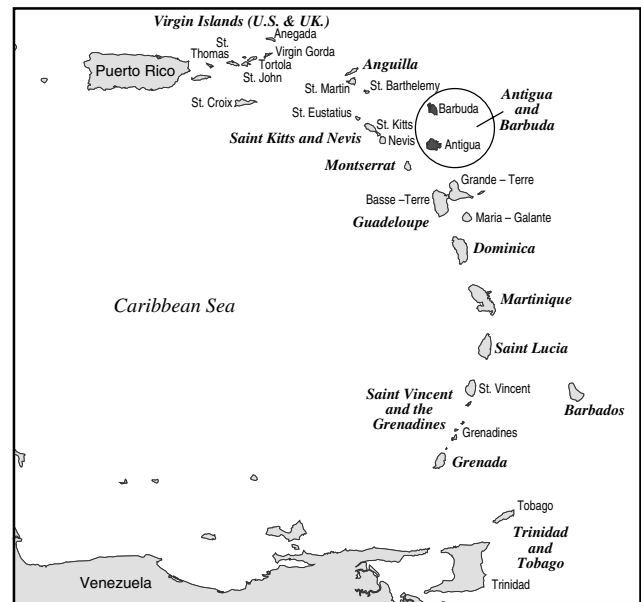
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☉ ANTIGUA AND BARBUDA

Antigua and Barbuda is a federation of two islands in the Caribbean. It is located southeast of Puerto Rico, with an area of 443 square kilometers (Antigua 280; Barbuda 161) and a population of 67,897 people (July 2003 estimate). Discovered by Columbus in 1493, Antigua became a British colony with only a brief occupation by the French in 1666. Initially, Antigua was used as a colony for producing tobacco, indigo, and ginger, but a sugar plantation established on the island in 1674 changed its economy and demographics, as slaves from West Africa were brought to the island to work. Barbuda, also used for sugar production, legally became part of Antigua in 1860. Although independence movements started in the 1960s, Antigua and Barbuda didn't become fully independent until 1981. In negotiations over independence, Barbuda, which had had its own secessionist movements, agreed to remain united with Antigua on the condition of having limited autonomy. The economy is currently primarily based on tourism.

Antigua is a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy. A member of the Commonwealth of Nations, its head of state is the British crown, which is represented by a governor general who acts on the advice of the prime minister and the cabinet. Antigua and Barbuda has a bicameral legislature: a 17-member Senate appointed by the governor general and a 17-member popularly elected House of Representatives. It is a member of the eastern Caribbean court system, and jurisprudence is based on English common law.

The Royal Antigua and Barbuda Police Force is responsible for national security; there are separate



administrative departments for immigration and drivers' licenses. The Police Force, a constabulary modeled on British colonial lines, has approximately 600 members (including the Fire Brigade and Coast Guard). Its work is augmented by the small national defense force. It is headed by a Police Commissioner, and has 25 senior officers and 23 inspectors. Complaints are managed through internal disciplinary procedures. The Police Welfare Association, an independent body closely associated with the police, is said to have advocated management training for senior police officers and other advanced training for the force in the early 2000s.

Antigua and Barbuda's location close to the U.S. Virgin Islands and Puerto Rico makes it an attractive transshipment point for narcotics traffickers. To address these problems, the U.S. and Antigua and Barbuda have signed a number of counternarcotic and anticrime treaties and agreements.

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ARGENTINA

A constitutional republic, Argentina is the second largest country in South America, occupying 2,766,890 square kilometers on the eastern tip of South America on the Atlantic Ocean. It has a population of 38.7 million people (July 2003 estimate). Argentina is a federal democracy whose head of state is the president. After years of authoritarian and military rule starting in 1983, Argentina's elected leaders have tried to establish a democracy. A recession that began in 1998 has paralyzed Argentina's once thriving economy; the situation was exacerbated by a banking crisis and currency devaluation. In 2004 more than 50% of the population lived below the poverty level.

The country has a history of tumultuous political change and military rule. A return to full democracy began in 1983 following the collapse of a repressive military government and the ill-fated Falklands War. That regime used police and military resources to wage an aggressive campaign of "state terrorism" against a wide array of "political opponents." Despite the attempts to establish democracy, allegations of unlawful detentions, torture, extrajudicial killings, and "disappearances" continue to plague the society. Official estimates place the number of "disappeared" at 10,000, whereas unofficial estimates run as high as 30,000. Recent discovery of a substantial collection of documents detailing police and military human rights abuses led to the revocation of a 1994 amnesty law. As many as 1,300 serving and former police and military forces face prosecution.

Law enforcement entities include the Federal Police (Policía Federal), the National Gendarmerie



(Gendarmeria Nacional), and 24 provincial police departments (including Buenos Aires). The National Coast Guard (Prefectura Naval) also conducts some law enforcement activities and reports to the Ministry of the Interior. National law defines the legal and geographic jurisdictions of each. Press reports suggest, however, that in actual operation those distinctions are often clouded. Agencies share common authority over some matters including drug enforcement, terrorism, and public order. Interagency "task forces" are used as special needs arise. "Operation Condor," for example, is an antinarcotics investigative and enforcement unit comprised of officers from the National Gendarmerie and the Salta Provincial Police. It operates along the country's northern borders.

Argentina's police and judicial systems developed under Spanish traditions but some British and American police practices have been adopted.

Argentina's police forces consist of approximately 170,000 officers (a ratio of 1 for every 227 inhabitants), of whom approximately 31,000 comprise the Argentine Federal Police. Almost one third of the remainder, approximately 45,000, belong to the police of Buenos Aires.

PROVINCIAL POLICE FORCES

Responsibility for routine, day-to-day police service falls to the provincial police forces. Each

province maintains an independent armed civilian oriented police service responsible directly to the elected provincial government. Organized under provincial constitutions, their jurisdiction is limited to the geographical boundaries of the specific province. They enforce the full range of provincial criminal laws in both rural and urban areas. The exact numbers of provincial police officers are not readily available, but the largest, the Province of Buenos Aires, employs 45,000 officers, a police to citizen ratio of 1 to 311.

The head of each provincial force, commonly referred to as the Chief of Police, is appointed by and responsible to the elected provincial governor. Provinces use a variety of governmental structures, but police matters are commonly under the authority of the ministry responsible for local affairs, either a minister of government affairs or an interior minister.

Recruiting and training standards vary somewhat from force to force, but are similar. Applicants must be Argentine citizens between the ages of 17 to 18 and 23 to 26 years, depending on the force. The age of majority in Argentina is 21 years, and younger applicants need parental consent. Most forces require a secondary education certificate. Screening procedures usually include a written exam, physical agility test, medical and psychological screening, and a background check. Applicants must be free of a criminal record.

Each province operates its own police training facilities.

Twenty-two forces employ a dual-entry system. In those forces, recruits with higher educational credentials enter as officer candidates. Upon successful completion of the officers' course, from 2 to 3 years of study, they are commissioned and serve their entire careers in command ranks. Enlisted personnel attend a basic police academy and are promoted through the noncommissioned officer (NCO) ranks. While some movement of enlisted personnel to officer rank does occur, the distinctions between enlisted and officer personnel follow traditional military practices.

Two forces, the Provinces of Cordova and Santa Fe, require all personnel to begin their careers as police officers. Advancement follows British and

American models. All promotion comes from within the ranks. Senior officers and command personnel begin their careers as police officers.

Local police personnel can attend specialized and advanced training programs through the National Police Academies and police higher educational institutes operated by the National Government.

Salaries vary from jurisdiction to jurisdiction, but provincial police officers are considered underpaid according to national standards.

THE ARGENTINE FEDERAL POLICE

The Argentine Federal Police consists of approximately 31,706 active officers. It is an armed civilian institution responsible to the National Executive Power through the Ministry of Internal Security. Its federal mandate makes it possible to act as a police force throughout the entire Argentine national territory, enforcing federal laws. It also performs security and judicial functions in the city of Buenos Aires.

Structure and Organization

The Federal Police has four administrative levels. At the top are headquarters and subheadquarters. These have jurisdiction over the operational departments for Metropolitan Security (of Buenos Aires), Federal Investigation, the Federal Fire Department, and Administration and Well-Being. Also reporting to headquarters level are the main directorates for Internal Affairs; Legal Affairs; Personnel, Training, and Human Rights; and Communications.

Training and Recruitment

The rank structure of the Federal Police distinguishes between commissioned and noncommissioned officers. To become a commissioned officer a recruit must complete the course of the Federal School of Police. To be eligible for acceptance in the school the candidate must complete three levels of general education, be between 17 and 25 years of age, be single, not a parent, be in a good physical condition (there are certain general physical

health as well as dental requirements), and pass two examinations in general subjects, and pass a physical aptitude test.

The length of instruction is 3 years and takes place in a residential setting.

University graduates who wish to become police officers have different qualifying standards. For such candidates, instruction at the Federal School of Police lasts only for 1 year, the age limit is to 30 years of age, and marital restrictions are eliminated.

Noncommissioned officers begin their careers as agents, after the completion of the Federal Schools of Agents. The candidates must be between 19 and 35 years old, and have completed a module of instruction titled Basic General Education, which lasts for 6 months.

Promotions

The following requirements for promotion to a higher rank were introduced to the service in 1996:

- Completion of a minimum time in one rank
- Passing examinations on professional conditions and psychophysical aptitudes
- Completion of certain courses according to the curricula approved by the headquarters
- Considered suitable for promotion by the evaluation board

In addition, police officers who entered the service after 1996 were required to have a university or college degree in order to be promoted to the level of *sub-comisario*. The noncommissioned officers who entered the police force in 1996 or after were required to have completed high school to qualify for promotion to *Sargento 1*.

The Federal Police has instituted Permanent Evaluation Boards that are charged with submitting an evaluation for promotion, which consists of a written report in which all the qualities of the officer being considered for promotion are detailed. The main variables taken into account by the Evaluation Boards for promotion are the officer's personal record (the annual evaluation done by each officer's direct supervisor) and the presence or absence of sanctions. On average, if there is no interfering

conflict, police officers are promoted every 3 to 5 years, depending on the number of vacancies.

THE ARGENTINE NATIONAL GENDARMERIE

The Argentine National Gendarmerie, founded in 1938, is an armed national paramilitary force organized on traditional military police principles with a wide range of military and police functions. It was established to strengthen international borders and provide security for settlers and inhabitants in national territories and isolated regions. It replaced the former Argentine Army forces, which had conducted border patrol. Its structure, training, doctrine, and legal educational background was intended so that the force could operate as a police force during times of peace and augment land forces in times of war.

Responsible to the National Minister of the Interior, and under the command of the National Director of the Gendarmerie, its duties include:

- Domestic security
- Border patrol
- Traditional police duties in Argentina's vast rural and sparsely populated areas
- Counterterrorism
- Smuggling and drug trafficking
- Public order in support of the National and Provincial Police
- Airport and port security
- Environmental crime
- Highway patrol and enforcement
- Illegal immigration; organized and economic crimes
- Hostage rescue
- Protection of embassies and foreign missions

In addition, the Gendarmerie has participated in United Nations peacekeeping missions around the world. The force works closely with the Department of National Defense.

Rank structure, entry requirements, pay, and benefits are identical to the Argentine Army.

Training and Recruitment

The Gendarmerie educational system includes the National Gendarmerie Staff College, Officers

Training Academy, a school for noncommissioned officers, specialized training centers, and a training center for international peacekeeping missions. Recruits must be at least 20 years of age. Those with high school qualifications enter a basic Gendarmerie military school. The Noncommissioned Officers (NCOs) Academy provides specialized training to newly promoted NCOs. University graduates attend the Officers' Training Academy and enter the service as commissioned officers. The curriculum emphasizes military instruction, doctrine, and regulations to support its role in national defense, as well as preventative and deterrent methodologies to counteract domestic threats.

CRIMINALITY IN ARGENTINA

According to figures published for 1995 to 2003 by the Interpol International Crime Statistics, the overall number of all criminal offenses in Argentina decreased from 1,373,371 cases in 1995 to 308,738 in 2003. This represents a decrease per every 100,000 inhabitants from 4,161 offenses in 1995 to 834 offenses in 2003. However, the most reliable indicator of the overall crime statistics—the homicide rate—suggests a different scenario. In 1995 there were 1,145 murders, whereas there were 1,345 in 2003. Kidnappings of ordinary citizens, once rare, are commonplace. The official juvenile delinquency rate increased 142% in 4 years. Public perceptions of the crime problem and associated fears for personnel safety are a growing national concern. Public trust in police services has been declining.

ACCOUNTABILITY

Problems with accountability, institutional violence, and other illegal practices can be traced back to the beginning of the 20th century. The involvement of the Federal Police in “state terrorism” and the disappearance of approximately 30,000 people, which took place during the military dictatorship, was never resolved to the satisfaction of the general public. Despite the call for some “purification” efforts that were to be aimed at removing the

officers involved in illegal practices from the ranks of the force, the purification never took place.

Strong evidence indicates that police complicity in criminal activity continues to contribute to Argentina's crime problems, especially within the provincial forces and the Federal Police. Official police corruption is described as systemic and extensive in all ranks. A 2002 Justice Ministry study revealed that 1,800 of the Province of Buenos Aires' force were suspended for criminal activity in the previous year, while 3 of every 1,000 officers had criminal convictions. Uniformed police officers and plainclothes anticrime units known as “patotas” (street thugs) have participated in kidnappings, bank robberies, and illicit assignments. Government and press reports document continued police use of torture, unlawful detentions, extrajudicial killings, and disappearances.

A number of factors contribute to the problem, including a long history of public corruption and an official heavy-handed response to current civil unrest. Unfortunately, police officers are grossly underpaid by local standards. Officers in Buenos Aires earn less than \$200 per month, well below the local average income.

Police officers who want to make a complaint or present a claim must, according to regulations, relay the accusation/complaint to their supervisors and wait while the latter forward the complaint to the next level in the police institutional hierarchy.

Complaints directed to nonpolice authorities or that do not follow the procedure within the organization are considered to be disciplinary offenses. This procedure makes it almost impossible to complain about misconduct or illegal activities of the police officer's direct supervisor or senior staff.

According to a multinational study conducted by Transparency International in 2001, the estimated level of police corruption is high and rising. The occurrence of banal corruption prevails over sophisticated types of corruption. The most frequent types of police corruption in Argentina are as follows:

- Using service equipment for private business
- Purchasing goods or services at discounted prices

- Giving advantages to a private bidder in a public tender

Strategy to combat the corruption of the members of the police is minimal. The anticorruption measures implemented within the police forces include:

- Introduction of stricter punishments for corrupt behavior
- Introduction of noncash payments by violators
- Introduction of stricter recruitment criteria
- Introduction of benefits for those who apprehend violators attempting to offer bribes
- Prohibition of the involvement of members of the police in security-related business activities of their family members and friends
- Introduction of a system to routinely inform members of the police about crimes committed by their colleagues
- Concealment of the true identity of members of inspection and audit bodies and, possibly, their service cars

Planned anticorruption measures include the permanent integrity testing of the members of the police.

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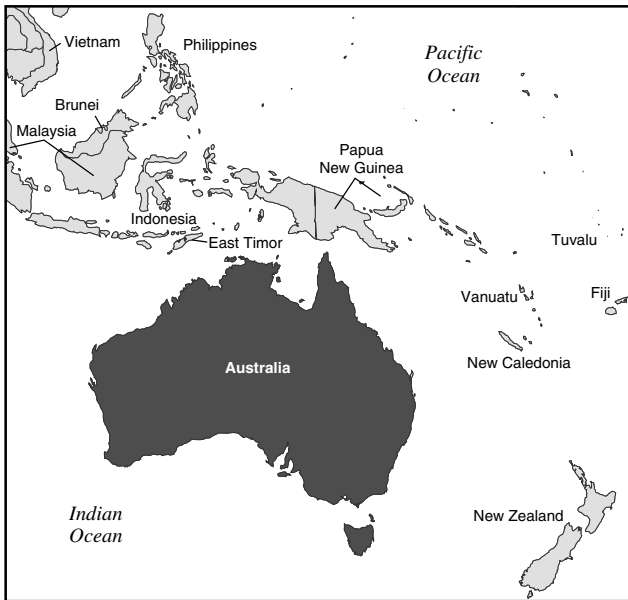
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ARMENIA

The Armenian Constitution, adopted on July 5, 1995, declares the Republic of Armenia a sovereign, democratic, socialist state governed by the rule of law. The government is based on the principle of separation of power and consists of legislative, executive, and judicial parts. The legislative power is controlled by the National Assembly and the executive by the Prime Minister and the Cabinet of Ministers. The President of the Republic does not belong directly to any branch of the government and, according to the Constitution, “secures normal functioning of all branches of power.” Before 2002, the police force was part of the Ministry of Internal Affairs and together with the National Security Service represented the major element of national law enforcement. In 2002, the President of Armenia ordered the creation of the Police of the Republic of Armenia, which became a national force subordinate to the national executive government outside of ministerial control. Police departments in all administrative districts and local municipalities are included in the national police system.

MAJOR POLICE FUNCTIONS

The major duties of the police are the maintenance of public order and the fight against crime. Public order duties include traffic control; public security measures; implementation of the passport system and visa control; control of arms explosives, assistance to other government agencies when required; and aid to the population and authorities during natural disasters. A special corps of the police force is the institution of sectional inspectors—police officers who monitor the fulfillment of laws in various territorial areas. The crime fighting function of the police includes measures to prevent crime, arresting



English colony, Australia achieved independence in 1901 and consists of a federation divided into six states—Victoria, New South Wales, Tasmania, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia—and two Territories—The Australian Capital Territory (ACT) and the Northern Territory. The division of legislative power and administrative responsibility between the federal and state parliaments is governed by the Australian Constitution, with the head of state being the British monarch. As a former English colony, the Australian legal system is based on English common law with the High Court—located in the federal capital, Canberra—serving as the final court of appeal for both the federal and state courts.

THE STRUCTURE OF POLICING IN AUSTRALIA

In Australia, the vast majority of policing functions are undertaken at the local level by the relevant state and territory police services, with the exception of the ACT where policing is the responsibility of the Australian Federal Police. The principle duties of the police in each state and territory are the prevention of crime and the maintenance of public order. The police also perform a range of other public functions including assisting emergency services and various federal agencies such as the Australian

Fisheries Management Authority (AFMA) and the Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs. Although state and territorial police services are autonomous, the Australian Police Minister's Council (APMC) provides a forum for interservice cooperation and information sharing across jurisdictions. In addition, bodies such as the National Institute of Forensic Sciences and the Australian Centre for Policing Research facilitate communication as well as the exchange of information between the various state and territory services.

In each of the state and territory police services, the police are organized according to a strict hierarchy under the control of a Commissioner (or Chief Commissioner in Victoria). The Commissioner answers directly to the relevant state minister, who, despite often having little involvement in the conduct of police operations or planning, bears overall responsibility for the police service in his or her jurisdiction. Below the Commissioner there are Deputy and Assistant Commissioners, and then, in declining order of seniority, the commissioned ranks of Chief Superintendent, Superintendent, Chief Inspector, and Inspector. Noncommissioned police ranks include Senior Sergeants, Sergeants, Senior Constables, and Constables.

In addition to the state and territory services, Australia also has a national police service—the Australian Federal Police. Although the Australian Federal Police provide local policing services for the Australian Capital Territory and a number of Australia's external territories, including Norfolk Island and Christmas Island, the primary role of the Australian Federal Police is to enforce Federal criminal law, and to act as Australia's international law enforcement and policing representative. In particular, the Australian Federal Police have responsibility for investigating and preventing:

- Transnational crime
- Money laundering
- Organized Crime
- Major Fraud
- Drug Trafficking
- Internet-related crime

In accordance with its role as Australia's international law enforcement body, the Australian Federal

Police work closely with a range of international policing agencies and maintain a network of liaison officers in some 20 countries around the world. In addition, the Australian Federal Police also provide support for peacekeeping missions overseas.

According to figures released by the Australian Institute of Criminology, there were 48,130 serving police officers in Australia as June 30, 2003, a ratio of 1 for every 415 inhabitants. The largest police service is the New South Wales Police with 14,739 officers, and the smallest is the ACT Police with 628 officers. Women currently make up approximately 30% of all police officers in Australia, with the Australian Federal Police (excluding the ACT service) having the highest proportion of women officers at 34.8%. Funding for the police in Australia comes primarily from the State and Federal Governments, with total spending on policing being estimated at approximately \$4 billion Australian dollars in 2000-2001. Of this total, the greatest proportion—almost 60%—is spent on community safety and support, with a further 20% being expended on criminal investigations and 10% on road safety and traffic management.

POLICE TRAINING, DISCRETION, AND COMPLAINTS

Although specific entry qualifications vary according to state and territory, all Australian police recruits are required to have at least completed their secondary education before entering the police. Recruits to the Australian Federal Police are encouraged to obtain some form of university qualification before entry. In addition, recruits are typically required to undergo medical and psychological testing to determine their level of fitness, physical ability, and suitability to police work prior to entering training. Training varies according to state and territory, with the average training program lasting approximately 18 months. The training is divided between classroom-based instruction at the relevant police academy and periods of on-the-job experience.

In Australia, the state and territorial police have a range of discretionary powers at their disposal, including the power to stop and search those they

believe to be committing or about to commit an offense. The power to arrest without warrant is provided for by the relevant state or territory legislation (see below), as is the right to use appropriate force when apprehending a suspect or when the officer believes the suspect may be dangerous and cause harm to others. In Australia, searches of premises and seizure of goods can usually only be carried out by a police officer with the express permission of a magistrate or judge, typically with a written warrant. In most states and territories, however, seizure of illegal drugs or weapons does not require permission by warrant. All serving police officers in Australia carry .38 caliber revolvers; the use of semiautomatic firearms and other specialized weapons is restricted to specially trained squads.

Police Legislation in Australia

Federal

- Australian Federal Police Act 1979 (Commonwealth)
- Complaints (Australian Federal Police) Act 1981 (Commonwealth)

New South Wales

- Police Department (Transit Police) Act 1989 (NSW)
- Police Service Act 1990 (NSW)
- Police Service Further Amendment Act 1996 (NSW)

Northern Territory

- Police Administration Act (1979)

Queensland

- Police Powers and Responsibilities Act 2000 (QLD)
- Police Service Administration Act 1990 (QLD)

South Australia

- Police (Complaints and Disciplinary Proceedings) Act 1985 (SA)
- Police Act 1952 (SA)
- Police Act 1998 (SA)

Tasmania

- Police Regulation Act 1898 (TAS)

Victoria

- Police Regulation Act 1958 (VIC)

Western Australia

- Police Act 1892 (WA)

Complaints against an individual police officer or police service in Australia are usually directed either through the relevant state or territory ombudsman, or through one of the following agencies:

*Police Complaints Authorities in Australia**Australian Federal Police*

- Federal Ombudsman

New South Wales

- State Ombudsman
- Independent Commission Against Corruption
- NSW Police Internal Affairs Department

Victoria

- State Ombudsman

Queensland

- Criminal Justice Commission
- Queensland Police Internal Affairs Department

Western Australia

- State Ombudsman

South Australia

- Police Complaints Authority

Tasmania

- Tasmanian Police Internal Affairs Department

Northern Territory

- Territory Ombudsman

Australian Capital Territory

- Federal Ombudsman.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF POLICING IN AUSTRALIA

Despite covering an area (7,686,850 square kilometers) close to that of the continental United States, Australia's population is less than one tenth that of the United States. The vast majority of Australia's citizens are concentrated in large urban centers on the east coast of the country with the rest living in rural communities further inland. As a consequence, most police services in Australia are required to provide policing for extremely large and geographically diverse areas. For example, the New South Wales (NSW) police, Australia's largest police service with 17,000 employees, serves a population of approximately 7 million people spread over some 801,600 square kilometers, an area roughly the size of Texas and double the combined size of England, Scotland, and Wales. In order to manage the various problems associated with distance and policing isolated population centers, police services in Australia typically are well-equipped to operate both in the air and at sea. In NSW, the Police Air Wing—which consists of a number of highly equipped police helicopters—provides aerial support for a range of policing tasks such as traffic patrol and searches for offenders, as well as emergency assistance during natural disasters such as bushfires and floods.

In addition to the geographical challenges they face, one of the key features that distinguishes the police in Australia from their counterparts in other countries is the range of functions that they perform, functions that in other jurisdictions would be undertaken by employees of dedicated government agencies. In Queensland, for example, it was noted by a Commission of Inquiry in 1989 that police officers could be appointed as an Acting Clerk of the Court, Acting Inspector of Stock, Flood

Warning Officer, Ration Issuing Officer, Fire Warden, Assistant Mining Registrar, Explosives Officer, Inspector of Stamp Duties, Main Roads Collector, Acting Land Agent, Commonwealth Electoral Officer, Acting Harbor Master, Acting Shipping Inspector, and an authorized Customs Officer. For the most part, this situation has arisen for geographical reasons, as the police often are the only government body operating in remote rural areas, and as such the only agency available to perform these various functions.

THE CHALLENGE OF MULTICULTURALISM

Because of successive waves of immigration since the country was first colonized by the English in the late 1700s, Australia's population has historically been a diverse range of cultural and ethnic groupings. Furthermore, as a result of continuing immigration since the end of World War II, almost one third of Australia's current population is composed of individuals born outside the country. According to the findings of the 2001 National Census, of a total population of 18,972,350, 13,629,685 (72%) were born in Australia (Indigenous Australians, mainly Aborigines and Torres Strait Islanders, make up an additional 2%). The major groupings of those born in other countries are the United Kingdom (1,036,245), New Zealand (355,765), Italy (218,718), Vietnam (154,831) and, in descending numerical order, China, Greece, Germany, Philippines, India, the Netherlands, South Africa, Malaysia, Lebanon, Hong Kong, Poland, Yugoslavia, USA, Sri Lanka, and Croatia. While English remains the national language, according to estimates more than 160 other languages were spoken in homes across Australia in the late 2000s.

Because of this cultural and linguistic diversity, police services in Australia have had to develop a range of strategies for dealing with the challenges posed by a multicultural society. Some of the most prominent the initiatives taken by the police in Australia in recent years include:

- The establishment of specialist multicultural and ethnic affairs units
- The appointment of ethnic liaison officers

- The provision of multilingual information about local police services and functions
- The establishment of sensitivity and cultural awareness training programs for serving officers
- The establishment of programs designed to increase the number of officers recruited from ethnic communities
- The development of community policing programs specifically directed at the needs of ethnic minorities

Although there is no statutory right—except at the federal level and in Victoria and South Australia—to access to interpreters when dealing with the police and the legal system more generally, all states and territories provide non-English speakers with professional interpreter services on a user-pays system. Many commentators in Australia continue to regard the provision of professional interpreters by the police as inadequate and as a major stumbling block to the development of good relations between the police and ethnic minority communities. In many parts of the country, relations between the police and indigenous communities—in particular Aboriginal communities—continue to be strained, with the police being accused by community leaders of racial profiling and contributing to the high rate of Aboriginal deaths in custody.

In addition to the multicultural policing programs in operation at the state and territorial levels, the Australasian Police Multicultural Advisory Bureau (formerly the National Police Ethnic Advisory Bureau) also provides police services with advice and guidance on matters relating to the policing of minorities and the provision of policing to multiethnic communities.

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AUSTRIA

The police in Austria have a 400-year history that began in 1569 and has its roots in the city guard of Vienna, the nation's capital and country's largest metropolis. The guard started with 150 members, and by 1618 it had more than 1,000. Because of conflicts with the Imperial War Council, Vienna established its own Public Order Watch in 1646, which was replaced by a police force in 1776. The police, however, continued a dual function of maintaining public order and engaging in military operations. It was not until 1850 that Emperor Franz Josef I created the Gendarmerie as an independent and professional police agency, placing it under the direction of the Minister of the Interior. Large-scale reform occurred in the police profession in Austria after World War II again in 1993; and a major reorganization of all law enforcement agencies occurred in 2004.

LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

The law enforcement community in Austria is comprised of a number of specialized agencies:

- The *Bundespolizei* (state/city police) is responsible for the uniformed patrol of large city jurisdictions.



- The *Gendarmerie* is responsible for patrolling the less populated countryside regions throughout Austria.
- The *Bundeskriminalamt* (national crime office) investigates all major crime incidents.
- The *Zoll Wache* (national customs office) provides coverage at the European Union borders and airports, ensures that international taxes are properly controlled and paid, and prevents human and contraband smuggling.
- The *Schiffahrtspolizei* (river and harbor police) patrol the rivers and harbors throughout Austria and control human and contraband smuggling along waterways.

These law enforcement agencies provide Austria, which experiences a relatively low level of crime and violence, with a professional workforce that is respected, effective, and rich in history and pride.

THE BUNDESPOLIZEI (STATE/CITY POLICE)

The Bundespolizei traces its roots to the 16th century, when in 1527, Kaiser Ferdinand I issued the New Policies (*Polizey*) and Rules of Craftsmen and Workers. These rules, or *Polizeys*, mandated that it was the responsibility of each craftsman and worker to assist the city prosecutor to apprehend violators and “dangerous strangers” and bring them to justice.

The recent history of Austria is considered to have commenced at the end of World War II and the 10 years following it. There was major reform as national and domestic security responsibilities returned to the government of Austria first in 1955 and again in 1993 after the collapse of the Soviet Empire in Eastern Europe.

The Austrian Bundespolizei (State Police) was created out of a need for a dedicated police agency in Austria's largest cities. It is responsible for the uniformed patrol and investigation of minor crimes in the 14 largest cities within Austria. These jurisdictions—Vienna, Innsbruck, Villach, Klagenfurt, Salzburg, Linz, Graz, Eisenstadt, St. Pollen, Wels, Steyr, Wiener Neustadt, Leoben, and Schwechat—are the most densely populated cities in this nation. There are presently 10,000 Bundespolizei officers ensuring public order and providing a uniformed presence. The largest Direktion (Regional Headquarters) is located in Vienna, which is headed by the civilian “Polizeipräsident” (Police Commissioner) and the uniformed “Generalinspektor” (Police Chief).

THE GENDARMERIE (NATIONAL POLICE)

The Gendarmerie is Austria's oldest agency dedicated to law enforcement. The term *Gendarmerie* is based on the French term meaning men of arms. This complement of 15,000 patrols the nation's vast mountainous countryside. With more than 800 police stations, the Gendarmerie provides safety and security to 98% of the nation. In addition to patrolling the countryside and highways in uniform, the Gendarmerie has the job of patrolling the easternmost frontier of the European Union (EU), which presently borders Slovenia to the south, Hungary and Slovakia to the east, and the Czech Republic to the north. The largest concern in border patrol continues to be the prevention of human and contraband smuggling.

The Gendarmerie also serves as the national police agency that provides protection to government and visiting dignitaries. This responsibility, as well as counterterrorism and tactical expertise, is provided by the Gendarmerieeinsatzkommanden

(Gendarmerie Tactical Commandos), who are more popularly referred to as “GEK” or “Cobra,” and are highly trained.

THE BUNDESKRIMINALAMT (NATIONAL CRIME BUREAU)

Austria's Bundeskriminalamt (BKA) (National Crime Bureau) is designed to act as a national agency responsible for the investigation of serious crime incidents and acts of terrorism and for cooperation with international law enforcement agencies. The organization and responsibilities of the BKA mirrors those of America's Federal Bureau of Investigation. While common and low-level crime is normally investigated by local Gendarmerie or Bundespolizei detectives, the investigation of large-scale, serious, and sensational incidents are the responsibility of the National Crime Bureau.

The BKA, an agency of 2,300 investigators, is headed by a National Director and is divided into six sub-bureaus:

1. BKA Administration and Training Bureau
2. International Police Cooperation Bureau
3. Crime Investigation Bureau
4. Crime Analysis and Prevention Bureau
5. Police Investigation Assistance Bureau
6. Forensic Laboratory and Technical Bureau

With the expansion of the EU, agreements within the European Commission, and the attention given to international terrorism, the International Police Cooperation Bureau has evolved into a critical arm of the BKA. In addition, although Austria is generally a conservative and passive nation, acts of domestic terrorism have occurred. Mail bombs targeting politicians in Austria and surrounding nations continue to plague the European continent. Because of their training and expertise, the BKA plays a critical role in supporting local investigators

from the Bundespolizei and Gendarmarie in the investigation of local crime incidents.

ZOLL WACHE (NATIONAL CUSTOMS OFFICE)

The 2,100 officers of the Austrian Zoll Wache are responsible for the control and collection of taxes at border crossings and airports. Supported by the Gendarmerie at border locations, these customs officers have the critical task of maintaining the southeastern frontier of the EU. Routine attempts to smuggle drugs, undocumented aliens, weapons, and other contraband into the EU from the Middle East through the former Yugoslavian and Soviet states have plagued the Austrian Zoll Wache. Because Austria is presently the easternmost border of the EU, any smuggler safely entering Austria is free to travel throughout the other EU countries without much further restriction or regulation. While currently overburdened, the eastward and southward expansion of the EU will dramatically reduce the importance of Austria's border patrol and eventually leave the Zoll Wache with only limited responsibilities at international airports.

SCHIFFFAHRTSPOLIZEI (RIVER AND HARBOR PATROL)

The country of Austria has many rivers that pass through it, most notably the Inn and the Danube. However, the Danube River (Donau), which continues into Hungary and eventually to the Black Sea, is the most navigable and best-known waterway, with both recreational and commercial watercraft using it. This provides the 100 officers of the Schifffahrtspolizei (River Patrol) with difficult border patrol and custom control duties, as large container ships are easy vessels for smuggling both illegal aliens and contraband. The threat of international terrorism has increased the need for stronger regulation of maritime vessels.

The River Patrol are trained to recognize falsified and counterfeit passports and visas, and they receive extensive training and technology in the identification of legitimate travel documents.

LAW ENFORCEMENT TRAINING IN AUSTRIA

With the establishment of the European Commission and the EU, the training of law enforcement personnel has become somewhat standardized throughout the continent. Austria's national legal and criminal justice systems allow for uniform training at regional agency academies throughout the country, with introductory training lasting approximately 2 years. In all law enforcement agencies, the basic instruction lasts 5 to 6 months, followed by a 2- to 3-month field training program, and a subsequent 14- to 15-month intensive academic program. Specialized and promotional law enforcement training takes place in Vienna.

THE FUTURE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT IN AUSTRIA

With the planned expansion of the EU further southward to Slovenia and further eastward to Hungary, Poland, the Czech Republic, and Slovakia, the responsibility for border patrol and control will shift from Austria to the new EU member nations. A major reorganization in 2004 was to merge the State Police, the Gendarmerie, the National Crime Bureau (BKA), and many members of Customs Office and River Patrol into one agency, the Polizei, under the direction of the Minister of the Interior and one national police administration. However, a small complement of both the Customs Office and the River Patrol continued to be under the guidance of the Minister of Finance and the Minister of Traffic, respectively.

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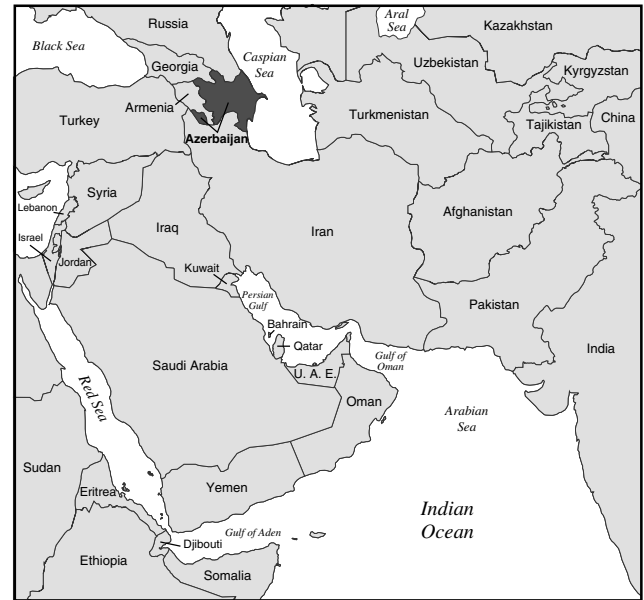
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AZERBAIJAN

Azerbaijan, also known as the Azerbaijani Republic, is situated in Transcaucasia, bordering the Caspian Sea and having frontiers with the Russian Federation, Georgia, Armenia, Turkey, and Iran. It covers approximately 86,600 square kilometers and currently has approximately 8 million inhabitants, 53% of whom live in towns. The majority religion, followed by 80% of the population, is Islam. The government is a mixed parliamentary-presidential regime with a very strong president. The judicial power is vested in a Constitutional Court, a Supreme Court, an Economic Court, specialized courts, and ordinary courts. The Supreme Court is the highest court on criminal, civil, administrative, and nonconstitutional matters.

CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

The criminal justice system in Azerbaijan includes two centralized executive agencies: the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Ministry of Justice oversees the judicial system. The Office of the Prokuratura (Prosecutor) General is responsible for ensuring that investigative agencies and court proceedings are in compliance with the constitution. The Ministry of Internal Affairs oversees the law enforcement agencies. The militia is the major police force in Azerbaijan. It is a single system, which is incorporated into the structure of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Minister of Internal Affairs appoints the heads of regional militia departments. The heads of city and district militia departments are appointed by the heads of regional militia departments. The militia consists of several subdivisions, including criminal division (detectives), public safety, transportation militia, traffic patrol, and special forces. Under the Law on Militia, the militia's major tasks are providing personal security for citizens, protecting their rights and freedoms, preventing and combating crime,



maintaining public order, uncovering and investigating crime, arresting offenders, maintaining safety on the roads, protecting public and private property, and executing criminal sentences and administrative penalties.

POLICING IN THE SOVIET ERA

The country was under the control of the Soviet Union for 71 years, between 1920 and 1991, and the police in Azerbaijan, like many other state agencies, still reflect the organizational and functional characteristics of the Soviet system of policing. Even though Azerbaijan is working toward adopting or revising all its institutions in order to comply with the needs of a democratic society, it is still important to address the Soviet legacy to better analyze policing in post-Soviet Azerbaijan.

The militia in the former Soviet Union was a standardized police organization, which existed in a vast territory that extended from East Germany to the Pacific Ocean. It was developed in Moscow and exported throughout the socialist societies. The Ministry of Interior Academy in Moscow trained personnel from all over what was then the Soviet Union. The militia was the primary law enforcement body responsible for social and economic order during more than 70 years of Soviet rule. The

relationship between the militia and the political structure in the Soviet Union remained much closer than in democratic societies, allowing the Communist Party to direct the militia to suppress political opposition. This close relationship harmed the militia deeply. By the end of the Soviet Union, the organization had entirely lost credibility with the public. Many members left the organization at the end of the 1980s leaving the police without the qualified, experienced personnel needed to fulfill increasingly difficult duties. Despite the final efforts to democratize during the perestroika years, the Soviet militia remained as an authoritarian police force.

THE POST-SOVIET POLICING

The changes occurring following socialist policing were not planned but were a result of the unexpected collapse of the Soviet Union. In this new period, Azerbaijan was forced to develop its own police system without direction from Moscow. In restructuring its law enforcement operations, the Azerbaijan government consulted the ministries of internal affairs of Georgia, Iran, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Russia, and Turkey. In 1993, the Ministry of Internal Affairs sent 90 employees to study law enforcement at educational institutions in Russia and Ukraine. Contacts were strengthened with the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol) and the national law enforcement agencies of neighboring countries.

In 1993, liaison was established with the border troop commands of Russia, Kazakhstan, and Ukraine for cooperative drug control and exchange of methodology. A small officer-training program for border troops has been established at the Baku All Forces Commanders' School. In the same year, the Ministry of Internal Affairs underwent a major reform and abolished the Administration for the Struggle Against Terrorism and Banditry, which was nominally the spearhead of the national crime prevention system.

PROBLEMS IN POST-SOVIET POLICING

Despite these reforms in the transition period, Azerbaijan could not achieve democratic policing

standards. The post-Soviet police forces inherited the law enforcement problems of the Soviet period. Police in Azerbaijan continued to manage law enforcement in the newly independent state with the same personnel, the same mandate, and many of the same laws as in Soviet times. Independence did not eliminate the causes of endemic corruption, the lack of legal consciousness, or the severely limited technical capabilities of the police.

Delaying reforms put the country in difficult situations in the international arena. Azerbaijan appears on internationally recognized lists of the most corrupted countries in the world. The police and other security force personnel were accused of using excessive force. There were concerns about the government's pressure on the police to suppress political opposition and minorities.

Recent Developments and the Future

Despite all these problems and criticisms, there have been significant efforts in Azerbaijan in recent years to create a more democratic society. There is significant ongoing cooperation with the Council of Europe with regard to legal reforms. Azerbaijan signed and ratified 31 conventions with the Council of Europe as of September 2002. The country has adopted laws or revised its legislation in many fields, including the law on the institution of Ombudsman, the Law on the Bar, and the Code of Criminal Procedure. There are also efforts on adopting or reviewing both the Anticorruption Law and the Law on Advocates and Advocacy.

The Police Act

Complying with the reforms in the entire criminal justice system, a Police Act was passed in 1999. The new legislation provides a stricter supervision of the police. In 2001, the Parliament ratified the European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment and its protocols. Under this convention, Azerbaijan has agreed to prosecute members of law-enforcement bodies who have violated human rights in the course of their duties. The Police Act brought some regulations to police training

as well. Seminars to educate the police in human rights are regularly held, and a human rights course has been included in the police college training program.

CONCLUSIONS

The complications of the Communist Party regime's legacy still persist in Azerbaijan, and the police organization is not an exception to this. A sudden change in the political system does not necessarily mean a complete change in the whole social structure. It will take time to solve the problems inherited from the Soviet regime. Fortunately, international cooperation is increasingly becoming a common way to support governments' efforts to democratize their institutions. Azerbaijan represents a good example of this cooperation between the national government and international organizations. The cooperation initiated with the Council of

Europe is particularly significant for developing a democratic police organization and criminal justice system.

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B

BAHAMAS

The Bahamas is a chain of islands in the Caribbean southeast of Florida and north of Cuba. It covers an area of 13,940 square kilometers. It has a population of 297,000 (July 2003 estimate). From the mid-1600s until 1973 the Bahamas were a British territory. Since attaining independence from the United Kingdom in 1973, the Bahamas have prospered through tourism, international banking, and investment management. Its location makes the country a major transshipment point for illegal drugs, especially to the United States, and its territory is used for smuggling illegal migrants into the United States.

The Bahamas is a constitutional parliamentary democracy whose legal system is based on English common law. A member of the British Commonwealth of nations, its head of state is the British monarch, represented by a governor general, who appoints the prime minister and cabinet members. It has a bicameral parliament: Senate members are appointed by the governor general, and the House of Assembly is elected by popular vote.

The Royal Bahamas Police Force (RBPF) is the official police service. It is firmly rooted in British traditions of policing.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The national police chief executive has the rank of the Commissioner of Police and is directly responsible to the Minister of National Security. The national police headquarters is situated in the capital, Nassau. The Commissioner of Police is assisted by a deputy and four assistant commissioners. The headquarters is divided into a number of functional departments including Operations, Administration, Criminal Investigation, Drug Control, Fire Safety, Immigration, and Traffic Control. The police forensic laboratory is also supervised by the police headquarters.

Under the Headquarters are Regional Police Districts led by District Constables appointed by the Commissioner of Police. Subordinated to District Constables are local Police Stations.

Several special police branches also directly report to the National Police Headquarters, including the Naval unit, Helicopter unit, and mobile force as well as the police fire-fighting units, consisting of regular and volunteer fire-brigades. The total strength of the Bahamas police force is 2,500 full-time constables, a ratio of 1 for every 119 inhabitants. An additional 500 part-time constables serve in the Police Reserve, which was established in 1965.



The Police College is located in Nassau. The training period for police recruits is 6 months.

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BAHRAIN

The Kingdom of Bahrain is an archipelago in the Persian Gulf. It has a total area of approximately 665 square kilometers and a population of 667,200 inhabitants (December 2003). The population includes approximately 295,000 nonnationals who make up an immigrant labor force, primarily from India and other Southeast Asian countries. Non-Bahraini Arabs make up 10% of this population.

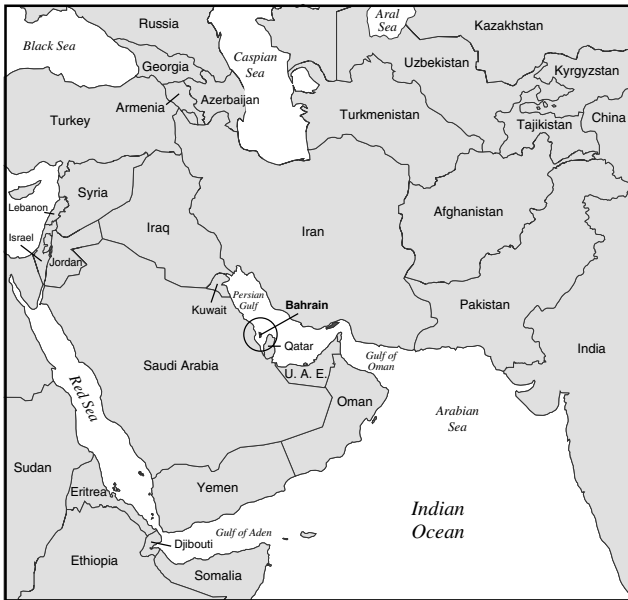
The Bahraini political system is a hereditary, constitutional monarchy. It has been ruled by the al-Khalifa family since the 18th century. The legislature is partially elected; the judiciary is independent. Bahrain has a dual court system, relying on

a civil law tradition, with a British common law influence, as well as Islamic law (*sharia*). Islamic law is primarily used for matters such as marriage and divorce. Civil law courts are used for most criminal cases. Policing in Bahrain is the work of a national force.

Prior to the al-Khalifa dynasty, Bahrain was intermittently controlled by the Persians, as part of the Sassanid empire (4th century C.E.) and the Persian empire (1783-1820). In the middle ages, the country was part of the Abbasid empire. Bahrain signed its first treaty with Britain, granting them exclusive trade rights, in 1820. From 1861 to 1971 it was a British protectorate. In the mid-20th century, while under British control, Bahrain was part of the Trucial States and Qatar in the Federation of Arab Emirates.

The official name of the national police force has been Bahrain Public Security since the country achieved independence in 1972. It is a branch of the Ministry of the Interior. The force dates back to 1962 when, while the country was still under British control, the Bahrain State Police was created. Currently, the police are divided into 12 administrative municipalities with headquarters in Manama, the capital. Their primary mission is to prevent sectarian violence and terrorism. Officers are trained at the Royal Police College. The hierarchy of the force reflects the British model.

According to the most recently available data (1993), the Bahraini police number between approximately 2,000 and 9,000 officers. Statistics about the organization are not regularly released, and attempts to obtain more recent data from the Ministry of the Interior were not successful. However, press reports indicate that in September 2003, the number of police officers was increased in order to respond to rising crime rates and the possibility that al-Qaeda terrorist cells were operating in the country. Reportedly, because of the increase in crime, some finance companies, which represent a key economic sector in the country, have moved to Dubai in the United Arab Emirates. In 2004, police officials announced that there had been an increase in street muggings and property crimes. The force recently added another 50 motorized anticrime patrols around-the-clock.



An estimate of the citizen police ratio ranges from 1 officer for every 335 citizens to 1 officer to every 75 citizens, depending on the source of information. In addition, there is a division of female police officers, the Women Police, but further information is not available.

Community policing has taken hold in Bahrain, representing a transplant of police practices from other countries brought by officers who have attended police workshops abroad. Before beginning the community policing program in 1999, 18 officers were sent to the United Kingdom for specialized training. Community policing is now taught at the Royal Police College. According to press reports, it was implemented to enlist community help in fighting crime and to reach out to the *Shi'a* community. Although the *Shi'a* community is the largest ethnic group in the country, some *Shi'a* have accused the government of discriminatory targeting of their community in its crime-control efforts.

The 10th Annual International Police Executive Symposium was held in Bahrain in October 2003, during which Bahraini police officers consulted with police officers from other countries about community policing implementation strategies.

Bahrain is a member of Interpol.

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✎ BANGLADESH

Bangladesh is a small country in South Asia on the Bay of Bengal, bordered by India and Myanmar (Burma). It has an area of 144,000 square kilometers and a population of 138.4 million (July 2003 estimate). It is extremely susceptible to flooding because it is located on the flood plains and delta of the Ganges (Padma), Brahmaputra (Jamuna), and Meghna rivers and their tributaries. The economy is primarily based on agriculture (rice and jute), although growing industrialization, particularly garment production, is an increasingly important part of the economy.

Bangladesh, a parliamentary democracy, was created in 1971. It had been part of the Indian province of Bengal, which was colonized by Britain. After decolonization in 1947, Bengal was divided along ethnic lines. Although not geographically contiguous, the Muslim areas became Pakistan (divided as East and West Pakistan). Relations between the two were strained in part because of cultural and



linguistic differences although their religion was the same. In 1971, East Pakistan declared independence from Pakistan and renamed itself Bangladesh. Its civil administration and legal system is modeled on the British system.

BANGLADESH POLICE

During the struggle for independence, policing broke down and law and order was maintained by combating forces. After independence, the police system needed to be entirely re-created as senior positions had been held primarily by officers from West Pakistan. Women have been part of the Bangladesh police since 1974. Although they initially focused exclusively on crimes against women or women perpetrators of crime, their role has since expanded. In addition to serving as regular members of urban police forces, women are members of the Special Branch, Criminal Investigation Division, immigration, district headquarters, and police headquarters.

The police are criticized by human rights organizations as reluctant to conduct impartial investigations against politically powerful players; the service also has a reputation for widespread corruption. The army-led October 2002 Operation Clean Heart led to widespread detention and allegations of torture of citizens; although the troops were

withdrawn in the face of wide public opposition, officers were nevertheless given immunity from civilian prosecution. In 2003, controversy continued over the creation of a special anticrime force comprised of police and paramilitary organizations; police in Dhaka were reportedly given orders to “shoot on sight” violent offenders.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

There is little publicly available current information about Bangladesh’s police. In the late 1980s, the force was structured along a two-tier hierarchy. In 1988, total police strength was estimated at 40,000 to 50,000. According to statements made by police officials to the press, in 2004 the force numbered slightly over 100,000 (a ratio of 1 for every 1,380 inhabitants).

The police force is headed by an inspector general and is part of the Ministry of Home Affairs. At the headquarters level, staff departments include District Police, Criminal Investigation Division, Special Branch, Railway Police, Traffic Police, River Police, City Police, Cavalier Police, Armed Police Battalion, and Range Reserve Force.

The police hierarchy generally follows the administrative divisions of the country into ranges, districts, and subdistricts. Police districts are gathered into six civilian ranges (and one railway range) and supervised by deputy inspector generals. In major urban areas, commissioners of police direct the work of the force and report directly to the inspector general.

The police force is decentralized, with a dual chain of command leading to the general police hierarchy as well as to designated civil governmental officials. At the national level, the Inspector General reports to the Ministry of Home Affairs. At the range level, the deputy inspector general answers to the civilian division commissioner. At the district level, police superintendents are subordinate to deputy commissioners charged with tax collection, law and order, and administration of justice. Deputy commissioners also are responsible for police inspection and oversight.

“Gazetted officers,” accounting for the ranks of inspector general, deputy inspector general, superintendent, and assistant superintendent, are relatively high ranking members of the civil service. Subordinate grades (nongazetted officers) include inspectors (who are normally commanders at the subdistrict level), subinspector, and assistant subinspector (who normally carry out relatively senior positions); the majority of the force carry the lower subordinate ranks of head constable and constable.

Part-time village constables act as auxiliaries; they are recruited locally and receive a small salary.

OTHER SPECIALIZED OR LAW ENFORCEMENT UNITS

The Armed Unit, a 5,000-member elite force, responds to violent disturbances and threats to public order. It cooperates and frequently deploys alongside the army and paramilitary forces, but is under the authority of the Ministry of Home Affairs. As of early 2004, there were plans to reorganize the unit as the Rapid Armed Battalion.

The Bangladesh Rifles is a 40,000-member paramilitary unit commanded by army officers seconded to the Ministry of Home Affairs. The force was created as a border patrol unit after independence, and was comprised of former fighters in the struggle against Pakistan. The scarcity of other available resources has perpetuated its existence as an auxiliary force in maintaining internal security. Its responsibilities include patrolling borders, stopping smuggling, investigating transborder crimes, and extending governmental authority in isolated areas; it also supports the army in times of war and has been called to intervene in cases of civil disturbances.

The Ansar and Village Defense Party are separate but related civilian auxiliary forces. Ansar (Arabic for “helper”) was an auxiliary defense force created in 1948 to assist in maintaining law and order, participate in civic action projects in rural areas, and perform rear area missions in conjunction with the army during wartime. Its headquarters and its National Training Centre are located at

Gazipur, approximately 30 kilometers north of Dhaka. Although reliance on the Ansars has fluctuated according to the degree to which the ruling elite felt vulnerable, their deployment increased after the 1980s when rural security became a problem.

The Village Defense Party is another auxiliary unit, created in 1976 and recruited locally. Alongside part-time constables, it is charged with routine village security duties; however, its primary mission is to promote rural improvement projects, such as digging canals. It claims to have 64 members in every village.

In 1995, legislation was passed according to the Ansar and Village Defense Party status as “disciplined forces.” They were divided into three units: the Ansar Bahini, the Battalion Ansar, and the Village Defense Party. The primary duties of the Ansar Bahini are to assist the government or any concerned authority in maintaining public order and social security; to take part in programs for socioeconomic development of the country; and to assist other forces by order of the government. The duties of Ansar Battalions are to participate in disaster management activities, to assist other forces by the order of the government, and to carry out duties entrusted under the relevant acts to the Ansar Bahini. The duties of Village Defense Parties are to assist welfare activities to develop the socioeconomic condition of the country; to participate in activities to maintain law and order and social security; and to perform any other duties assigned from time to time by the government.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

The first police training schools were established in Bangladesh in 1903 for nongazetted officers; these schools were in operation until 1912, when a police academy was founded in Sarda to train those at the rank of assistant superintendent and below. Gazetted officers were trained in India, but eventually the Sarda Police Training Academy developed its own curriculum for their training.

Constables are trained in four regional schools. Detectives are trained in a separate institution,

where officers of varying rank are trained to investigate crime; this institution also has a training center for telecommunications. The Special Branch police also has a separate academy for its lower rank officers and staff, as does the Traffic police.

The police operate a special Jungle Warfare and Tactical Training School for inspectors and their subordinates.

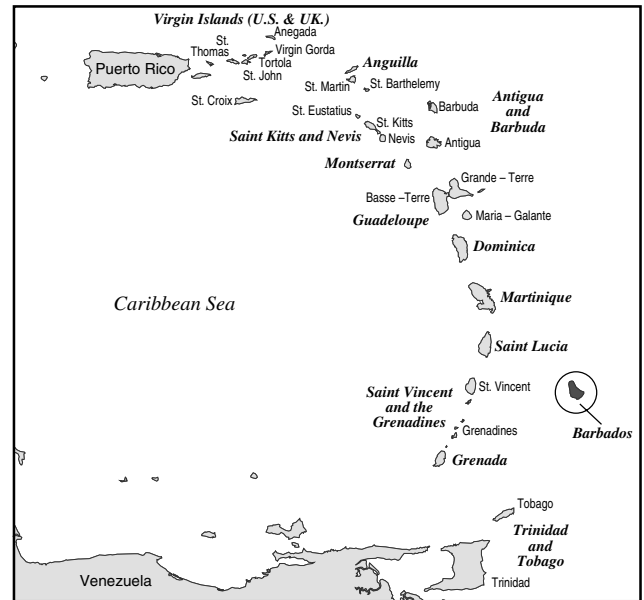
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☉ BARBADOS

Barbados is the easternmost nation in the Caribbean. Its size is about three times that of Washington, DC (166 square miles). Its population as of 2003 was 277,300 people. It gained its independence from Britain in 1966 and is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The government of Barbados, like others in the Commonwealth, has the British monarch as its titular head of government who is represented on the island by a Governor General. The Prime Minister is the head of government and he and his cabinet constitute the executive branch. The legislature, a Westminster-style (Great Britain) bicameral parliament with 30 elected members of the House of Assembly and 21 appointed Senators, is the third oldest in the Western Hemisphere and held its first session in 1639. There are two major political parties, but they



differ little ideologically and there is little social instability during elections, unlike in neighboring Jamaica.

ROYAL BARBADOS POLICE FORCE

The Royal Barbados Police Force (RBPF) is a national police agency organized on the British colonial police model. It is a paramilitary organization with a present complement of 1,328 officers and constables (4.79 per 1,000 population). In addition, the force includes 113 special constables and 45 island constables who patrol and maintain order in tourist areas across the island. As of 2004, approximately 10% of the force is female. Recruits must be 19 years of age, have a secondary school diploma with at least three “O” level examinations (equivalent of sophomore year of high school in the United States), and spend 22 weeks at the Regional Training Facility in Barbados. This facility trains not only RBPF recruits, but also recruits from other Caribbean nations. RBPF recruits then spend another 2 weeks in the Division “A” training facility where they learn about the laws and procedures specific to Barbados. This training facility also presents inservice courses for constables and officers such as community policing workshops and criminal investigation courses. Officers who qualify

on firearms may patrol while armed. Qualified officers must requalify every 6 months. Weapons and ammunition are assigned to qualified officers at each shift's roll-call and are stored at the police station when not in service.

The Police Service Commission, whose members are appointed by the Governor General, is the oversight body for the RBPF. The lower ranks of the force, from constable to inspector, are represented by the Police Association. Although it does not have an official union status, it does exercise some power of persuasion in matters dealing with the conditions of employment.

The force is divided geographically into three divisions: Bridgetown (which includes the Central Headquarters), Northern, and Southern Divisions, for a total of 15 police districts. The organization is also divided by function into the Criminal Investigation Division, Traffic and Transport Section, Special Branch, Mounted Branch, Canine Section, Marine Section, Special Services Unit, Police Band, Office of Professional Responsibility (which investigates citizen complaints), Research and Planning Unit, and Training Unit. The activities of the various divisions, sections, and units are continuously coordinated by weekly strategy meetings attended by the commissioner, division commanders, and other top-ranking officials. In addition, the Research and Planning Unit is actively involved in assessing programs and procedures and supplying requested analyses to the central command.

The RBPF provides both motorized (60% of total patrol) and foot (40% of total patrol) to the island. The majority of the foot patrols are assigned to the Bridgetown area and the various tourist and shopping areas across the island. Community policing is a major part of the RBPF's approach to service delivery. The organization not only has mini-stations in four of the island's housing estates (Deacon's Farm, New Orleans, Haynesville, and Gall Hill), but also implements a Resident Beat Officer Program where constables are responsible for order maintenance and crime control in their specific police beats 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. Barbados boasts of 93 neighborhood watch organizations and maintains a very active Boys and Girls Club. Community

involvement is further encouraged by the RBPF through their Community Consultative Committees comprised of citizens, clergy, and nongovernmental organization officials which meet periodically (at least once each quarter) across the island to discuss community needs and policing-related issues.

The RBPF is a member of the Association of Caribbean Commissioners of Police and Interpol. It is also the only police force in the Caribbean that has been certified by the United States-based Commission on Accreditation for Law Enforcement Agencies (CALEA).

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✎ BELARUS

Belarus is in Eastern Europe, bordered by Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Russia, and Ukraine. It has an area of 207,600 square kilometers and a population of 10.3 million (July 2003 estimate). After seven decades as a constituent republic of the USSR, Belarus became independent in 1991. It has retained closer political and economic ties with Russia than with any other former Soviet republic. Belarus and Russia signed a treaty on a two-state union on December 8, 1999, envisioning greater political, economical, and military integration. Although Belarus agreed to a framework to carry out the accord, serious implementation has not yet happened. The transition to democracy has not been easy; in 1995, 22% of the population was below the poverty line.

The legal system is based on civil law. The head of state is the president, but the government is led



by the prime minister, who is appointed by the president. The president also appoints the cabinet and commanders of the armed forces, police, and other law enforcement agencies. Belarus has a popularly elected bicameral parliament.

LAW ENFORCEMENT

There are a number of law enforcement agencies in Belarus, all highly centralized. These include the Internal Security Service and the Border Guard, which report directly to the president, and the police (Militia), Internal Military Troops, Prison Guard, State Forest Rangers, and the Customs Service.

The Interior Ministry (*Ministerstvo Vnutrennykh Del*) encompasses most law enforcement agencies, including the police, Internal Military Troops, Anti-Terrorist Units, and the Prison Guard. The minister is appointed by the president, who also appoints the minister's four deputy ministers. The ministry is divided into the following sections:

- Main Staff (*Shtab*)
- Committee for Combating Organized Crime
- Main Directorate for education of staff and for personnel matters
- Inspectorate (for preventing and combating corruption and other forms of crime within the forces of the Ministry)

- Finance Office
- Control and Revision Office
- Logistics Directorate
- Secret Documents and Codes Office
- Public Relation Office
- Educational Institutions Directorate

The primary law enforcement agency in Belarus is the police (militia, or *militsiya*). It has four main divisions: Criminal Police, Prevention Police, Traffic Police, and Transport Police.

The Criminal Police is the backbone of the Police Service and conducts typical policing tasks. The Prevention Police includes strong anti-riot police units. The Traffic Police (GAI—*Gosudarstvennaya Avtomobilnaya Inspektsiya*) in addition to ensuring safety on the roads, also fights the import of stolen vehicles from abroad. The Transport Police is responsible for security and order in the Minsk subway and on state railroads. The Transport Police are particularly active; on a typical day they will patrol and conduct checks on 125 trains and arrest close to 50 people for various forms of criminal behavior.

The Main Chief of Police is appointed by the president; and is the First Deputy of the Interior Minister as well as Main Chief of Police. The National Police Headquarters provides support for the Main Chief. This body consists of the following directorates: Operational and Organizational Matters, Investigation, Crime Against Persons, Investigation of Past Crime, Narcotics, Economic Crime, High-Technology Crime, Information and Analyses, and Information Technology. In addition, headquarters includes the National Bureau for Interpol; and the Committee for Combating Corruption and Organized Crime. The antiterrorist police, *ALMAZ* (Diamond) is also a part of the headquarters.

Directly related to the National Police Headquarters are educational, logistical and anti-riot police units. At the regional level, there are provincial (*Voblasti*) Police headquarters in all six provinces: Minsk, Homel, Vitebsk, Brest, Mohilev, and Grodno, as well as in the capital city of Minsk. On the subregional level there are police headquarters in all Districts (*Rajony*), to supervise the local police stations.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT UNITS

The Internal Security Service—(*Sluzhba Bezopasnosti*) is an elite, nationwide force, directly subordinate to the president of the country. It primarily targets the political opposition, particularly clandestine organizations. It also investigates espionage and organized crime and is responsible for the state boundaries. The fully militarized state Border Guard is part of the Internal Security Service.

The Interior Minister has another deputy who is, simultaneously, the main Chief of the General Security and Special Police. The following directorates and offices are subordinated to this deputy: Law and Order, Prevention Directorate, the Main Directorate of Traffic Police, the Passports and Visa office, the Central Office of Operational Duty, the Service Office for Misdemeanors, the Bureau for Identification (Passports) for Republic Citizens, the Special Anti-Riot and Anti-Terrorist Police Unit *Strela* (Arrow) Military-Mobilization Office, and the Central Directorate for Communications.

The ranks and uniforms of the Belarus police have not changed since Soviet times, although the communist emblem of a red star has been replaced by the new national coat of arms. Ranks remain aligned with the military structure, for example: Sergeant, Lieutenant, Captain, Major, Colonel, General.

INTERNAL TROOPS

Another institution that has descended from the period of the USSR is the institution of Internal Troops (*Vnutrennyje Vojska*). Under the supervision of the Interior Ministry these are military forces, headed by one of the deputies of the Interior Minister, and appointed by the president of the state. In comparison with the police which consists exclusively of volunteer professionals, some 60% to 65% of the Internal Troops are comprised of conscripts, enlisted for a 2-year term of service. Only senior noncommissioned officers, warrant officers, and commissioned officers are professionals. Internal troops are deployed in separate regiments and separate battalions located around the country, although focused in the six provincial

capitals. They act both independently and in cooperation with the police, fulfilling approximately the same role as the French Gendarmerie or Italian *Carabinieri*. Their weaponry includes armed helicopters, armored cars, and even light artillery. Within these troops are sapper units, who are still engaged in clearing the many minefields that remain from the Second World War.

Both commissioned police officers and commissioned officers for the Internal Troops are educated in 4-year programs at the Military Academy of Belarus, which includes an autonomous Department of Internal Affairs, supervised by the Interior Minister. Warrant and noncommissioned officers for the Interior Ministry units are trained in one of a number of police and internal troops schools and educational centers. These facilities also conduct basic training for entry-level police recruits.

According to Interpol statistics, Belarus has a relatively low crime rate, which is commensurate with the large resources devoted to law enforcement. The overall number of offenses in Belarus fell from 661,769 in 1995 to 151,172 in 2003. However, murder rates during this period increased from 960 in 1995 to 1,079 in 2003.

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✎ BELGIUM

Belgium is located on the North Sea in Western Europe bordered by France, Luxembourg, Germany, and the Netherlands. It has an area of 30,510 square kilometers and a population of approximately 10.3 million people (July 2003 estimate). Belgium is a federal parliamentary democracy under a constitutional



monarch. The head of government is the Prime Minister; a Council of Ministers is appointed by the monarch and approved by the government. The north is dominated by Dutch-speaking Flemings, and the south by French-speaking Walloons; each region has been formally recognized and given an element of autonomy.

Belgium became independent from the Netherlands in 1830 and was occupied by Germany in World War I and World War II. Brussels, Belgium's capital, is the seat of both the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the European Union.

BELGIAN POLICE FORCE

Until 2001, Belgium's police consisted of a Gendarmerie, Judicial Police, and Municipal Police. In the 1990s, popular dissatisfaction with the inability of the police structure to respond effectively to problems and questions of modern society led to calls for reform from the public, politicians, and the police officers themselves. After much discussion and serious research, politicians reached a deal known as "the Octopus agreement." This agreement, between eight democratic parties, was signed in the Belgian Parliament on May 24, 1998. The publication of the law of December 7, 1998,

was the final start of the reform of the Belgian police structure.

The new, integrated Belgian Police Force (BPF), which came into force on January 1, 2001, is a product of that 1998 Police Act. The new force's main goal was to put an end to certain tensions that existed between the different police services. Cooperation was the key word of the future. The integrated police consists of two structures that are active on different grounds: the federal police and the local police. The federal police performs federal or national tasks, while the local police is responsible for maintaining security and public order in 196 police "zones." The federal police was installed on January 1, 2001, and local police has been operational in the 196 Belgian police zones since January 1, 2002.

The new BPF is the result of the amalgamation of all previously autonomous and separated police forces, including the Gendarmerie and the Judicial Police. As of early 2004, it was still adjusting to the transformation; for example, a new police uniform had not been created yet (scheduled to be introduced in 2005).

In total, as of 2003, the Belgian Police had approximately 41,000 sworn police officers and a few thousand civilian employees, a ratio of 1 officer for every 251 inhabitants.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The BPF are under the supervision of the Justice Ministry. The head of the police is the Chief Commissioner; the National Police Headquarters are subordinate to the Commissioner. The headquarters has five general directorates, led by high-ranking police officers. These are:

1. General Directorate of the Federal Police
2. General Directorate of the Local Police
3. General Directorate for International Cooperation
4. General Directorate for Research and Development and Police Integration
5. General Directorate for Information and Public Relations

The bureaus of Interpol and Europol are located within the National Police Headquarters.

Since the reorganization of the police took place, the Belgian Police Forces consist of two main bodies: the Federal Police and the Local Police.

The Federal Police

The Federal Police consists of approximately 12,500 sworn officers. It includes the following specialized units:

- Administrative Police
- Judicial Police
- Maritime Police
- Transport Police
- Highway Traffic Police
- Railroad Police
- Airport Police
- Immigration Police
- Riot Police
- Protection Guard of the Royal Palace

The Federal Police also run all police educational and training centers, as well as most of the logistics and scientific police institutions.

Of special interest is the history of the Judicial Police. The Judicial Police has existed since Belgium obtained independence in 1830. It is a plainclothed criminal police force. Until the integration of the Belgian Police, it had approximately 1,400 highly professional police officers in 22 brigades, covering 27 judicial districts. A 23rd brigade was a national brigade fighting organized crime. This brigade was subjected to the orders of the Police Chief-Commissioner and under the authority of the Chief Royal Prosecutor. The link with states was ensured through the Ministry of Justice.

The Local Police

Parallel to the General Directorate for the Local Police (under the National Police headquarters) is a Permanent National Police Commission based in Brussels. In 2004, the President of the Commission was Dirk Van Nuffel. The Permanent National Police Commission consists of 14 high-ranking police officers (5 from the Walloon region, 7 from

Flemish regions, and 2 from Brussels). This Commission is mainly a consultative body dealing with the day-to-day activities of the Local Police.

Comprised of approximately 28,550 sworn officers and nearly 1,000 civilian employees, the local police is divided into two separate police entities: the Municipal Police and the Rural Police. The Municipal Police is comprised of 50 police zones (*Zones de Police*) including all the larger towns. The Rural Police is comprised of 146 police zones (also *Zones de Police*), which include all rural villages and small towns.

Every local police force is placed under the supervision of a Chief of Local Police. The chief is responsible for the execution of local police issues and the execution of the local security plan. The chief is also responsible for the management of the local police force; leading and organizing the force and assigning tasks to police officers.

The Municipal Police cooperates closely with the heads of the local civilian administration, namely mayors of the towns, while the Rural Police cooperates with the local civilian administration with the help of Police Councils (*Collèges de Police*). These represent the local civilian administration and local communities, which, at a minimum, have one representative from all the villages, regardless of their size.

In police zones that consist of more than one city, two institutions relate to the local administration, the Police College and the Police Council. The Police College takes responsibilities that would otherwise fall to the municipal administration and the mayor concerning the organization and the management of the local police force. The Police College, or daily administration, gathers twice a month to assure operational coordination and cooperation.

Likewise, the Police Council takes responsibilities that would otherwise fall to the town council. The Police Council gathers 10 times per year (every month, except for July and August) and more often in case of emergency. The Police Council has been installed since April 9, 2001, and consists of 26 members (23 members of the three town councils, and the 3 mayors).

The Advisory Council of mayors is a representative body of 16 Belgian mayors. This council is responsible for deliberating on reform of the police forces, and, more particularly, on issues concerning the role of the local police force. It serves as a body for local authorities to play a part in determining local security policies.

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☉ BELIZE

With a population of approximately 250,000 people, this small Central American country bordering Mexico and Guatemala is still largely rural despite having undergone rapid changes within the past 20 years as a result of globalization and modernization.

LAW ENFORCEMENT IN BELIZE

Belize's current government, the People's United Party (PUP), took office in August 1998 promising to restore law and order to a country marked by corruption and human rights violations. In a security review ordered by the new government, the Belize Police Department (BPD) was found to be among the most neglected government agencies.

Drug farming, drug offenses, illegal firearms, domestic violence, missing children, random violence, unauthorized logging, and illegal fishing are among the more pressing issues facing the country according to the head of the Ministry of National Security and Immigration (MNS&I). The country's extensive coastline and series of small island keys make it difficult to monitor the area and complicates efforts to stop maritime-related drug trafficking.



ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The MNS&I oversees the Belize Defense Force (BDF), Immigration and Nationality Service (INS), the National Forensic Service (NFS), the National Drug Abuse Control Council (NDACC), and the BPD. The country spends more than \$35 million each year on national security and employs approximately 900 in the BPD.

The department has been subject to a number of structural and cultural changes over the past several years to combat an ineffective infrastructure, inadequate investigation and criminal prosecution, and poor morale among the lower ranks. The government has turned to experts in the United Kingdom and the United States for tactical training and donations of equipment in an effort to professionalize and retain officers.

The department's traditional military style of command has been replaced by a policy of community policing and involvement by citizens in law enforcement. Despite a program of reform and modernization, the government faces a constant challenge to retain overworked officers. While the government has invested record levels into the BPD in recent years, the agency is plagued by an insufficient workforce, lack of basic equipment, and obsolete weapons.

The BPD is comprised of several units:

- Anti-Drug
- “Dragon” (responsibilities are varied and include crowd control, border patrol, and drug interdiction)
- Prosecution
- Criminal Investigation
- Domestic Violence
- K-9
- Traffic
- Special Branch
- Internal and Discipline
- Joint Intelligence Command Center (JICC)

Police officers, who are required to have more than the standard 9th-grade education, undergo 20 weeks of training at the Police Training Academy in Belmopan in areas that include criminal law, evidence gathering, and community policing skills. After completing academy training, new officers must remain on their first assignment for 2 years before they are able to transfer. Women are increasingly joining the BPD. There are currently 100 women police officers—approximately 9% of the total force. Officers are armed.

Gennifer Furst

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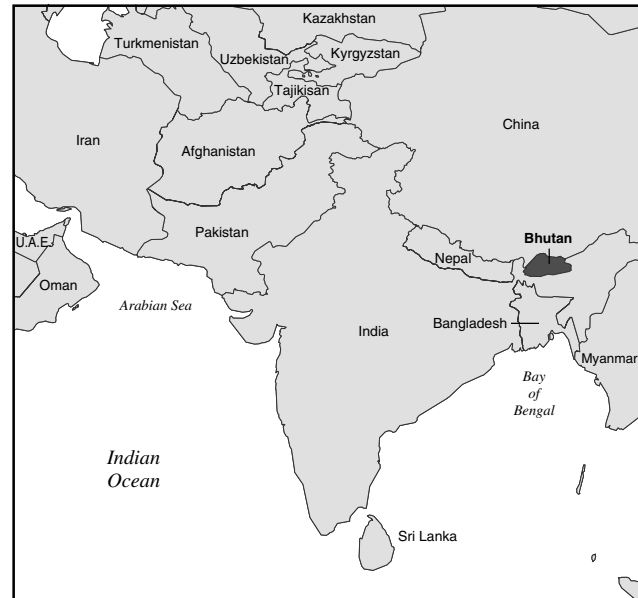
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BHUTAN

Bhutan is a strategic buffer state of 47,000 square kilometers located in the Himalayas between India and China. Its population is 2.1 million people (July 2003, estimate). After many years of British colonial rule, Bhutan became independent (from India) on August 8, 1949. The country is divided into 18



administrative districts. Bhutan’s legal system is based on Indian law and British common law, and has no written constitution. The head of state is the King, who appoints the Prime Minister and Cabinet as well as the Supreme Army Commander. The monarch also appoints 35 out of 150 members of the unicameral National Assembly. The judiciary is also under the control of the monarch.

The Bhutan national security system is based on a four-tier armed organization, which includes: Army, Police, Militia and Forest Guards. All four organizations are controlled by the high command of the Army, but closely cooperate and support each other.

The Royal Bhutan Army, some 6,000 troops, is divided into four regional operational units, plus an airport unit, and is the strongest armed organization in the country. It supports the Army, the Police and the Forest Guards when needed. The Forest Guards, with approximately 3–4,000 members, protect the forest (about 50% of the land area) and support the Police in maintaining security in border areas. The paramilitary Militia, with approximately 5,000 members, includes trained reservists for the Army.

The Royal Bhutan Police was established in 1967, with personnel reassigned from the Army. It is headed by a Police Commissioner, with the rank of Director-General, who is appointed by the monarch

and is directly subordinate to the supreme Army commander. The national police headquarters, located in the capital city, is directed by the Director-General, his deputy, and approximately four assistants. The headquarters consists of a number of functional departments including: Operational, Administrative, Criminal Investigation, Financial, Personnel, Traffic Control, and Anti-Drug. Besides performing their standard police functions, the Royal Bhutan Police are also responsible for border security, fire fighting, and providing first aid. On the regional level, there are 18 Police Districts led by District Constables, who are dually subordinate to the head of the local administration and to the national police headquarters for operational and personnel matters. Each Police District is composed of a number of Police Stations. Police recruits, volunteers, are trained for 6 months in Bhutan police training centers. Commissioned police officers are educated in Indian and Singapore Police Academies and Colleges.

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☉ BOLIVIA

The Republic of Bolivia, in central South America, has an estimated 8.4 million people living on 1,098,580 square kilometers (May 2003).

NATIONAL POLICE FORCE

The country's principle police source is the National Police Force of Bolivia (PNB). It was organized by Antonio José de Sucre Alcalá on June 24, 1826, but was not officially established until



1886. The Bolivian police became institutionalized on the national level in 1937 with the creation of the National Corps of Carabineers (*Cuerpo Nacional de Carabineros*) and its professional training school, the Police School (*Escuela de Policía*), later renamed the National Police Academy (*Academia Nacional de Policía*). The carabineers constitute a post-Cahco War merge of the Military Police, the Gendarmerie Corps (*Cuerpo de Gendarmeria*), the paramilitary Security Police (*Policía de Seguridad*) and the army's Carabineer Regiment (*Regimiento de Carabineros*).

The PNB is an armed civilian community service-oriented police organization with an estimated strength of 17,000; 1 police official for every 494 citizens. Women represent 10% of the force and currently occupy positions up to Divisional Leader.

The PNB functions under the Director General of the National Police, appointed by the President of the Republic and held accountable to the Minister of Interior, Migration, and Justice.

Organization and Operations

The PNB is organized according to its own principles of administration, functions, hierarchy, and class of activities. It has the following offices: Administrative Central Agencies of Direction and

Control and the Administrative De-Centralized Agencies of Direction and Control, each with its own disciplinary agency and agencies of advice and support; Decentralized Agencies; and Operating Agencies.

The National Council of Police Dwelling, Complementary Fund of Social Security, and Central National Council of Production are decentralized and distributed throughout the country. The National Council of Police Dwellings is responsible for helping its members finance their homes. They receive 12% of the general treasury of the nation with additional income from contributions and donations from police officers.

The National Police Corps are organized on a territorial basis with each department having its own police district subdivided into zones. They serve as the regional police. Field elements of the National Police and National Guard are stationed in all sectors of the country and report directly to the office of the director general in La Paz. Each department has one brigade of *carabineros*, comprising an urban and rural force. Subordinate headquarters or brigades are stationed in the capital of each of the nine departments and coordinate and supervise operations.

Each brigade is divided into an urban command and rural command. The urban command operates the police stations, local jail, patrol, and criminal investigation. Most corps personnel and units within a department are considered to be part of the brigade in the area they serve and are members of a single departmental unit, regardless of their size, composition, mission, or station. La Paz is an exception because two separate regiments of *carabineros* exist and are under the direct control of the director general and the president. The rural command are assigned to a series of frontier posts found at twenty-seven critical points along the border and at river and lake ports of entry. They include Customs Police integral to the corps, as well as uniformed *carabineros* concerned with combating smuggling and other forms of illegal border crossing.

Specialized police units are under the Ministry of Interior, Migration, and Justice. The Special Security Group (*Grupo Especial de Seguridad* [GES]) are an operational, technical, and specialized

unit designed to re-establish public order, respond to an attack against private property, and perform counterterrorist functions. They usually serve the Legislative Palace, the Ministry of Interior, Migration, and Justice, and other public institutions or in the national police's National Guard and Department of Interior. The Multipurpose Intervention Brigade (*Brigada de Intervencion Polivalente* [BIP]) is responsible for solving cases considered to be uncommon such as kidnapping, hostage taking, and outbreaks of rebellion.

Additional specialized units include:

- Air Corps
- Anti-Narcotics
- Anti-Riot
- Anti-Terrorist
- Rural Police
- Special Elite Anti-Terrorist Force
- Explosives Brigade
- Public Relations
- Order and Security
- Railway
- Women's Police Brigade

Common crime has risen dramatically in large cities since the late 1980s due to the pervasiveness of drug trafficking. In 2002 alone, there were more than 400 PNB officers killed in the line of duty. Data on the incidence of crime are both not publicly available and fragmentary in nature. Narcotics drug trafficking poses the greatest threat to internal security; rebellion groups and traffickers have been increasingly found to be linked. The Chapare and Yungas regions have been recent targets of coca eradication campaigns. There have been reports of violence on both sides. Incidents involving the drugging and rape of tourists who have taken guided jungle and pampas tours with independent guides around Rurrenabaque have been reported.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

The National Police Academy is an independent governmental agency that establishes the standards and qualifications for admissions. Additionally, it is in charge of the recruitment, selection, and promotion

of basic police training, specialized training, and the training of upper level managers. In the past, admissions requirements for the academy were based upon political reliability and unquestioned loyalty to the government rather than on education. Currently, applicants must be Bolivian citizens who are at least 18 years of age, with a high school education, who have successfully completed the admission process. There is no age requirement for those police applicants who have prior military service. Those that attend the National Police Academy are expected to complete their required coursework and pass a comprehensive examination. Only after they pass the exam do they graduate with a Bachelor's of Humanities and a commission as a second lieutenant. Enlisted personnel receive their training during the first 4 months after enlistment. The Young Men's Basic Police School (*Escuela Basica Policial de Varónes*) provides a 1-year training course at the operational level for subalterns of the national police.

The Higher Police School (*Escuela Superior de Policías* [ESP]) was created in February 1969 specifically for officers in the ranks of lieutenant colonel and above. This police school prepares higher ranking officers to manage command departments, operational units, and training institutes. The system ensures that promotion to supervisory ranks comes from within the force.

The Director of the National Police Academy, an appointee of the Ministry of Interior, Migration, and Justice and approved by the president, manages the police academy. It offers a 4-year course for officers that examines criminal law, penal and civil investigation, criminology, ballistics, laboratory science, narcotics, vehicular and pedestrian traffic, order and security of persons and installations, martial arts, and human and public relations. The academy also offers a specialized course patterned on the counterinsurgency course of the U.S. Army Special Warfare School at Fort Bragg, North Carolina, as well as other programs of foreign training abroad in neighboring countries.

The PNB has sixteen operational ranks:

1. Rank

- General
- Chief Colonel

- Lieutenant Colonel
- Official Captain
- Lieutenant
- Sub-Lieutenant
- Contenders to Official Cadet
- Sub Official
- Sub Official Upper
- Sub Official Greater
- Sub Official 1st Class
- Sub Official 2nd Class

2. Class

- 1st Class Police Sergeant
- 2nd Class Police Sergeant
- Tip Police
- Contenders to Professional Police Student

The PNB, National Police Academy, and the Higher Police School receive considerable funding and assistance from the United Nations, United States, and European Union. The presence of U.S. military forces in Bolivia in 1986 created controversy even though it was approved by Bolivia's Congress. Several leftist parties, civilian trade unions, and regional organizations opposed the forces and viewed their presence as a violation of national sovereignty. Then-President Paz Estenssoro remained publicly opposed to the possible return of U.S. troops to Bolivia.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

All municipalities are entitled to create local police forces to enforce local ordinances. However, only in La Paz does a force exist. Known as La Paz Municipal Police (*Policía Municipal de La Paz*), none of these officers is armed; they are responsible for enforcing parking regulations and local bylaws.

Bolivia has a private security industry with an unknown number of private security companies because any civilian person or institution can become a security firm upon payment for a form issued by the police. At present, various groups of security firms have been created, but these groups do not have to be standardized. To date, there is an unknown number of officers or private businesses

that offer security because there are no official data.

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✎ BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Bosnia and Herzegovina is a country of approximately 4 million people located in the Balkan region of southern Europe, bordered by Croatia to the north and west and Serbia and Montenegro to the east and south. Following a declaration of independence from the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in March 1992, the country was wracked by a series of interethnic conflicts that eventually ended in 1995 with the Dayton Agreement and the establishment of two entities—the Bosniak/Croat Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Bosnian-Serb-dominated Republika Srpska—within Bosnia and Herzegovina's previous international boundaries.

THE STRUCTURE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

As of 2004, both the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republika Srpska maintain separate police forces under the control of their respective Interior Ministers. The Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina consists of ten cantons, and the police in each canton operates under the authority of its own ministry of the interior. Although the relationship between the Federal Interior Ministry and the cantons is complex, generally speaking the Federal Ministry maintains



responsibility for coordinating interentity and intercanton relations in such matters as national security, terrorism, and the protection of diplomatic missions while the cantonal ministries have authority over local law enforcement and policing. In contrast, the Interior Ministry of the Republika Srpska has exclusive control over all aspects of policing, crime prevention, and law enforcement within the region—there are no cantonal or other subdivisions.

In addition to these basic divisions in police authority, within Bosnia and Herzegovina there are also a number of autonomous police forces, notably in the Brcko District, where policing is under the control of a director of police who reports exclusively to the mayor. Additional policing is also provided within the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by the Court Police (under the authority of the Federal Supreme Court) and the Finance Police (under the authority of the Ministry of Finance). Finally, the recently created State Investigation and Protection Agency (SIPA) and the State Border Service (SBS) are responsible for the protection of national institutions and guarding the country's borders respectively.

Given the political and ethnic divisions that continue to exist in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the way in which policing has developed has led to a situation in which there is at present little cooperation

between police organizations at the Federation and canton level, or between police forces operating within the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and those within the Republika Srpska or the Brcko District. More seriously, independent analysts have suggested that policing in the region continues to be dominated by political influences and local biases, as well as problems arising from internal corruption, inadequate resources, and poor police training.

INTERNATIONAL POLICING AND PEACEKEEPING BODIES IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA

Immediately following the end of hostilities in 1995, members of the United Nation's International Police Task Force (IPTF) were deployed in Bosnia and Herzegovina to restructure, vet, and train local police forces as well as monitor the development of policing in both the Federation and the Republika Srpska. The IPTF, which was made up of 1,400 officers from more than 40 countries, was also charged with the task according to the provisions of UN Security Council Resolution 1088 of "investigating or assisting with investigations into human rights abuses by law enforcement personnel." The IPTF formed a dedicated Human Rights Office, which undertook its own independent investigations into incidents of police misconduct and regular reviews of the various law enforcement agencies operating within both the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and the Republika Srpska. In 2003, the IPTF was replaced by the European Union Police Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina (known as EUPM), which is continuing to assist local police forces in the process of democratization and reform.

In addition to the United Nations IPTF, a NATO-led multinational force of some 60,000 troops—the Implementation Force (IFOR)—also entered the country in December 1995 to implement various aspects of the Dayton Peace Agreement. A year later, IFOR was replaced by the Stabilisation Force (SFOR), which was charged with the task of preventing a resumption of hostilities and promoting the peace process. Initially consisting of some 32,000 troops, SFOR continues to be a multinational

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BOTSWANA

The Republic of Botswana, a landlocked nation of 600,370 square kilometers, is located in southern Africa with a population of 1,591,232 (2002). Botswana has one of the most prosperous economies in Africa. A British Protectorate until 1966, the Nation has a two-tiered police system based largely on British police models—the Botswana Police Service and the Botswana Local Police.

BOTSWANA POLICE SERVICE

The Botswana Police Service, created in 1966 as part of the National Military, is a national force responsible for general police duties throughout the country. Headed by a Commissioner appointed by the State President, it has a current strength of 6,024 (2002). Officers carry firearms on some assignments and may perform military duties under the direction of the State President.

The Service has three main organizational elements, each under the command of a Deputy Commissioner: (1) *Operations*, including the North, South, and South Central Territorial Operational Divisions, the Criminal Investigations Department, and Traffic Police; (2) *Support Services*, including the Special Support Group, Training, and Public Relations; (3) *Security Services*, responsible for state security.

The Botswana Police Service has eleven ranks (see Table 1).

Table 1

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Number</i>
Commissioner	1
Deputy Commissioner	3
Senior Commissioner	10
Assistant Commissioner	11
Senior Superintendent	61
Superintendent	185
Assistant Superintendent	234
Inspector	424
Sub-Inspector	546
Sergeant	1,061
Constable	3,488

All members of the force enter at the constable rank and promotions come from within the force. University graduates earn extra compensation. Both basic and inservice training take place at the Police Service Academy. Advancement to senior rank in the police service and local police requires completion of senior officer training at Bramshill, the Central Police Training and Development Authority for England, Wales, and Northern Ireland.

The Botswana Local Police

The Botswana Local Police, originally a Tribal Police Service, became a formal police agency in 1970. The Local Police, with an authorized strength of 1873, is a modern, uniformed, community-based patrol force assigned to the nation's major towns and villages. They have the same authorities as the Botswana Police Service but generally focus operations on community policing, preservation of public order, and prosecution of offenders in local (tribal) courts. The head of the Local Police, the Commander, is appointed by and responsible to the Minister of Local Government.

The Botswana Local Police has eight ranks (see Table 2).

The recruitment, selection, training, and promotion of Local Police officers are the responsibilities of local tribal authority with approval of the Ministry of Local Government. The Local Police operates its own training center. College and university graduates enter the force directly at command rank.

Table 2

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Number</i>
Local Police Commander	1
Senior Superintendent	13
Superintendent	21
Assistant Superintendent	43
Inspector	78
Sub-Inspector	117
Sergeant	432
Constable	1,168

The Local Police operate in urban districts each under the direction of a senior superintendent. District subdivisions, commanded by superintendents, provide patrol services to specific cities and towns. The total combined strength of both Botswana police organizations is 7,897, a ratio of 1 police official to 201 citizens. The two forces enjoy close and cooperative working relationships.

CRIME

Rigorous enforcement of Botswana's stringent firearms laws has kept firearms-related crimes relatively low with an estimated homicide rate of 14 per 100,000 (2002). Widespread illegal brewing and heavy consumption of alcohol, a high national unemployment rate, a major influx of laborers fleeing government occupation of white-owned



farms in Zimbabwe, and an escalating crime rate in neighboring South Africa have contributed to an increase in violent crime and related social problems in urban areas in Botswana.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

Botswana's most important and successful non-police law enforcement organization is the Directorate on Corruption and Economic Crime (DCEC), an autonomous government agency established in 1994 under the Office of the President. Its six regional offices investigate and prosecute corruption by government officers, employees of public bodies, and individuals in the private sector.

The Botswana Defense Forces can perform public order duties during national emergencies. Separate government organizations enforce Customs, Excise, and Immigration regulations.

Botswana, with the United States' Federal Law Enforcement Center (FLETC), operates an International Law Enforcement Academy (ILEA) in Gaborone for police officials from sub-Saharan Africa. The core curriculum provides advanced training in counterterrorism, forensics, case management, organized crime, supervision, and antinarcotics.

The Botswana Police Service licenses and regulates a growing private security industry.

Botswana is a member of Interpol.

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☉ BRAZIL

GOVERNMENT AND POPULATION

Brazil is the largest and most populous nation in South America and is currently its leading economic



power. Portuguese is the official national language, spoken in all areas with the exception of a few geographically isolated Amerindian communities. The population is culturally diverse. The largest groups, comprising approximately 55% of the total population, are the Portuguese, Germans, Italians, Spanish, and Polish. Mixed Caucasians and Africans comprise 38% of the total population. Descendants of the African slave trade comprise 6% of the population. Amerindians and Asian and Arab groups comprise less than 1% of the total population. The Federative Republic of Brazil encompasses an area of 8,511,996 square kilometers, with a population of 176,029,560.

The government of Brazil is organized along federal lines with a national bicameral legislature. The nation is divided into 26 states and one federal district.

In 1964, a series of military interventions in the political process resulted in the imposition of an authoritarian regime that endured for 21 years. This development had several implications for policing in Brazil, which assumed a "war on subversion" as its primary mission. The transition to democracy that occurred in 1984 resulted in the concomitant, albeit ongoing, de-militarization of the police establishment, which is not considered entirely successful.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The police in Brazil are divided into state and federal agencies, each with different functions. On the federal level, there are the Federal Police, the Federal Highway Police, and the Federal Railroad Police. On the state level are the Civil Police and the Military Police.

Federal Police

The Federal Police force is known as the *Departamento de Polícia Federal* (DPF), and has its headquarters in Brasília. A general director appointed by the president heads the agency. Subordinate units are dispersed throughout the nation in the various states and territories. The judicial arm of the Federal Police consists of 800 agents. This main segment investigates national and international crimes, with an emphasis on narcotics-related activities. They perform paramilitary enforcement functions along the national borders and operate as the federal police. They also have an oversight function relative to human rights violations committed by state authorities. Government-built and subsidized highways and railroads are patrolled by separate police agencies that also fall under the aegis of the DPF.

In light of Brazil's growing importance as a shipping port for worldwide distribution of cocaine that originates in Colombia, the Federal Police receives supplemental assistance from the military to increase its investigative capabilities. This agency also has responsibility for the national highways. The headquarters unit provides administrative support to various subordinate units and serves as liaison to international law enforcement agencies—for example, Interpol. The headquarters unit also provides assistance to the National Police Academy, the National Institute of Criminology, and the National Institute of Identification. Most of the local law enforcement functions are relegated to the individual states in Brazil.

State Police

There are two police agencies on the state level. They function independently, each according to

its specific mission. Both agencies, the Civil Police and the Military Police, are under the supervision of the individual state governments. The Civil Police perform investigative functions and run the various police stations. The Military Police conduct most of the patrol and public order maintenance functions, predominantly in urban centers. Article 144 of the 1988 Brazilian Constitution, which assigns to the military police basic patrol and order maintenance functions, sanctions this mission. The Civil Police are given responsibility for criminal investigations. In this capacity, they function as the judicial police, except in offenses committed by members of the military, which are investigated by the military police.

Both the military and civil police come under the purview of the State Secretariat for Public Security in each region, although they are independent of one another. In Rio de Janeiro state, there has been some effort toward a greater degree of operational integration. A framework for integration has been put into place, which is called *Novo Polícia de Rio de Janeiro*, or New Police. Conversely, since 1985 the City of Sao Paulo has an independent municipal police department, which is the only one in Brazil. The state military and civil police continue to function in the same area.

There were 385,000 members of the state military police formations in 1997. These police organizations are controlled by the Brazilian army command structure and have been assigned status as military reservists since the 1930s. The commander of each state military police organization usually holds the rank of colonel, and the military police hierarchy corresponds to the rank structure of the Brazilian Army. The Military Police retain the function as a ready reserve for the active military in local or national emergencies.

Since the Civil Police are tasked with a judicial investigative function, the makeup of the organization reflects this mission. The head of each precinct is called the *delegado*, and the commander of each state Civil Police organization is termed the *delegado general*. These officials must possess law degrees and qualify for the position by taking a civil service examination. These police officers are

considered to be career-oriented. While this is the case within the large municipalities, local politicians influence the appointment of the *delegado* in the rural areas. Within these small communities, the *delegados* are usually more concerned with not challenging those who influenced their appointment.

Within every precinct, investigators fulfill the judicial fact-finding function. This includes methods of surveillance that are geared to maintain order through the identification of criminal suspects and active inquiry into events considered to be criminal matters. This inquiry consists of a prescribed set of procedures to bring an investigation to trial. In Brazil, the judicial process is organized along the inquisitorial model.

Based on either the information received in a criminal complaint or the result of their own observations, the police begin their investigation into an incident. They notify the judge of their proceedings who, in turn, confers with the prosecutor. The prosecutor steers the inquiry to conform to proper legal standards. The judge then informs the police of what they still require to make the crime prosecutable and sets a specific time limit for the filing of formal charges. This is done by the *delegado* in a final report.

Historically, confessions have been considered instrumental in any criminal investigation. One way to successfully accomplish this is through torture. This is not surprising since torture has a long history in Brazil that originated with Portuguese colonialism. Along with the concomitant stratification of the population, police use of torture, especially of the lower, marginalized classes, became institutionalized as a way to effectively pursue an aggressive crime control policy. This policy is mostly applied to the residents of the *favelas* (slums).

At the fringes of Brazil's large urban centers are large neighborhoods of illegally occupied land. These *favelas* are extremely crowded and consist of makeshift dwellings, crowded along unpaved roads. Raw sewerage runs freely. Since the State does not recognize these neighborhoods, there are no public services or local associations to provide a surrogate forum for community services. These neighborhoods become microcosms of a civil society

independent of the larger state. The only order is provided through gangs according to their own defined, normative codes.

The police response in these neighborhoods is indicative of the authoritarian rule that underlies all of policing in Brazil. Within these communities, the police use raids and street sweeps to identify criminal elements. These raids are usually conducted by a joint effort of the Military and Civil police according to a containment strategy. The police secure the entrance to the *favela* to make sure no one can enter or exit without identification, usually in the form of working papers.

This has historically been a significant policy since many residents work in the informal economy where there are no working papers issued. The informal economy consists primarily of the illegal drug trade. This creates the double jeopardy of employment that is illegal, without the required documents. Since being unemployed means being poor and part of the lower classes, it also means being identified with crime. What occurs is an increased risk of arbitrary detention and arrest. This rationale is part of the police tactics when they enter the *favelas*.

The police send in a large contingent of officers with the express intent to intimidate the neighborhood. They conduct warrantless searches and interrogations, under the guise of protecting the upper classes from the criminal element. Torture is used as part of the process to instill fear and intimidation in the community.

Anyone suspected of being a criminal is brought to the police station where he or she is fingerprinted and photographed and entered into a national database consisting of all persons who have had official contact with the police. With this database, the police have a readily identified population to approach in the course of their investigations. It is not uncommon for the police to go into a neighborhood with a list of persons they want to interview compiled from this database. Information is usually gleaned through intimidation and coercion.

Although much of the police conduct in these *favelas* is contrary to constitutional principles, the police continue to act with the endorsement of

the political elite. The result is a policing system contrary to the Constitution and legal principles, but is still implicitly endorsed by the prevailing social and political elites in the form of internal security. A certain police attitude, or culture of impunity facilitated these police practices well into the 1990s.

The police, in pursuit of their social control function, considered the law to pose undue constraints on them. Since the use of force and violence against criminals was so prevalent, this policy posed a dilemma for the police. The police were obligated to reconcile differences between what was authorized by the legislature and the Constitution, and what they considered to be their mission. This unofficial police culture resulted in disparate enforcement policies, defined according to the social class and condition of the principal actors.

Both the military and the civil police organizations have been accused of an ongoing and systematic pattern of violations of human rights and extrajudicial killings. Throughout the 1990s, police violence in Brazil surged at an alarming rate, as did the rate of violent crime. The police in São Paulo, with a population of 9,839,436 (1996 census) killed 400 persons in 1993. In 1992 they killed 1,470, a record. The 1992 figure is perhaps associated with a renewed resolve and initiative to fight urban crime during that year. This is in contrast with the New York City Police Department, which killed 24 civilians in 1992 in a city of 7,322,564 (1990 census). The Brazilian rate is roughly fifteen times that of New York for that year, even when accounting for the greater population of São Paulo. Even in light of the very high crime rates in Brazilian urban areas (e.g., homicides in Rio de Janeiro regularly exceeded 8,000 in the late 1980s and early 1990s with a [1996] population of 5,551,538; by contrast there were 1,927 homicides in New York City in 1993), it is nevertheless surprising that this brutality continues in a society that is supposedly moving toward greater democracy.

The political oversight of police misconduct has always been problematic. The command structure traditionally assimilated active-duty military officers as local commanding officers although this

practice has declined since the restoration of democracy. The officers of the state police apparatus retain status as military reservists, and if charged with any offense, except murder, are tried before a military court. There is also a system of appeal that devolves from the authority of the Superior Military Court (*Superior Tribunal Militar*), which functions as the ultimate authority for the military justice system. This court is the oldest in Brazil and has been in continuous operation since 1808.

Both the military and civilian judicial processes are plagued by a high dismissal rate, due to stagnation or the passing of the statute of limitations. In Brazil, the statute of limitations does not stop with the initiation of prosecution, and skilled attorneys can make sure charges are dropped through the use of delaying tactics which cause a case to run beyond the statute of limitations, thereby triggering automatic dismissal.

Excessive brutality is another concern acknowledged by the Brazilian government on the federal level, which resulted in several administrative and legal responses in the 1990s. A federal law expressly forbidding torture by security forces was passed in 1997, and there has been some movement toward removing the police from the umbrella of the military justice system, which is perceived as less severe. Quasi-governmental agencies that are defined as “ombudsman’s offices” (*ouvidorias*) have been established on the local level in order to document and report incidents of police misconduct to the state and federal authorities. Four Brazilian states now have Police Ombudsmen (the Rio Web site claims there are five, but lists only four):

1. Rio de Janeiro
2. Para
3. Minas Gerais
4. São Paulo

These offices receive complaints against the police and forward the results of their investigations to the prosecutorial authority. The Rio de Janeiro agency cites 1,286 complaints received, including

56 reports of police-involved homicides, between March 16 and September 15, 1999. The figure includes both military and civil police. No disposition is reported (*Ouvidoria da Polícia do Estado do Rio de Janeiro*).

The federal Ministry of Justice also maintains the National Secretariat for human rights, which has sponsored training for police officers in cooperation with Amnesty International. The national legislature contains a Committee for Human Rights in the Chamber of Deputies.

The reported level of police-involved homicides has declined since the early 1990s, but in cities such as São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro, police continue to be accused of between 300 and 400 killings per annum. The federal Ministry of Justice and most state Web sites contain links to sites where police misconduct may be confidentially reported, and recently, more police officials have begun to be held legally responsible for acts of brutality. In 1996, the *bicudo law* subjected police officers to prosecution in civilian courts for intentional homicide. In June, 2001, a retired police colonel received a 632-year prison term for the killing of 111 prisoners during a prison riot in 1992. This was an unprecedented sanction applied to a police official of that level, and though the sentence is in reality limited by the Constitution to a 30-year maximum, some analysts believe that it signifies a sea-change in the application of Brazilian criminal procedure in a more equitable way.

Indicators such as the formation of a police organization in the city of São Paulo that is independent of the state government, the proposed apparatus for the unification of the civil and military police in Rio de Janeiro, and the rise of quasi-governmental oversight agencies on the local level (*ouvidorias*) appear to support the contention that policing in Brazil is on the verge of significant transformation. The court of public opinion has become increasingly involved, vocal, and effective in prompting legislative and executive intervention toward the realization of the ultimate objective: professionalizing the police as an institution within the framework of restored democracy. This continues to be an elusive goal when placed before the backdrop of high rates of violent crime in the cities, continued involvement with forces opposed to the empowerment of

landless peasants, and low pay-rate structures combined with the ever-present temptation of corruption. However, the positive developments noted above may mark the beginning of a new paradigm in Brazilian policing, one in which the ideals of the effective delivery and more equitable distribution of police services will eventually displace the culture of impunity that has historically enabled Brazilian police to react with extreme violence to any provocation, however slight.

Mitch Librett and Rainer Kroll

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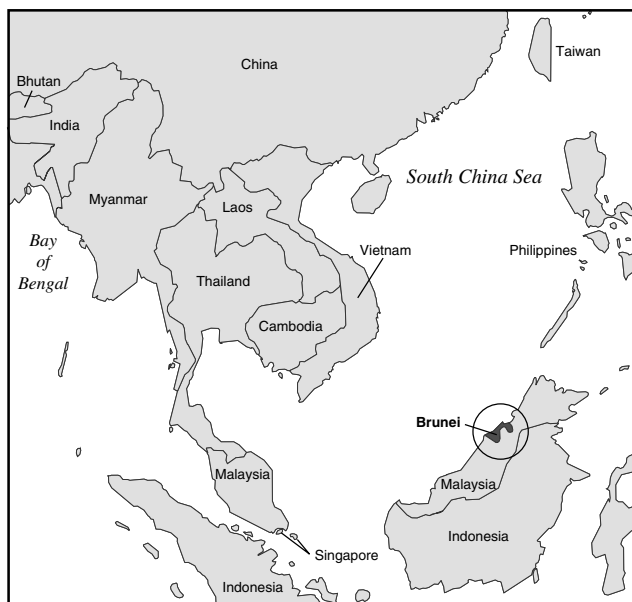
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BRUNEI

Brunei is located in Southeastern Asia, on the northwest corner of the island of Borneo in the South China Sea bordering Malaysia. It covers 5,770 square kilometers and has a population of 358,098 (July 2003 estimated). Forty percent of the workforce is foreign workers; crude oil and natural gas account for nearly half of the GDP.

The Sultanate of Brunei's influence peaked between the 15th and 17th centuries when it controlled coastal areas of northwest Borneo and the southern Philippines. In 1888 Brunei became a British Protectorate. Full independence was achieved on January 1, 1984 (from the United Kingdom). Brunei is a constitutional sultanate, and the same family has ruled Brunei for over six centuries. Brunei benefits from extensive petroleum



and gas fields, the source of one of the highest per capita GDPs in the developing world.

The legal system is based on English common law; for Muslims, Islamic Sharia law supersedes civil law in a number of areas. The Constitution of 1959 was modified upon independence in 1984. The Sultan is both the head of state and head of government. Cabinet, appointed and presided over by the monarch, deals with executive matters. There is also a Religious Council appointed by the monarch. A unicameral Legislative Council, whose members are appointed by the monarch, passes laws.

The Royal Brunei Police (RBP), founded in 1906, is one of the oldest institutions in the country. It was officially established in 1921 and was renamed the Royal Brunei Police in 1965. There are little publicly available data available about the police force.

Since independence in 1984, the RBP has been headed by the monarch, who is the General Inspector of Police.

Directly subordinate to the monarch is the Commissioner of Police, who manages the RPB headquarters (the Commissioner's of Police Office) assisted by a Deputy Commissioner of Police and Secretariat. This Office includes five main departments: Administration and Finance, Operations, Criminal Investigation and Intelligence, Logistics, and Traffic Control. Directly subordinate to the

Commissioner of Police are commanders of six Regional Police Districts.

The RBP's official definition of its mission is "to maintain law and order in accordance with the powers conferred by any written law of the land in the most professional manner."

Brunei is a member of Interpol.

Michael Sadykiewicz

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BULGARIA

Bulgaria is in the southeastern part of the European continent and in the eastern part of the Balkan Peninsula. Roads connecting three continents—Europe, Asia, and Africa—have for centuries crossed its territory. Bulgaria's population of 7.974 million people (as of 2001) lives on a territory of 110,994 square kilometers. The capital of the country and the largest city is Sofia. The official language is Bulgarian, and the national currency is Bulgarian Lev (BGN).

Bulgaria is a parliamentary republic with major power exercised by the Parliament (the National Assembly). The 240-seat Bulgarian Parliament has a 4-year mandate determined by a proportional election system (parties are proportionally represented provided they receive at least 4% of votes). The President of the Republic of Bulgaria is head of state, elected through direct elections every 5 years for no more than two consecutive terms of office. The President is supreme Commander in Chief of Bulgaria's military forces; he or she appoints and dismisses high commanders of the armed forces and promotes high officers in upper ranks on the



advice of the government. The President also approves acts passed by parliament by decree. The judiciary in Bulgaria is independent and is established on the basis of a procedure from three institutions: The Supreme Administrative Court, the Supreme Court of Cassation, and the Constitutional Court. The Supreme Judicial Council organizes the judiciary's activity.

HISTORY OF POLICING IN BULGARIA

One of the key elements of Bulgaria's history since its foundation in 1879 has been the Bulgarian police. The first document which constituted tasks of the police force was the *Temporary Rules for the Foundation of Police Guards*. Guards had to "protect public peace, orderly behavior and order." An important name in the development of police history was Stefan Stambolov, who was an advocate for strong police and administration and promoted police modernization and the enforcement of European standards for police activity. The Directorate of Police in Bulgaria was founded in 1925 to organize and coordinate central and local police structures.

Organization

The National Police Service of the Republic of Bulgaria is a specialized operational and investigative

as well as protective service of the Ministry of Interior, which maintains public order, prevents and detects crimes, and takes part in their investigation. The Ministry of the Interior performs its tasks and functions through the national, territorial, administrative, and technical services.

The *National Services* of the Ministry of Interior are the National Security Service; National Police Service; National Service for Combating Organized Crime; National Fire and Emergency Safety Service; National Border Police Service; and National Gendarmerie Service.

The *Territorial Services* of the Ministry of the Interior are divided into the Directorate of the Capital and Regional Directorates. Units for Security, Police, Combating Organized Crime, Fire, and Emergency Safety Units exist within the structure of the Capital Directorate and the Regional Directorates.

The *Administrative Services* of the Ministry of the Interior are the Coordination, Information and Analysis Service; Legal Service; International Cooperation Service; Press Center and Public Relations Service; Human Resources Service; Financial Service; Inspectorate Service; Information and Archive Service; Logistic and Social Support Service, and Interpol National Bureau.

The *Operational and Technical Services* of the Ministry of Interior include the Operational and Technical Information Service; the Communication Service; the Communication Protection Service; and the Bureau for Outdoor Surveillance.

The National Police Service carries out its activities independently or together with other state bodies, organizations, and citizens. Its main tasks are organizing and keeping the peace, preventing and detecting crimes, and protecting the rights and liberties of citizens. It also protects property of citizens and the government, controls and organizes traffic safety (including motor vehicle registration), and issues passports. It escorts prisoners, within the country and internationally when necessary. It investigates suspects, detainees, and accused persons who have tried to avoid criminal prosecution, those brought to trial who have to serve a term of imprisonment, and those who are missing as well as other persons in cases provided by law. It researches and analyzes causes and conditions of

criminality and gathers, processes, uses, and provides information for the sake of peace, combating crime, and traffic safety.

In June 2000, the Minister of the Interior issued an order regulating the private security companies in Bulgaria. They may operate nationwide or within particular regions or in the Sofia regional directorate. Private companies must be licensed for the kind and scope of the activity offered.

NATIONAL GENDARMERIE

The National Gendarmerie is a specialized security, operational, and investigative police service of the Ministry of Interior. Its historical roots date to July 1881, when it was established by the decree of Prince Alexander Battenberg. Its responsibilities include the security of strategic and particularly essential objects, fighting terrorist and subversive groups, securing the peace, and fighting crime. The particular essential and strategic objectives the gendarmerie secures are determined by the Council of Ministers.

The main functions of the National Gendarmerie Service are to police rural areas by maintaining law and order and investigating and detaining suspects. It also acts as a guard for national institutions, such as specialized economic institutions and Ministry of Interior establishments, and is responsible for specialized transport. It acts as a reserve in cases of national emergency, particularly terrorist incidents or natural disasters. It provides security for diplomatic agencies.

In some cases the National Gendarmerie is deployed in towns and villages, subject to the determination of the Ministry of the Interior.

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

Specialized schools for training police officers include the Ministry of the Interior Academy, research and applied science institutes, and officer training schools.

Viktor Manev and Dilyana Baleva

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☉ BURKINA FASO

Burkina Faso is a land-locked country in Northern Africa bordered by Benin, Côte d'Ivoire (Ivory Coast), Ghana, Mali, Niger, and Togo. The country, occupying 272,200 square kilometers, consists mainly of wide, open plains with a few hills and a hot, arid climate. Even though the country tends to have wet summers, it is subject to recurrent drought. Of the total area just 12.43% is believed to be arable and just 0.18% of the land is used for permanent crops. The country offers some limited natural resources, particularly minerals and precious metals.

The Mossi Kingdom of Ouagadougou, established in the 14th century, came under the authority of the Songhai Empire in the 15th century, regained its autonomy in the 16th century, and became a French protectorate in 1897. Independent from France since 1960, this country was previously known as Upper Volta or the Republic of Upper Volta. Today the formal name of the country is Burkina Faso.

The population is estimated at approximately 14 million people, with more than 46% of that population below the age of 14 years. Average life expectancy is approximately 46 years; an estimated 6.5% of the population is infected with AIDS/HIV (Central Intelligence Agency and World Health Organization estimates). While the Mossi ethnic group is the most dominant (more than 40% of the population), other ethnicities include the Gurunsi, Senufo, Lobi, Bobo, Mande, and Fulani; 90% of the country speaks Sudanic languages, although French is the official language. Fifty percent of the population is Muslim, 40% follow indigenous beliefs, and 10% are Christian (primarily mainly Roman Catholic). Education is limited: Just 26.5%



of the people are believed to be literate. The economy is poor: overall GDP is estimated at about U.S. \$14.5 billion and per capita GDP is around \$1000.00 (2002 estimates).

GOVERNMENT AND HISTORY

Burkina Faso gained independence from France on August 5, 1960, but France continues to exert a major influence on the country. Repeated military coups during the 1970s and 1980s were followed by multiparty elections. As of 2004, the head of state was President Blaise Compaore who has held office since October 15, 1987, and was last reelected in 1998 with more than 87.5% of the vote. The country is facing growing political unrest.

The capital is Ouagadougou. The rest of the country is divided into 45 separate administrative regions, each of which has its own police chief. The country's legal system remains based on French civil law. In practice "customary law" or tribal law applies to most of the country.

Poverty is a considered a dominant reason for Burkina Faso's crime. Seasonal migration of workers to neighboring countries means that smuggling is a major part of crime. Other typical crimes are petty theft, family violence, and burglary. There are relatively few homicides.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Burkina Faso's national police are a part of the overall security structure which operated with a limited budget of about \$46 million in 2003. Other branches of the government are the Army, Air Force, National Gendarmerie, and the People's Militia. In addition, the country has municipal police forces which are typically tribal police. The armed forces and the gendarmerie are controlled by the Ministry of Defense; the national police is controlled by the Ministry of Territorial Administration; and the municipal police are controlled by municipalities.

Virtually all police training is supplied by France. Estimates of the actual size of the uniformed police force vary widely, with some sources—such as the French Government—stating that Burkina Faso employs approximately 50,000 uniformed police officers. It is difficult to assess a correct number for the police force as the military and militia are also used for policing functions.

Policing in Practice

The primary function of the police—particularly in the capital of Ouagadougou—appears to be to safeguard the current political administration. Police are frequently deployed to counter coups planned by members of the military. Police violence appears to be common. For instance, in October 2003 Burkina Faso police arrested 12 coup plotters, mostly Army soldiers. At least one of the arrested almost died in police custody under questionable circumstances. Human rights groups object to extrajudicial killing by security forces, ill-treatment of detainees, standards of detention for prisoners, arbitrary arrest and detention, a climate of impunity for the security forces or relatives of high and corrupt judicial processes and unfair trials.

Agostino von Hassell

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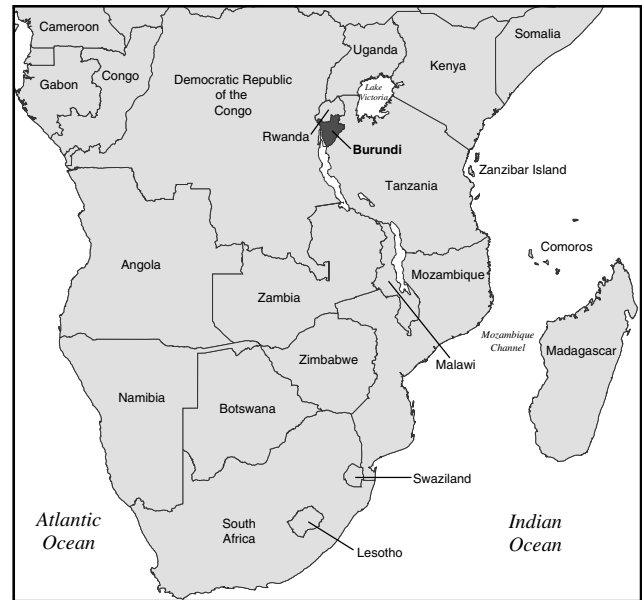
☉ BURUNDI

Burundi is in central Africa bordering Rwanda, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Tanzania. It covers 27,834 square kilometers, of which 10% is comprised of Lake Tanganyika. Burundi has an estimated population of 6,096,000 (2003 estimate). Although Hutus form the majority of Burundi's population, the Tutsis, which represent 15% of the population, have dominated the government since colonial times.

Ethnic violence between Hutu and Tutsi factions has disrupted Burundi since its first democratically elected president, a Hutu, was assassinated by Tutsi forces in October 1993. Since then, thousands of Burundians have been killed and hundreds of thousands more become displaced in internal fighting. Encouraging moves towards peace were negotiated with most rebel groups in 2001 and 2002, although implementation of the peace agreement has been sporadic. The government has been criticized particularly for failing to implement a power-sharing cornerstone of the peace agreement that would integrate Hutus into the security forces.

Years of armed conflict eroded most government institutions, including law enforcement. Accurate numbers of those in the various factions' security forces are impossible to ascertain. To pave the way for demilitarization, the peace agreement called upon security force members to assemble in various centers established throughout the country. Financial incentives, plus promises of representation according to numerical strength and proportion, led to widespread recruitment by all parties solely to boost numbers for this "cantonment" process.

On paper, the Burundi Gendarmerie, which falls under the Ministry of Defense, has an estimated 2,000-2,200 members on active duty; its complete ranks are estimated to be 4,000-5,000. The mission



of its policing function is administrative (prevention, maintenance and re-establishment of order), judicial (repression of criminals and delinquents), and control (improvement of road security). The gendarmerie also includes in its mission investigation, by which it means prevention of crime; morale of the population; identification of foreigners and refugees and knowledge of their activities. It also protects the population in conflict situations. In addition to the Gendarmerie Burundi has judicial police (attached to the office of the Public Prosecutor), Public Security Police, airspace surveillance, border control, and aliens' registration police.

In practice, the severe breakdown of law and order has caused many citizens to lose faith in the criminal justice system. The politicization of law enforcement is another contributing factor to the lack of trust; the security forces are dominated by Tutsis, and thousands of those behind bars in Burundi are believed to be political prisoners. A government established militia, Guardians of the Peace, established in response to the security problems in some areas has been widely criticized for complicity in human rights violations as its ranks are unpaid and poorly trained. Acknowledging the inability of law enforcement to manage violent crime, in some provinces the government recently encouraged private citizens to arm themselves in order to protect themselves and their families.

In November 2003, the parties negotiated security arrangements that further elaborated the proportion of political affiliation within the security forces, the incorporation of the gendarmerie into defense forces (to be deployed to the defense of the country or police as needed), and the creation of a new integrated police force with balanced composition. Militias are to be disarmed.

Johanna Bjorken

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C

☞ CAMBODIA

Cambodia, in Southeast Asia, is bordered by Thailand, Laos, and Vietnam. It has an area of 181,040 and a population of 13.1 million (July 2003 estimate). It was a French protectorate from the mid-19th century on and struggled against colonial powers from the time of the Second World War until 1953, when France granted it independence. Although Cambodia was independent, Vietnamese forces used the eastern part of the country as a base for operations in the 1960s, resulting in air attacks from U.S. forces. In 1970, the monarchy was deposed, leading to a 5-year Khmer republic. A major tragedy in Cambodia's history was Pol Pot's 3-year totalitarian reign of terror, from 1975 to 1978, during which more than 1.7 million Cambodians were killed (out of a total population then estimated to be 7.3 million). When the regime was displaced by invading Vietnamese forces, over half a million people fled towards Thailand, creating a humanitarian disaster. When Vietnam withdrew and peace negotiations began, the United Nations assisted Cambodia in holding elections, and Cambodia became a multiparty liberal democracy in the framework of a constitutional monarchy.

LAW ENFORCEMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF UPHEAVAL

When the communist Khmer Rouge seized power in 1975, traditional policing disappeared and was replaced by complete military control. During Pol Pot's 3-year regime, his policies resulted in the virtual imprisonment of the entire country, and the only form of authority was soldiers acting at his behest. Pol Pot drove the king into exile and killed the wealthy, educated, powerful, and those who rebelled against the government. Other citizens became indentured to the government, cities were emptied, and city residents were forced to relocate to rural agricultural areas.

In 1978, Vietnam liberated Cambodia, supporting a coup by Hun Sen. A new government was formed after the victory in January 1979. Rather than being disbanded, the Khmer Rouge moved to the western part of the country, on the Thai border, and set up operations there.

In 1980, the government created a police force, the People's Police of Cambodia. It was responsible for securing cities and towns, keeping the peace, and pursuing justice for citizens. However, its main priority was securing urban areas and tracking down



enemies within its territories. Like the military, the People's Police were heavily armed and battle ready. At times they acted as a military reserve, supplementing the military in battles against the Khmer Rouge at times of personnel shortages. Most citizens gave them the utmost respect. The People's Police were positively regarded as protectors of people as they remained close to the community and helped people solve daily problems.

In 1991, Hun Sen signed a peace accord in Paris with the exiled king, the Khmer Rouge, and other guerilla leaders. The accord allowed the United Nations to organize and supervise the first national election in Cambodia, and set up a transitional government, the United Nations Transitional Authority of Cambodia (UNTAC). UNTAC established a police force, particularly in order to establish safe and secure conditions for an election, as well as to pursue the interests of justice. UNTAC drafted and introduced laws for Cambodia based on international human rights law, and assisted the new police in enforcing these new laws and implementing the new standards. However, until 1992, the police continued to take part in battlefield activities.

As the Cambodia police's battlefield duties subsided, their duties increased in securing cities and towns for elections in 1993. The elections were generally peaceful and successful; Hun Sen lost to Prince Norodom Ranariddh, and the monarchy

was reestablished, but a power-sharing regime was implemented in which both served as prime ministers.

The new government changed the name of the police force to the National Police of Cambodia. The prince recruited new police officers. The National Police were essentially divided into those loyal to Hun Sen and those loyal to Norodom Ranariddh, listening to and obeying their own party leaders instead of following a chain of command. The practices of law enforcement during this period were widely and openly selective, with police protecting their own party members and enforcing the law selectively on other parties. Corruption infiltrated and became rampant throughout the organization.

On July 14, 1994, the military created a gendarmerie, the Military Police (MP). In addition to policing the military, the MP's duties included enforcing law and order for civilians. This new force was well trained and disciplined, and its organization was rigidly structured. The MP gained popularity quickly, and people started to turn to the MP for assistance and to report crime. Citizens could choose which force they would use and to whom to report crime, but cooperation between the police and MP was minimal. Due to the division of policing authority, competition ensued between the agencies over who should have responsibility for civilian law enforcement. In 2002, the government ended the PM's law enforcement role over civilians.

The National Police of Cambodia is now the sole policing authority in Cambodia. The Cambodian police force currently has 52,578 officers. Starting salaries are R80,000 (riel, approximately \$20 U.S. per month). In addition to normal law enforcement issues, the police are also involved in fighting trafficking in human beings, terrorism, and the narcotics trade. Despite the country's political changes, the Cambodian Police's role has adapted to the needs of the people and country, and has contributed to the stabilization process.

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CAMEROON

Cameroon is located in West Africa, north of the equator on the Gulf of Guinea covering an area of 185,569 square miles. It borders Nigeria, Chad, the Central African Republic, Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo), Gabon, and Equatorial Guinea. Cameroon has a population of approximately 15 million people, and its diverse population includes more than 200 ethnic groups.

Germany first established a colony in present-day Cameroon in 1884. After the First World War, Cameroon was partitioned between Britain and France as trust territories under a United Nations mandate. The French territory (formerly East Cameroon) achieved independence in 1960 as the Republic of Cameroon. The following year the British granted their territory (formerly West Cameroon) independence from the Federation of Nigeria. Ahmadou Ahidjo was the first president of the Federated Republic of Cameroon and ruled Cameroon until 1982 when he ceded the presidency to the Prime Minister, Paul Biya, the current president.

Many of Cameroon's policing traditions stem from the British and French colonial times. Although Cameroon was unified as a Federal Republic in 1961, the police forces remained separate. By a presidential order of 1969 the West Cameroon and East Cameroon police forces were merged into the General Delegate for National Security (*Délégué Général à la Sûreté Nationale* [DGSN]).

Police in the former East Cameroon were created based on the security needs of the French colonists, the evolution of political events, and the congregation of people in urban centers. Initially, maintaining law and order and other police functions were exercised by French gendarmes. The French High



Commissioner created the first police station on November 7, 1925, in Douala, the economic capital and main port city. Douala experienced rapid growth, and was the focal point for resistance to French colonial rule. Two subsequent orders of June 28, 1930, and March 28, 1938, defined the modalities for the exercise of public security in urban areas, primarily Douala, due to perceived security threats from increased trade union activity and political unions. Another order of March 22, 1939, outlined the structure of the police force, its functions, and modalities on fighting crime. This order granted police extensive police powers to investigate all conspiracies attempting to disrupt or compromise the political security of the state. Eventually police regional offices were created in all the regions of the country and particularly in the urban centers. In 1963, the police were reorganized to reflect the new Federation, and the East Cameroon police were reorganized as the “Sûreté Fédéral.”

After West Cameroon seceded from Nigeria and reunified with East Cameroon, most police officers of West Cameroon origin returned home to serve in the newly created West Cameroon police force. Additionally, a special force, designated the “mobile Wing” was created to assume the functions of the withdrawing British Security and defense forces that had been stationed in West Cameroon.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Cameroon's internal security responsibilities are controlled by the Presidency of the Republic and carried out by the DGSN, the National Intelligence Service, the Gendarmerie Nationale, the Ministry of Territorial Administration, Military Intelligence, the army, and to a lesser extent, the Presidential Guard. Cameroon retained the French practice of maintaining a separate national security police (the DGSN) and the Gendarmerie, and both have dominant roles in enforcing internal security laws.

Sûreté Nationale

The organization and functions of the DGSN are determined by decree, which outlines the organization of the DGSN. According to the most recent decree, national security and its administrative officials are under the control of the President of the Republic as the Supreme Head. Police authority comes directly from the president, and police execute orders as handed down by the government authorities under the directives of a joint committee of defense and territorial administration personnel.

The mission of the DSGN is the protection of state institutions, public liberty, people, and property; assuring respect for law and order; and the defense of the nation. Its main functions include:

- Responsibility for the internal and external security of the State
- Investigating, arresting, and bringing to justice violators of criminal laws
- Maintaining law and order
- Fighting national, international, and transnational crime
- Defense of the nation

Gendarmerie Nationale

The gendarmerie is a paramilitary police force that performs some conventional crime control activities as well as military functions. It operates out of the Ministry of Defense, under the authority of the Secretary of State of the Ministry. The Secretary of State administers and defines the rules and regulations for the National Gendarmerie.

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CANADA

The current state of Canadian policing may be best summarized as a unique blend of British and American models. Yet prior to Canada's Confederation in 1867 it would be difficult to characterize Canadian policing as a blend of any two models. The nature of preconfederation policing may be best captured by comparing it to the diverse Canadian geography. The early expansion of settlements and increased commerce presented particular pressures for the Atlantic region of Canada, Lower Canada (now the province of Quebec), and Upper Canada (now the province of Ontario) to adequately provide law and order.

Policing in Lower Canada traversed the unique cultural, social, and political influences of both France and England. In 1651 the New France settlement of Quebec began utilizing police constables in the capacity of night watchmen. A similar body of constables was also introduced in Montreal in the mid-1600s for the purpose of protecting the community from Iroquois raiding parties. With the British conquest of New France in 1759 the structure of policing changed, based on the Common Law use of justices of the peace, constables, and sheriffs. With the passing of a British ordinance in 1787 this system of policing was officially imposed on the cities of Montreal and Quebec.

English settlers of Upper Canada, as would be expected, installed the Common Law in 1792 and later enacted the Parish and Town Officers Act of 1793. This Act set out provisions for the appointment of high constables who could appoint unpaid

territories. It was a role that was designed to counteract the violent and anarchistic nature of the American frontier. The NWMP presence in the western territories ensured the orderly settlement of the region and guarded against the American annexation of the Canadian west. In 1904 the North West Mounted Police would undergo a name change and become the Royal North West Mounted Police. In parallel to the evolution of the North West Mounted Police another federal police service was created by the enactment of the Police of Canada Act of 1868. This newly formed Dominion Police Force was responsible for protecting the parliament buildings and enforcing a range of federal and criminal laws. The force's region of operation was predominantly within the Atlantic Provinces and Ontario. These two federal police services would exist separately until 1920 when the Royal North West Mounted Police Amendment Act would create the RCMP by amalgamating the RNWMP and the Dominion Police Force.

CONTEMPORARY POLICING

Like many postmodern organizations, Canadian policing is adapting to an increasingly multicultural society, economic constraints, changing international/domestic crime patterns, and shifting governance paradigms. Response to this changing environment is made more difficult by the fact that Canadian policing is carried out by three levels of policing (municipal, provincial, and federal). In this context consistent and coordinated adaptation is further complicated by the existence of differing provincial and federal police acts, crisscrossing jurisdictional boundaries, and a history of disparate national and provincial standards. From a statistical point of reference, contemporary Canadian policing consists of 58,414 police officers—a ratio of 1 officer per 537.8 inhabitants—an annual expenditure on policing of \$6.3 billion, 579 municipal police services, 3 provincial police services, and 1 federal police agency. And yet, to understand Canadian policing, one must move beyond the thumbnail sketch that these broad statistical snapshots offer. A more thorough statistical analysis indicates the existence of disparate levels of policing

from province to province. Some of these differences are aptly noted in a comparison of provincial population per police ratios. In 2002, the range varied between 1 officer per 237.5 inhabitants in the Yukon Territory to that of 1 officer per 682.4 inhabitants in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador; with Canada's most populace provinces of Ontario (1 officer per 533.4 inhabitants) and Quebec (1 officer per 516.7 inhabitants) representing the mean. These differences are further articulated when examining the differential in per capita spending on municipal and provincial policing by province. Once more, the range varied between \$97 per capita in Prince Edward Island and \$179 in the province of Quebec, with the province of Alberta representing the median of \$132.

A further understanding of Canada's policing arena can be accomplished by examining the different jurisdictional responsibilities, mandates, and organizational structures inherent to municipal, provincial, contract, and federal policing.

Municipal Policing

Communities with a population of 10,000 or more are required under legislation to have a police service operated by the municipality or under contract to either the RCMP or a provincial police service. And while there is a legislative requirement for municipalities over 10,000 to have a police service, there are no requirements placed upon municipalities under this population threshold. Conversely, there are no restrictions preventing these smaller communities from developing their own police service. Municipalities in all regions have the option of providing their own service as long as they meet relevant legislative guidelines and standards. This legislated framework and a community's desire for public safety and law enforcement has created a national patchwork of police services, ranging in size from one or two officers to those with more than 7,000 officers (Toronto, Montreal).

With respect to enforcement responsibilities municipal officers are tasked with the enforcement of municipal and provincial statutes, the criminal code, and specific federal statutes, for example, the Controlled Drugs and Substances Act. The authority

of municipal police officers is limited by the jurisdictional boundary of the municipality they are employed by. There are exceptions to this restriction when, for example, RCMP and Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) officers are policing communities under contract. This exception is because of the broader enforcement mandates and authority these officers are granted via provincial and federal legislation.

Municipal policing is an integral component of Canadian policing, and, as such, any change in the structure or practices of municipal policing have a direct impact on the nature of Canadian policing. For example, recent provincial requirements for increased regionalization of municipalities and resulting amalgamation of existing police services has had a direct impact on the governance, size, and enforcement tasks of municipal police services. Furthermore, these initiatives reflect an increased desire by provincial governments to assert greater control and impose particular legislative guidelines upon police services.

Contract Policing

Contract policing is an interesting feature of Canadian policing, a practice that traces its history to frontier policing undertaken by the North West Mounted Police. Today it accurately refers to cost sharing agreements that exist between large police services and provinces or municipalities to undertake policing operations. In Canada there are two police services that are characteristically associated with contract policing, the OPP and the RCMP. The OPP is limited to the provincial jurisdictional boundary of Ontario, and as they are in fact Ontario's provincial police service, the extent of contract policing is limited to municipalities who, for a range of reasons, have not developed their own municipal service. The RCMP, on the other hand, is involved in contract policing nationwide and undertakes provincial and municipal policing in all but two Canadian provinces (Ontario and Quebec). The RCMP commits 57% of its budget and 47% of its members to contract policing. Current contract agreements are governed by a cost sharing formula wherein the province pays 70%

and the RCMP (federal government) cover the remaining 30%. This contract formula changes when the RCMP police municipalities with a population greater than 15,000; here the municipality is responsible for 90% of the cost and the RCMP the remaining 10%. These agreements incorporate a review mechanism whereby these cost sharing formulas can be renegotiated every 5 years.

Provincial Policing

The Constitution Act of 1867 granted the provincial and territorial governments responsibility for the administration of justice and, as such, the responsibility for overseeing the operation and development of policing within their jurisdictional boundaries. Provincial police services are charged with enforcing the criminal code and provincial statutes in areas not policed by municipal police services, usually rural areas and small communities. These police services are traditionally under the purview of the provincial attorney general or solicitor general. As noted previously there are three independent provincial police services in Canada: the OPP, the Sûreté du Québec (SQ), and the Royal Newfoundland Constabulary (RNC). The RNC is unique in that it does not police rural areas of the province but is limited to the municipalities of Corner Brook, Churchill Falls, Labrador City, and St. John's. The RCMP police the remaining sections of the province. While both the OPP and RNC police municipalities, there is no provision under Quebec law for the Sûreté du Québec to provide municipal policing (see Table 1).

Aboriginal Policing

In 1991, the federal government introduced the First Nations Policing Policy setting out the foundation for future developments in aboriginal policing. At the core of this initiative was the need to negotiate the development of cost sharing agreements between the first nations communities, provincial governments, and federal government. But more importantly, this policy enabled first nations communities to articulate the type of policing best suited for the needs of their reserve communities. Within the context of this policy,

communities could continue to utilize the services of the RCMP or OPP under the realm of contract policing or develop their own autonomous police service. Examples of these autonomous police services are the Six Nations Tribal Police in Ontario, the Amerindian Police in Quebec, and the Blood Tribal Police in Alberta. The number of first nations

communities that are adopting autonomous police services continues to increase as communities are now embracing the need for self-governance and the desire to articulate policing appropriate for their community. In the past many aboriginal police services were subject to the authority of a senior police service such as the RCMP, OPP, or Sûreté du

Table 1 Policing in the Provinces

	<i>Provincial/Rural</i>	<i>Municipal</i>
Alberta	RCMP	RCMP contract/8 independent police services
British Columbia	RCMP	RCMP contract/12 independent police services
Manitoba	RCMP	RCMP contract/8 independent police services
Newfoundland	RCMP	RNC in four communities/RCMP contract
New Brunswick	RCMP	RCMP contract/22 independent police services
Northwest Territories	RCMP	RCMP contract
Nunavut	RCMP	RCMP contract
Nova Scotia	RCMP	RCMP contract/17 independent police services
Ontario	OPP	OPP contract/101 independent police services
Prince Edward Island	RCMP	RCMP contract/4 independent police services
Quebec	Sûreté du Quebec	157 independent police services
Saskatchewan	RCMP	16 independent police services
Yukon	RCMP	RCMP contract

Note: OPP = Ontario Provincial Police; RCMP = Royal Canadian Mounted Police; RNC = Royal Newfoundland Constabulary.

Quebec, and were limited to by law or band (tribal) law enforcement. Currently, aboriginal police officers generally have full powers of arrest and enforcement of the criminal code, as well as the federal and provincial statutes, and band bylaws within the jurisdiction of reserve lands.

Federal Policing

The concept of federal policing more accurately refers to the broad tasks that the Royal Canadian

Mounted Police, as a branch of the Federal Solicitor General, undertakes. Unlike other police services, RCMP officers have jurisdiction in all provinces and territories; they enforce federal statutes in all regions, police federal property as required, and have powers of both a peace officer and that of a customs and excise officer. And, while the RCMP have national jurisdiction, they do not enforce provincial or municipal statutes in the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. The RCMP are tasked with a range of policing responsibilities, which includes the operation of a

number of specialized directorates serving the needs of police services nationally. For example:

- The “L” Directorate operates crime detection labs across the country offering identification services such as DNA analysis, fingerprinting, criminal history files, and so forth.
- The “V” Directorate operates the Canadian Police Information Centre (CPIC), the computerized information system that provides police services with instant criminal records, vehicle information, stolen property data, missing persons information, and so forth.
- The “P” Directorate serves as the international liaison with Interpol and foreign services.

The RCMP is also the lead organization in the national partnership with the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police and the National Research Council in the development of the Canadian Police Research Centre. This center is responsible for the development and evaluation of high technology products for police services. This array of common services provides continuity throughout Canada’s law enforcement community.

POLICE GOVERNANCE/ACCOUNTABILITY

The responsibility for policing is shared among all levels of government. As indicated previously the constitutional responsibility for policing is shared between the federal and provincial/territorial governments. The Constitution Act of 1867 confers authority on the federal government to legislate in relation to criminal law and procedure as well as the power to legislate in respect to peace, order, and good government. The Act empowers the provincial governments to make laws in relation to the administration of justice, of which policing is one facet. The result of this is that police services are accountable to a range of governing bodies inclusive of local and regional oversight bodies, provincial authorities and, with respect to the RCMP, the federal Solicitor General. In most instances the responsibility for policing falls under the Attorney General or Solicitor General in each province. The exceptions to this are Quebec where this responsibility is that of the Director of Public Security and in Ontario where

this responsibility is in fact shared between the Attorney General and the Solicitor General. The governance of municipal police services is generally set out by provincial legislation, which outlines the requirements of a local authority, such as municipal councils, municipal boards of commissioners, and provincial police commissions.

Municipal oversight plays a critical role in the assurance of police accountability. These oversight bodies undertake the task of ensuring fiscal and legal accountability as well as providing policy direction. Municipal oversight bodies also have the important task of representing citizen concerns and priorities in relation to pertinent public security issues. There are two models of municipal oversight utilized throughout Canada. Within the provinces of Quebec and Manitoba the responsibility for police oversight is assumed by the municipal council. With respect to the remaining provinces police oversight is the responsibility of either a police board or commission. The composition of these particular oversight bodies is made up of civilians appointed by either the province or municipal council. In most instances there is representation from the municipal council. In 1989, the Canadian Association of Police Boards (CAPB) was founded with the goal of providing support and direction to municipal boards and communities in order to ensure they achieve effective representation for their police oversight bodies. There are also provincial associations mandated with similar support functions.

While municipal oversight bodies are a key component in the governance of policing it is also important to ensure that a healthy regulatory environment is maintained. In order to accomplish this task provincial and federal governments have established legislation and policy that regulate standards and policing authority. Most provinces have set (or are in the process of defining) formal police standards throughout their jurisdiction. The common objectives are:

- Promote consistent service delivery
- Establish clear expectations for procedures and operations
- Guide human resource practices and ensure particular standards of administration

The assurance of governance and accountability is aided by way of establishing provincial police commissions. To assist these agencies in holding police services accountable, most commissions have the authority to conduct inquiries into police activity and practices. This authority of inquiry can include the review of municipal police boards and internal police discipline decisions. A complimentary layer of accountability is achieved through the establishment of formal complaint bodies such as public complaint boards, law enforcement review boards, and so on. The task of these oversight bodies is to field and investigate civilian complaints about individual officers or police services.

TRAINING AND EDUCATION

Training and Education is regulated by a combination of federal and provincial legislation. These regulations, acts, and bylaws set out the provisions for police training facilities, funding, basic training requirements, and the authority to develop curriculum and training programs (see Table 2). A police officer's

training occupies an important aspect of his or her career and learning path. This learning path is broken into four main categories: recruit/basic training, orientation/field training, inservice training, and advanced training. The purposes of these programs are:

- **Recruit training:** Provides new officers with the skills and competencies required to achieve a specific level of operational performance.
- **Field training:** Occurs after the recruit has successfully completed basic training. This enables recruits to apply the skills and competencies they have learned in previous training under supervision of a senior officer.
- **Inservice training:** Occurs throughout the career of a police officer. The objectives of this training are to ensure officers' skills are maintained, that they remain current with changing legislative and operational practices, that they receive assistance for career development, and so forth.
- **Advanced training:** Focuses on the development of specialized skills and knowledge designed to achieve a high level of expertise in a given area of policing.

Table 2 Legislation Governing Training

<i>Jurisdiction</i>	<i>Legislation</i>
Federal	Royal Canadian Mounted Police Act 1985 1973 Treasury Board Minute Commissioner's Standing Orders
Alberta	Police Act/ Police Act Service Regulation 1998
British Columbia	Police Act 1996
Manitoba	City of Winnipeg and City of Brandon Bylaws
New Brunswick	Police Act/Regulations 1996
Newfoundland	Royal Newfoundland Constabulary Act 1992
Nova Scotia	Police Act 1989
Ontario	Police Services Act 1990 Adequacy and Effectiveness of Police Services Reg.
P.E.I.	Police Act 1988
Quebec	Bill 86 Police Act
Saskatchewan	Police Act 1990-1991

As with Canadian policing in general, training and how it is delivered varies by the jurisdictional boundaries consistent with provincial and federal responsibility. There are seven police schools and academies across the country: the Canadian Police College, RCMP Training Depot, the Ontario Police College, the British Columbia Police Academy, the Saskatchewan Police College, Ecole Nationale de Police du Quebec, and the Atlantic Police Academy. The Provinces of Alberta and Manitoba do not have provincial recruit training sites and as a result the Municipal Police Services, not relying on the RCMP for policing, operate their own training units (e.g., Edmonton, Calgary, Lethbridge, Winnipeg). Many of the police colleges are regionally mandated and are thus limited to training officers within specific provincial jurisdictions. The exception to this is the Canadian Police College, which provides experienced police personnel at the federal, provincial, and municipal levels with specialized training. As well, varying levels of inservice and advanced training are undertaken by large municipal and provincial police services.

LABOR RELATIONS

Canadian police labor relations are relatively stable and yet there is a perception that the relationship between management and labor is somewhat adversarial. Many of the contentious issues are driven by contract disputes, externally imposed budgets, and a lack of resources. Governance of police labor relations is divided by provincial/federal jurisdiction outlined in a combination of Labor Acts and Police Acts. Perhaps the key points of interest are those relating to the right to affiliate and the right to strike. With respect to the right to affiliate, police officers in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, Newfoundland, and Alberta are restricted by legislation. Where there are restrictions on affiliation, police associations (similar to the role of unions) represent their members in negotiating collective agreements, bargaining for wages, and negotiating working conditions. Municipal police associations are usually affiliated under the organizational umbrella of a provincial association thus enabling smaller municipal associations to extend their representation and draw on the resources of a larger organization. A further extension of this is found in the national organization, the Canadian Police Association.

While police labor militancy has played an important role in Canadian history, the right to strike is currently restricted in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, Alberta, Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick. One argument for this restriction is premised on the concept that policing is an essential service and that the public must have some assurances that the service will not be disrupted. Although strikes are deemed illegal in particular, police militancy has found alternate avenues of expression such as job action, work slowdowns, and so forth.

Community Policing

There is little question that community policing has become the official philosophy with respect to policing in Canada. Nor is there little doubt that it has had a monumental effect on those who have sought to improve police operations, management, or relations with the public. And yet, while there is

a consensus of community policing's wealth and radical shift from the professional model of policing, there is little consensus on a specific definition of the concept of community policing. This problem of definition is due, in part, to the fact that both academics and practitioners have struggled with the definition of community-based policing. The vagaries of definition have been shown to haunt police practitioners and their efforts to implement community-based policing in a consistent manner. In some instances, the essence of community-based policing remains elusive and hinders future efforts of application. More recently, police policy makers and strategists have begun to build on the foundation of community-based policing and problem solving in an effort to achieve greater levels of efficiency and effectiveness. These operational strategies are based on the concept of proactive policing. Examples of this strategic orientation can be noted in Metropolitan Toronto Police Service's "Crime Management Program," Edmonton Police Services Project (called *Archimedes*), and the RCMP's Criminal Intelligence Program. Here, the term *proactive policing* (or *intelligence-led policing* as it is referred to in various jurisdictions) applies to both a style of policing and specific targeting actions.

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CHAD

Chad, a landlocked country in central Africa south of Libya, occupies 1.284 million square kilometers and has a population of 9.3 million people (July 2003 estimate). It was a French colony until 1960,



and since that time it has suffered periods of interethnic warfare and incursion onto its territory by neighboring countries. Security forces acting on behalf of former dictator Hissene Habre brutally tortured tens of thousands of political detainees during his rule from 1982-1990; in 2003 he faced charges in Belgium for crimes against humanity. Successive governments still faced widespread criticism for human rights abuses.

There is little current, reliable information available about law enforcement in Chad. According to the U.S. Department of State, the government maintains tight control over all security forces in Chad to control opposition or dissent, and all are responsible for human rights violations.

During Chad's tumultuous history, many fractious forces performing law enforcement functions changed roles and names. According to the periodical *Military Technology*, the combined forces of the police, presidential guard, and gendarmerie numbered 5,000 in 2002 (a ratio of 1 for every 1,860 inhabitants), but this does not take into account the large role in internal security played by the armed forces.

SÛRETÉ NATIONALE

Chad inherited the institution of the Sûreté from colonial times. It is a law enforcement force responsible

for policing at the national level and for maintaining law and order in larger municipalities. It reports to the Ministry of the Interior.

NATIONAL AND NOMADIC GUARD

The National and Nomadic Guard (*Garde Nationale et Nomade du Tchad* [GNNT]) is an elite force that at times has performed customs duties, but has also been used as a fighting unit in armed conflict. It reports to the Ministry of the Interior.

GENDARMERIE

At the time of independence, the National Gendarmerie, which continued to be headed by a French officer until 1979, was responsible for policing rural areas in squads of 4 to 8 gendarmes; platoons of 25 men were responsible for internal security and crowd control. However, the Gendarmerie was disbanded in 1980, only to be later recreated and now again is operative throughout the country.

RAPID INTERVENTION FORCE

A Rapid Intervention Force (*Forces d'Intervention Rapide* [FIR]), part of the Ministry of Defense, has been responsible for ensuring the head of state's security, defending the country's independence, national unity, sovereignty, and territorial integrity in the event of any aggression. It was established in 1997. Under the brutal regime of Hissene Habre, a similar Rapid Intervention Force was the military and operational wing of the feared Bureau of Documentation and Security (*Direction de la Documentation et de la Sécurité* [DDS]), an intelligence organization and political police force engaged in covert operations against opponents of the government. The DDS was dissolved and replaced by the National Security Agency (*Agence Nationale de Sécurité* [ANS]).

REPUBLICAN GUARD

The Republican Guard, which reports to the Presidency, is an elite unit that at times has been

deployed for military purposes, but which has also been implicated in law enforcement activities, including arresting political opponents during elections.

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CHILE

Chile is located on the extreme southwestern coast of South America. It is bound by the Pacific Ocean to the west, Argentina to the east, Bolivia to the northeast, and Peru to the northwest. Its capital is Santiago. The official currency is the peso (P), divided into 100 centavos.

The principal ethnic majority is the *Mestizos*, who account for 90% of the population and are of mixed European and Amer-Indian descent. Whites account for 2% of the population, while Amer-Indians, mainly Mapuche or Araucanians, account for 6%. The remainder of the population includes small but almost extinct tribal groups.

The official language is Spanish, which is spoken by almost the entire population except a few of the Amer-Indians. The Mapuche speak the Araucan language, which has seven dialects.

Chile is vulnerable to earthquakes, tidal waves, volcanic eruptions, floods, avalanches, and landslides due to its location in an area of geological instability. Approximately 30 rivers flow from the Andes and include the Loa, Huasco, Coquimbo, Limari, Mapocho, Maule, Maipo, and Bio-Bio.



CHILEAN POLICE

Carabineros

Under the 1980 constitution, the police are referred to as the Forces of Order and Public Security, their role being defined as the maintenance of law and order. There are two separate law enforcement forces: the Carabineros and the Investigations Police, both under the operational control of the Ministry of the Interior. The Carabineros constitute a national police force that forms a potential reserve for the army and has a paramilitary organization. The Investigations Police is a national plainclothes organization comparable in some respects to the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI).

The strength, resources, and qualities of the various municipal and rural police forces vary enormously. In 1924, in an effort to provide a degree of uniformity, the country was divided into five police zones, with their headquarters at Antofagasta, Valparaíso, Santiago, Talca, and Concepción. The same law divided the police functionally into three divisions: the Public Order Division, entrusted with general peacekeeping on a relatively passive level; the Security Division, with a role of active law enforcement; and the Identification Division, which embraced record

keeping and general crime detection. This arrangement provided for the coordination of the activities of the various existing law enforcement agencies, on a zonal basis, with the General Directorate of Police (*Dirección General de Policía*) at the national level. At that time, in the mid-1920s, the various police forces numbered 728 officers and 8,628 enlisted personnel.

Although now downgraded in importance, the provinces and the municipalities continued to maintain their individual police forces. Only the municipal police of Santiago and Valparaíso seem to have been effective, however, and in 1927 all law enforcement agencies were incorporated in a single national force, the Carabineros of Chile. The force had a total strength of 1,123 officers and 15,420 enlisted personnel in 1929.

In 2000 the Carabineros numbered 31,000, including officers, noncommissioned officers (NCOs), and a significant women's element. Although normally under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior, the Carabineros were put under the Ministry of Defense during the period of national emergency following the overthrow of the Allende regime. Despite the return of civilian government in 1990, the Carabineros remain subordinate to the Ministry of Defense, but their operations are coordinated by the Ministry of the Interior. The Aylwin administration authorized an increase in strength of 1,100 annually over the 1991-1994 period.

Organization

There are 30,000 Carabineros (men and women) commanded by the director general and organized geographically into three main zones—the Northern Zone, the Central Zone, and the Southern Zone. Each of these zones is in turn subdivided into prefectures (*prefecturas*), subprefectures (*subprefecturas*), commissariats (*comisarías*), subcommissariats (*subcomisarías*), lieutenantcies (*tenencias*), reserves (*retenes*), and outposts (*puestos avanzados*).

The Carabineros also include marine and air sections. The Air Police, which ranks as a separate prefecture, dates from 1946, when it was formed with a single Aeronca Champion aircraft. The Air

Police acquired its first helicopter in 1968; by 1993 its inventory of helicopters had increased to 14.

Operationally, the Carabineros are divided into 17 departments: analysis and evaluation, armaments and munitions, borders and boundaries, civic action, data processing, drug control and prevention of offenses, finance, forestry, internal security, legal, minors, police services, public relations, social action, supply, traffic control, and transport. In addition to their normal law enforcement and allied functions, the Carabineros perform extensive civic actions, including the provision of medical and dental services to the populations of the less developed regions of the country and the protection of forests and wildlife. The Carabineros are also responsible for customs control and the Presidential Guard. Separate prefectures deal with the Air Police, the Radio Patrol, and the Special Forces.

The largest single concentration of Carabineros is in Santiago, where apart from headquarters and administrative personnel, the schools, and the Presidential Guard, there are five geographical prefectures: the Central Prefecture, North Prefecture, South Prefecture, East Prefecture, and West Prefecture. These are in turn subdivided into 26 territorial and 9 operational commissariats.

Recruitment and Training

Service in the Carabineros is voluntary, and admission standards are high. Applicants are required to have completed secondary school and to have passed exacting physical examinations and psychological tests.

The School of Police Investigation's admissions requirements include Chilean citizenship, unmarried, less than 27 years old, 4 years of college, successfully pass an aptitude test, good military standing, good character, good physical and dental health, and a national certificate of identity. There is a 3-year commitment for graduates who are prepared to handle a wide range of individual and social values. Graduates are also required to advance their scientific and technological knowledge.

The force has its own cadet, NCO, and staff officer schools, in addition to a specialists' training

center, all of which are located in Los Cerrillos, Santiago.

Uniforms

The Carabineros wear an olive-drab uniform with green trim and a high-crowned cap with a brown leather visor. Motorcycle police wear white crash helmets and gauntlets with the standard service uniform. Riot helmets and shields are used by special units. Female members wear a version of the male uniform with a skirt and hard-crowned, kepi-type cap. Officers' rank insignia are identical to those of the army but are worn on silver rather than gold shoulder straps and plaits. NCO rank insignia are in silver lace and worn on the upper sleeve.

The Investigations Police

The Investigations Police, numbering approximately 4,000, is a plainclothes civilian agency engaged primarily in the detection and investigation of crime. Headquartered in Santiago, the force has seven substations in other parts of Chile. It functions throughout the country in support of the Carabineros. Operationally, its chain of command runs from the director general through a deputy director to the inspectors in charge of the provincial substations.

Functionally, it is divided into a number of departments, including administration, foreign and internal police, health, justice, personnel, and welfare. The force also includes the Air Police Brigade, responsible for airport surveillance; the National Identification Bureau, which keeps records of all adult citizens and foreign residents and issues identification cards that must be carried at all times; and the Forensic Medicine Laboratory. In addition, the Special Units Prefecture comprises six brigades dealing with fraud, murder, robberies, vehicle theft, vice, and women's affairs.

The Investigations Police functions in close collaboration with the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol) and with the intelligence services of the army, navy, and air force. Under the military government, some Investigations Police

agents became involved in criminal activities. By early 1992, its new director, Horácio Toro, a retired army general appointed by the Aylwin government, had withdrawn more than 200 officers from duty because of their alleged involvement in drug trafficking.

INTERNAL SECURITY INTELLIGENCE ORGANIZATIONS

The Aylwin government relied mainly on the Investigations Police to combat terrorist groups. Technical assistance was obtained from Italy and Germany. The Carabineras created a new countersubversive intelligence body in May 1990, the Directorate of Carabineros Political Intelligence (*Dirección de Inteligencia de Carabineros* [Dipolcar]). Its previous unit was implicated in human rights violations. In early 1993, the government was finally able to enact new legislation, after more than a year of congressional delays in approving the project, creating the Directorate of Public Security and Information (*Dirección de Seguridad Pública e Informaciones*). The new directorate is under the Ministry of the Interior and allows the ministry to coordinate the intelligence and anticrime and antiterrorist activities of the Carabineros and Investigations Police.

POLICY INITIATIVES

Chile's major drug-policy initiative in 1998 was the decision by the National Drug Control Council (CONACE) to decentralize its national project bank for drug prevention, education, and rehabilitation, whose funding reached 4.0 billion pesos (approximately \$8.8 million) in 1998.

Chile continues to play a leading role with the Inter-American Drug Abuse Control Commission (CICAD), including its efforts to create a multilateral evaluation mechanism (MEM) for efforts to combat illegal drugs. Chile worked closely with CICAD in the area of money laundering in 1998 and sponsored seminars on this topic in the public and private sectors.

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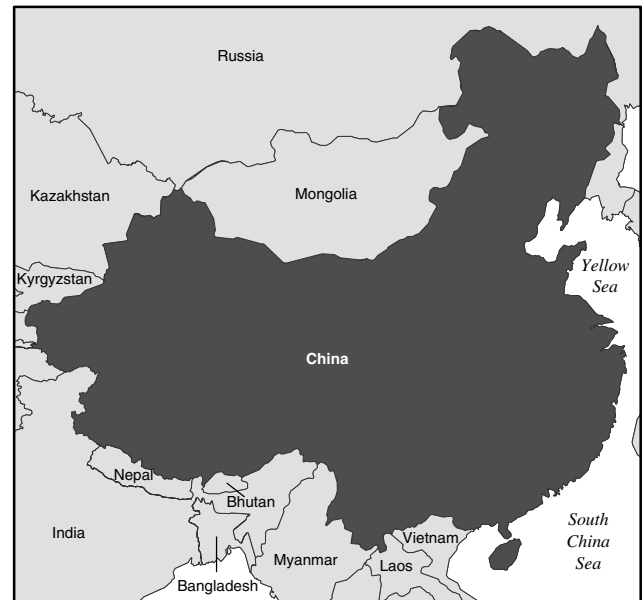
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☉ CHINA

The modern Chinese police were not born until the late 19th century. But primitive forms of law enforcement can be traced back to the very first Chinese dynasty, which existed more than 4,000 years ago. The Xia dynasty (2100 to 1600 B.C.) was still a tribal state. To maintain order, a position known as *Si Tu* was created. Based on the belief that if people could be friendly to each other and use self-restraint in dealing with each other, there would be no social disturbances, the emperor instructed the *Si Tu* to maintain order by eliminating hate and mediating disputes among tribal members. In addition, the position of *Shi* was created to maintain jails and investigate offenses committed by tribal members.

During the Qin dynasty (221 to 206 B.C.), China became a unified country. To strengthen their rule over the newly unified country, the Qin emperors devoted much attention to the establishment of a sophisticated law enforcement system in the country. In the capital, an official known as *Zhongwei* was given the responsibility for maintaining law and order. The responsibilities of the *Zhongwei* included patrolling the city streets to prevent theft and burglary, investigating criminal offenses, and handling emergency situations. But the Qin dynasty was a short-lived one. The law enforcement system that originated in the Qin dynasty did not reach full development until the Han dynasty.

During the Han dynasty (206 B.C. to A.D. 220), an official known as *Xianwei* served as the chief law enforcement officer in the capital. Under the *Xianwei* were officers known as *Xianyu*, who performed the daily tasks of patrolling the city streets and apprehending criminals. Outside the capital, the deputy chief administrative officer of each prefecture and county was given the specific task of



maintaining law and order. A *Ting*, a security agency similar to today's police station, was established in villages, towns, marketplaces, ports, and along the post roads. To strengthen the law and order at the local level, the frank pledge system was also introduced. Under the frank pledge system, every five households were grouped into a unit called a *Wu*. Members of each *Wu* were given the responsibility of ensuring that no members of the *Wu* committed crimes. If one member committed a crime, other members were obliged to have the offender apprehended and brought before the court for punishment. Failure to do so would subject the *Wu* members to the same punishment as the offender would have received. After the Qin and Han dynasties, China was ruled by many different dynasties in the next 2,000 years, but the system established in the Qin and Han dynasties remained the basic model of law enforcement in all the ensuing dynasties.

The Qing dynasty (1616-1911) was the last dynasty in China's history. The law enforcement system of the Qing dynasty bore a great resemblance to the system originated in the Qin and Han dynasties. Toward the end of its rule, however, the Qing government established a Western-style police system in China. In the late 19th century, certain Western powers forced the Qing government to allow them to establish centers in major Chinese cities where there were large numbers of foreign

nationals. Within these centers, Chinese law did not apply. Western powers applied their own laws and established their own police agencies. The concept of modern policing thus was introduced to China as a result of a form of imperialist invasion and colonization.

In the dynasty's waning days, faced with frequent uprisings against the regime, the Qing government decided to establish a Western-style police system to maintain order and to suppress rebellions against the regime. In 1901, the Qing government established China's first modern police agency—the Capital Police Bureau of Beijing. A few years later, the Qing government ordered that similar police agencies be established in all major cities and provinces. In 1905, the Qing government established the Ministry of Police to direct police operations throughout the country. After the demise of the Qing dynasty, the government of the Republic of China (1912-1949) continued efforts to develop a police system after the model of Western modern police systems, but the police system established by the Nationalist government was abolished by the Communist government when it took power in China in 1949.

The police system established by the Communist government was based on the system the Communist Party developed in revolutionary base areas before it took power over the entire country. The system was a highly centralized one. At the top was the Ministry of Public Security. Under the Ministry, there were provincial and county public security bureaus. At the grassroots level, there were numerous police stations. During the 1950s and early 1960s, the police managed to maintain a strikingly low crime rate in China. But during this period of time, police operations were hardly guided by any laws and regulations. It was not until 1979 that China's National People's Congress promulgated the first Criminal Law and Criminal Procedure Law. With the promulgation of the two laws for the first time in the history of the People's Republic, the police powers and authority began to be regulated in the form of enacted laws. The promulgation of the Police Law in 1995 marked another significant moment in the development of the Chinese police. The 1995 Police Law, China's first comprehensive police law, contains specific provisions regarding the police organization,

functions, powers, recruitment standards, training, disciplinary proceedings, and mechanisms of police accountability.

PRESENT POLICE STRUCTURE

Under the 1995 Police Law, the Chinese police consist of five components: public security police, state security police, prison police, judicial police in the people's courts, and judicial police in the people's procuracies.

Public security police are the largest and oldest component of the Chinese police. At the top of the organizational hierarchy is the Ministry of Public Security. The Ministry represents the central government in directing and regulating police work throughout the country. At the provincial and county levels, there are provincial and county public security bureaus. At the grassroots level, there are numerous police stations. Lower level public security bureaus are accountable to both the higher level public security bureaus and the people's governments at the corresponding level. For instance, a provincial public security bureau is accountable to the Ministry of Public Security; at the same time it is also accountable to the provincial government. Similarly, a county public security bureau is accountable to both the provincial public security bureau and the county government.

There is no specific legislation designating the respective responsibilities of the Ministry of Public Security and the local governments, but the long-standing practice is that the Ministry of Public Security is responsible for making nationwide regulations concerning the law enforcement procedures, recruitment standards, training requirements, and promotion criteria. In cases of national importance, the Ministry of Public Security is responsible for directing and coordinating the investigation efforts of involved agencies. The Ministry is also responsible for providing professional assistance to local public security bureaus. The local governments, on the other hand, are responsible for determining the size of the police force needed in their jurisdictions, providing the budgets for the police operations, and determining the local law enforcement priorities.

In addition to regular public security police, there are also four special public security police. They are railway police, transportation police, civil aviation police, and forest police. The special police bear the primary responsibility for enforcing the law in their special professional areas. Railway police are responsible for maintaining order on trains and in train stations. Transportation police are responsible for providing security in waterway transportation. Civil aviation police maintain order in airports and provide security for civilian air transportation. Forest police patrol the national forests to prevent forest fires, poaching, illegal cutting, and other activities prohibited by the State Forest Law. The joint administrative structure applies to the special police as well. The special police are bound by the rules and regulations issued by the Ministry of Public Security but the special police are considered part of the corresponding government ministries and are under the direct leadership of these ministries. For instance, railway police are organized within the Ministry of Railway and civil aviation police are organized within the Bureau of Management of Civil Aviation.

Another police force that needs to be mentioned is the people's armed police. This police force was established in 1983 by converting one million active military soldiers into police. The functions performed by the armed police include border patrol, maintaining security and order in border areas, guarding high-ranking government officials and foreign dignitaries, and providing security for important buildings and facilities. The headquarters of the armed police is set up within the Ministry of Public Security. The force is under the joint command of the Ministry of Public Security and the Central Military Committee.

State security police were established in 1983. The responsibility of the state security police is to protect state security by preventing foreign espionage, sabotage, and conspiracies. State security police are under the leadership of the Ministry of State Security. Under the Ministry, state security bureaus are established in all provinces and some municipalities that have frequent contacts with foreign countries.

In addition to law enforcement duties, the Chinese police take full charge of supervising convicted offenders. This responsibility is divided between public security police and prison police.

Offenders serving community sentences such as probation and parole are supervised by public security police. Incarcerated offenders are supervised by prison police. Prison police are under the leadership of the Ministry of Justice. Apart from public security, state security, and prison police, there are also two judicial police groups that are responsible for providing security respectively for the people's courts and the people's procuracies.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

The Police Law of 1995 sets out the basic qualifications of police officers. According to the law, to become a successful candidate a person must be over 18 years old, support the Constitution, have good moral character, be in good health, have an educational level of no less than high school graduation, and be willing to serve as a police officer. The Police Law prohibits people with criminal records or those who have been expelled from government offices to be recruited as police officers.

Qualified candidates must take a competitive examination. Candidates are selected on the basis of their test scores and other information that testifies to their good character. After being recruited, the new recruits are required to go through a 1-year probationary period. During the 1-year probationary period, the new recruits receive training in police academies. Only those who have performed satisfactorily during the probationary period and successfully passed the end-term examinations will be formally hired as police officers.

The People's Police Ranking Regulations of 1992 established the following police ranks:

- General Superintendent (conferred on individuals who hold minister-level government posts)
- Deputy General Superintendent (conferred on individuals who hold deputy-minister-level government posts)
- Superintendent (first, second, and third grade)
- Inspector (first, second, and third grade)
- Sergeant (first, second, and third grade)
- Officer (first and second grade)

New recruits usually start at the lowest rank. After they have served on the force for a number of

years and if they meet the promotion criteria, they will be promoted to the next higher rank.

The Police Law sets out higher educational requirements for officers who hold leadership positions. To be promoted to a leadership position, a candidate must have a college degree, necessary legal knowledge, practical experience in police work, administrative talent and management skills, and have successfully passed the required inservice training in a police university or academy. According to the data released by the Ministry of Public Security, as of 1999 approximately 44% of public security police officers have the educational level of 2 years of college or above and approximately 43% have the educational level of high school graduate.

POLICE FUNCTIONS

The Police Law of 1995 stipulates 14 functions to be performed by the police. These functions are:

1. Preventing, stopping, and investigating criminal activities
2. Maintaining the public order and preventing activities that endanger the social order
3. Maintaining traffic order and handling traffic accidents
4. Organizing and administering fire prevention work
5. Controlling firearms, ammunition, knives, and flammable, explosive, and radioactive materials
6. Supervising the operation of certain professions and industries, for instance, hotels, car rentals, pawn shops, and printing and carving houses—which all have a high likelihood of being used by criminals in carrying out criminal activities
7. Guarding high-ranking government officials and foreign dignitaries and providing security for important buildings and facilities
8. Controlling and managing rallies, parades, and demonstrations
9. Administering the household registration system, conferring or revoking nationality, handling matters regarding the entry to or exit of the country,

and monitoring foreigners' residence and travel within the country

10. Maintaining order and security at border areas
11. Supervising offenders sentenced to control (a punishment for minor offenses, akin to parole) detention, deprivation of political rights, and offenders on probation and parole
12. Supervising and providing protection for the computer information network
13. Guiding and supervising security work in government offices, social organizations, and enterprises; guiding crime prevention and security work of "mass-line" security and protection organizations
14. Performing other duties prescribed by laws and regulations

To ensure that the police perform this wide range of tasks effectively, public security police are divided into various specializations. Within the Ministry of Public Security, there are a number of specialized divisions. For instance, there are divisions in charge of public security, criminal investigation, economic crime investigation, drug law enforcement, border control, exit and entry control, fire prevention, security for high-ranking government officials and foreign dignitaries, supervision and protection of the public information network, traffic control, and jail administration. There are also administrative bureaus for police supervision, personnel and training, logistics and finance, and international cooperation. Public security bureaus at the provincial, municipal, and prefectural levels have similar specialized divisions and bureaus. In municipal and prefectural public security bureaus, there are also patrol police. To deal with the increasingly rampant crime of smuggling, a special antismuggling police force was established in 1999. The antismuggling police are under the joint leadership of the Customs Administration and the Ministry of Public Security.

China became a member of Interpol in 1984. The China National Central Bureau of Interpol was established within the Ministry of Public Security to serve as the liaison agency with Interpol. The Chinese police have ever since actively cooperated with

Interpol in exchanging information and apprehending internationally wanted criminals.

POLICING STRATEGIES

During the first 30 years after the founding of the People's Republic, the Chinese police seemed to have developed effective policing strategies. The key to the success of the policing strategies was the police ability to keep a tight control over the subject population through the household registration system and the surveillance provided by the extensive network of mass-line security organizations. Under the household registration system, all residents were required to register their residency with the police. Even for a temporary visit people were required to apply for a temporary residency permit from the police. To ensure the enforcement of the household registration law, a tightly knit police and mass-line surveillance system was set up. Neighborhood committees were established in all communities. Each neighborhood committee was placed under the supervision of a police officer dispatched from the local police station. The officer visited the neighborhood committees under his supervision regularly to get the first-hand information about the community and its residents and to provide guidance to the neighborhood committees in their crime prevention work. Under this tightly monitored security system, no strangers could come to a neighborhood without immediately being noticed and reported to the police. Because of the restrictions placed on travel and free movement, the Chinese police during this period of time were policing a largely stable population. The foundation of these traditionally effective policing strategies, however, has been greatly undermined by the changed socioeconomic conditions brought about by the economic development under the policy of economic modernization.

With the introduction of the market economy, it became impossible to continue the static form of social control. The opening up of labor and commodity markets has created an ever-increasing demand for labor and commodity in urban areas. Tens of thousands of people have moved from rural areas to cities in search of work. The size of this "transient population" is estimated to be near

100 million. The presence of the sizable transient population has greatly reduced the ability of the police and the mass-line security organizations to control and supervise the urban populations. Taking advantage of the weakened police control over the people in the urban areas, criminals often conceal themselves in the floating population, moving from one place to another in search of opportunities to commit crime. Since the introduction of the policy of economic modernization, China has maintained one of the world's fastest economic growth rates. The economic growth has brought prosperity, but it has also brought in its wake an unprecedented increase in crime. Faced with the weakening of the traditional policing strategies and the new upsurge and new types of crime, the Chinese police have little choice other than to develop new policing strategies and search for new methods of social control.

In comparison with the traditional prevention-oriented policing, the Chinese police have apparently attached an increased emphasis to punitive policing. To deal with the rising criminal trend, the police have adopted a campaign style of policing. Since the early 1980s, the police have launched several severe-strike campaigns. The campaign-style policing is characterized by launching sharp assaults on particular types of crime within limited periods. If the police perceive particular types of crime as worrisome, they concentrate their forces and launch assaults upon these types of crime to force a decrease in the number of offenses. For instance, in the late 1980s, the police launched severe-strike campaigns against "six evils," namely, prostitution; producing, selling, and spreading pornography; kidnapping women and children; planting, gathering, and trafficking in drugs; gambling; and defrauding people by superstitious means. In the late 1990s, the Ministry of Public Security organized campaigns against smuggling, larceny-theft, motor vehicle theft, kidnapping women and children, and launched a campaign to apprehend criminal fugitives.

In the new era of police development, the police authorities have also attached great significance to improving police professionalism. The central components of police professionalism are raising police officers' educational levels, strengthening officer training, increasing the reliance on modern

technology in policing, and introducing modern policing methods. For example, in the past, because of the police ability to maintain law and order by relying on the household registration system and the assistance of the mass-line security organizations, there was no regular police patrol on the city streets. Now to meet the new challenge of maintaining law and order, the Chinese police have introduced in urban areas the routine motorized patrol, a typical policing method in Western countries.

Despite the emphasis on the development of police professionalism and the efforts to modernize the force, the Chinese police have not abandoned preventive policing. To combat the current rise in crime, the government advocates an overall strategy known as “comprehensive social management.” The strategy calls for mobilizing all possible social forces to strengthen public security and prevent crime. The traditional cooperation between police and mass-line security organizations lies at the core of the strategy. Under the auspices of the local governments and with the assistance of the local police, many new neighborhood security committees have been established. Not only have the police continued to work closely with neighborhood security committees in guiding them in their crime prevention work, but the police authorities, following the fashion of the community in the Western countries, have actually named the strategy “community policing.” The major components of the community policing strategy include disseminating legal knowledge to community residents, strengthening neighborhood patrols, managing the transient population, strengthening the internal security of work units, and helping community residents take better precautions against crime. The police authorities claim that the adoption of the community policing strategy has resulted in a substantial reduction in crime in certain areas.

POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

The Chinese police in general enjoy a positive image in the eyes of the public. The police, however, are not immune from misconduct. With the implementation of economic reform, there has been an increase in the reported incidence of police corruption

and police abuse of power. The government and the police leadership are gravely concerned that the increasing trend of police misconduct may undermine the positive image of the police. The Police Law of 1995 established a new police supervisory system. Under this system, the police are subject to four types of supervision: procuratorate supervision, administrative supervision, internal supervision, and citizen supervision.

Procuracy Supervision

The people’s procuracy bears the responsibility of ensuring that police perform their duties within the boundary of the law. The people’s procuracy reviews and approves police requests for arrests and supervises the legality of other police actions. The people’s procuracy has the responsibility to receive and review citizens’ complaints against the police. Should police officers’ conduct constitute a violation of the criminal law, the people’s procuracy is obligated to bring a criminal prosecution against the responsible officers.

Administrative Supervision

Under China’s administrative supervisory system, all government agencies are subject to the supervision of the Ministry of Supervision. The Ministry of Supervision and its subordinate agencies have the authority to receive and review citizens’ complaints against the police. Upon finding a police officer guilty of wrongdoing, the supervisory agency may either recommend to the police agency that disciplinary actions be taken against the responsible officer or impose disciplinary actions on the officer by itself. The sanctions prescribed in the Police Law include warning, record of a demerit, record of a major demerit, demotion, dismissal from the post, and expulsion from the police force. To ensure the legality of the police operations, the administrative supervisory agencies may also send agents to police agencies to inspect their work.

Internal Supervision

The Police Law of 1995 sets up an internal supervision mechanism. The Police Law provides that

higher level police agencies must oversee the legality of law enforcement work of lower level police agencies. Higher level agencies have the authority to inspect the work of lower agencies and to correct or revoke wrong or improper decisions made by lower level agencies. In addition to hierarchical oversight, the Police Law also establishes an internal supervisory system within each police bureau. The law provides that the Internal Supervisory Committee must be established in all police bureaus at or above the prefectural level. The Internal Supervisory Committee receives citizens' complaints against the police and investigates the officers' alleged wrongdoing. Upon finding an officer guilty of wrongdoing, the Committee has the authority to impose on the officer the same disciplinary actions as does an administrative supervisory agency. Furthermore, the Internal Supervisory Committee is also given the authority to suspend the responsible officer from active law enforcement duties or put the officer in temporary confinement.

The function of the Internal Supervisory Committee is not limited to handling citizens' complaints and investigating individual officers' wrongdoing. The Police Law provides that the Internal Supervisory Committee has the overall responsibility to ensure the legality of all police actions within the bureau and the bureau's subordinating agencies. The Supervisory Committee is supposed to review all police action decisions, for instance, decisions to arrest, to search, to detain, or to impose administrative sanctions. To ensure that officers on duty perform their duties properly, the supervisory officers may either accompany the officers on duty or conduct surprise inspections. According to the statistics released by the Ministry of Public Security, police supervisory officers in 1999 corrected more than 300,000 improper law enforcement incidents nationwide and subjected 2,556 violating officers to suspension and 1,366 officers to temporary confinement.

Citizens' Supervision

The Police Law provides that in performing their duties, police must voluntarily accept citizens'

supervision. Citizens may exercise their right to supervise the police in three ways:

1. They have the right to make recommendations and suggestions to police agencies.
2. They have the right to file complaints against the police.
3. They have the right to bring administrative or civil lawsuits against the police.

The Police Law makes available several channels for citizens to file complaints against the police. Citizens may file complaints with the people's procuracies, with the Ministry of Supervision or its subordinating agencies, or directly with the police agencies. In addition to filing complaints with government agencies, citizens may also bring administrative lawsuits against the police. The Administrative Litigation Law grants citizens the right to sue police agencies for their illegal actions. After adjudicating a case, the administrative court may sustain the challenged police decision, alter the decision, annul or partially annul the decision, or order the police to enter a new decision in accordance with the opinion of the court. Aside from seeking relief from the administrative court, citizens may also bring civil lawsuits against the police for monetary damages. The State Compensation Law provides that citizens may sue the police for monetary damages when the police make illegal arrests, when the police illegally assault citizens and cause citizens to suffer bodily injury or death, or when the police cause death or bodily injury because of the illegal use of weapons or other police equipment.

THE HONG KONG POLICE

In 1997, Great Britain returned Hong Kong, which it had ruled for more than 100 years as its crown colony, to China. After regaining its sovereignty, China made Hong Kong a Special Administrative Region that enjoys a high degree of self-rule and governance. The Hong Kong Police Force, therefore, is a police force that is completely separate from the police system on the mainland. In 1997, as Hong Kong was returned to China, the Royal

Hong Kong Police Force was renamed the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region Police Force. The Hong Kong Police Force is under the direction of and accountable to the Government of Hong Kong Special Administrative Region. Currently, there are 28,695 sworn officers and 6,068 civilian officers on the force.

The Hong Kong police perform a wide range of duties, including criminal investigation, patrol, order maintenance, directing traffic, providing emergency services, controlling illegal immigrants, counterterrorism operations, etc. The Hong Kong Police Force consists of five departments: the Department of Operations, the Department of Crime and Security, the Department of Personnel and Training, the Department of Management Service, and the Department of Finance, Administration, and Planning. The Department of Operations assumes the most significant role in delivering police service to the community. The police in the department are divided into five regions. The regional police, which are further divided into districts, perform the basic police functions within their jurisdictions such as patrolling the streets, maintaining law and order, investigating crimes, and providing emergency services. The regional police are responsible for investigating ordinary crimes, but more complex and sophisticated crimes are investigated by the Department of Crime and Security. Specialized bureaus are established in the Department of Crime and Security to handle different types of crimes. The Commercial Crime Bureau is responsible for investigating serious and complex commercial crimes such as fraud, computer crime, currency counterfeiting, forgery, and credit card fraud. The Narcotics Bureau is responsible for investigating drug-related offenses. The Organized Crime and Triad Bureau is responsible for investigating organized crime and serious triad offenses. There are also other bureaus in the department that perform significant roles in criminal investigation. The Criminal Records Bureau is responsible for maintaining records of convicted criminals, wanted persons, suspected offenders, missing persons, stolen property, and missing vehicles. The Criminal Intelligence Bureau has the tasks of collecting criminal intelligence, conducting research on sophisticated

and organized criminal activities, and mounting intelligence-based operations against criminal societies and syndicates. The Forensic Firearms Examination Bureau and the Identification Bureau are responsible respectively for conducting forensic analyses of firearms and ammunition used in the commission of crime and providing criminal identification by analyzing fingerprints and photographs.

The Hong Kong Police Force, although it is not part of the Chinese police, cooperates on a regular basis with the Chinese police in their efforts to combat crime. According to the information released by the Hong Kong police, since 1990, with the assistance of the Chinese police, 207 criminal fugitives, 167 stolen vehicles, and 116 freight containers have been returned to Hong Kong from the mainland.

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☞ COLOMBIA

Colombia, like many nations, has lived through changes in its borders over time. Until 1803, present-day Ecuador and Venezuela were included in the what was then Greater Colombia (*Gran Colombia*); in 1810 independence was attained from Spain, which had been in power since 1544. In 1903, Panama was separated from the country, leaving the existing nation with land borders adjoining five countries (Venezuela, Brazil, Peru, Ecuador, and Panama). The land mass of Colombia is approximately 440,000 square miles, roughly equivalent to three times the size of the state of Montana in the United States. It abuts the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea and includes three islands. Its geographic position, varied topography, climate, and transportation infrastructure, including approximately 100 paved airport runways and almost 1,000 unpaved airstrips, make it a strategic location for the illegal drug trade in South America.

The 2003 population of Colombia was approximately 41.6 million people, with a median age of 25.6 years. Individuals older than the age of 15 have a literacy rate of 92.5%, yet 55% of the population subsists below the poverty level; unemployment is high, and the economy is weak.

Colombia has a long history of democracy; it is the second oldest democracy in the Western Hemisphere. It is also the fifth largest trading partner of the United States in Latin America, and it is the ninth largest provider of petroleum. Approximately 90% of the cocaine smuggled into the United States originates in Colombia.

Colombia also has a long history of violence and other criminality. A mutually destructive civil war between the Liberal Party (*Partido Liberal*) and the Conservative Party (*Partido Conservador*) broke out in 1948 and resulted in more than 250,000 deaths over the next 20 years. This period is known as “the Violence” (*La Violencia*). When the civil war ended, left-wing guerrilla groups emerged. They were inspired in part by Fidel Castro’s success in Cuba and claimed to be “for the poor people” and against the government. At least two of these groups have continued long-term involvement in



virtually all matters of criminal behavior while maintaining a pretext of revolution. The FARC (Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia) has an estimated strength of up to 20,000 members. The ELN (National Liberation Army) has approximately 8,000 active followers. Together, they are engaged in drug-trade-related support activity (cocaine, cannabis, and opium), kidnapping, extortion, assassination, and bombing oil pipelines.

Colombia also has right-wing self-defense, or paramilitary, groups. The AUC (United Self-Defense Forces) is an example of these groups and may also be traced to the period following *La Violencia*. Their self-defense role is in support of the government including the military, the wealthy, and, allegedly, also in cooperation with illicit drug cartels. The estimated strength of these paramilitary groups is up to 14,000 members.

Drug traffickers are also responsible for a wide range of criminal activity in support and protection of their underlining crimes. This activity has been both localized and personal and also includes their own private armies and death squads formed and equipped to protect their products and infrastructure.

The combined actions of all of these groups, independently and collectively, plus “common criminal” activity has resulted in Colombia being labeled one of the most dangerous countries in the

world. The per-capita murder rate of 77.5 per 100,000 people is 13 times higher than the U.S. rate. Some estimates place the number of homicides in the past 40 years at more than 200,000. Further, Colombia has become the kidnapping (for ransom) capital of the world. During 2002 approximately 3,000 individuals were kidnapped. One result of all of this crime wave is an estimated backlog of three million unsolved crimes. Some reports state that 97% of criminal activity is never adjudicated.

The Constitution (and, therefore, the Colombian government) separates the programs, policies, and strategies for controlling drugs and crime among various agencies. The president of Colombia is the head of the government, head of state, and commander of the military. This implies a great deal of power, but the president is limited to one 4-year term, which restricts his ability to have a long-term impact on the drug and crime problem. The next election is in 2006.

The Department of Administrative Services (DAS; *Departamento Administrativo de Seguridad*) reports directly to the president with responsibility for the safety of judges and other government officials. It is the Colombian representative to Interpol.

The Ministry of Defense maintains control over the budgets and strategic operations of the military and the national police. The Defense Minister, not a member of the military, is nominated by the president and confirmed by the National Assembly.

The Ministry of Justice establishes judicial programs and policies for the President. The federal prison system and the National Directorate on Dangerous Drugs (DNE) are also components of the Justice Ministry. The DNE is semiautonomous and coordinates cabinet-level drug policy including efforts to reduce the demand for drugs and education about their danger as well as the regulation of controlled substances and certain chemicals. It also has defined responsibility for the investigation of aircraft suspected of involvement in the drug trade.

The Supreme Court appoints the Prosecutor General to a 4-year term from a list of names provided by the president. The Office of the Prosecutor General (*Fiscalía*) investigates reported crimes and presents charges to the courts. The Technical

Judicial Police (*Cuerpo Técnico*) are the investigating detectives for the Prosecutor General. The Supreme Court appoints the Attorney General (*Procurador General*) to a 4-year term. The Attorney General reviews the work of the Prosecutor General, assesses the operations of the courts, and protects the rights of defendants.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Colombian National Police (PNC; *Policía Nacional de Colombia*) is a component of the Ministry of Defense. In 2004 it had approximately 100,000 sworn members (approximately 1 for every 416 citizens) and 6,000 civilian employees. Although there has been a PNC for more than 100 years, it has only been considered a modern police force since the 1960s when the departmental (state) and municipal police forces were reorganized under the central control of the PNC. Policing in Colombia has routinely experienced several roles including supporting the military in dealing with drug problems, fighting the guerrilla and paramilitary groups, and patrolling urban areas and preventing crime.

The 1991 Constitution of Colombia organized civilian policing as part of the Armed Forces and National Police (*Fuerza Pública*), reporting to the Minister of Defense who reports to the president.

Although there are police operational units at the department (state) level and in the three major cities, which are supervised by the respective chief executive at that level, overall policing is a centralized function reporting to the national level. The rank structure of the PNC is similar to the military: commissioned officers (numbering 4,000), non-commissioned officers (20,000), and police officers (76,000); 80% are assigned to patrol functions. The close association, historical and organizational, of the police with the military has resulted in a lack of public confidence in policing and a hesitancy to report crime or otherwise get involved in police-related matters. Guerrilla wars, drug wars, and allegations of corruption, brutality, and human rights abuse all contributed to this estrangement.

In addition there are the activities of the insurgents and the paramilitaries. Confirmed contact between

Colombian terrorists and radical Islamic groups, as well as with the IRA and other terrorist organizations, is a cause for added concern. Many government officials, including nine mayors, were killed in 2002. Hundreds more resigned. Journalists, labor leaders, and clergy have also been killed. The kidnapping, torture, and murder of police and military personnel continues. Kidnapping for ransom and conscription of children to be “revolutionary soldiers” or sex-trade workers is still common. A campaign of “cleansing” by killing the pariah in Colombian society has been attributed to several groups.

PRIVATE SECURITY

Another factor to consider when reviewing safety and security in Colombia is the private protection industry. Businesses that operate in Colombia frequently enhance their competitive position through a variety of private services that provide for the protection of assets through assessment, design of security systems (including crime prevention through environmental design), and response to kidnappings. Some Colombians believe that this is one more example of the wealthy being more secure than the general population. There is also a debate over the paying of ransom. The feeling is that paying both encourages future kidnappings and helps to underwrite the insurgents by providing needed capital through ransom insurance arrangements.

According to the U.S. General Accounting Office (1999), the 1991 Constitutional reform in Colombia yielded some positive actions but has not resulted in the hoped-for improvements in its criminal justice system. The GAO report examined U.S. Rule of Law (financial) Assistance to Five Latin American Countries. Although there has been increased training and technical assistance provided to the various government units and personnel involved in the process, few officials are actually following the new procedures. Colombia’s crime and violence problems: drugs, terrorism, street crime, and corruption, as well as threats and intimidation, are continuing to burden the resources of the police and the rest of the criminal justice system. Public confidence

continues to be undermined. Citizens do not perceive a general entrée to justice.

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COMMUNITY POLICING: A CARIBBEAN CASE STUDY

Many police departments have become victims of the “means over ends” syndrome because the administration focused primarily on organization and operations while paying little attention to their overall performance (Goldstein, 2002). Such internal emphasis prevents the police from dealing effectively with crime and disorder. In the Caribbean, the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service’s (TTPS) shift to community policing in 1991 in many ways represents the many countries in the Caribbean that have adopted a community policing approach. The experience of Trinidad and Tobago shows how the administration reacted to concerns about the organization’s handling of crime and other social problems.

Community policing was introduced to complement the service’s traditional approach to policing.

The strategy was expected to change the organization's reactive approach to crime fighting, which excluded community input, to a proactive approach with community involvement. According to the TTPS, community policing is defined as:

a philosophy and an organizational strategy that promotes a new partnership between people and their police. It is based on the premise that both the police and the community must work together to identify, prioritize, and solve contemporary problems such as crime, drugs, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and overall neighborhood decay, with the goal of improving the overall quality of life in the area. (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1994, p. 2)

The police administration envisions working closely with the community to address common problems.

IMPLEMENTATION OF COMMUNITY POLICING

The strategy began with foot patrols in six housing districts in 1991. Patrol officers were to focus on crime prevention and interact with members of the community to improve relations and glean a better understanding of the community's needs. The service expected the following benefits:

- An increase in the level of safety and comfort to citizens
- A deterrent to would-be offenders
- An increase in the detection rate of crimes in the community
- An increase in the involvement of members of the community in crime fighting
- A greater level of confidence in the police
- An improved relationship with youths in the community, providing an opportunity to influence them positively
- A better understanding of the police role in the community

In 1994, motorcycle patrols were introduced into the housing districts. These officers were to visit schools, businesses, and government buildings in the communities. The community policing officers

were well received in the communities. However, many community members viewed the patrols as only a step in the right direction.

In early 1996, the police administration determined that the community policing strategy was not having the desired effect and, subsequently, the initiative lost momentum. The strategy's limited success apparently stemmed from the administration's failure to formalize the program, a prerequisite to "focus, commitment, and resources necessary to achieve the goals and objectives" (Office of the Commissioner of Police, 1996, p. 4). This experience prompted the development of a formal community policing program.

THE FORMALIZED COMMUNITY POLICING PROGRAM

On November 11, 1996, the TTPS formalized a community policing program. Community policing was introduced as a deliberate crime-fighting strategy, involving the police and community working jointly to reduce "crime, violence, fear, insecurity and community decay" (Office, 1996, pp. 1-2). The program was expected to change fundamentally the structure and operational procedures of the organization. This plan differed from the previous initiative, as it outlined the strategy, rationale, mission, vision, expected outcomes, and the implementation and evaluation processes. It also emphasized that the program was both a philosophy and a strategy requiring the police and community to work together to solve problems.

PROGRAM RATIONALE

Prior to the introduction of the community policing program, the TTPS reactive crime-fighting methods did not have the desired effect on crime and disorder. It, therefore, became obligatory for the organization to create and implement strategies to deal with the situation. The community policing strategy was seen as the conduit to facilitate innovative approaches to deal with crime and other social problems. Additionally, it could improve and strengthen community and police

relations, provide a forum for dialogue and the resolution of pertinent issues, and improve the quality of life of residents.

PROGRAM SCOPE

Community policing was introduced to enhance the Service's traditional functions. Focus is on building trust in the community to change the misperceptions and negative attitudes both sides have of each other. The program uses both private and public sector organizations, voluntary groups, and communities to promote the service's community policing mission.

COMMUNITY POLICING GOALS

To deal successfully with the communities and achieve the program's objectives, the TTPS outlined several goals. They are:

- To establish, maintain, and enhance partnership between the police and the community
- To empower communities to be productive in the fight against crime
- To reduce the incidences of crime in the society and increase the level of safety and comfort for all citizens
- To provide a community service, which earns the respect, confidence, and active support of the community
- To help develop strong, vibrant, and wholesome communities
- To ultimately change the way the police service conducts its business.

Community Policing Structure

Before the formalization of the community policing strategy, the police service Public Affairs Unit was responsible for community policing. The new program merged the Public Affairs Unit and the Juvenile Bureau and Counseling Service to create a new entity, the Community Policing Section (CPS), which became the central coordinating unit for the community policing program. A Community Policing Unit (CPU) was established in each of

the country's nine police divisions, and at least two liaison officers were assigned to each unit. The CPS was placed under the command of the assistant commissioner in charge of the Training and Complaints Division (see Chart 1).

Functions of the Community Policing Section

The functions of the CPS were outlined in the plan. The unit had to:

- Coordinate the implementation and the continued development of the plan
- Conduct appropriate training, which will ensure that personnel at the Community Policing Section, its units, and the liaison officers perform with efficiency and effectiveness
- Establish and maintain liaison with government and nongovernment agencies and the business community
- Consult with the public relations manager so that information can be disseminated to the various public entities in an effective manner
- Continually analyze and review community policing policies
- Establish and monitor the operations and management of the Community Policing Units and liaison officers
- Consult with divisional commanders on community policing initiatives
- Collect and evaluate data on community policing activities
- Promote the community policing initiative throughout the service (Office, 1996, pp. 15–16).

COMMUNITY POLICING BENEFITS

From 1996 to 1999, both the citizens and police benefited from the community policing strategy. First, the strategy enhanced the image of the TTPS and the traditional policing approach, helped deliver proactive services to the citizens, improved communications with the communities, and increased the number of reports of rape, incest, and domestic violence. A study done in July 1999 also shows that the nation had benefited from the strategy. The findings show that the public was generally satisfied with crime-fighting efforts and the performance

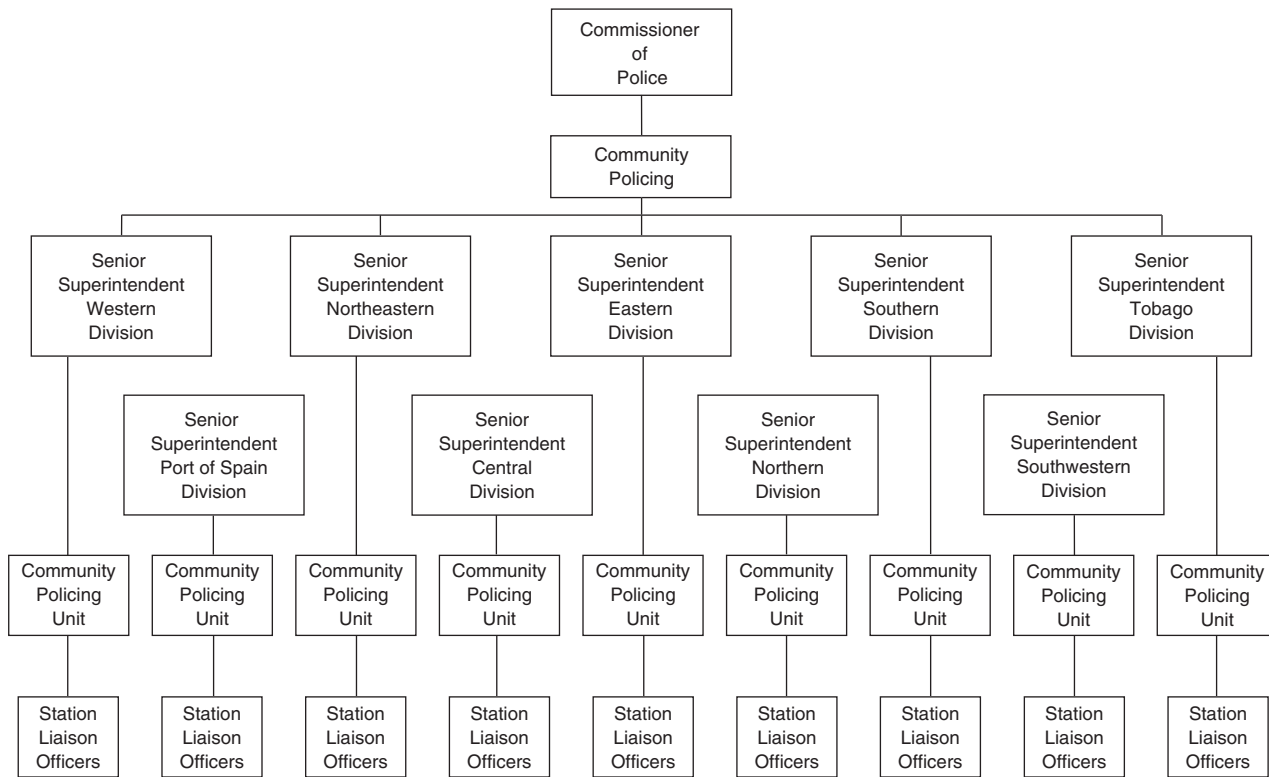


Chart 1 Trinidad and Tobago’s Community Policing Structure (1996)

of both the police commissioner and the CPS, and that the crime rate either decreased or remained the same as during the previous year.

COMMUNITY POLICING PROGRAM PROBLEMS

Later, however, an internal review of the community policing strategy revealed the presence of a gap “between the strategic vision of the Police Service and the present philosophy, structure, [and] practices of the organization” (Community Policing Concept, 2002, p. 8). Several factors contributed to the fracture. First, the CPS had become task-oriented and focused mainly on task completion. Its narrowly defined functions barred it from achieving the other objectives of the organization. Second, there was little coordination between the CPS and other sections in the Service. Third, the section’s subculture caused members to see their operations as separate from those of other sections; for example, many community policing officers felt that they no longer

had to arrest perpetrators or attend court. Fourth, the management information system used by the service was unable to facilitate electronic information sharing among sections in the organization.

COMMUNITY POLICING IMMERSION CONCEPT

To bridge the gap, in 1999, the administration initiated the Community Policing Immersion Concept. This concept involves a process of key strategies, including continuous training programs, aimed at sensitizing both police officers and community members to the community policing strategy. The aim is to develop professionalism and efficiency within the service, strengthen relations with the community, and deliver a high quality police service. The immersion plan was instituted in 2001. The training component is ongoing, albeit slowly.

There were also several administrative changes. First, the Community Policing Secretariat was created to replace the Community Policing Section

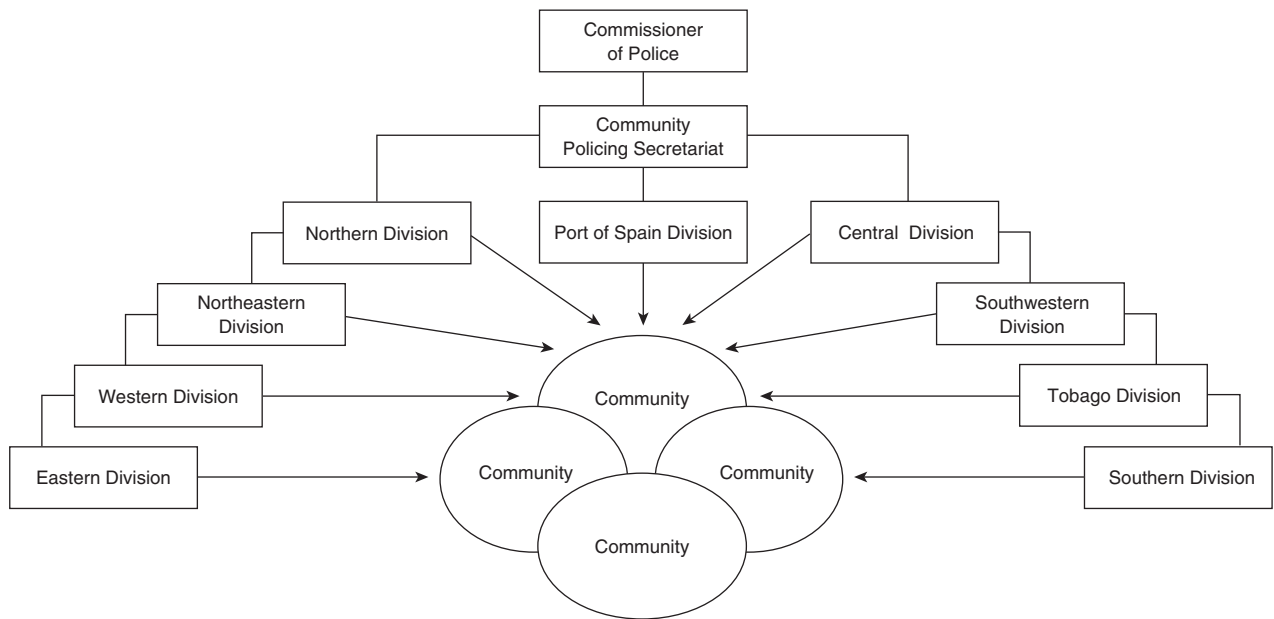


Chart 2 Trinidad and Tobago’s Community Policing Secretariat

(see Chart 2). Second, the assistant commissioner in charge of administration and training was given the overall responsibility for the immersion process. Third, a community-driven policing implementation team was developed. Fourth, divisional commanders were given special responsibilities. Fifth, the Human Resources Department was given the responsibility for formulating training plans and programs. The plan specified that the CPUs would be absorbed into the division where they are operating and all personnel would be responsible for both the law enforcement and community policing functions. A group of community policing officers was selected to mentor the officers training frontline officers and supervisors.

FUNCTIONS OF THE COMMUNITY POLICING SECRETARIAT

Some of the Community Policing Section’s responsibilities have been incorporated into the new functions of the Community Policing Secretariat. The Secretariat’s functions are:

- To monitor the overall administration and management of community policing functions in the Police Service
- To plan and develop education and crime prevention programs in collaboration with the Public Relations Manager and to intensify and strengthen those programs through effective media coverage and other public relations initiatives
- To collaborate with the Human Resources Manager to develop and conduct training workshops and seminars aimed at equipping and enhancing Police Officers with the appropriate skills and competencies to function in a Community Police-driven environment
- To engage in continuous research on the Community Policing concept and strategies used to sustain the Police/Community partnership in other jurisdictions
- To work in partnership with the Ministry of Education on all School Intervention Programs (S.I.P) with particular reference to the Drug Abuse Resistance Education (D.A.R.E) program.
- To monitor and advise on the proper conduct of the D.A.R.E and S.I.P programs within the Police Service
- To formulate and implement strategies to monitor the operations of Police Youth Clubs and Community Policing Regional Councils and to get guidelines for the proper and meaningful interaction of police officers with neighborhood watch groups
- To assist Divisional Commanders generally in the immersion process

CONCLUSION

The immersion process has not been evaluated, so its impact is undetermined. The available evidence from the TTPS suggests that the community policing strategy has been subordinated. The strategy has not been abandoned. The TTPS Five-Year Development Plan indicates that community policing still underpins the vision for the service. It seems, however, that the enthusiasm for using community policing as the only crime-fighting strategy has diminished. Over the past few years, the country's serious crimes rate has been increasing. As a result, the service has chosen to enforce harsh anti-crime measures to deal with the spiraling crime rate.

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COMMUNITY POLICING, INTERNATIONAL

Community policing is essentially a conceptual frame for a new paradigm of policing that was developed in academic circles in the United States.

The tumultuous events of the 1960s, including mass civil disorder and rising crime rates, prompted political effort to reevaluate police's effectiveness as an institution. Media coverage of overly reactive and forceful police response to apparently peaceful civil rights demonstrations and violent disorder in some of the largest cities resulted in widespread public perception of the police as a violent and ineffectual institution. Worse, there was little confidence that policing was capable of suppressing the upsurge in violent, interpersonal crime that seemed to accompany the vivid scenarios viewed nightly on the national news. Hence, during the Johnson administration, the work of a Congressional commission (the Commission on Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice), whose findings prompted funding of academic research that resulted in the development of innovative strategies, led to the concept of community policing.

The term itself is somewhat of a catchall phrase for the innovative strategies that were developed in response to rising crime rates in the United States from the 1960s on into the 1970s and 1980s. This new perspective on the status and function of police within society was intended to break down the barriers between the police and the communities they served. The early advocates of community policing argued that a disproportionate segment of most police officers' day was wasted due to an overreliance on the 911 response system. Officers' time was prioritized so that they would remain "in service" awaiting the next emergency call. However, Herman Goldstein, James Q. Wilson, and others suggested that police officers spent a relatively small percentage of their day in activity that was related to crime suppression and that most of that activity was in reaction to crimes that had already been committed. Community policing strategies sought to incorporate a more proactive outlook to policing, allow street officers to break free of what was termed the "911 mentality," and develop more effective crime reduction strategies. Under this model the police were also encouraged to become "stakeholders" in the communities they served. The inclusion of community representatives within the process of crime suppression was thought to hold tremendous potential in terms

of solutions to intractable and persistent issues affecting the neighborhood.

One of the most central assumptions was that the isolation of the police officer in a radio-equipped patrol car had fostered an estrangement between police officers and their communities. Advocates of community policing argued that a more personal style of patrol such as on foot or bicycle would bring the police closer to the public. The tactics and overall strategies of community policing continue to be influential. It is important to remember that even though the idealistic proposals of the early advocates have been somewhat modified over the past decade in the interest of cost-effectiveness and other considerations, this style of policing remains as the “gold standard” of American policing. The implementation of the “problem-solving” community police paradigm has largely been credited for the dramatic reduction in violent crime in the urban areas of the United States, and many other police agencies throughout the world have assimilated its principles, tactics, and strategies.

Team policing, a proto-community policing concept, was developed and introduced in New York City and other police departments. Team policing emphasized an ecological approach to fighting crime, with officers given the autonomy and authority to conduct follow-up investigations. Implemented initially in New York City, team policing ultimately was rejected by the police establishment because there was a loss of control over the routine activities of the officers at the ground level. Unfortunately, the Knapp Commission in the early 1970s in New York City, which was convened to address widespread and endemic corruption within the New York City Police Department, found many instances where corrupt practices were fostered by unstructured autonomy and inadequate supervision in the patrol operations command.

The police in the United States became increasingly militarized and dependent on the 911 emergency response system during the decade of the 1980s. New and more efficient technologies were incorporated into police procedure. The end of the cold war resulted in a refocus of military resources to the “war on crime and drugs,” even as crime rates

leveled off. By the early 1990s, crime rates increased precipitously, and again traditional reactive police response proved inadequate, despite enhanced technology and the more favorable climate for enforcement efforts provided by a more conservative Supreme Court. The theoretical underpinnings of community policing are arguably based on critical social theory, a radical notion of community empowerment that also encompasses an enlightened and emancipatory worldview of social relations in general, and community in particular. However, the culturally entrenched obsession with crime in the United States militates against the radical transformation of policing to a true community policing model.

Criminologists such as Egon Bittner constructed a model of policing that emphasized the professionalization of the police service along the lines of the legal and medical professions. He argued that the enormous power of monopolization of force afforded to police by society required that police restrict themselves to aspects of their present duties that are equally significant in terms of their effect on the lives of citizens. This vision corresponds with the concept of the police as “problem-solvers,” as argued by Herman Goldstein in his seminal book *Problem-Oriented Policing* (1990). Problem-solving policing is a framework for their identification of recurring localized problems, obtaining whatever resources are necessary for their suppression, and then planning to insure that the issue will not reoccur. Technological and administrative innovations such as crime mapping and the CompStat process have been employed in many U.S. cities to facilitate this *hot-spot* approach. Similarly, James Q. Wilson and George Kelling’s influential *Atlantic Monthly* article, “The Police and Neighborhood Safety” (1982), introduced the “broken windows” concept, which holds that the presence of “minor incivilities” such as graffiti and low-level order offenses engender high rates of more serious crime. This approach has assumed a much touted level of importance in urban American policing throughout the 1990s and into the present decade. Most contemporary constructions of community policing apply the problem-solving approach to quality-of-life offenses in support of the broken windows theory.

The idealistic notion of community policing as a pathway to community justice did not survive the crime wave of the 1990s. Rather, police officials such as William Bratton in New York City employed what were considered more efficient and cost-effective methods of implementing the “broken windows” style of order-maintenance policing. CompStat is an accountability system that holds police commanders strictly accountable for conditions within the area of their commands through technology that allows access to crime statistics on a real-time basis. In New York City and other cities in the United States, CompStat data have enabled strategies such as “zero-tolerance” enforcement and mandatory arrest for minor offenses to focus on specific areas where more serious crime is considered an issue.

There is no doubt that crime rates have fallen in every major U.S. city in every year since the middle of the last decade. The shift from the early and idealistic attempts to implement community policing as originally conceived to the harsher methods has clearly accompanied this drop-off in violent crime. However, criminologists are not in agreement that the move toward primacy in policing of order-maintenance strategies is responsible. Some believe that falling crime can be explained through demographic factors such as a smaller population of males between the ages of 17 and 25, who traditionally commit most crimes. But the impact of community police philosophy, rhetoric, and structure continues to be seen throughout the contemporary American landscape of law enforcement.

THE UNITED KINGDOM

The influence of globalization on policing has seen the dissemination of aspects of U.S.-style community policing to many other nations. The United Kingdom in particular has hewed to the line regarding the latest metamorphosis of community-based policing to a style with a harder tone. Zero tolerance and CompStat accountability schemes have made inroads into the policy directions taken by several regional police commands in Britain, as the utilitarian and cost-effective strategies of order-maintenance

policing have become attractive policy options in an era of budget restraint and fear of rising crime in the cities. Ironically, at a time when American police have been subjected to much scrutiny for their increasing use of paramilitary and aggressive tactics, urban British police are now being issued firearms to an unprecedented degree.

However, there have been efforts to address community issues, especially in minority and economically disadvantaged areas. Police in London, Hull, and other urban centers have instituted programs of decentralization and minority recruitment that are designed to achieve a more synergistic relationship with the community. Several other nations have also instituted what are labeled as community policing strategies, engaging in American-influenced rhetoric at the same time as initiating policies that are often varied in response to local needs.

DENMARK

Community policing in Denmark is based on pilot projects within specific semiautonomous jurisdictions. Experiments are being conducted in implementing the Danish version of community policing—proximity policing—within certain designated areas. Officers are assigned to specific geographical areas with a mandate to implement the new policing paradigm. Although each jurisdiction involved in the pilot projects is afforded certain autonomy in specific policy development and implementation, certain features in common are evident.

Proximity police officers are a distinct, smaller component of the general patrol force, which handles motorized patrol and general police functions. Proximity police officers are able to develop their own work schedules as defined by the needs of their respective communities. Officers are encouraged to patrol their assigned areas on foot or by bicycle. Officers are responsible for nontraditional aspects of policing within their respective areas and coordinating local authorities, schools, and the police in a general problem-oriented strategy.

The goal of the pilot projects is to develop a sense of security within the community by reducing crime

levels, developed through close interaction between the police and the community.

JAPAN

Community policing in Japan is based primarily on a network of police substations called *Kobans* in the urban centers and *Chuzuishos* in the rural areas. Although part of the lowest level of the police organizational hierarchy, these substations involve the most contact with the citizens in the neighborhoods they serve. Officers perform patrol on foot or bicycle, respond to citizens' requests for services, and act as neighborhood counselors and information resources. They also assist the various other levels of the police organizations with their respective assignments, because of the intimate knowledge developed by *Koban* officers of their assigned neighborhood. In addition, officers assigned to the *Kobans* or *Chuzuishos* conduct visits to each business and residence in their respective jurisdictions twice a year to gather demographic data and to relay crime prevention and other pertinent information.

The future of policing in the *Kobans* and *Chuzuishos* will see greater community input into the type of police service in the neighborhoods. A problem-oriented approach, involving the community and the officers, will remove some of the discretion these officers possess in their daily activities to involve service-oriented activities.

THE NETHERLANDS

Community policing in the Netherlands reflects strong social consciousness and community tradition. Beginning in the early 1970s, Dutch police implemented a style of policing defined by reactive patrol, preventive patrol, and the community beat officer. The beat officer, distinct from the general patrol officer, was given a broad mandate to keep general order within his assigned area, through interaction with the community, in a predominantly crime prevention role.

Growing concern of the relative effectiveness of the beat officer resulted in the development of neighborhood team policing by the end of the 1970s. It was thought the new team approach would be a

better way to attend to community concerns given the negative perception of the lone beat officer. Implementation proved problematic within many local police agencies, with success deemed marginal, except for the police force in Haarlem, which experienced community receptivity in the team policing model. However, the community desired the personal attention offered by the former beat officer.

Fueled by the success of the experiment in Haarlem, and the subsequent acceptance of the policing strategy in Amsterdam, the Netherlands implemented a new beat officer system in the 1990s. The new paradigm incorporated increased community involvement with the local police in crime prevention efforts with increased responsibility on the part of the beat officer for his assigned areas.

POLAND

Community policing in Poland is a relatively recent phenomenon. In 1995, a Safe City program, incorporating many community policing aspects, was introduced. Emphasis was placed on community cooperation with local police in preventing crime. Success would be gauged by the crime statistics in respective areas. In 1999, in a continued effort to increase community access to the police, police departments were restructured to increase officer presence in the community. Increased community input in determining the utilization of respective police resources, in electing area police commanders, and in allocating the area budget figured significantly in implementing a community-based policing model.

As of the early 2000s, the Polish police force is experiencing organizational change without a proper integration of the respective philosophical paradigm. Given the Communist history of the country, much of Western community policing is embraced without understanding of the paradigmatic nuances of the police-community relationship.

SINGAPORE

Prior to implementation of community policing principles in Singapore in 1983, policing was reactionary

in nature, based on the strict enforcement of laws with numerous police patrols. By 1983, improvements in economic conditions in the country supported the implementation of a Neighborhood Police Post system by the Singapore Police Force. Modeled after the *Koban* system used in Japan, eight substations were initially created as a pilot to test the system. The program was deemed so successful that 83 additional NPPs were established by 1993.

By 1997, the country further embraced the community policing philosophy by establishing Neighborhood Police Centers. This change was geared toward integrating the NPPs into the greater organizational framework to provide a better community-oriented service system involving all aspects of the police. With continued community involvement, the new structure enables the community to use the police as a vehicle to improve the quality of life in their neighborhood.

CONCLUSION

Successful implementation of a community policing program will involve the confluence of certain organizational and social elements. Within respective police organizations, the development of a program will involve the identification of the specific aspects of community policing the organization wishes to incorporate and developing a coherent, manageable implementation plan. This involves a total management commitment to implementing current available resources within the organization. In addition, close consultation with the communities involved is necessary to decide the type of service these communities desire and need.

Future international trends in community policing will reflect the specific dynamic interaction between the police and the community, as defined by controlling politics and social norms. Whether or not a community policing paradigm is implemented in a specific country will depend on the confluence of elements conducive to the community policing model. Local, social aspects will ultimately control the development and implementation of any community policing program although, as has been seen, most community policing efforts share certain basic tenets. Decentralization, increase

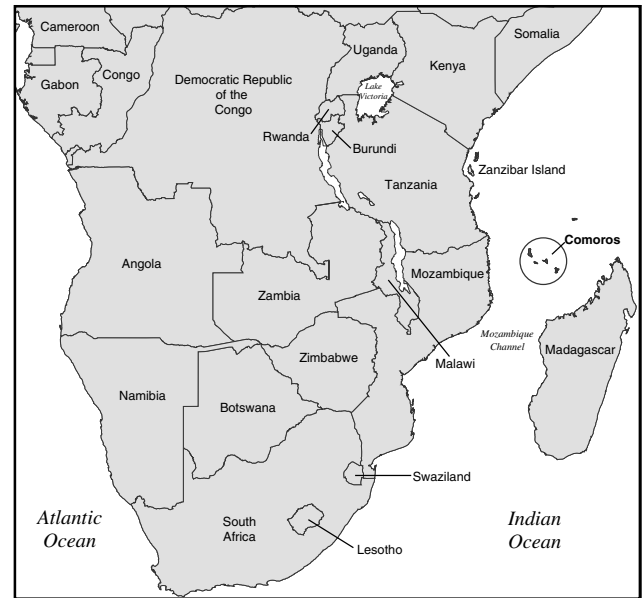
in discretion and autonomy for the individual officer or problem-solving team, and a greater degree of accountability to community standards distinguish the community policing paradigm from the traditional “professional” model of 20th-century policing are all elements required to ensure success with community policing.

Mitch Librett and Rainer Kroll

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According to U.S. State Department sources from 2003, Comoros's Gendarmerie numbered approximately 500 (1 for every 1,266 inhabitants); an equal number served in the defense forces, which also has responsibilities for internal security.

Comoros's new constitution vests authority for internal security with each of its constituent islands, whereas the federation president is responsible for external security. These measures were beginning to be implemented in early 2004, with gendarmerie reporting to the respective island's presidents instead of the federation. Final restructuring and division of resources had yet to be announced.

Johanna Bjorken

☉ COMOROS

Comoros, an archipelago of small islands off the coast of southern Africa between Mozambique and Madagascar, covers 2,170 square kilometers and has a population of 633,000 people (July 2003 estimates). Since it became independent from France in 1975, Comoros has been riddled by coups and unrest. In 2000 a new constitution reorganized the country as a confederation of its three islands and gave the promise of stability.

France, which maintains a Foreign Legion base on the island of Mayotte (which Comoros claims), trains the Comoros military and provides protection for its international waters.

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CONGO (DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO)

The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), formerly known as Zaire, is in Central Africa, north of Angola and west of Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, and Tanzania. It has an area of 2,345,410 square kilometers and a population of 56.6 million people (July 2003 estimate). Colonized by Belgium in 1885 as the Belgian Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo), it became independent as the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 1960. The first president, Patrice Lumumba was killed in suspicious circumstances in the first year after independence. Col. Joseph Désiré Mobutu (later Mobutu Sese Seko) seized power in 1960, then ceded it and again took control after a military coup in 1965. Mobutu renamed the country Zaire. Mobutu was overthrown in 1997 by Laurent Désiré Kabila, who returned the country to its former name, the Democratic Republic of the Congo. He was assassinated in 2001 and succeeded by his son, Joseph Kabila. A transitional government governed the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 2004. The president, assisted by four vice presidents, still wields significant power; the president also appoints the DRC's ten provincial governors and the cabinet. The four vice presidents represent former warring factions.

During the cold war, Mobutu exploited the major powers' tensions in order to secure Western support for development and his regime. However, he also used the DRC's mineral wealth and other natural resources for his own personal gain, and his rule was deeply marked by corruption. After the cold war, the country disintegrated into kleptocracy.

The DRC has been embroiled in many regional conflicts in central and eastern Africa that have spilled over to or originated in the DRC. The region is diverse, its borders a representation of colonial convenience rather than natural ethnic groupings. After the genocide in Rwanda in 1994, hundreds of thousands of fleeing Hutu rebels sought refuge in the east of the DRC, creating a humanitarian catastrophe that led to political instability in that region. Later, Ugandan and Rwandan forces assisted Laurent Kabila in ousting Mobutu in 1997; however, they refused to withdraw at Kabila's request. When



Rwandan forces attempted to oust Kabila in 1998, he mobilized support from Angola, Zimbabwe, and Namibia to hold control. Rwandan forces, renamed the *Rassemblement Congolais pour la Démocratie* (RCD), withdrew and established control in the northeast part of the country, where they continued to fight the government and its foreign allied forces. Meanwhile, in 1999 Ugandan troops backed yet another Congolese faction, formed of former Mobutu-era officials, the *Mouvement pour la Libération du Congo* (Democratic Republic of Congo) (MLC), and together they established control over the northern third of the country. By 1999 the country was effectively divided into three parts, although a cease-fire accord signed in Lusaka, Zambia, was to introduce peacekeeping troops, oversee the withdrawal of foreign forces, and pave the way for elections. The provisions of this agreement were slow in implementation; it was not until 2002 that peacekeepers were fully deployed and foreign forces began their withdrawal.

The diverse ethnic background of the region has also lent itself to interethnic conflict, particularly in the eastern provinces (Orientale—which includes Ituri, and North and South Kivu). Disputes frequently center around land, access to mineral resources, and local power, although wider factions occasionally exploit such disputes in proxy. In Ituri the backing of Ugandan, Rwandan, and Congolese governmental

forces against the disputing factions has recreated the wider Congolese conflict in microcosm. There, conflict has resulted in the massacre of civilians; according to human rights groups, hundreds were killed in one incident in May 2003 in Bunia, and more than 5,000 between February 2002 and March 2003.

Because of the significant internal chaos in the DRC, there has been no regular policing in many parts of the country for years. Reform and restructuring of the Congolese National Police is a major goal of the DRC's transitional government. While the international community (notably the European Union) has committed itself to assisting in these efforts, as of early 2004 the transitional government had failed to appoint a unified police command, a prerequisite to assistance established by MONUC and the international community.

In Kinshasa, an Integrated Police Unit was established on December 16, 2003. The police were to be trained and assisted by the European Union. It is envisaged that Kinshasa's Integrated Police Unit will be the nucleus for further police service development.

UNITED NATIONS MISSION IN THE CONGO (DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO)

The United Nations Mission in the Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo) (MONUC) was established in 2000 with a mandate primarily to monitor and investigate violations of the ceasefire, assist in the postconflict transition, and facilitate the delivery of humanitarian assistance and human rights monitoring. Since that time the mandate has been reformed on numerous occasions. As of early 2004, its mandate included the reform of security forces, reestablishment of a state based on the rule of law, and preparation and eventual holding of elections. It is also assisting in the voluntary disarmament of combatants. It is authorized to use force to protect its own personnel and installations; it has a mandate to use "all means" in Ituri district and "as deemed necessary and within the limits of its capacities" in the Kivu provinces.

MONUC has a civilian police (CIVPOL) component. Initially established in 2001, it envisaged an eventual deployment that would assist the DRC police in providing security. Assessments were

made, but as of 2004 the security situation did not allow for full deployment or execution of the CIVPOL mission. One of the results of the first assessments called for CIVPOL to train police trainers in Kisangani. Also delayed by local political and security concerns, it started the training programs in 2002; hundreds of police, rapid deployment police, and judicial police completed the program by October 2003. The program emphasized increased capacity to apply various judicial investigation techniques, including criminology; increased capacity to apply substantive criminal law and criminal procedure law to specific law enforcement situations; increased knowledge of national and international legislation and other applicable standards concerning human rights, gender and child protection; increased knowledge of constitutional and administrative law, including judicial and police organization; and increased capacity to write police reports and related administrative, legal, and technical documents. These training initiatives were expanded to Bunia, in the Ituri region, in 2003, and it was envisaged that similar initiatives would take place in other regions where MONUC is or was to be deployed.

In July 2003, as the transitional government was established, the United Nations Security Council called upon MONUC to participate in establishing security in Kinshasa and assist in developing the overall plan for security reform. To carry out these requests, CIVPOL provided technical advice and support to various security agencies protecting the transitional government in Kinshasa and assisted the development of an integrated police unit.

As of April 2004, the CIVPOL had the mandate to:

- Assist in the security arrangements in Kinshasa
- Contribute to the training of an integrated police unit (IPU)
- Support police development in areas of urgent need
- Provide assistance for the reform of the Congolese police
- Conduct an in-depth assessment of the policing institution, its needs, and its capabilities including, when necessary, at the level of local communities, with special attention to the Ituri area
- Develop contacts with the internal security and police organs of the Government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo

- Prepare recommendations for an eventual expanded MONUC Civilian Police component wherever MONUC military personnel are deployed and to advise and assist the local authorities in the discharge of their responsibility to ensure the security of the population
- Contribute to the training of the police in Kisangani
- Assist in the professionalization of Kisangani's police by being present in the police commissariats

Although its authorized strength is 182, in January 2004 CIVPOL had an actual strength of 119 officers from 18 countries.

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COSTA RICA

Costa Rica, a small country of 51,100 square kilometers and 3.9 million people (July 2003 estimates), is located between Nicaragua and Panama in Central America. Its relatively stable history, commitment to democracy, and fairly high standard of living has contributed to its reputation as a South American success story. Costa Rica abolished its army in 1949.

In 2001, there were approximately 15,000 law enforcement personnel, or 1 for every 256 inhabitants. Although a community policing program was implemented from 1996-1998 in one San Jose county, and the government subsequently announced



expansion of the plan to 1,000 other municipalities, the experiment and further commitment to the exercise was not given additional resources.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Policing is determined according to a General Police Law passed in 1994, which made the police a civilian institution accountable to international principles outside the influence of politics. It vested authority for policing policy in a National Security Council.

In Costa Rica, law enforcement responsibilities are dispersed between numerous agencies—this characteristic was intentionally introduced as a deterrent against the authority of the police becoming concentrated in one political hand. Most personnel are members of the Ministry of Public Security forces (approximately 11,000). Law Enforcement agencies include:

Presidency

- Intelligence and National Security Directorate (*Dirección de Inteligencia y Seguridad Nacional*)
- Special Intervention Unit (*Unidad Especial de Intervención*)
- Police Reserve (*Policía de Reserva*), which can be temporarily mobilized in emergencies or exceptional situations by the president

Ministry of Public Security

- Civil Guard (*Guardia Civil*)
- Rural Guard (*Guardia Rural*)
- Border Police (*Policía de Fronteras*)
- Drug Control Police (*Policía del Control de Drogas*)
- Immigration and Alien Affairs Police (*Policía de Inmigración y Extranjería*)

Ministry of Justice

- Correctional Police (*Policía Penitenciaria*)

Ministry of Public Works and Transportation

- Traffic Police (*Policía de Tránsito*)

In addition, some municipalities have their own police departments. A separate Judicial Investigations Agency (OIJ) with about 750 members investigates most criminal acts. The Ministry of the Treasury has its own police investigators for financial crimes, the Fiscal Control Police (*Policía de Control Fiscal*).

Women comprise less than 7% of the investigators, 5% of the Ministry of Public Security forces, and less than 3% of the traffic police.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

General police recruits must be Costa Rican citizens age 18 years or older; they must have passed the third level of general education, and they must pass an entrance exam as well as meet physical and moral character requirements. Recruits are admitted to the National Police Academy, a 6-month training program; in addition to a basic police program, there are also programs for noncommissioned officers, officers, and advanced training. Recruits also must pass a 6-month probationary period. Candidates who wish to become members of the investigative police (OIJ) attend a separate course administered by the Judicial School.

ACCOUNTABILITY

The Police Inspection Department of the Ministry of Public Security takes complaints and investigates

misconduct; sanctions can include a warning, suspension without pay (up to 30 days), and dismissal. A similar body, the Office of Internal Affairs, investigates misconduct in the OIJ. Citizens may also make complaints to an external body, the Ombudsman. Serious offenses may be investigated and prosecuted through the criminal justice system.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Costa Rica is a member of Interpol. In 2002, plans were announced for it to be the host of an International Law Enforcement Academy for officers from throughout the Americas, a U.S.-sponsored initiative to give advanced and management training to law enforcement officers particularly in combating international terrorism; financial crimes; illegal trafficking in drugs, aliens, and stolen cars; and promoting transparency and accountability in government.

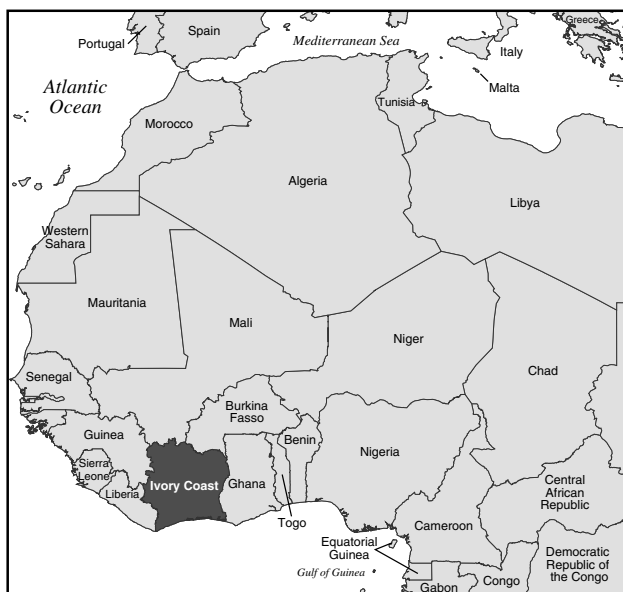
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☞ CÔTE D'IVOIRE (IVORY COAST)

A former French colony in West Africa, République de Côte d'Ivoire became independent in 1960 after centuries of French colonial rule. Covering 322,460 square kilometers, the coastal nation has a population of almost 17,000,000 people (2003). French is the official language. The most recent constitution, adopted in 2000, has been suspended. A transitional government of national unity took office in March



2003 and includes representatives from the country's three main political parties.

The national police forces are varied and diverse. In addition to local and municipal police forces, the National Security Police (under the Ministry of Internal Security) and National Gendarmerie (under the Ministry of Defense) perform most of the internal police functions.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The National Security Police is an investigative bureau and national police force charged with public security, internal and cross-frontier traffic, counterespionage, intelligence, criminal investigation, narcotics and drug control, and the administration of 16 national police districts. In larger towns and cities, the National Security Police cooperates with the municipal police forces; in the smaller communities and rural areas, it cooperates with the local police and the National Gendarmerie.

The Ministry of Internal Security was established as part of a governmental reorganization in March 1976, basically to consolidate the national police and state security functions that had formerly been assigned to the Ministry of Interior. In 1985, the ministry was reorganized into the following groups:

- The minister's cabinet
- Eight directorates (National Security Police, Regional Security, Inspector General of Police Services, Materials, Financial Affairs, Personnel, Police Economics and Finances, and Judicial Affairs)
- The National Police Academy
- An intelligence service

The ministry's Regional Security Directorate includes three separate divisions grouping the commissariats for subprefects, major urban centers and the Frontier Police. The Special Police, Frontier Police, and the Abidjan Port Police are grouped under the Central Commissariat.

Civilian security forces under the Ministry of Defense include the Presidential Security Force, and the Gendarmerie, a branch of the armed forces with responsibility for general law enforcement. The Gendarmerie is roughly equivalent in size to the army and is responsible for territorial security, especially in rural areas. In times of national crisis the Gendarmerie could be used to reinforce the army. The Gendarmerie is commanded by a colonel-major and consists of four Legions, each corresponding to 1 of the 4 numbered military regions. The Gendarmes were instrumental in bringing President Laurent Gbagbo to power following disputed elections in 2000. The police are unhappy that the paramilitary Gendarmes, along with the other defense forces, have been given periodic pay raises without any commensurate increase for the national police.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Before independence and until the National Police Academy (*Ecole Nationale de Police*) was opened in 1967, police training consisted of a 6-month course given at the Federal School in Dakar, Senegal. By 1988 about 6,000 police officers had been trained at the National Police Academy; in the 1980s and 1990s, the academy annually graduated several hundred officers, who were then assigned to the police forces of the Ministry of Internal Security.

The Academy's basic course of study varies from 6 months to 2 years (depending on the student's rank) and includes forensic medicine, judicial

procedure, criminal investigation, criminology and criminal psychology, police administration, computer technology, and communications. Admission is by direct recruitment or entrance examinations. Candidates for commissioner are required to be working towards a law degree, which must be completed in order to graduate. Commissioners also are recruited from among police officers who have fulfilled length-of-service requirements set by police ordinance. Police officer candidates who hold a bachelor's degree and also undergo a 2-year training program can be admitted directly to the Academy or recruited by examination from among police officers with at least 3 years' service. Regular police officers are recruited from among citizens who have completed elementary school.

CORRUPTION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

République de Côte d'Ivoire is a signatory to a number of international human rights conventions but has a mixed record in the area of human rights. The entire country has been under a curfew since the outbreak of the 2002 crisis, and the curfew is strictly enforced by the security services. The Constitution prohibits arbitrary arrest and detention; however, in practice arbitrary arrest and detention remain a common occurrence. Under the Code of Penal Procedure, a public prosecutor may order the detention of a suspect for 48 hours without bringing charges, and in special cases, the law permits an additional 48-hour period. Police often hold persons for more than the 48-hour legal limit without bringing charges.

Direct or indirect requests for bribes from the police and other security officials are commonplace, especially at highway checkpoints and near Abidjan's airport. While the Government generally does not restrict travel, police, Gendarmes, and water, forestry, and customs officials frequently operate roadblocks on major roads, where they demand that passing motorists or passengers produce identity and vehicle papers; they also regularly extort small amounts of money or goods for contrived or minor infractions.

Charles B. Fields

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CROATIA

The Republic of Croatia is both a central European and a Mediterranean country with a territory of 21,829 square miles and a population of 4.7 million people. Croatia was recognized as an independent and sovereign country in 1992.

The modern Croatian police, established in 1990, has a short but turbulent history. In the early 1990s the police performed both the defense role and the regular police role. After the military operations related to the war with the former Yugoslavia ceased, the process of democratization of the police proceeded based on five key concepts: depoliticization, demilitarization, professionalism, demystification, and downsizing.

The police are a national, armed, civilian, and service-oriented organizational unit within the Ministry of the Interior. They presently employ approximately 20,000 sworn police officers, yielding a rate of 1 police officer per 235 citizens. Women constitute about 20% of the police.

POLICE ROLE

The primary legal bases for police work includes the Constitution of 1990, the Criminal Procedure Code of 1997, and the Police Law of 2000. The police perform the following tasks:

1. Protection of life, rights, safety, and integrity of persons
2. Protection of property



3. Prevention and investigation of crimes, misdemeanors, and other violations
4. Search for perpetrators of crimes, misdemeanors, and other violations
5. Control and management of traffic
6. Administration of affairs concerning foreign citizens
7. Control and safeguard of state boundaries
8. Other tasks determined by law

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The police, part of the Ministry of the Interior, are organized according to hierarchical and territorial principles. The Directorate of the Police is at the top of the organizational chart, followed by 20 police administrations and approximately 200 police stations.

The Minister heads the Ministry of the Interior. The Minister's Cabinet consists of the Department of Analytics and Development, the Department of International Relations, the Public Relations Department, the Internal Affairs Department, and the Police Academy.

The Director of the Police, nominated by the Minister of the Interior and appointed by the Croatian government, heads the police. The

Directorate of the Police is responsible for safety and security across the entire territory of Croatia. It monitors and analyzes the state of security and conditions contributing toward the development of criminal activities; coordinates, controls, and oversees the work of police administrations; and directly participates in performing more complex operations. The Directorate consists of:

- Police Headquarters (Department for Public Order, Headquarters for the Intervention Team, Department for Traffic Safety, Anti-Explosives Department)
- Criminal Police Headquarters (Department for General Crime, Department for Terrorism and War Crimes, Department for Organized Crime, Department for Economic Crime and Corruption, Department for Drug-Abuse Crimes, Department for Special Criminalistic Tasks, Department for Crime Analysis, Department for International Police Cooperation)
- State Border Administration
- Security Headquarters
- Police Operational and Communications Center
- Special Police Headquarters
- Criminal Forensic Center

Various headquarters, administrations, and centers within the Directorate of the Police control, coordinate, and oversee the police administrations and police stations, provide support and assistance to police administrations and police stations, and directly participate in more complex cases.

With the exception of the war years (early 1990s), the rates of reported crimes remain relatively stable. The rate of homicides (8 per 100,000 inhabitants in 1994) is modestly high; Croatia has the fourth lowest rate of violence in general in Europe and North America. Rates of property crimes and petty crimes in Croatia are among the lowest in Europe and North America.

RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

According to the Police Law of 2000, candidates for police service, in addition to fulfilling certain conditions required of all civil servants, need to be

25 years of age or younger if the position requires only a high-school diploma, possess adequate physical and psychological abilities, have completed mandatory military service, and be suitable for police work. Suitability is determined based on the results of a background investigation.

Basic police training, specialized professional training, and advanced academic programs are provided by the Police Academy. Basic police training lasts for 6 months, followed by field training of 6 months. To gain the status of police officers, trainees have to pass both the state civil servant examination and the state examination for police officers.

Police officers are promoted within the ministry based on their education, length of service, assignment, success on the promotion exams, and annual evaluations. Police ranks are: police officer, higher police officer, police sergeant, higher police sergeant, police inspector, higher police inspector, independent police inspector, head police inspector, police counsel, and head police counsel.

RESPONSIBILITY AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Police officers are held accountable by means of internal discipline and criminal sanctions. Most internal investigations are performed by the heads of respective police units, while the rest are conducted by the Internal Affairs Department. In the period from 1992 to 1999, disciplinary cases were initiated against approximately 2,000-3,500 police officers annually. Criminal charges were brought against 300 or fewer police officers annually.

The Minister of the Interior is accountable to the Croatian Parliament.

Sanja Kutnjak Ivkovich

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☞ CUBA

Cuba is an island between the Caribbean and North Atlantic, 150 kilometers south of Florida. It has an area of 110,860 square kilometers and 11.3 million inhabitants (July 2003, estimate). It was a Spanish colony until 1902. In 1959, a revolution led by Fidel Castro brought communist rule to the island.

Cuba's modern justice system is influenced by Spain, the United States, the Soviet Union, and China, mirroring major stages in the island's history. An inquisitorial system of criminal procedure and emphasis on written codes rather than precedent as the source of law originates from the time when Cuba was a Spanish colony. American influence (the first half of the 20th century) is reflected by *habeas corpus* and a separation between the courts and prosecutors.

Although Castro's revolt of 1959 had more in common with a national war of independence than a Communist revolution, the newly established regime turned to the socialist principles of the Soviet Union and other Eastern Block states in order to survive the economic and political hostility of the U.S. government towards Cuba. From the Soviet legal system, Cuba adapted the principal of socialist legality that protects the needs of a collective of workers and peasants rather than single individuals. Chinese influence is demonstrated by the wide participation of lay persons in the justice process and a strong belief that family, neighborhood, and workplace are more effective in the prevention of crime and that reeducation, or resocialization, of criminals is more effective than incarceration.

By Western standards, Cuba is considered to be a totalitarian dictatorship, where a Communist government headed by Fidel Castro controls all aspects of life. Fidel Castro is the chief of state, head of the government, commander-in-chief of the armed forces, and the first Secretary of the Communist Party, the single political party that has



sanction powers according to the Cuban constitution (implemented in 1976, revised in 1982).

Cuban national security functions are overseen by the Ministry of the Revolutionary Armed Forces (MINFAR) and the Ministry of the Interior. Due to recent developments (the fall of Communism, the cutoff of Soviet aid, deepening economic crisis, and isolation from the rest of the world), the role of the Revolutionary Armed Forces as one of the leading combat troops in Latin America has declined. The focus of the national security has shifted to the maintenance of the domestic order and to the higher profile of the Ministry of the Interior. Created in 1961, the Ministry of the Interior is charged with a wide range of responsibilities such as counterintelligence, border patrol, immigration, policing, prison administration, firefighting, and the national identification system as well as budgeting, planning, and other administrative functions. The Ministry's Department of State Security investigates and suppresses political opposition and dissent.

The national police force is the National Revolutionary Police (*Policía Nacional Revolucionaria* [PNR]). Pre-1959 police consisted of an urban force, rural guard, and small network of secret informants. The whole political system was corrupt and had close ties with organized crime groups profiting from gambling, drug dealing, and prostitution. The new regime transformed the prerevolutionary

police by executing many of the senior officers, drawing replacements from the army, and attracting recruits from the lower classes. Molded by the military, the police organization today has a centralized, highly hierarchical structure with party-based bureaucracies and internal accountability, shielded from public criticism. Major functions are uniform policing, criminal investigation, crime prevention, juvenile delinquency, and traffic control. The police are centrally controlled from Havana and have headquarters on the provincial and municipal levels, each with its own police chief. In the early 1990s, the National Revolutionary Police force was at 10,000-12,000 officers, a ratio of approximately 1 to every 900-1,100 inhabitants. In the last 15 years state funds have been redirected from the army towards improved training of and equipment for the police.

As the educational standards of the country's public sector rose, so did the professionalism of the police. Recruits are required to have a high school diploma and must make a commitment to remain in the force for 5 years. Those who are loyal to the Communist regime are chosen to receive further training and be promoted. Mid-level officers—lieutenants through lieutenant colonels—usually have completed the Police Academy course. Most senior officers have a college degree, customarily in law.

The police are assisted by volunteers—50,000 members of an auxiliary paramilitary militia patrol the streets several nights a week after their regular daily employment. They have the right to carry pistols or submachine guns. Many members of the public (by some accounts, 5.2 million people, almost 50% of the population) are enlisted as secret police informers. They are part of the network of the Committees for the Defense of the Revolution (CDR) that perform vigilante duties in their neighborhoods as well as spy on those who speak against the government, maintain low job productivity, steal food, or perform any other antirevolutionary activity as deemed by the Communist Party. In 1998, a new black-beret force known as the Special Brigade was created. They often help to identify and arrest street walkers and pimps, although prostitution is not illegal in Cuba. In light of the tourism boom in the late 1990s, the presence of

the uniformed police accompanied by canines is more visible in the major tourist areas. The number of burglaries, thefts, robberies, and juvenile crimes has increased significantly.

Although the officials deny the existence of organized criminal activity in the country, Cuba has a growing drug trafficking and drug abuse problem. In 1989, experts from the Ministries of Justice, Interior, Health, Education, and Foreign Affairs formed a National Commission on Drugs that developed a central database to monitor illegal narcotics operations, proposed tightened sanctions against the drug traffickers, and in 1997 formed an international law enforcement liaison section. Cuba is a signatory to a number of antidrug conventions and bilateral agreements as well as memoranda of understanding with many countries, the latest being Canada in 1999. Law enforcement and counternarcotic operations are the only areas in which Cuba cooperates with the United States. In 1998, the Cuban Border Patrol and the U.S. Coast Guard intercepted a large criminal syndicate trafficking cocaine into the United States, and the Cuban Ministry of Interior even sent its officials to join the prosecution team at the Miami narcotics trial of 11 Latin American defendants.

Under Cuban law, violations that involve social harm are considered criminal. Crimes are divided into felonies and misdemeanors. The age of criminal responsibility is 16 years. The highest penalty is capital punishment that can be applied for 112 crimes, 79 of which involve state security. In 1999, Cuba increased sanctions for drug traffickers, sexual exploitation of minors under 16, violent robberies, terrorism, and attacks on police or military officers by making them capital crimes. According to the nongovernmental organization Human Rights Watch, approximately 50 prisoners remained on death row at the end of 2001.

Maria Kiriakova

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CYPRUS

Cyprus, an island country with a population of 759,000 people, is located in the eastern Mediterranean Sea. Nicosia, its largest city and capital, is also the headquarters of the national police. The embryonic formulation of Cyprus police dates back a century. Formerly a British colony (1878-1960), Cyprus gained independence and self-determination in 1960; consequently, the Cyprus constitution and overall legislation have been greatly influenced by that of Great Britain, and to this date, the island's judicial system is similar to that of the British legal system. Following Cyprus's independence, two new divisions were designed for the purpose of policing two jurisdictions, police and Gendarmerie. The police was fully in charge of all urban localities while the Gendarmerie took over the rural areas of the island. Moreover, the Cyprus Police was headed by two chiefs, a Greek Cypriot and a Turkish Cypriot, since it was mandated by the Constitution to have representation of the two communities in the government. In 1963, due to a series of inter-communal conflicts, Turkish Cypriots withdrew from the police force and arbitrated communal enclaves on the premise of protecting the Turkish Cypriot minority, whose safety and security were allegedly in danger. The political instability that followed convinced the two divisions to merge and formulate a single force called Cyprus Police, whose responsibility is policing the entire island. Regrettably, in 1974, Turkish armed forces invaded the island and forcefully occupied 36% of the island's territory. This continued status quo is an oppressing element to the peoples of Cyprus and one that stands antithetical to numerous United Nations General Assembly resolutions.

Nonetheless, today the Cyprus Police Force provides professional and modern policing. The police is categorized into departments, districts, units, and stations, according to the distribution of the geographical region, population, and crime rate.



The police headquarters involves six departments, namely, administration, traffic and transport, criminal investigation and prosecution, scientific and technical support service, research and development, and the training department. The island is divided into seven geographical police divisions: Nicosia, Limassol, Larnaca, Paphos, Famagusta, Morphou, and Kyrenia. Each district is comprised of headquarters, town stations, suburban stations, rural stations, and substations. The Cyprus police is composed of seven units, the Police Academy, Mobile Immediate Action Unit, Central Information Service, Aliens and Immigration Department, Drug Law Enforcement Unit, Port and Marine Police, and Presidential Guard Unit. In addition, there are two special Police Forces: the Special Antiterrorist Squad, whose well-trained officers respond to high-risk incidents, and the Police Airwing Section, equipped with two helicopters and one light aircraft.

In accordance with recruitment and selection criteria, applicants must satisfy certain prerequisites, including Cypriot citizenship, valid references evidencing integrity of character and professional experience, and proof from a government-accredited hospital testifying to the applicant's physical and mental competence. Age range is 18 to 25 years, and up to 35 years for university graduates, body height more than 1.66 meters; academic credentials are stipulated to be, at minimum, a high school diploma with

a very good knowledge of the Greek or Turkish language, as well as a good knowledge of English. Police officer candidates are given proficiency exams in Greek, English, math, and general knowledge. Applicants who pass the written examinations are interviewed, and those who secure the highest scores are accepted into the Police Academy.

Recruits are academically prepared in the fields of criminal code, social education, general education, English, physical education, first aid, and training in the Mobile Immediate Action Unit. The training process lasts 9 months.

As of 2002, the police consisted of the following ranks and numbers:

- 1 chief of police
- 1 deputy chief of police
- 4 assistant chiefs of police
- 13 chief superintendents
- 29 superintendents
- 62 chief inspectors
- 207 inspectors
- 619 sergeants
- 3,154 constables
- 54 specialized posts

The Cyprus Police is affiliated with corresponding international agencies and collaborate with foreign training institutes. During the year 2002, 176 police officers attended training programs, seminars, and courses abroad. Since November, 25, 2002, the Operational Center for International Police Cooperation and Support has coordinated all international affairs related to Interpol and Europol matters.

Angelo G. Constantinou

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☪ CZECH REPUBLIC

The Czech Republic is located in Central Europe, bordering Germany, Poland, Slovakia,



and Austria; and has an area of 78,866 square kilometers. Its population is approximately 10.2 million people (July 2003 estimate). The Czech Republic was part of the Austria-Hungarian empire until World War I, when it united with Slovakia as Czechoslovakia. After World War II, it became dominated by Soviet influence. Czechoslovakia became independent in 1989, and after a popular referendum in 1993, the two constituent nations parted ways and each became independent. The Czech Republic joined NATO in 1999 and the European Union in 2004.

THE CZECH REPUBLIC POLICE

The Czech Republic Police was created in 1993 after the dissolution of Czechoslovakia. The police is an armed security force with an authorized strength of 46,816 police officers (a ratio of 1 for every 217 inhabitants) and 11,297 civilian employees. Its main task is to protect persons and property.

In addition to the state police agency, municipal police operate in municipalities all over the Czech Republic. These municipal forces have limited power and are directly responsible to municipal authorities. In principle the municipal police are responsible for safety and order in the municipality.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Czech Republic Police operate under the authority of the Ministry of the Interior. The head of the police is the Police President, accountable to the Minister of the Interior. The police consist of the Police Board of the Czech Republic and units with territorially delimited activities. The Czech police force has the following general divisions:

- Disciplinary Unit
- Criminal Unit
- Traffic Unit
- Administrative Unit
- Security Guards Unit
- Unit for Fighting Corruption and Serious Economic Crimes
- Foreign and Border Unit
- Swat Unit
- Railway and Air Units

The following units fall under the authority of the Police Board: Prevention and Information Department, Control and Complaint Department, Central Purchase Department, Human Resources Department, Systemic Management and Informatics Department, Castle Guard and the Czech Police Orchestra Department, Security Department, Department of International Police Cooperation, Directorate of the Disciplinary Unit, Directorate of the Traffic Unit, Directorate of Railway Unit, Directorate of Administrative Unit, Canine and Equine Division, Division of Special Scuba Diving activities and training.

Operational divisions on the national level include Alien and Border Service, SWAT Unit, the National Anti-Drug Headquarters, the Division of Organized Crime Detection, Division of Corruption and Serious Financial Criminality Detection, Division of Special Activities, Division of Particular Activities, Division of Protection of Constitutional Actors, Division of President Protection, Criminology Institute, and the Office for the Documentation and Investigation of the Crimes of Communism.

Among territorially delimited divisions there are regional divisions, as well as city and district divisions.

ACCOUNTABILITY

Fighting criminal behavior among Czech police officers is controlled through special units. The Inspectorate of the Minister of Interior is directly responsible to the Minister of Interior. The main task of this unit is to investigate and detect criminal behavior of police officers and to punish perpetrators. Although this unit is ostensibly independent from the police, it is staffed by police officers. Between 1993 and 2001, the number of resolved cases of criminal conduct rose from 376 to 665 (the number dropped to 453 in 2002). The number of charged officers likewise rose from 288 in 1993 to 468 in 2001 (444 in 2002).

The Complaint and Control Unit of the Police Board is a separate unit that investigates complaints against police officers and monitors police operations within the police force.

POLICE TRAINING

The Department of Police Education of the Czech Ministry of Interior supervises the police education and training in the Czech Republic. The department is responsible for police colleges (offering secondary education), the Police Academy (university-level police education), continuing inservice training, and development of police education and training strategy.

Police Training Colleges

Police training colleges are establishments subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior of the Czech Republic that provide basic training to prepare cadets for the police profession. The 12-month training program is divided into basic module, specialized module, and field work. The police training colleges also provide 4-year primary and secondary school education with a specialization in security and law. The objective of training is to work, in partnership with the police service, toward meeting its immediate and long-term goals and to enhance its standards of professional performance in serving the public.

Coursework includes 9 months of basic and specialized modules and 3 months of field work. Topics covered are law; foreign language; psychology; police ethics; public order and safety; patrolling; physical fitness and self-defense; traffic service; driving lessons; use of communication devices, computers, and information technology; typing and administration; criminology; Czech language; firearms; and first-aid. Graduation is contingent upon a successful grade on a final examination.

The Police Academy

The Police Academy of the Czech Republic is a state college established on October 1, 1992, in Prague. The main objectives of the Police Academy are to prepare specialists for a university-level degree in certain police and other security activities and to prepare them for leading positions in the police practice. It awards Bachelor's and Master's degrees in the area of security and law.

The Bachelor program can be taken on a full-time or part-time basis. The standard period for this study is 3 years, and successful graduation from the program requires a passing grade on a final state examination, part of which includes the defense of a Bachelor dissertation. The graduates are awarded by the title *Bachelor* (abbreviated Bc). Graduates are frequently employed in senior positions and specialized professions by the Ministry of the Interior, the Czech Republic Police, in municipal police forces, private security services, Military Police, Customs Service, Internal Security Service, or Prison Service. Many graduates also enter the private sector, in public and private security services, finance, and in other commercial areas such as managers and security supervisory specialists.

The Master's (*Magister*) program in *security/legal study* is available for graduates of the Bachelor study program. The standard period for this degree is 2 years of full-time or part-time study. Successful graduates must complete a final state examination, which includes the defense of a graduate diploma dissertation. The graduates are awarded by the title *Masters* (abbreviated Mgr). Graduates are frequently employed in senior

management posts and top professional positions. They are also authorized to teach in educational institutions of the Ministry of the Interior or conduct research and development activities in relevant areas.

The Police Academy also conducts diverse and specialized short-term study courses, workshops, and professional training, depending upon the current needs. Dozens of courses are available to the public as well as to the police.

As of early 2004, the Department of Police Education was planning significant reforms, subject to legislative approval. These reforms would emphasize police service to society, professionalism and

ethics, regional and topical specialization, and self-education.

Czeslaw Walek

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D

☞ DENMARK

Denmark, situated in Northern Europe at the entrance to the Baltic Sea, is populated by 5.3 million people and occupies 16,600 square miles.

THE DANISH POLICE

Denmark has been served by a national police force since 1938, at which time the then independent municipal police forces were unified under the auspices of the Ministry of Justice. Today, the national police force employs 10,200 officers of all ranks (8% of them women), amounting to 1 officer for every 522 citizens (all figures are from the year 2001, unless otherwise indicated). Approximately 20% of these officers work as detectives, and the rest belong to the uniformed branch, including various special units.

Organization and Operations

The force is headed by the National Police Commissioner, responsible for finances, allocation of resources, education of personnel, research, and special departments such as the national traffic police, the police intelligence unit, and a special investigations unit. The country is divided into 54 police districts (excluding Greenland and the Faroe

Islands) varying in size from 1,805 officers serving 499,000 citizens in the capital of Copenhagen to 42 officers serving 62,000 citizens in the town of Ribe in the southwestern part of the country. Each district is headed by a police chief and a deputy (both jurists), in charge of not only the police force but of the district's prosecutors as well. Districts are granted a relatively wide autonomy: Decisions about daily operations and police priorities are, to a certain extent, taken at the district level. Differences exist between districts regarding police regulations and the way cases are handled (e.g., the level of enforcement regarding certain misdemeanors).

Patrol officers most often work in teams of two; only the traffic police and the community police officers patrol alone. Patrol is usually carried out in uniform and marked patrol cars, even though foot patrol, motorcycle patrol, and bicycle patrol are also used. Officers are dispatched by radio; in most parts of the country, emergency calls go first to the police. Patrol officers handle minor cases, whereas more serious criminal cases are handled by the detectives division. The number of penal code offenses in Denmark shows a slightly declining trend, from 547,000 in 1994 to 473,000 in 2001. The homicide rate in 2001 was 1.1 per 100,000.

Daily police work in the field is rarely supervised in any detail: Ranking officers do not take part in



routine patrol work, and officers are not required to keep a detailed log of their work. No records exist on either the local or the national level of the extent to which the police engage in proactive work (such as stop and search) or issue informal warnings. A study in one police district demonstrates that officers are, in general, rather lenient with regard to minor cases, especially proactive ones; only in one out of five such cases did the police choose to prosecute the offender. The study also suggests that the Danish police stop suspects far more often than their colleagues in some of the other Nordic countries, but these findings may not be representative for the whole country.

Training

Applicants to the police force must be between 21 and 29 years of age and must pass several tests before being admitted to the National Police Academy (situated close to Copenhagen), where training lasts almost 4 years. The first 8 months are spent at the academy, where applicants are educated in a variety of disciplines including law, practical police skills, foreign languages, sociology, psychology, and criminology. The second year is spent as an apprentice in a police district, where the applicant is granted full police powers and participates in all parts of daily work, supervised by a senior

officer. This period is followed by 8 months of academy training (ending with a number of exams) after which the applicants spend a little under a year of further practical training in the Copenhagen police force. Their training period completed, officers can seek assignments in other parts of the country, where they will start in the uniformed branch and may specialize at a later stage. During their first years in service, they must complete a tour of different parts of the police organization, including the community police, the detective division, and the administrative branch.

Use of Force

All officers on duty are required to carry a 9-millimeter pistol and a baton. Other equipment includes tear gas, submachine guns, and rifles in some special details. Most districts have their own canine unit, used for searches and crowd control, whereas heavier equipment, such as water cannons, is not used. Officers must file a report every time they use a weapon, although the use of mere physical force is not required to be reported. In 2001, the Danish police reported using their batons 256 times and using their firearms 240 times. A total of 37 shots were fired and 5 persons were hit. These figures have been relatively stable over the last 5 years.

Complaints About Police Conduct

Complaints about police misconduct are (unless deemed “obviously unfounded”) investigated by the District Attorney (DA) who makes decisions about whether or not to prosecute the officer(s). A Police Board (comprised of a local attorney and two laymen) reviews the complaint and follows the DA’s investigation. The Police Board may recommend certain investigative measures, and it must review the decisions made by the DA. If the members of the Police Board do not agree with the DA’s decision in the case, they may appeal to the Attorney General.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

At least three important trends characterize recent developments in the Danish police force: increased

demands for the measurement of police performance, development of community-oriented policing, and increased cooperation with outside researchers.

Measurement of Police Performance

Traditionally, the police have been funded by the national government through a sort of block grant administered by the National Police Commissioner. In 1994, however, a majority in the Danish parliament made an agreement that specified the funding for the police for the period 1995-1999, while at the same time demanding specific developments in police work—most notably a 10% increase in police patrol hours. A second agreement was made for the years 2000-2003, demanding development in a number of areas, among them an expansion of the personnel dedicated to community policing, and a further 10% increase in police patrol. A new agreement is expected for the years 2004-2007. The police now issue a yearly report listing the different specific goals of the organization and the degree to which these goals have been accomplished. This kind of documentation, however, says little of the *results* of police work, focused as it is on manpower and resources. For instance, whereas in recent years the police can document an increase in “hours spent outside the police station,” it is not clear that this increase actually reflects the intended increase in police patrol hours.

Community Policing

Ideas about community policing did not gain momentum until the late 1980s; before that time, the police in many larger towns and cities of Denmark did employ a number of designated *local officers*, but such units often led an isolated life. From around 1985, local policing was gradually replaced by the new concept of *proximity* policing—small police units often stationed in local stations and given new responsibilities. The most important of these was participation in the SSP-network (a local cooperation between Schools, Social authorities, and the Police, focused on crime prevention among children and juveniles under the age of 18). Recently, proximity policing has expanded further. In 2003, the number

of proximity police officers was expected to reach 1,200. The proximity police units suffer problems similar to many community police organizations: lack of resources, lack of internal recognition, and difficulties in demonstrating effect on crime.

Research

Up through the 1980s and early 1990s, the Danish police were very reluctant to allow outside researchers access to the force. In recent years, however, the police have begun recruiting specialists from outside the force as researchers in special fields, even though no proper research unit has so far been established. Only a handful of independent studies of police practice have been carried out. In 1998, the police did for the first time fund external research: A comprehensive evaluation of six experiments in the field of proximity policing was undertaken, a final report of which was published in 2003.

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Denmark is a member of Interpol and partakes in the Schengen agreement.

Lars Holmberg

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✎ DJIBOUTI

Djibouti, with an area of 23,000 square kilometers, is in eastern Africa, bordering the Gulf of Aden and



the Red Sea, Ethiopia, Eritrea, and Somalia. Until 1977, when it became independent and assumed the name Djibouti, it was administered by France as the French Territory of the Afars and the Issas. France retains a major role in this country, influencing training for police and military officers and supplementing its very meager national budget.

The country's legal system is based on the French civil code, tribal law and, increasingly, a harshly applied Islamic law.

Of a total population estimated in 2003 of 460,000 people, more than 43% are below the age of 14 years. Approximately 94% of the population is Muslim. The country is likely to see its population grow sharply in coming years, adding to a current climate of political and economic unrest.

Poverty and disease mark this country. Approximately 12% of the population carries the HIV virus. The current unemployment rate exceeds 50%, and approximately the same percentage of the population lives below the poverty line. In 2002 just 10,000 telephone lines were in use.

Djibouti's economy is based on service activities connected with the country's strategic location and status as a free trade zone in northeast Africa.

Two thirds of the inhabitants live in the capital city, Djibouti, the remainder being mostly nomadic herders. Scanty rainfall limits crop production to fruits and vegetables, and most food must be

imported. Djibouti provides services as both a transit port for the region and an international trans-shipment and refueling center. It has few natural resources and little industry.

France maintains a significant military presence in this country. In addition, since 2000, U.S. troops have been stationed in Djibouti for significant time periods.

The total government budget is about \$200 million while revenues are around \$140 million. France as well as the United States supplements the government spending.

The Djibouti National Army is funded with approximately U.S. \$30 million. While the military is still involved in tense stand-offs with neighbors, primarily Eritrea and Somalia, the military also provides some policing functions.

There is little precise data available about the Djibouti National Police. The force is believed to have approximately 24,000 officers. Both the military and the police are heavily politicized. As recently as 2000, General Yacin Yabeh Galab, Chief of Police since 1977, tried to organize the National Police to support a coup. He was convicted and sentenced to 15 years in prison in 2002 on charges relating to the attempted coup.

The police are organized along paramilitary lines and provide some form of highway security and limited law enforcement presence in the capital city to guard against pickpockets and street crimes. The other function of the police force is to control smuggling associated with port operations.

Limited training for the police is provided by France as well as more recently by the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) in areas such as explosives detection.

Agostino von Hassell

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DOMINICA

The Commonwealth of Dominica is an island of 754 square kilometers between the Caribbean Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean, about midway between Puerto Rico and Trinidad and Tobago. Its population is 69,655 people (July 2003 estimate). The island of Dominica was a British colony, during which time law enforcement was carried out by the Royal Dominica Police Force.

Dominica gained independence in 1978 when the name of the police was changed to the Commonwealth of Dominica Police Force. The police force includes a Special Service Unit and Coast Guard; Dominica has no military. There are approximately 470 officers for the entire island, or 1 police officer for every 148 citizens; in 2000 8.6% of the force were women.

The crime rate in Dominica is low; there is an average of two homicides per year; most other reported crimes are theft or drug-related. The economy is based primarily on agriculture; efforts to develop a tourism industry have been hindered by Dominica's rugged terrain, the lack of beaches, and the lack of an international airport.

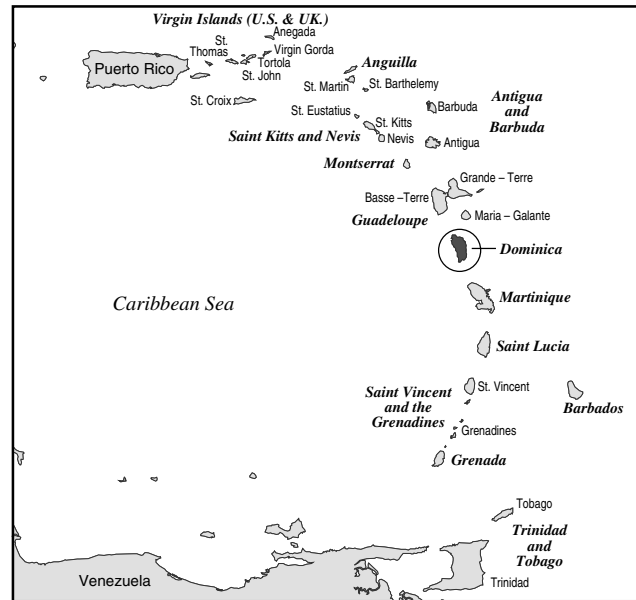
The police force is national; an officer can enforce the law in any district on the island. The headquarters is in Roseau, Dominica's capital, and there are 10 police stations serving the outer parishes.

The force is comprised of three main divisions: central, northern, and southern. The central division carries the main responsibilities because the headquarters and most major departments are controlled there. These include:

- Office of the Commissioner of Police
- Criminal Investigation Department
- Immigration Department
- Drug Enforcement Department
- Special Service Unit
- Marine Patrols Department
- Motor Vehicles and Road Traffic Department

The northern and southern divisions are mainly responsible for marine patrols and drug interdiction.

Ellis Maronie

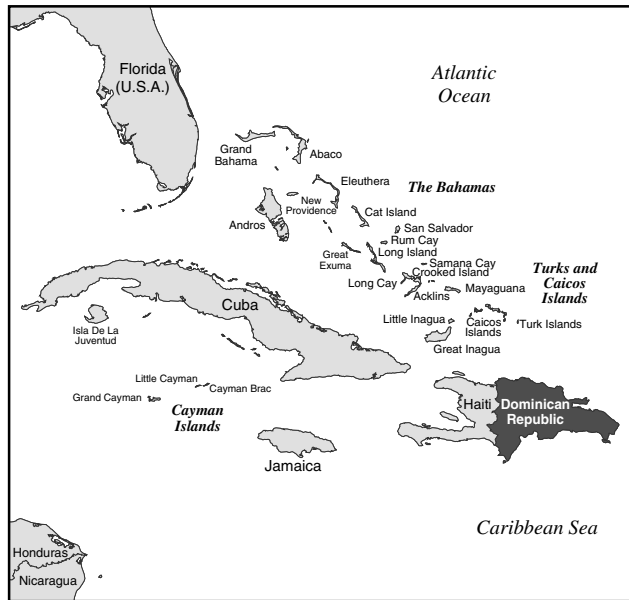


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DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The Dominican Republic occupies two thirds of the island of Hispaniola, which it shares with Haiti, between the Caribbean Sea and North Atlantic Ocean. It has a population of 8.7 million people (July 2003 estimate), which includes hundreds of thousands of Haitian refugees, and an area of 48,730 square kilometers. The island was first discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492 and was the first island conquered by Spain. The republic's population is descended from Spanish and other settlers and African slaves who were brought to work on the island's plantations. Although it became independent from Spain in 1821, neighboring Haiti soon encroached; a rebel movement succeeded in gaining the Dominican Republic independence in 1844. However, the country returned to



Spanish colonial rule in 1861, and again become independent in 1865. In 1916, the United States invaded in an occupation that lasted until 1924. Authoritarian regimes ruled the Dominican Republic until 1996, at times ensuring their rule through the use of violent death squads to eliminate political opposition. In the 1990s, the Dominican Republic had the fastest growing economy in the Western Hemisphere.

The country's political system inherited elements from its colonial past. The president is the head of state and government and nominates the cabinet. The legal system is based on French civil law. Trade, agriculture, and tourism are significant parts of the formal economy; the country also has a significant narcotics trade.

THE NATIONAL POLICE

Policing in the Dominican Republic traces its origins through its colonial past. Initially, policing was performed by the Spanish invaders, although a system of French gendarmerie was installed during the period of Haitian influence. The gendarmerie maintained order in towns and secured postal routes. Eventually, urban and rural police forces were created, which later changed into a system where municipalities had responsibility over the

police forces; the exact nature of this system fluctuated as different foreign powers exerted their influence over civil administration. The National Police itself was created in 1935, consolidating and centralizing the previous municipal police into a single force; however, frequently its tasks, and even personnel, have overlapped with the military.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The president is the head of all armed forces in the Dominican Republic, including the police, but the police falls under the Ministry of the Interior and Police. The police is commanded by a chief. Reporting directly and independently to the head of the police is the Inspector General, an oversight position created in 2002. In 2002, the police were estimated to number approximately 23,000 (a ratio of 1 for every 375 inhabitants).

There are three main departments of the police, reporting to the Chief of Police: the Operations Branch, the Subject Branch, and the National Services. Operationally, the National Police is divided into 11 geographical regions, each of which reports directly to the Chief of Police.

The Subject Branch includes departments for Support and Services (including logistics and equipment supply as well as sporting activities), Legal Affairs, Human Resources, Public Relations, Health, Training, and Transit.

There are two National Services: Criminal Investigation and Internal Affairs (including intelligence).

CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION DIVISION

The Criminal Investigation Division has departments for homicide, criminal intelligence, fraud, forensics, vehicle theft, financial crimes, apprehension of fugitives, criminal intelligence, and penal processing. It was established as a special division in 1999. Serving under a director who reports directly to the head of police, it has 12 subdirectors, 1 for each region and 2 in the city of Santo Domingo. There are 3,360 officers (May 2004) serving in the Criminal Investigation Division.

ACCOUNTABILITY

For decades, the Dominican Republic National Police was severely criticized for its human rights record. According to human rights groups, in the late 1990s and early 2000s, there were hundreds of extrajudicial killings committed by the police annually. As democratic reforms increased and popular opinion began to increasingly object to such practices, President Mejia brought in a period of reform and introduced significant anticorruption legislation. In 2002, the police chief was replaced, and a Commission for the Police Reform (CREPOL) was founded, which has made significant recommendations on changing and reforming the police force.

One of the institutions recommended by CREPOL was the establishment of the Institute for Human Dignity of the National Police (*Instituto de Dignidad Humana de la Policía Nacional* [IDIH]) to promote human rights through training. Working with the normal police training and educational institutions, IDIH offers 25-hour training sessions in various regions tailored to various policing bodies. Its basic purpose is to achieve a police practice oriented toward protection of human rights in an atmosphere compatible with the prevention and control of crime, security, protection of life and property, and maintaining of public order.

More controversial has been reforming practices for redress, long accused of virtually guaranteeing

impunity for police or other abusers. In 1966, a criminal code was passed for police that essentially set up a separate justice system for police officers (1978 amendments specified that even retired police officers who committed offenses were to be prosecuted according to the police code). Under this code, police who commit offenses are investigated and prosecuted in separate police tribunals. The use of such tribunals has been at the heart of controversy over contemporary police reform. Although there has always been an option to refer police cases to civil courts, because of criticism and the current atmosphere of reform, courts have begun referring more and more cases involving police for civilian prosecution.

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☞ EAST TIMOR (TIMOR-LESTE)

East Timor, a newly independent country officially recognized on May 20, 2002, as Timor-Leste, is located in southeast Asia, northwest of Australia. Most of its territory of 15,007 square kilometers is located on the island of Timor, which it shares with Indonesia. It has a population of approximately 980,000 (July 2003 estimate).

East Timor declared independence from Portugal in 1975, but was immediately invaded by Indonesia, which occupied it until June 11, 1999. Independence came as a result of an internationally monitored referendum. Following the announcement of the result, pro-integration militias, at times with the support of elements of the Indonesian security forces, launched a campaign of violence, looting, and arson throughout the entire territory. The Indonesian authorities did not respond effectively to the violence, despite clear commitments made under the agreements of May 5 1999. Many East Timorese were killed, and as many as 500,000 were displaced.

Indonesia's withdrawal from East Timor included the entire police service. The United Nations Transitional Administration for East Timor (UNTAET) governed East Timor from June 11, 1999, to May 20, 2002. UNTAET had the executive mandate to provide policing, as well as develop the country's

police service, the National Police of Timor-Leste (PNTL). The nation was policed by an authorized strength of 1,640 officers (one for approximately 600 inhabitants) with contingents from up to 41 different countries. At the end of 2003, the PNTL had a strength of 3,025 officers (one for every 325 inhabitants) located in 13 districts. The United Nations (U.N.) maintained 200 police advisers, co-located with the PNTL in all districts and specialized units. The PNTL is a very new force; few officers (less than 20%) have prior police experience.

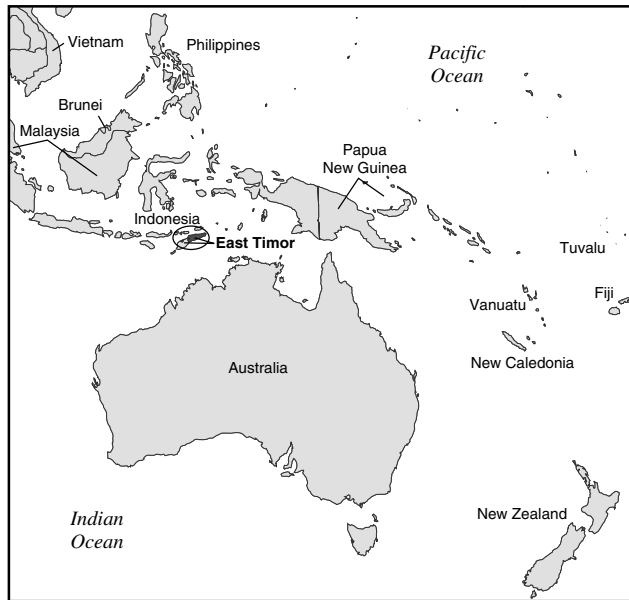
The police service's special units are poorly equipped, and its budget is dependent on the donor community. The force's few resources are demonstrated by the Marine Unit. Although East Timor is an island, the Marine Unit has only two five-person boats—glaringly insufficient to patrol the country's porous coastline against a growing smuggling industry.

The PNTF will be forced into self-reliance as U.N. withdrawal is scheduled for 2004.

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ECUADOR

Ecuador, a constitutional republic, occupies 283,560 square kilometers in the northwest corner of South America. Approximately the size of Nevada, the country has common borders with Colombia and Peru, two major cocaine-producing countries, and the Pacific Ocean.

The population of 13.7 million (July 2003 estimate), predominately indigenous people, lives primarily in urban areas and along the Pacific Coast. The country has a long history of military rule and frequent changes of government. A return to democracy in 1979 has been marked by considerable political and financial instability. The presidency has changed almost annually since 1996.

The nation's primary law enforcement agency is the Ecuador National Police (ENP). Following Ecuador's 1822 independence from Spain, police were organized under the authority of local municipalities. The army provided law enforcement and public security in territories and rural areas. Provincial governments later assumed that responsibility. The police were nationalized in 1937 as the National Civil Guard.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Reorganized and renamed in 1979, the ENP is an armed force organized under a traditional military model. The estimated 25,000 police personnel (2002), a ratio of 1 to every 520 inhabitants, are charged with the maintenance of public order and individual and collective security. The commanding general of police reports to the Minister of Government and Justice. The national constitution makes the ENP an auxiliary body of the military, and the armed forces play an active role in public order and traditional police duties. Political instability has left most government institutions weak and ineffective, but the military and the ENP play major roles in national life.

The highly centralized police force has headquarters in Quito, the capital. The country is divided into four major police districts, Quito, Riobamb, Cuenca, and Guayaquil, each subdivided into five regional commands equivalent to provincial boundaries. The country's ongoing financial crisis has hindered efforts to modernize the ENP. Serious shortages of resources and equipment exist. Officers often lack basic personal equipment.

The ENP's rank structure and recruiting standards mimic those of the military. A dual-entry system allows qualified candidates with a high school education to enter the Officer Training School, a formalized 3-year course of study. Graduates join

the ENP as commissioned officers. Less qualified candidates are accepted as enlisted personnel and attend a basic recruit school. The Higher Education Academy provides specialized training. A sharp organizational divide exists between officers and enlisted men. Opportunities for advancement through the enlisted ranks are limited, and enlisted personnel rarely become officers. Substantial differences in salary and benefits exist as well.

CRIME

Ecuadorian crime statistics are generally unreliable. The press and informal sources indicate a rising crime rate in both rural and urban areas fueled by substantial poverty, urban migration, demands for land reform, and social unrest. Street crime is common in urban areas, and organized criminal groups are active in bank robbery, auto theft, and a growing low-level narcotics trade. Frequent armed bus robberies have made public transportation dangerous. Public, often violent, demonstrations occur daily, and bombing incidents are on the rise.

Ecuador's location, its substantial international shipping industry, and extremely porous borders have made it a major center for the staging and movement of cocaine and precursor chemicals to and from the United States, Asia, and Europe. Colombian cartels run legitimate businesses and shipping firms to facilitate the delivery of illegal substances with legitimate cargo. The growing international narcotics trade has increased public corruption among government officials and military and police personnel.

Personal ownership of firearms, although regulated by the military, is common. No legal distinction is made between the "right to own" and the "right to carry," and many citizens go armed during their daily routine.

Conditions along the oil-rich Colombian and Peruvian borders are particularly dangerous. The area has become a rest center for violent Colombian criminal and paramilitary groups. A thriving smuggling trade moves firearms and chemicals into Colombia and Peru and narcotics into Ecuador for international transportation. While coca production

is not yet common in the area, military sources report an increase in the number of plantations and refining operations destroyed. The national government, with the aid of foreign donors, recently built a new police headquarters, increased regional police training, and installed a new communications system in response to the rapid decline in public order.

Public corruption compounds the problem. Both the military and the ENP have been implicated in narcotics activities. Off-duty police officers have reportedly been involved in armed robberies and auto thefts. Allegations of bribery are regularly reported in the media. Accusations of police abuse, torture of detainees, deaths in police custody, and extrajudicial killings are widespread. Special police courts, staffed primarily by serving or retired police officers, try officers accused of abuse and violence. Such proceedings are notoriously slow and ineffective. Few convictions have been produced.

The national judicial system is similarly suspect. Ecuador does not use the jury system. Judges are generally considered underexperienced and widely believed to be open to corrupt influence.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY AGENCIES

Larger cities in Ecuador maintain small municipal police agencies. They lack formal training, and their duties are limited to enforcement of municipal ordinances and security in public markets. They have little impact on public order or law enforcement.

The Ecuadorian Customs Service enforces the nation's import and export regulations.

A National Narcotics Directorate oversees national antinarcotics efforts.

The country has an extensive private security sector ranging in quality from extremely low to very sophisticated. Security agencies are licensed by the national government. Armed bodyguards and round-the-clock residential guards are common.

The role of the military in traditional police functions cannot be understated. The constitution allows military intervention in internal security under the authority of the president. They continue to perform routine police duties in remote and rural

areas. The armed forces control the borders and are active in narcotics, illegal immigration, and smuggling enforcement. Military units provide primary police services in rural areas, and control public security activities in Sucumbos Province and those provinces bordering Peru and Colombia. Military roadblocks are common throughout the country, military units regularly patrol city streets, and they guard the transportation of cash and other valuable goods.

Ecuador is a member of the United Nations and Interpol.

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EGYPT

Located on the Mediterranean Sea spanning the eastern part of North Africa, Egypt is one of the world's oldest civilizations, dating back to 3200 B.C. The country has an area of 1,001,450 square kilometers and a population of 74.7 million (July 2003). Egypt's population is primarily settled along the fertile Nile River Valley. Because of its strategic location at the junction of the only land bridge from Africa to Asia, and especially since the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869, it has also been a major transportation hub from the Indian Ocean to the Mediterranean.

Arabs introduced Islam and the Arabic language to the population in the 7th century. Subsequently, in the 16th century, the Ottoman Empire took control of Egypt, followed by the British in 1882. Turkish and French criminal justice systems



influenced Egypt's police structure until the late 19th century when the force adopted a British model. The national-level police force was created in 1883. It was trained and primarily staffed by British officials until Egypt attained its sovereignty in 1922. At that time, the force operated as the private agency of the king and the administration. Presently, the hierarchical structure of the police reflects the British model.

The Egyptian police played a key role in the struggle for independence from Britain. The British attacked police barracks in Ismailiya in 1952 when the police refused to surrender to British troops. The following day a mutiny was declared by the police to protest the deaths of their colleagues in Ismailiya. Later that year, a 1952 coup led by then Lt. Col. Gamal Abdel Nasser sparked the declaration of Egypt as a republic with Islam as the state religion. Nasser continued to rule Egypt until his death in 1970. He was replaced by another of the 1952 coup leaders, Anwar el-Sadat, who was subsequently assassinated by Islamic extremists in 1981. After Sadat's death, Hosni Mubarak was elected president, and has ruled Egypt since that time.

Egypt's legal system is based on Napoleonic civil law and Islamic law (*sharia*), although it has kept some features of English common law. The president is the head of state and the head of the executive branch and is elected for a 6-year term. The

president appoints vice presidents (one or more), the prime minister, and the cabinet. The legislature is bicameral; the People's Assembly has 454 members (of whom 10 are appointed by the president, and 50% are reserved for "workers and peasants"). The 264-member Shura Council has consultative status. Egypt is administratively divided into 24 governorates (*muhafazat*). Governors and mayors are appointed by the central government and rule along with popularly elected local councils.

There are two major branches of the police in Egypt. The State Security Investigations Sector (SSIS) conducts investigations and interrogates detainees, and the Central Security Force (CSF) enforces curfews and bans on public demonstrations. As a whole, the force maintains law and order, detects and prevents crime, collects evidence, processes passports, controls traffic, and screens immigrants. In each *muhafazat*, a director of police oversees law enforcement in the district. The director reports to the governor. Both the governor and director are overseen by the Ministry of the Interior. Police ranks reflect the gradations within the army, with the higher ranking police officers being major-generals down to first lieutenants. Below this are lieutenant-chief warrant officers. Enlisted officers hold the ranks of master sergeant, sergeant, corporal, and private.

In response to the terrorist attack in Luxor that left 58 Swiss and Japanese tourists dead in 1997, the force added a unit of tourist police to guard the country's main attractions, such as the Valley of the Kings. Tourist police officers speak English and other foreign languages. Additional law-enforcement agencies are housed within the ministries of transportation, supplies, finance, and the customs service. The police force also administers the nation's prisons, functioning as corrections officers in conjunction with prison staff.

According to information reported to the United Nations in 1994, Egypt had 21,497 police personnel, of whom 106 (19%) were women. This represented a 1% decrease in the number of police over figures reported in 1990. There are approximately 37 officers per 100,000 people, considered one of the highest citizen-police ratios in the world. The arrest rate is approximately 33 people per year per 100,000

population. Of this, approximately 10% of the arrests are for thefts; there is less than one intentional homicide reported per year per 100,000 population.

Moreover, the Egyptian police have focused on transnational crime. The country is a production and transit point for heroin and opium en route to Europe and the United States. In March of 2004, 3,000 police officers raided a village in the southern part of the country to round up drug gangs, including landowners, as part of a larger campaign against drug syndicates who had taken control of southern villages. The raid used 100 armored vehicles and 40 bulldozers. Forty landowners and 80 others were sought by police in connection with the drug gang. In addition, Egypt is a money laundering site because of lax banking regulations.

Most police officers are graduates of at least a 3-month course at the Police College in Cairo, which was established by the British in 1896. The 2-year bachelor of police studies program involves courses in criminal investigation, military drills, civil defense, cryptology, first aid, marksmanship, leadership, sociology, English, and French. The role of the police as custodians in prisons is not emphasized in the training curricula. The college's Institute for Advanced Police Studies offers training for advancement beyond the rank of lieutenant. Officers are also sent abroad for schooling. In 2002, Egypt provided training to the Palestinian police as Israel withdrew forces from some areas in the West Bank.

In the last few years, rights groups such as Human Rights Watch have expressed concern that Egypt's police use excessive force, including torture. Criticisms mounted after the March 21, 2003, demonstrations in Cairo against the U.S.-led war in Iraq. According to Human Rights Watch, 800 people were detained without judicial warrants in violation of Egyptian law. Police corruption has also been cited as a problem due to the relatively low wages paid to officers. In the 1990s, reports indicated that cooperation with drug smuggling occurred even at high ranks.

Egypt is a member of Interpol.

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EL SALVADOR

Situated on the Pacific Coast of Central America, with an area of 8,260 square miles, the Republic of El Salvador has a population of 6.4 million people (July 2002).

NATIONAL CIVIL POLICE

The nation's primary police agency is the National Civil Police (PNC), created in 1992 as a condition of the Peace Accords that ended a 12-year civil war. It became fully operational late in 1994. The new force replaced the National Police, part of the Salvadoran Military, the National Treasury Police,



and various civilian defense forces and paramilitary organizations.

The PNC is an armed, civilian, service-oriented police organization with an authorized strength of 18,000, 1 officer per 352 citizens. Current strength is 16,547 (2002). Women represent 7% of the force and occupy positions up to the rank of commissioner.

The agency is headed by the Director General of the Police, a civilian appointed by the President of the Republic, and answerable to the Minister of Government.

Organization and Operations

The PNC is organized into five geographical regions—Western, Central, Eastern, Metropolitan, and Para central (i.e., subcentral). Regions are further subdivided into 21 territorial operational divisions (*delegaciones*) broadly coterminous to the 14 local government administrative areas. Divisional headquarters are located at Santa Ana, Sonsonate, Ahuachapán (Western Region); Libertad Norte, Libertad Sur, Chalatenango, San Salvador Norte, Cuscutlán, and San Salvador Sur (Central Region); Nueva San Salvador, Centro, Mejicanos, Ciudad Delgado, and Soyapango (Metropolitan Region); San Vicente, Cabañas, La Paz (Paracentral Region); San Miguel, Usulután, Morazán, La Unión (Eastern

Region). National initiatives have extended police services to rural and remote areas.

The Criminal Investigations Department (1,728 personnel) and Transit and Traffic Police (920 personnel) are centralized and provide operational support to territorial divisions. The Attorney General maintains functional control of criminal investigations.

Specialized PNC units assigned to the Ministry of Finance enforce the customs and tax regulations. A division allocated to the Minister of Agriculture is responsible for environmental law enforcement. The Protection Division safeguards public officials, foreign dignitaries, diplomatic missions, and government buildings. The Force maintains an internationally trained hostage rescue unit. PNC duties extend to border and immigration control. Other specialized units include:

- Air Corps
- Antinarotics
- Arms and Explosives
- Crime Statistics
- Discipline Investigation
- Firearms Support
- Human Rights
- Intelligence
- Juvenile and Family
- Logistics
- Maritime
- Mounted
- Personnel
- Public Order
- Public Relations
- Support
- Tourist Police

Common crime rose dramatically with the conclusion of the civil war in 1992. However, PNC community policing initiatives and creative multiagency approaches have substantially slowed

the growth rate. The Organized Crime Unit has reduced a national kidnapping epidemic from 114 cases in 1999 to 19 in 2002 with the arrests and prosecutions of 450 kidnappers. The homicide rate remains among the highest in the Americas at 31 per 100,000 (2002). The 1999 serious crime index was 880 incidents per 100,000. More than 650 PNC officers have been killed in the line of duty. Gang violence, fueled by the repatriation of thousands of El Salvadoran deportees from the United States, remains a serious problem. Street level drug activity is increasing.

An independent General Inspectorate of Police, under the direction of the Inspector General, monitors police operations and investigates complaints of police misconduct. The Inspector General is appointed by the president. Some official corruption continues. Internal investigations in 1998 resulted in the dismissal of some 800 officers for criminal activity, corruption, or unsatisfactory professional performance. A similar purge began in 2001.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

The National Public Security Academy (ANSP), an autonomous governmental agency, sets standards and qualifications for admission to police service and for promotion to higher rank. It administers the recruitment, selection, and promotional processes; provides basic police training; and conducts specialized training and training for middle-ranking and senior police officials.

Police applicants must be Salvadoran citizens, 18 years of age and older, with a high school education. They must successfully complete the ANSP admission process and the 13-month basic training program.

The ANSP Director General, a presidential appointee in the Ministry of Government, manages the Academy in cooperation with a civilian Academic Council. The present Director General is, for the first time, a career PNC police officer. Instructional staff includes both civilian experts and qualified police personnel. The ANSP research unit studies matters affecting the PNC and national security.

The PNC maintains seven operational ranks (see Table 1).

Table 1 Operational Ranks of the PNC

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Numbers</i>
Commissioner	19
Subcommissioner	54
Inspector	30
Subinspector	227
Sergeant	744
Corporal	1,181
Agent	13,935

Promotions to basic supervisory ranks come from within the force. Advancement to senior and executive ranks requires a university degree. A direct entry program administered through the civil service system allows university graduates without prior police experience to enter at the senior and executive levels.

Both the PNC and ANSP receive substantial financial support and technical assistance from the United States and the European Union. Increased use of technology has advanced the collection of crime statistics and operational data. The PNC has invested heavily in community policing strategies.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

Each of the nation's major cities operates a limited jurisdiction municipal police agency under the authority of the mayor's office, headed by a director of police. The Corps of Metropolitan Agents in the capital San Salvador City with 550 officers is the largest. Municipal officers provide preventive patrol on municipal property such as public buildings, parks, and markets. Their authority is limited to the enforcement of local ordinances and non-felony offenses.

El Salvador has a substantial private security industry with some 140 private security companies employing approximately 23,000 armed and unarmed security officers. The PNC's Private Security Services Division licenses and closely monitors private security operations.

Since 1992, the duties and authorities of the Salvadoran military forces have been limited to

matters of national sovereignty. With minor exceptions, they have no law enforcement or public order responsibilities. Military forces patrol the isolated national borders with Guatemala and Honduras where they participate in antismuggling activities. The military operates a coast guard with similar responsibilities. A separate military police unit provides physical security at military installations and conducts criminal investigations within the military services.

El Salvador is a member of Interpol.

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EQUATORIAL GUINEA

Equatorial Guinea occupies 28,051 square kilometers in West Africa on the Atlantic Ocean between Gabon and Cameroon. Twenty percent of its population of 510,000 people (July 2003 estimate) lives on islands off the coast of the mainland. It was a Spanish colony and became independent in 1968. Large oil reserves discovered in the 1990s have made Equatorial Guinea the fourth largest oil-producing country in Africa. The ruling party has long been criticized for torturing detainees and arresting members of the political opposition.

Very little information is available about police in Equatorial Guinea.



respond to unusual domestic and external security situations as needed.

Crime and public disorder in Eritrea is relatively low, and most reported crime involves traffic violations. There are few legal firearms because in the early days of independence, the Department of Security and Intelligence directed that only those EPLF members who possess a police license and security staff were allowed to keep arms. There are indications that illegal weapons possession is on the rise, so gun-related violence and crime may increase.

The majority of police recruits usually come from an existing group of former soldiers, which may further support the paramilitary organizational structure. While the police are supervised by the Ministry of Internal Affairs, training is separate and consists of a 2- to 3-month basic course for those with prior military service and a separate 5-month course for civilians. Specialized courses include traffic, driving, public order, photography, investigation, and management.

Initially police were unpaid, but after 1994, received a nominal salary (U.S. \$10) to pay for housing, food, and electricity. Annual pay for police officers has increased steadily since 1996, although there are periods when pay is irregular. It is difficult to separate the police budget from state expenditures

generally, and while most of the basic police functional units can be seen, more specialized police responsibilities (e.g., drugs crime investigation unit), while desirable, are considered luxuries.

CORRUPTION AND HUMAN RIGHTS CONCERNS

Incidences of police corruption are relatively small in number, and the police generally appear to observe basic human rights, unlike the more oppressive environment in neighboring Ethiopia. The Penal Code of the transitional government prohibits torture and physical abuse of prisoners under police supervision, but Amnesty International and other organizations have occasionally reported severe abuse during interrogation, especially of army deserters and draft evaders. Arbitrary arrest and detention remain problematic, and, while the Penal Code allows detainees to be held for up to 30 days without charge, in practice the police sometimes holds persons suspected of crimes for much longer periods.

While the law does not prohibit trafficking in persons, there were few reports of this occurring.

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ESTONIA

Estonia is the smallest among the former Soviet states and is located on the southwestern shore



of the Baltic Sea. This country has a territory of 45,226 square kilometers and a population of 1.5 million people. Estonia regained its independence in 1991. In 2002, Estonia joined NATO and held a referendum that resulted in the decision to join the European Union (EU); it did so in 2003.

The national law enforcement system consists of an independent judiciary, public prosecutor's office, and a number of agencies with the right to conduct pretrial investigations and surveillance (e.g., customs, security police, border guard). The Legal Chancellor of the Estonian Republic, the Notaries' Office, the Bar Association, and authorities executing court decisions belong to the law enforcement system also. The police are the biggest part of the Estonian law enforcement system.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE POLICE

Police activities are regulated by the Police Act of 1993. The police fall under the executive power within the area of administration of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Ministry supervises five central law enforcement agencies: the Police Board, the Security Police Board, the Board of the Border Guard, the Citizenship and Migration Board, and

the Rescue Board. The Ministry of Internal Affairs administers the Inspection of Data Protection and Public Service Academy, which is an educational institution providing applied higher education in the areas of the Ministry's supervision, including policing. The Police Board is the central agency, which manages, directs, and coordinates the activities of all police units under its administration. The chairman of the Police Board is the highest ranking police officer and holds the title of Director General of Police.

The Estonian police has a staff of about 5,000 and is divided into four national units: the Central Criminal Police, the Protection Service, the Forensic Science Center, and the Police School. The Central Criminal Police unit detects crimes and conducts investigations in cases determined by the Minister of Internal Affairs. The Protection Service provides personal protection to the highest officials and guards objects designated by the government. The Forensic Science Center conducts forensic examinations and technical investigations and participates in other investigative activities.

There are 17 territorial police units called Police Prefectures, each serving one county or town. Police prefectures include territorial structural units: police stations, police departments, and a house of detention. The local police chiefs are called prefects. The main functions of the police are protecting public order and legal interests of persons and organizations, combating crime, conducting pretrial investigations in criminal offenses, and imposing and executing punishments within the limits of its jurisdiction. The law specifically prohibits the use of physical or psychological violence and degrading treatment or punishment in the activities of the police. Police activities are monitored by the State Audit Office and committees formed by local governments. The legality of police activities is supervised by the prosecutor's office and a parliamentary Committee for Supervision of Security Institutions.

Major police duties include protection of life, health, honor, dignity, property, and possessions of persons from any danger; registration of crime-related information; execution of court orders; application of detentions; convoy of detainees;

integration of former prisoners into society; search for missing persons and illegal immigrants; protection of foreign embassies; regulation of traffic and monitoring of road conditions; monitoring compliance with passport and work permit regulations; participation in protection of natural resources and environment; and assistance to fire and rescue services in the performance of their functions. The law establishes the procedure for the use of firearms and special equipment by police officers.

In 2003, local governments got the right to create and finance municipal police, who deal with matters included in the competence of local authorities. Municipal police have the right to carry a firearm and conduct misdemeanor proceedings, prepare minutes, and impose a fine, but they have no right of preliminary investigation. They cannot apprehend a criminal and take a statement from him or her. As a rule, municipal police are better paid and equipped than state police. Municipal police have their own uniform with corresponding insignia, which differs from that of the state police. The regular police uniform is blue in color with the image of the nation's coat of arms on the buttons and a badge on the left sleeve that depicts the emblem of the police, which is a blue shield with a white rampant lion holding the small coat of arms of Estonia in its front paws. The emblem, which was first used in 1935, symbolizes readiness to protect the public and state's interests.

POLICE EMPLOYMENT

The Public Service Academy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs is the main police training facility, which provides regular legal education and professional knowledge necessary for the enforcement of law. The Academy provides six months of training for graduates of civilian middle-level educational institutions hired for lower rank police service. The minimum age for service in law enforcement is 18 years, and possession of Estonian citizenship and a clean criminal record are required for the service. There is an elaborate system of social benefits for the police, including eligibility for retirement upon 25 years of service regardless of age.

The incentives for police officers are an expression of thanks, the granting of a monetary award,

the presentation of a valuable gift, the award of a police certificate of honor, the award of a weapon registered in the name of the police officer, and the award of a Police Cross of Merit. The Police Cross of Merit was established in 1993 to reward police officers for long-term excellent service or noteworthy performance of duties, including special instances of bravery in the performance of duties, and, in exceptional cases, to reward people who are not police officers for their noteworthy services to the Estonian Police. The Police Cross of Merit has three categories: First, Second, and Third. Officers who have served 10 years in the police are awarded with the Police Commemorative Cross.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Estonia is a member of Interpol, and in 2001, a cooperation agreement with Europol was signed. Estonia has a police liaison officer in Russia and is actively involved in regional cooperation of law enforcement authorities of other Baltic and Nordic countries. During the 1990s, the largest amount of financial and educational assistance was received from the United States. Since spring 2001, women working in the Estonian police, who constitute 25% of the police force, have been represented in the European Network of Policewomen.

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EUROPOL

The European Union was originally established largely to promote the economic integration of its member states. Economic integration, however,

brought with it new opportunities for offenders, above all the ease with which they can transcend national borders. Because crime was being increasingly organized at a European level, rather than on a national or local level, politicians agreed that an organization was needed that could coordinate the law enforcement resources of member states to effectively tackle crime on a pan-European level (a level that as of May 1, 2004, encompasses 25 countries).¹ In 1992, the Maastricht Treaty established Europol's predecessor, the European Drugs Unit. It formally began operations on January 3, 1994. The European Drugs Unit had a rather limited mandate; it was focused on supporting each member state's fight against drugs and the associated money laundering.

The Convention on the Establishment of a European Police Office (the Europol Convention) was adopted on July 26, 1995, and by 1998 had been ratified by all of the member states. On July 1, 1999, Europol formally took over the work of the European Drugs Unit. It is based in The Hague, in the Netherlands. Its purpose has grown from drugs policing to also include areas of serious crime as diverse as terrorism, drug trafficking, trafficking in human beings, illegal immigration, trafficking in radioactive and nuclear substances, trafficking in stolen motor vehicles, counterfeiting of the euro, and money laundering associated with international criminal activities.

MISSION

As is the case with Interpol, Europol is (at least at present) not an operational entity in that Europol staff members do not have police powers in the individual member states. Thus, they do not, for example, investigate offenses or question suspects. Instead, Europol seeks to support the law enforcement agencies of all its member states primarily by gathering and analyzing information and intelligence specifically about people who are members or possible members of criminal organizations that operate internationally. This information is received from a variety of sources, such as the national police forces as well as other international crime-fighting organizations (such as Interpol), and is entered into computers for processing and analysis. When

Europol identifies information that requires action by the national law enforcement agencies, such as connections identified between criminal offenses, it notifies the competent authorities without delay. Europol is also charged with the task of developing expertise in certain fields of crime and making this expertise available to the member states when needed. Europol thus serves as a link between the law enforcement agencies of the member states of the European Union. On October 16, 1999, a broadly speaking parallel unit called Eurojust was created to serve the same function among the prosecution authorities of the member states. To foster close cooperation between Eurojust and Europol—necessary in particular because of the key role that the prosecutors have in many member states in guiding the course of police investigations—Eurojust also has its headquarters in The Hague, in the Netherlands.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE, MANAGEMENT, AND CONTROL

Europol is above all a body for the coordination of international law enforcement. The police officers working at Europol fall into two categories: regular staff members and liaison officers. The regular staff members (some 391 as of January 2004) take care of the joint activities, such as planning and analysis. The liaison officers (some 60 as of January 2004) represent a variety of national law enforcement agencies: the police, customs, gendarmerie, immigration services, and so on. Their function is largely to work together on individual cases that affect their national law enforcement interests. For example, if an analysis of data shows that a case may have connections with Germany and Spain, the German and Spanish liaison officers will meet together to discuss how to deal with the case. They will then liaise with the competent national or local law enforcement authorities to ensure follow-through.

Europol is accountable to the European Union Council of Ministers for Justice and Home Affairs. The council is responsible for the main control and guidance function of Europol. It appoints the director and deputy directors and adopts the budget. It also adopts a number of important implementing regulations related to Europol's

work. Each year, the council forwards a special report to the European Parliament on the work of Europol. The European Parliament is also consulted if the Europol Convention or other Europol regulations are amended.

Europol's Management Board is composed of one representative from each member state. Each member has one vote. The Commission of the European Communities is also invited to attend the meetings of the Management Board with nonvoting status. The Management Board meets at least twice per year to discuss a wide range of Europol issues that relate to its current activities and its future developments. It also unanimously adopts a general report on Europol's activities during the previous year. The Management Board also adopts a report on Europol's future activities, taking into account the operational requirements of member states as well as the budgetary and staffing implications for Europol. These reports are submitted to the Council of Ministers of Justice and Home Affairs for approval.

Europol is headed by a director appointed by the council acting unanimously, after obtaining the opinion of the Management Board, for a 5-year period. The director's mandate may be renewed once for a further period of 4 years. The director is responsible for the day-to-day administration of Europol, the performance of its tasks, the personnel management, and other tasks assigned to him or her by the Europol Convention or by the Management Board. The director is assisted by deputy directors, also appointed by the council, for a 4-year period, renewable once.

After the events of September 11, 2001, the Interpol Directorate was partially restructured. The three departments—Investigation Support, Intelligence Analysis, and Organized Crime—were combined into one single department called Serious Crime, thus combining information exchange, analysis, and expertise.

COOPERATION WITH THIRD WORLD COUNTRIES AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Europol has improved its international law enforcement cooperation by signing bilateral agreements with the following non-EU countries

and international organizations: Iceland, Norway, the United States, the European Central Bank, the European Monitoring Centre on Drug and Drug Addiction, Interpol, and the World Custom Organization. Furthermore, Europol opened a Liaison Office in Washington DC.

THE EUROPOL COMPUTER SYSTEM (TECS)

The Europol Convention calls on Europol to establish and maintain a computerized system to allow input, access, and analysis data. The convention lays down a strict framework for human rights and data protection, control, supervision, and security. The Europol Computer System (TECS) will have three principal components: an information system, an analysis system, and an index system (Europol, 2004).

The analysis and index systems are already in place. A provisional version of the information system became operational on January 1, 2002. More advanced versions that will eventually connect all member states are under development.

Because of the strict data protection legislation in many member states of the European Union, the Europol Convention set up a special body to ensure compliance with such legislation: the Joint Supervisory Body. This body is composed of two representatives of each of the national Supervisory Bodies, appointed for 5 years by each member state. Each delegation has one vote. Its task is to review the activities of Europol to ensure that the rights of the individual are not violated by the storage, processing, and use of the data held by Europol. It also monitors the permissibility of the transmission of data originating from Europol. Each individual has the right to request the Joint Supervisory Body to ensure that the manner in which his or her personal data have been collected, stored, processed, and used by Europol is lawful and accurate.

FINANCING

Europol is funded by contributions from the member states, calculated on the basis of their gross national product. The budget for 2003 was 55.5 million euros (approximately 68 million U.S. dollars). The annual

accounts of Europol are subject to an audit, which is carried out by the Joint Audit Committee.

ACTIVITIES

Europol is deeply involved in combating all kinds of major crimes taking place in the member states. The results of its activities are published in detail in the *Europol Annual Reports*. The following is a presentation of selected Europol activities based on its annual reports for 2001 and 2002.

Combating Terrorism

Following the events of September 11, 2001, and the subsequent decisions taken by the EU Council of Justice and Home Affairs Ministers on September 20, 2001, Europol, together with the member states, set up a Counter-Terrorism Task Force (CTTF) to implement a comprehensive set of measures. The CTTF consists of experts and liaison officers from the police forces and services of member states, as well as intelligence services in an unprecedented exercise of cooperation and collaboration.

In addition to the creation of the CTTF, Europol provided several products and services related to counterterrorism. The exchange of counterterrorist information between member states by way of the Europol liaison officers and the network of national units expanded. A special conference on terrorism was held in Madrid (January 29–February 2, 2002). Several directories were updated—for example, on the counterterrorism responsibilities on the national level within each member state, counterterrorism legislation in member states, and the counterterrorism competencies/centers of excellence in the member states.

The *Open Source Digest* on terrorism-related activity is disseminated to the member states on a weekly basis. Also updated was the *Glossary of Terrorist Groups*, containing basic details about their origins, ideology/objectives, leadership, and activities.

Periodical trends and situation reports are provided on topics related to terrorism, based on open sources information that are reported by member states to Europol.

Combating Financial Crimes and Other Crimes Against Property and Public Goods, Including Fraud

In the area of financial and property crime, Europol's activities currently focus on providing strategic support, while preparing for more operational activities in the immediate future. In the field of money laundering, Europol began to systematically collect information on suspicious transactions that were identified by the law enforcement and judicial authorities of the member states. Further strategic support included the issuing of information bulletins on specific matters related to financial investigations, and assistance in an initiative to create a *European Manual on Money Laundering*. An EU "Situation Report" was elaborated in the area of combating credit card fraud. The result of this work will be used to define a common EU strategy to fight this phenomenon.

The Financial Crime Information Centre was further developed with a view to providing member states with access through a secure Web site. This Web site includes a library of information related to financial matters and various technical subjects related to financial investigations.

As for stolen vehicles, Europol was involved in 2001 in three operations concerning trafficking in stolen motor vehicles in Europe. Europol supported these operations by providing analytical support, coordinating the international cooperation, and coordinating the information exchange. To give a flavor of the clear operational results of these activities, one investigation resulted in the identification of 705 stolen vehicles and 130 suspects, and another operation led to 10 arrests of suspects and the issuing of 5 international arrest warrants. An investigation of the re-registration of secondhand cars identified 216 vehicles stolen in EU member states and re-registered in third countries. Europol initiated several bilateral investigations between third countries and member states.

In cooperation with the German and Austrian authorities, Europol developed the international European Vehicle Identification Database. This database was developed and translated by Europol and is now available in German, English, and French. Europol also developed the Blanco Documents Database containing stolen blank vehicle registration documents from various countries.

Combating Drug-Related Criminality

Europol has supported operational projects against, for example, Turkish, Latin American, and indigenous criminal groups. There has been an improvement in both the quality and quantity of information supplied to Europol. This has led to the identification of criminals, new common targets, and links between investigations, as well as improvement in cooperation among the member states based on intelligence and analysis supplied by Europol.

During 2001, Europol assisted law enforcement teams in three member states in the dismantling of nine illicit laboratories and the collection of evidence, thus contributing to seizures of synthetic drugs and precursors and to the arrests of several suspects. Currently, there are two expert systems related to drugs in place at Europol: the Ecstasy Logo System and the Cocaine Logo System. These systems improve law enforcement cooperation in member states through the identification of the links between seizures of ecstasy tablets and cocaine, primarily based on certain particularities of the seized drugs.

Following a ban on opium poppy cultivation in Afghanistan and the events of September 11, 2001, Europol also drafted a report on the situation of opium production in this country, the world's largest producer of opium. In the framework of the Joint Action on New Synthetic Drugs, Europol, together with the European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA), drafted joint progress reports on GHB (gamma-hydroxybutyrate, a "date rape drug"), ketamine, and PMMA (polymethylmethacrylate). As a direct result of the EU Action Plan on Drugs 2000–2004, a Collection Model for drug seizure statistics was drafted by Europol, in close cooperation with experts from member states and the EMCDDA.

A Model of Parameters for the Assessment of the European Drugs Strategy, drafted by Europol in cooperation with experts from member states and the EMCDDA, has been adopted by the Horizontal

Working Party on Drugs and was implemented in 2002.

Under the PHARE (Poland and Hungary Assistance for Economic Restructuring program) synthetic drug assistance program, during 2001, Europol organized and gave training courses on the dismantling of illicit laboratories to law enforcement officers, forensic scientists, and public prosecutors from several East European countries. In addition, training was provided to specialist teams in the Netherlands. Europol also assisted French authorities in a joint training program on synthetic drugs and precursors for law enforcement staff from Latin American countries.

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1. At the time of the establishment of Europol, in 1999, the European Union consisted of 15 countries: Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. The new member states as of May 1, 2004, are Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia. Already in advance of the accession of these new member states to the European Union, agreements were drafted on cooperation. The first such agreement was signed on March 21, 2001, with Poland (Europol, 2001).

F

FINLAND

Finland is located in Northern Europe and has a population of approximately 5 million people. Finland is a member state of the European Union (EU).

POLICING IN FINLAND

The Finland police force has a three-tier organization. At the top is the Police Department of the Ministry of Interior; below it are five Provincial Police Commands, the Helsinki District Police, and the National Units (the National Traffic Police, the National Bureau of Investigation, the Security Police, and the National Police College and Police School). The police is organized locally into a service network of 90 State Local Districts. The local police is responsible for police services, licence services, and most of the criminal investigation. Seventy-five police stations have a duty desk open 24 hours per day.

The number of personnel employed by the Finnish police force at the end of 2001 was 10,882 (an increase of 168 more than the previous year); police officers accounted for 7,684 of this total, police cadets for 502, and other staff 2,636. The percentage of women police officers was 11%.

The statutory duties of the police are to secure the functioning of the judicial and social systems,

maintain public order and security, prevent and investigate crimes, and submit cases to prosecutors for consideration of charges. Approximately 746,000 offenses were reported to the police in 2001, representing a decrease of about 2% compared with the previous year. Approximately 344,000 of these were offenses under the Penal Code (excluding traffic and drug-related offenses), 284,874 were property offenses, 155,059 traffic offenses, 14,890 drug-related offenses (of which 847 were considered “serious”), 3,871 aggravated crimes against the person, and 1,311 economic crimes.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Finland joined Europe’s Schengen group on March 25, 2001. The Schengen Information System is an efficient crime prevention tool. Finland has police personnel also in Europol and other European Union (EU) law enforcement organizations. Furthermore, the EU’s crisis management work was set in motion in 1999, which means the EU is capable of despatching 5,000 police officers to engage in civilian crisis management duties. Finnish police officers (79) took part in international civilian police duties in 2001, for instance, in Kosovo.

Close cooperation and joint operations with the neighboring countries of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Russia have also been an important part of



international cooperation. Joint coordination groups have been set up to tackle cross-border crime, and several cooperation agreements have been signed to combat drug-related, economic, and vehicle crime, and to improve traffic safety. For instance, in 2001 a new project was launched with Russia to prevent illegal immigration; a cooperation agreement was signed and a joint working group was set up between the Finnish police and the militia of St. Petersburg.

COMMUNITY POLICING AND SAFETY PLANNING

The concept of community policing, which focuses on specific problems and seeks to build cooperation, has been introduced as an important element of basic police work. It is not a special task. Community policing was implemented in Finland in 1996, but since the 1960s there has been a long tradition of the community policing style, called the village police. In 1996-1998, the main principles of the community policing model involved problem-oriented policing, with emphasis on crime analysis, community crime prevention, area- and team-based policing, decentralization, professionalization, and democratization (seeking more public input and striking partnerships with nonpolice agencies).

From 1999 on, the main strategy has been local networking, partnerships, and multiagency safety planning. The police have been actively involved in local security cooperation with various municipal authorities, communities, and local residents. The aims are to share responsibility for security and crime prevention in communities, define the problems to be solved, set the objectives, and make a regional or municipal safety plan. Finland has 445 municipalities and cities, and by the end of the year 2002 a total of 320 safety plans were completed. They work as strategic tools for developing partnerships and community policing.

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The operations of the police are subject to result management procedures. The Quality of Service initiative was adopted in 1993, the main objective being to develop the quality of police services. The police monitor not only crime statistics but also the public perception of security through the Police Security Barometer survey commissioned once every 2 years; the first survey was conducted in 1999. Over the past few decades, Finnish society has undergone changes similar to those in many other European countries. Still, the police enjoy a great deal of public confidence; in 2001 92% of people had a great deal of confidence in the police. The Street Security Index, designed to indicate the security of public places, was 96.57 in 2001 and showed an improvement over the previous year.

The police launched the new performance management model (the modified version of the Balanced Scorecard, developed by Robert S. Kaplan and David P. Norton) in 2000, in order to develop strategic management and performance measurement. The model is a useful instrument for the management of police work. It focuses on critical areas, emphasizes success factors, and enhances communication within the organization. It is linked with the quality management system. The four assessment perspectives of the model are citizen and customer perspective, staff, resources and economic efficiency, and outcomes. These performance measures derive from the vision and strategy of the police

organization. The implementation of the model is still in its beginning phase, but according to the evaluation research (Kujanpää & Virta, 2002, p. 26) the results have already been promising. The vision of the Finnish police for 2010 is that Finland will be the safest country in Europe.

Sirpa Virta

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FRANCE

Bordered by the Atlantic Ocean, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Alps mountains, France is the largest country in Western Europe, with an area of 212,355 square miles. The French Republic has a population of 60.7 million (2001), and is divided into 22 regions, which are themselves subdivided into 96 departments. France also has several overseas departments, as well as territories in the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific and Indian Oceans. France is one of the founding countries of the European Union. The French policing system is defined by its dualism, with two major national police forces (the National Police and the National Gendarmerie), and by the fact that it is not seen as emanating from the people, like its British counterpart, but rather from the state.

Both forces are vested with similar police powers, but they exercise them over distinct geographical jurisdictions: The National Police covers towns and cities with more than 10,000 people, whereas the Gendarmerie is responsible for rural areas. Both, however, can undertake criminal investigations at



the request of an investigating judge and, in such a capacity, can operate all over the country. This peculiarity derives from the inquisitorial nature of the French criminal justice system and can lead to conflictual situations between the National Police and the Gendarmerie. The heavily centralized policing system leaves only a marginal role to small municipal police forces. Since the early 1980s, French policing has undergone a wave of reforms that have sought to modernize its operations and restore the confidence of the public.

<i>Police Strength</i>	<i>(2001)</i>
National Police	130,000
National Gendarmerie	100,000
Municipal Police	15,400

By combining the numbers of National Police, Gendarmerie, and municipal police officers, the result is a ratio of 1 officer for every 248 citizens.

ROLE OF POLICE IN THE LEGAL SYSTEM

The legal system distinguishes two main police functions: administrative policing and judicial policing. This distinction is linked to the dissociation between public and private law. Thus, while

administrative policing refers to all activities linked to the maintenance of public order, judicial policing is related to the detection and repression of specific offenses that administrative policing was unable to prevent. This dichotomy does not mean that different units or forces are exclusively responsible for one form of policing or the other, but it is instead used to determine which judges and courts (administrative or judicial) should oversee particular policing activities. Administrative jurisdictions are hence more concerned with the defense of civil rights on a general level, and judicial courts with the integrity of criminal procedures.

The French criminal justice system is inquisitorial: A judge is involved from the early stages in the collection and preparation of evidence by the police. It also entails a secret, written, and noncontradictory procedure in the discovery of truth. When a crime or a grave offense is detected, the district attorney opens a file and assigns the investigation to a specialized magistrate: the investigating judge. Investigating judges exercise their authority over criminal investigators, and the criminal procedure code specifically states that they can choose to assign a case either to the National Police or the Gendarmerie investigative units (article D1). This article also states that if magistrates are dissatisfied with the performance of investigators from one agency, they can transfer the case to the other agency. A result of this prerogative is the development of a fierce competition between the National Police and the Gendarmerie to secure and retain the most prestigious cases and a reluctance to cooperate and exchange information. The term *guerre de police* (police war) is frequently used by observers to designate the most negative aspects of this competition.

Investigators from the National Police and the Gendarmerie are divided in two groups with different legal powers. Judicial police officers (OPJs) are granted full investigative powers after having passed a legal exam, while judicial police agents (APJs) include all rank and file police officers, who can only undertake basic investigative activities. Both OPJs and APJs need a delegation of power from the judge to undertake certain tasks such as detaining and interrogating suspects, entering and searching premises, and seizing assets or

intercepting telecommunications. It must be noted that police officers can detain suspects for up to 24 hours, the limit being extended to 96 hours in cases of terrorism and drug trafficking. However, certain deeds, such as interrogating suspects and confronting them with witnesses, designating experts, or issuing warrants, cannot be delegated and must be carried out by the judges themselves.

Finally, the Code of Criminal Procedure states that all police officers have the power to check the identity and address of individuals who are (a) suspected of having committed a crime, (b) suspected of preparing to commit a crime, (c) capable of assisting the police in its investigations, or (d) wanted by the police. A “control of identity” can also be carried out in order to prevent a breach of public order, particularly when the safety of persons or goods is threatened (article 78-2).

THE NATIONAL POLICE

History

The birth of modern policing in France can be traced back to a royal edict of March 1667, which created the office of General Lieutenant of the police for the city of Paris. This measure was extended to the rest of the kingdom in 1699. In August 1789, at the start of the Revolution, the royal centralized police was abolished and elected mayors took over the responsibilities of the general lieutenants, supported by national guards.

During most of the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century, policing went through a long phase of centralization, the state reclaiming authority over municipalities on this matter. This strategy encountered strong resistance from local politicians, and reforms were implemented in stages to avoid open conflict. The main concern of the central government was the rapid industrialization and urbanization of the country, leading to social and political unrest that municipal police forces were not adequately trained and equipped to handle.

In 1941 under the Vichy régime, all police forces in municipalities with more than 10,000 people were brought under state control. In 1966, the Paris police and the Sûreté Nationale, which operated until then as

two separate entities, were amalgamated to become the modern National Police.

Organization and Structure

A General Director who answers directly to the Minister of the Interior heads the National Police. Appointed by the Cabinet, the General Director supervises and coordinates the work of the various directorates, which reflect the high degree of specialization of the institution. Each directorate is subdivided into central and local services, the latter being characterized by important variations in terms of geographical jurisdiction, as a result of a complex and chaotic history. The annual budget of the National Police was U.S. \$5.7 billion in 2002.

The Administration Directorate of the National Police (DAPN) is in charge of human resources, logistics, general administration, and finances, as well as procurements. The Training Directorate (DFPN) manages 33 police academies and training centers all over the country. The Central Directorate of the Judicial Police (DCPJ) constitutes the investigative arm of the National Police and handles most criminal investigations. It deals mainly with murders, drug trafficking, organized crime, white-collar crime, human trafficking, and art theft. Other units of the National Police can be called to investigate in less serious cases. This directorate also houses forensic units and the National Central Bureau of the OIPC-Interpol, which centralizes all requests for information and assistance, including those emanating from the Gendarmerie, the other police force.

The Central Directorate of Public Security (DCSP) is in charge of maintaining public order in urban areas. It staffs and coordinates the work of police stations all over the country. Its tasks include patrol policing; answering calls for assistance from the public; petty crime prevention and detection; road safety and traffic management; organizing the security of large political, cultural, and sports events; and support to the judicial process. The Central Directorate manages local directorates at the department level, which are themselves subdivided into Public Security Districts. A Security District generally corresponds to a large police station.

There are 463 of them in 1,606 municipalities, ensuring the safety of 30 million people.

The General Inspectorate (IGPN) undertakes control and audit missions of the different services, initiates internal investigations of an administrative or judicial nature (1,200 procedures per year on average), and conducts analysis and forecasting studies.

It must be noted that separate arrangements exist for Paris, where the Police Prefecture brings together the judicial and public security functions. The Prefect is directly responsible to the Minister and manages a structure that parallels the national police organization. It constitutes more than a quarter of the National Police's strength.

The Central Directorate of General Intelligence (DCRG) collects, as its name indicates, political, economic, and social intelligence in order to inform the government's decision-making process. It is also responsible for the monitoring of casinos and racetracks. The surveillance of political parties' internal activities was discontinued in 1995, following a number of scandals. This directorate now focuses its activities on terrorist organizations, sects, extremist religious and political groups, organized crime, and urban violence phenomena. The Directorate of Homeland Surveillance (DST) is the second branch of the National Police assuming intelligence functions: Its activities are hidden by a veil of secrecy, as its mandate is to detect and prevent any activities threatening homeland security, such as military and economic espionage or terrorism.

The Central Directorate for Border Policing (DCPAF) protects the integrity of French borders and combats illegal immigration in close cooperation with its European counterparts. It also assists French consular offices all over the world. The International Technical Police Cooperation Service (SCTIP) is placed under the direct authority of the General Director. It arranges bilateral and multilateral cooperation initiatives, manages the career of police attachés and liaison officers posted in 52 permanent delegations and 40 host police organizations abroad, and participates in the work of European and UN institutions in the field of security. Other units directly attached to the General Director include an

antiterrorist and hostage-rescue unit (RAID), an antidrug coordination unit (MILAD), a counterterrorism coordination unit (UCLAT), and an anti-Mafia coordination unit (UCRAM).

The Central Service of the Companies for Republican Security (SCCRS) constitutes the mobile reserve of the National Police. The 61 Companies for Republican Security were created at the end of World War II and can be dispatched nationally on short notice for antiriot and emergency situations. They are also specialists in mountain and beach rescue assignments during the tourist seasons. The CRS employ 14,000 officers of all ranks.

Research is conducted through the Institute for the Studies of Homeland Security (IHESI), created in 1989 and reporting directly to the Minister of the Interior. Its mandate is to identify new risks and threats, to evaluate their impact, and to assess the government responses to them.

On top of its 130,000 full-fledged officers, the National Police employs 16,000 police aides, usually young people whose contracts are renewed annually and cannot be extended beyond 5 years. The recruitment criteria are lower than those of police officers and their training is shorter, but they wear a police uniform and perform patrol and crime prevention tasks. They are armed with a small caliber handgun and their legal powers are quite limited.

Selection, Training, and Police Unions

The recruitment and training of police officers follows a three-tiered system. Although there is a promotion system allowing police officers to climb the hierarchical ladder, lateral entry is a feature of the French policing system. Applicants can join the National Police at the constable, lieutenant, or commissioner level. There is no diploma prerequisite for the constable entry exam, but a high school diploma is the norm. At middle-management level, 2 years of college is required. For the commissioned officers' exam, a minimum of 4 years in university with higher-than-average marks is essential. These tests are very competitive and attract a lot of candidates, since entry in the National Police guarantees a permanent position. Depending on the

level of entry, an additional period of training ranging between 12 months (constables) and 24 months (commissioner) is undertaken in a police academy or college. In 2001, the makeup of the National Police was 20% women and 80% men.

Since 1946, police officers have the right to unionize but are barred from going on strike. More than three quarters of officers, all ranks included, belong to a police association. Police unions are fragmented and represent narrow interests such as uniformed or plainclothes police officers, constables, middle managers, or commissioners. Political and ideological divergences are also at the origin of a multiplication of police associations. The main police unions are the SNOF, Synergie, Alliance, UNSA, and the SCHFPN (commissioners).

The National Police owns 27,500 vehicles, 175,000 handguns and submachine guns, and operates 2,700 police stations of all sizes.

THE NATIONAL GENDARMERIE

History

The history of the Gendarmerie is intimately linked to the history of France and its monarchy, and as such, it is difficult to date with precision the origin of this institution. However, the royal edict of 1720, which created brigades of five officers all over the kingdom in order to protect trade routes and isolated villages, is commonly cited as the true foundation of the Gendarmerie. Originally known as the *Maréchaussée*, its current name was adopted in 1791, during the Revolution, in order to sever the organization from its royal origins. The law of 1798 and the reign of Napoleon gave the Gendarmerie its modern structure and its military character. The institution's subsequent evolution and multiple reforms never altered the founding features of the Gendarmerie, which was a rural police force operating under military command.

Organization and Structure

A General Director heads the Gendarmerie. Although a civilian, the General Director reports to the Minister of Defense. For administrative policing

functions (53% of its activities), the Gendarmerie answers to the highest-ranking public servant in each department, the Prefect. For judicial policing functions (35% of its activities), it is placed under the authority of the district attorney and/or investigating judges. Moreover, the Gendarmerie institutes proceedings in a number of cases on behalf of the ministry of the economy and finance and other ministries and administrations. The Gendarmerie is geographically divided into seven regions that correspond to the defense zones of the army, a legacy of its military origins and current missions. The Gendarmerie is constituted of two major forces, reflecting the division of labor within the organization, and an array of miscellaneous specialist units. In 2002, the annual budget of the Gendarmerie was U.S. \$4.5 billion.

The Departmental Gendarmerie is the generalist component of the Gendarmerie, with more than 63,500 officers in its ranks (2002). It operates 3,600 police stations in rural and suburban areas and is in charge of public security, highway policing, police investigations, mountain rescue, criminal intelligence, river patrol, and youth crime prevention. It also runs air wings in each region.

The Mobile Gendarmerie, which employs 17,000 officers, is a force dedicated to public protest and antiriot policing. It also comprises the GIGN, a unit specialized in antiterrorist and hostage-rescue operations, and the GSPR, a team assigned to the protection of the President.

The most famous of the specialized units is the Republican Guard, a mounted corps of 3,000 that provides security and honor guards to state institutions and during foreign dignitaries' visits. There are other branches of the Gendarmerie dedicated to air transport safety and to the protection of air force and navy bases. The Gendarmerie's Institute of Criminal Research develops new scientific and forensic capabilities to support the work of investigators.

As a result of its military status, the Gendarmerie assumes responsibility for certain aspects of national security such as the recall of the reserves or the protection of military nuclear capabilities. It also regularly sends officers to civilian police operations coordinated by the UN or NATO in Lebanon, Albania, Haiti, Kosovo, East Timor, and so on.

Selection and Training

The Gendarmerie operates 23 academies and training centers. Gendarmes are recruited under a two-tiered system of lateral entry. Noncommissioned officers must hold French citizenship, be at least 18 years of age, and pass a number of physical and written exams. The usual education level of recruits is at least a high school diploma. Commissioned officers must have successfully completed 4 years of university education, be younger than 26 years of age, and hold French citizenship. They must also pass physical and written exams. The length of training for noncommissioned officers is 9 months, and it is 24 months for commissioned officers. Women were first allowed to join the Gendarmerie in 1983. Like the National Police, the Gendarmerie also created 14,000 new Gendarme aides, who are recruited on yearly contracts renewable for up to five times. These aides assist Gendarmes in their missions. Due to their military status, Gendarmes are not allowed to unionize.

Equipment

The National Gendarmerie owns 31,000 vehicles (180 of which are armored), 43 helicopters, 34 patrol boats, and 410,000 weapons of all kinds, from handguns to mortars. In addition, more than 380 dogs (trained for avalanche retrieval, explosives, and drug detection) and 500 horses are used by its various units, which occupy 4,200 stations and barracks all over the country.

MUNICIPAL POLICE FORCES

Any municipality can create its own police force, even if already serviced by the National Police or the Gendarmerie. Municipal police officers are recruited by the mayor but must be accredited by the district attorney and the prefect. All municipal police officers must wear a uniform, and there are no ranks higher than constable (the management role is filled by the mayor). Municipal officers cannot undertake investigations, and their main responsibility is to enforce bylaws.

In 2001, there were about 15,400 municipal police officers working for 3,143 municipalities, ranging from tiny villages to large urban centers such as Paris, Marseille, or Toulouse. Sixty-two percent of these officers carried a firearm. A special authorization must be granted by the district attorney and the prefect to arm a municipal police officer. Despite these statistics, municipal forces are only maintained by a minority of municipalities (there are more than 36,000 of them in France), and most of them are only made up of a few officers. The number of municipal forces expanded significantly between the 1980s and the 1990s, with a geographical concentration in the south and around the capital. The recruitment of municipal police officers is left to the mayors, and their training varies greatly from one place to another.

POLICE MODERNIZATION

Over the past 20 years, the two police forces have undergone a number of reforms designed to improve both accountability and effectiveness.

In 2000, a National Security Ethics Commission was created. This commission is made up of seven members (elected officials, magistrates, security experts), and its jurisdiction extends over police officers, gendarmes, and private security employees. Citizens must address their complaints to senators or representatives, who screen them and transmit the relevant ones to the commission. The commission can investigate cases and make recommendations—legal reforms included—to the concerned authorities. The commission has a budget of U.S. \$520,000 (2002) and processes annually a fairly small number of cases (33 in 2002).

As is the case in many other countries, community policing initiatives have become the main mode of service delivery. Because of the centralized nature of French policing, community policing has been rolled out in phases, with pilot experiments conducted in five sites in 1999, before a general implementation in 2000. Community policing has benefited from previous reform, which saw the development of a legal

framework for the establishment of crime prevention partnerships through Local Security Contracts. There are currently more than 600 local security contracts signed between the police and various partners. However, the election of a conservative government in 2002 on a law-and-order platform brought back a more repressive form of policing based on the “zero tolerance” philosophy.

The new government also initiated a better integration of the National Police and the Gendarmerie, in order to reduce the duplication of resources. For example, coordinating taskforces have been created to bring together investigators from the police, the gendarmerie, customs, and revenue agencies in order to tackle organized crime more effectively. There are currently 28 of those taskforces, called Regional Intervention Groups (GIR), positioned all over the French territory.

France is a founding member of the European Union and, as such, participated actively in the establishment of a European police entity, Europol. Furthermore, in order to implement the Schengen accord, which grants European citizens the right to circulate freely within the Union, France also opened joint police stations on its borders with the English, Spanish, Belgian, Italian, and German police.

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☞ GEORGIA

Georgia is located in the South Caucasus on the Black Sea between Russia and Turkey, and is bordered to the east by Armenia and Azerbaijan. It has an area of 69,700 square kilometers and a population of 4.9 million people (July 2003 estimate). Georgia has a unique language and alphabet, and was one of the first regions to become Christian, in the 4th century A.D. Although principalities united in the Middle Ages to fight off encroaching Turkish and Mongolian incursions, Georgia has spent much of its history dominated by foreign powers. It was part of the United Soviet Socialist Republic (USSR) from 1921 until 1991. Eduard Shevardnadze, Georgia's long-time president, was forced from power in December 2003 following marred parliamentary elections. Georgia is geographically important as a transit link for oil and gas from the Caspian Sea to the Black Sea.

In 2000, Georgia had 11,500 police personnel (a ratio of 1 for every 424 inhabitants), of whom 8.5% were women.

EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN THE MINISTRY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS OF GEORGIA: HISTORY AND PROSPECTS

The Academy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia has a long history and tradition that

precedes its official establishment by presidential decree in October, 1994. In 1925, by the initiative of the Administrative Board of the People's Commissariat of the Internal Affairs of the Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic, a militia school was founded in Tbilisi. The school provided training of qualified leading personnel of the militia corps for the Soviet Socialist Republic of Georgia within the USSR. In 1932 the Transcaucasus Regional Committee of the Communist Party merged the militia schools in Tbilisi, Baku (Azerbaijan), and Yerevan (Armenia). The educational institution provided training of top-level personnel for the internal affairs agencies of the Caucasus Federation. The enrolled students represented citizens of all three republics. In 1935, a new department was opened at Tbilisi school to provide training for the mid-level leading personnel.

In 1937, the united militia school was disbanded, resulting independent militia schools in Baku and Yerevan. Representatives of the North Caucasian republics, territories, and regions were admitted to the Tbilisi school along with Georgian citizens. The structure of the militia school was reformed and 1-year refresher courses were started for leading personnel.

In 1940, the school was transferred to the authority of the Commissariat of Internal Affairs of the USSR. By 1947 it opened an extramural 3-year program. The first class had 60 students. Further USSR



federal-level reforms in 1949 led to the transfer of the institution to the Ministry of State Security. By that time, the school had 100 employees.

In the 1960s, the school was renamed Tbilisi Specialized High School and transferred to the Ministry of Public Order of the Georgian Soviet Socialist Republic; from 1968 to 1979, it was under the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the USSR. In 1979, the USSR Ministry of Internal Affairs created a department for higher militia education at the Tbilisi Specialized Militia High School. The language of instruction was Russian for this department. This became a Georgian institution after 1990.

After the dissolution of the Soviet Union and the independence of Georgia, events took place that influenced the activities of the Higher Militia School of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia. From 1991 to 1993, during ethnic conflicts in Abkhazia and the war for the territorial unity of Georgia, two officers and 20 students of the Higher School of the Ministry of Internal Affairs were killed. During this period, the educational process at the Higher School was actually terminated because of a number of circumstances, including:

- Permanent involvement of officers and students in international disputes or in operations necessary to maintain the public order
- Change of the language of instruction from Russian to Georgian
- Lack of instructional and methodological literature or technical equipment
- Lack of necessary finances
- Underpayment of regular staff

Many professors, candidates of sciences, and teachers left the school. Nevertheless, a core team of teachers and professors remained.

Since October 1, 1994, the Higher School has been called the Academy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Georgia. As of 2004, the total number of employees of the Academy was 323, including 156 officers, 47 privates, and 120 civilians. The annual enrollment of students in the Academy was 220, including 110 students enrolled in the extramural program of the Department of Law and the Technical Department. There are 11 departments at the Academy, in addition to extension campuses in Batumi (in the Autonomous Republic of Adzharia) and the Follow-up Training Center. A school for retraining junior- and intermediary-level leading personnel was also established.

The Academy provides training of specialists for the Internal Affairs Agencies of Georgia in the following fields:

- Lawyer/Jurisprudence
- Lawyer/Traffic Safety
- Engineer/Fire Protection

The Academy is also actively involved in other development projects and maintaining public order.

In 1999, a postgraduate training program was established at the Academy, with an enrollment of 15 police officers. Training of these students (adjuncts) on the campus of the Academy offers a long-term solution for augmenting the number of professional instructors. An increasing number of events, conferences, and seminars have been held at the Academy, involving prominent Georgian

scholars and practitioners as well as foreign specialists.

The Academy maintains contacts with a number of foreign law enforcement educational centers. Many Georgian students study at higher educational institutions in the Caucasian and Central Asian Republics (CIS) and Turkey, primarily at academies in Moscow, Kiev, Minsk, and Ankara.

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GERMANY

The Federal Republic of Germany is located in the heart of Europe, linking the west with the east, the north with the south. The most densely populated country in Europe, Germany has been flanked by nine neighboring states since the unification of the two German states in 1990. Germany covers an area of 357,022 square kilometers. For most of its history, Germany was not a unified state but a loose association of territorial states that together made up the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation. In 1871, the German Reich was founded. Now, the Federal Republic of Germany is divided into 16 federal states (*Laender*), each responsible for its own government. The states that exist today were established after 1945 but have in part retained their old ethnic traditions and characteristics as well as their historical boundaries.

Before the German unification in 1990, the Federal Republic consisted of 11 states, which were



established in the zones occupied by the Western Powers (the United States, Great Britain, and France). In the Soviet-occupied zone, at the end of World War II, five states were formed in the territory that later became the German Democratic Republic (G.D.R., or East Germany). After the first free elections on March 18, 1990, it was decided to create five new states on G.D.R. territory, very much along the lines of those that existed in the days before 1952. On October 3, 1990, the G.D.R. became part of the Federal Republic. At the same time, East Berlin was united with West Berlin.

There are some 82.6 million people living in Germany currently, and there are just under 7.3 million immigrants, which corresponds to 8.9% of the total population. At the beginning of the 1960s, many foreign workers started coming to West Germany. In recent years, integration within the European Union, the dissolution of the Eastern Bloc, and immigration from Asian and African countries have brought more people of diverse origins to the Federal Republic. Germany accepts a large number of asylum seekers and war refugees. Whereas in 1992, more than 430,000 people applied, since 1998 the annual number of asylum seekers has been under 100,000. In 2003, the figure stood at some 50,000.

THE POLICE FORCE

The first organized police forces in Germany date back to the early 19th century when some German kingdoms were influenced by Napoleon's Gendarmerie Nationale in France.

Today, there is no nationwide German police force. Law enforcement is a task (as are culture, universities, schools, and others) reserved for the 16 different states (*Laender*).

In the G.D.R. (East Germany), one central police force was established. Upon unification, this former People's Police (*Volkspolizei*) of the Democratic Republic was dissolved, and its members (after vetting for involvement with the former intelligence organization—the *Stasi*) were integrated into the police force of the so-called new states.

Each state maintains its own police force, where patrol police (uniformed) and detectives (plain-clothes) work together in the same force. Branches of the police force include the general or patrol police force, the criminal police (detectives), the emergency police force, and the water police. Their duties range from averting dangers to prosecuting crime. Generally, the uniformed patrol police force is mainly concerned with petty crime and minor offenses, whereas the criminal police deal with serious crimes and criminal offenses. This division of labor depends on the federal state: In some states, the uniformed police deal with more than 70% of all crimes; in other states, the percentage is less than 30%. In the prosecution of crime, the police are subordinate to the public prosecutor's office.

The uniformed (patrol) police primarily perform general public security functions, such as traffic problems and accidents, conflict resolution, minor crimes, and rendering assistance in different situations. Empirically, the usual task of a patrol police officer divides into 20% to 40% crimefighting (which is in fact the crime control), 20% conflict solution (disputes, family arguments), 20% helping people (drunken, helpless, elderly, etc.), and 20% to 40% traffic-related work (accidents, controlling traffic and drivers). Detectives, or the criminal investigation police, are responsible for all other, mainly severe crimes (usually starting

from robbery, serious assault, and breaking and entering).

The total number of police officers on duty (patrol police, detectives, border emergency, and water police) was about 265,000 in 2004, resulting in 1 officer per 330 inhabitants. However, if one calculates losses because of the shift system, illness, training, administrative tasks in ministries, and so forth, the actual number is approximately 1 officer available for 8,000 to 10,000 inhabitants at any given moment.

Every state maintains organizationally separate emergency police force units within its police force. These are supplied with the necessary control structures and operational equipment by the federal government. The emergency police forces are responsible for responding to exceptional circumstances including dangerous situations, in the case of natural disasters or accidents, as well as for assisting regular police duties in particular circumstances. The emergency police force (or standby police reserve) is also used as a riot police in each state. It is staffed by police recruits who are normally required to join this police force for 1 to 3 years after their initial training before they are posted to a local police force.

The Federal Border Guard (BGS) is a federal branch of the police force. Within the Federal Republic of Germany's internal security system, it handles specific policing tasks and answers to the Federal Ministry of the Interior. The tasks performed by the Federal Border Guard include patrolling the borders and railways and protecting aviation from attacks at most of the Federal Republic's major airports. Its duties related to border patrol are becoming more important with the rise of cross-border criminality on the country's eastern borders (such as smuggling of aliens, car smuggling, and drug trafficking). Since 1998, the Federal Border Guard has had extended powers to prevent illegal immigration, allowing it to check people's papers beyond a 30-kilometer zone on railway stations and at passenger airports. Furthermore, the BGS also has its own operational emergency forces. It also protects specific locations for selected constitutional bodies of the federal government and the federal ministries. Moreover, it has been

increasingly involved in international peacekeeping police missions abroad. The Federal Border Guard currently has some 38,500 members.

The German Police must investigate all crimes that come to their knowledge. The principle of legality, as stipulated by the Penal Prosecution Code (or Code of Criminal Procedure), regulates that the police are not allowed to dismiss a case; only the public prosecutor has such authority. Numbering slightly more than 5,000, the public prosecutors are for the most part concerned with criminal proceedings and the enforcement of sentences. When a person is suspected of a crime, it is their duty to lead the investigations with the assistance of the police, who are subject to the supervision and factual instruction of the public prosecutor's office. But in reality, more than 90% of all proceedings are completed by the police. Only in severe or difficult cases does the prosecutor advise the police what (or what not) to do. Following completion of investigations, the public prosecutor's office decides whether the proceedings should be terminated or prosecution instigated.

During the last part of the 20th century and the early 21st century, more than 70% of all cases brought to the prosecutor's office by the police were dismissed (the proceedings were closed by the prosecutor). More than half of all preliminary investigation proceedings against known suspects were dropped by the public prosecutor due to the lack of sufficient evidence or due to reasons of discretionary prosecution. Some 25% were passed on to the courts by means of a charge/application for penal orders. The remaining cases were settled in other ways, for example, by transferring them to another public prosecutor or by referring them for private prosecution. A conviction substantiated in a hearing before a deciding court has become the exception. The large scope for variation in assessment granted by these norms leads to considerable regional differences.

The majority of all convictions are now dealt with in written summary proceedings without trial. With a share of more than 80%, fines are by far the most frequent form of punishment. The suspended sentence of imprisonment is the second

most commonly applied sanction. Approximately 80% of those convicted were sentenced to pay a fine, approximately 14% had their sentence suspended, and approximately 6% were given an unconditional prison sentence, which normally leads to the offender being imprisoned.

The Federal Crime Agency (*Bundeskriminalamt* [BKA]) assists the federal and state units as a clearing agency for criminals and criminal actions. Federal officers' jurisdiction to investigate certain actions focuses on those inimical to the security of the state or criminal actions that transcend the confines of any given state. The responsibilities and powers of the BKA are regulated in the German Constitution and in the BKA Law. The BKA is subordinate to the Federal Ministry of the Interior and has the task of coordinating police contacts at national and international levels. It serves as the international criminal police force of the Federal Republic of Germany, which means that the BKA is responsible for investigations and searches involving a large number of cases in the field of international organized crime. All official communications between the German police and other countries are (and must be) routed through the BKA.

More than 3 million persons have file records at the *Bundeskriminalamt*. The electronic police information system at the BKA is known as INPOL. In 2004, the INPOL wanted-persons database contained approximately 892,000 arrest requests, including 667,000 expulsion orders/deportations of foreigners. An additional computer-assisted information system designed to store and retrieve data on persons and property is the Schengen Information System (SIS), which can be used for searches in the countries that are parties to the Convention Applying the Schengen Agreement (CAS). The establishment of the SIS was a significant compensatory measure following elimination of border controls at the internal borders of the CAS countries. SIRENE (Supplementary Information Request at the National Entry) is the national central office for information exchange relating to SIS searches. Within seconds, the search data can be accessed from more than 30,000 terminals located throughout the Schengen area. More than 10 million wanted notices are included in the

SIS (approximately 9.3 million property searches and 1.2 million searches for persons).

CRIME STATISTICS

Since 1997, the Police Crime Statistics Yearbooks have been published on the BKA homepage (<http://www.bka.de>). In 2003, 6,572,135 cases were recorded, with 2,355,161 offenders (23.5% of whom were non-Germans). The offense rate (number of registered cases per 100,000 inhabitants) for 2003 was 7,963. Although the number of theft cases has decreased continuously during the last years, theft still dominates the overall crime statistics with a share of about 47%. Murder (829 cases in 2003) and manslaughter (1,712 cases) are very rare crimes in Germany.

On average, approximately 50% of all crimes are solved, but the clearance rate varies substantially between individual areas of crime and regions. The clearance rate for breaking and stealing from cars is approximately 10%; for murder and manslaughter, the clearance rate is 95%.

The informational value of the Police Crime Statistics is limited by the fact that the police do not learn about all the criminal offenses that are committed. The extent to which crime goes unreported depends on the type of offense, and this can vary over the course of time in response to a variety of factors (e.g., public willingness to report offenses, the intensity of crime detection efforts). There is no nationwide or yearly victim survey in Germany, but in 2001 a First Periodical Report on Crime and Crime Control was published, where available data on victimization were compared with police and court statistics and analyzed by scientific experts.

POLICE RECRUITMENT, EDUCATION, AND TRAINING

Recruitment is organized by the state forces, which organize police schools for initial training. In some states, assessment centers are used to select qualified officers for further training and promotion, but usually the evaluation of the supervisors or senior

officers is used for further selection. Usually it is not possible to join the police force after the age of 26, and other criteria may append (minimum height, maximum weight, body mass factor, IQ tests, fitness and medical checks, etc.).

The training systems for police recruits vary from state to state. Police recruits are usually given up to 2 or more years of training, which consists of theoretical as well as practical components. The recruits gain knowledge and skills in subjects of law, intervention, psychology, political and social science, sports, and shooting. They also receive behavioral training (in the form of role playing). Recruits are paid throughout their studies. Once students successfully complete their studies, they receive the degree of Bachelor of Science in Public Administration; they are qualified for the medium level and may serve as a patrol officer or a detective.

To get to the next (second) level, 2 1/2 years of study at a Police University is required, with a diploma in public administration at the end and the rank of a Lieutenant.

Particularly qualified Police Officers may be admitted for the Command (third) level of the Police Department. These officers are appointed by means of a special selection system. The applicants must have served at least 3 years as an officer, but must not be older than 43 years. Training is divided into two parts: versatile theoretical and practical training lasting for 1 year at the Police University of the Federal State, and study for 1 year at the Central Police Command and Staff College in Münster. This Police Command and Staff College will be converted into a Police University in 2005, with an official Master's degree in police administration. After passing these studies successfully, the officer is appointed to the rank of Major and may then attain the highest police ranks in his state. To change to another state is possible but difficult and happens very seldom.

Approximately 50% of all police officers belong to the middle ranks, 45% to high ranks, and less than 5% to higher ranks.

The Bundeskriminalamt trains its own officers. Candidates receive their training during a 3-year

course of study at the Federal College of Public Administration as preparation for service. The course of studies is divided into a theoretical phase and a practical phase, each of which lasts 18 months. The BKA also provides special police training courses, advanced training in scientific and technical fields, foreign language courses and task-oriented operational training. Furthermore, the BKA provides basic and advanced training for police officers from other countries.

POLICE EQUIPMENT AND WORKING CONDITIONS

Because of the federal structure, there is no nationwide, homogenous equipment in use. This lack of standardization results in different patrol cars (from Mercedes, Audi, Volkswagen, and BMW to foreign models like Renault or Fiat) and different equipment (firearms, pepper sprays, batons, etc.) in different areas. The same is true for technology and communications. Usually modern technology is provided either by the BKA or by a central state crime agency. Radio and other communication is also varied, although there has been discussion of introducing digital radio and communication with other European police forces.

The police uniform is usually a combination of green jacket and beige trousers; although some states are adopting blue uniforms. Until the late 1990s, most police cars were green; after that many used silver vehicles with green or blue trim, to facilitate leasing contracts because silver cars are easier to sell when the police are finished with them. This is particularly true of Mercedes cars.

The police salary system is divided into three levels according to the service of the police (middle, high, and higher). Each rank has its own salary grade. The lowest rank receives a salary of approximately 2,000 euros; the highest rank goes up to 6,000 euros (2004). There are 10 salary levels. In addition, extra monthly payments are made for shift work. Whether or not an officer ascends from one rank to the next or changes from one level of service to the next depends on his or her performance and special training.

The retirement age is 60 years for all police officers (in 2004, it was planned to raise this age to 62). Early retirement is possible only in the case of illness or disability. For many officers, this results in up to more than 40 years on duty if an officer starts his career at the age of 18 years (which is or was not unusual; although with higher educational levels demanded, the average entry age is increasing to between 20 and 24 years). Part-time or fixed-time contracts are generally not possible, although part-time work is available for women for maternity reasons.

HUMAN RIGHTS, POLICE INTEGRITY, AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Amnesty International has published three reports on misconduct by police officers in Germany, the latest in January 2004. Cases of police misconduct, excessive use of force, or misuse of powers are investigated by special police departments, and each and every case must be delivered to the public prosecutor. Nevertheless, more than 90% of all cases are dropped by the prosecutor's office. Special commissions, ombudsman, or other systems that handle citizen complaints and unlawful police violence are not available in Germany.

The link between abuse of power and xenophobia is a frequent discussion topic for the German police. One theory blames the structural problems of police leadership as contributing to violent acts against foreigners or members of subcultures. In the late 1990s and early 2000s, many forces established guidelines, ethical standards, and codes of ethics, called *Leitbilder* (Guiding Principles). Whether or not these guidelines or codes really have an effect is unknown. After a university law student took a young child hostage in Frankfurt in 2003, discussion opened on whether or not special means of torture would be allowed or appropriate in such a case, or in cases of terrorist threats. Currently, the European Convention Against Torture does not allow any kind of torture—without exception.

The use of a gun by a police officer is a very rare event in Germany. Handgun usage by a police officer occurs in approximately 4,000 cases every

year. In 60 to 70 cases, the handgun is used against people, but in most cases the gun is used to shoot at dangerous or injured animals. Between 3 and 10 people are usually killed and some 30 are hurt during an average year by police guns in Germany. Between 0 and 9 German police officers are killed every year in line of duty, mostly as a result of guns fired at police officers or other weapons used. Officers killed in traffic or other accidents are not included in this figure.

Thomas Feltes

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GHANA

The Republic of Ghana, a West African country, has a population of 19.9 million people (2002) that is



comprised primarily of black African ethnic groups. Accra is the capital, and English is the official language. Ghana gained its independence in 1957. In 1960, the Ghana Police Force became the Ghana Police Service (GPS). The GPS became a self-accounting organization in 1974. In 1992, the Constitution placed the GPS under public service.

THE GHANA POLICE SERVICE

The Ghana Police Service is led by the Inspector-General of Police (IGP), who is assisted by the deputies of IGP Administration and IGP Operations, and headquartered in Accra. It operates under the jurisdiction of an eight-member Police Council.

Organization and Operations

Ghana is divided into 11 police regions (i.e., Accra, Tema, Ashanti, Eastern, Western, Central, Brong Ahafo, Volta, Northern, Upper East, and Upper West). Regional Commanders report to Commissioners of Police. Regional Operational Commanders assist the Regional Commanders. Every region, except Tema, Upper West, and Upper East, is divided into divisions headed by Divisional Commanders. Each division is divided into districts headed by District Commanders. Each district has direct control over its police stations and posts. These units are supervised by Regional Commanders:

- Motor Traffic and Transport Unit (MTTU)
- Crime Offices
- Courts and Prosecution
- Public Relation Offices
- Arms and Ammunition
- Pay Offices
- Audit Offices
- Police Training Schools (in five regions only)
- Mobile Force (in eight regions)

These police functions are divided into nine schedules, each under the command of a Commissioner of Police:

- Administration
- Operations
- Legal
- Human Resources/Training
- Services and Technical
- Criminal Investigation Department
- Welfare
- Research and Planning
- Special Duties

The Women and Juvenile Unit (WAJU) has separate facilities. WAJUs are located in Accra, Kumasi, Sunyani, Tema, Wa, Koforidua, Cape Coast, Swedru, and Takoradi. The WAJU responds to cases involving sexual assault, domestic violence, child abuse, juvenile offenses, and female perpetrators.

The Criminal Investigations Department (CID) in Accra has an elite force with a specially trained Rapid Response Squad.

Ghana's Constitution provides for protection against arbitrary arrest, detention, or exile; an individual detained shall be informed immediately, in a language that the detained person understands, of the reasons for the detention and of the right to a lawyer and to an interpreter at state expense. Police must present judicial warrants for arrest; arraignment is required within 48 hours.

Citizen complaints against police include arrests of protestors, detention without charges, prolonged pretrial detention, and beating of suspects. Although improved, the holding cells remain overcrowded. Vigilante justice against suspected criminals and suspected witches resulted in deaths and injuries; ethnic conflict occurs infrequently. Although police

checkpoints exist nationally, all citizens are free to travel the country.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

The GPS has five Police Training Schools: the National Police Training School (NPTS), Regional Police Training Schools (RPTSs), and the Police College (PC). The NPTS and the PC are located on the same compound in Accra. RPTSs are located in Kumasi, Winneba, Ho, and Koforidua.

The GPS recruits are taught practical police duties, police service instructions, professional policing, ethics, police basic skills, criminal law, criminal procedure, criminal investigation, evidence decree and report writing, English, social psychology, map reading, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs)/HIV/AIDS and first aid, body building, physical education, arms and foot drills, taekwondo, judo, swimming, driving, and musketry.

The cadet officers' course is 9 months. Major subjects include criminal law, criminal procedure, evidence, criminal investigations, practical police duties, criminology, sociology, English/general paper, psychology, map reading, health education, acts and decrees, financial administration, and musketry. Upon successful completion, the cadet officers are appointed Assistant Superintendents of Police.

Established in 1959, PC provides training for inspectors and chief inspectors. Entry into PC is based on competitive examinations open to the Inspectorate rank. Limited placements are offered to university graduates and professionals/specialists who enter after an initial undercadet program at the Police Depot and a field attachment.

The PC operates junior, intermediate, and senior command courses for deputy superintendents, superintendents, and chief superintendents. PC offers a Special Certificate Course in Public Administration and Management.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

Ghana's government allows private security to perform guard duties for banks, foreign missions, and so forth. Private security operates under the

supervision of the Police Administration. The Bureau of National Investigations (BNI) reports directly to the Executive Branch regarding cases of State security.

The GPS works with Ghana's military to decrease the rate of armed robberies in major cities.

Ghana is a member of Interpol.

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GREECE

The Hellenic Republic (Greece), situated in the southern part of the Balkan peninsula, has a population of approximately 10.6 million people (July 2003 estimates), an area of 131,940 square kilometers, a rather extended coastline, and numerous islands, the largest of which is Crete. The capital is Athens, and the official language is Greek. It is a country with a relatively homogeneous population, and during the late 1980s and early 1990s, a significant number of economic immigrants arrived in Greece; they now constitute approximately 10% of the total population.

HELLENIC POLICE

Brief History of Police

The first police bodies, Municipal Police and Gendarmerie, were organized in Greece after the country's Independence War (1821-1827) and operated until 1906, after which the Gendarmerie remained the sole police agency. In 1920, City Police was founded and operated in four major cities of the country. Gendarmerie and City Police were amalgamated in 1984 into the Hellenic Police (HP), which is now the country's sole police agency. The jurisdiction of HP extends to the whole of the



country except for ports and the sea, which are under the jurisdiction of the Coast Guard.

A specialized armed body, HP has a unique hierarchy, ranks, and organization. Its primary goal is to maintain public order, security, and civil defense while assisting Greek Armed Forces in the country's defense. The HP's force strength in 2003 was approximately 51,000, including police and civilian personnel, along with border and special guards, making a ratio of 1 police officer for every 206 citizens. Women constitute approximately 11% of the total force. They occupy positions up to the rank of Police Major General but tend to concentrate in the lower ranks.

The Hellenic Police is headed by the Chief of Police (Police Lieutenant General), who is answerable to the Minister of Public Order.

Operations and Organization

Geographically, the HP is organized into 14 General Police Directorates broadly corresponding to the administrative peripheries of the country: General Police Directorates of Attica, Thessaloniki, Eastern Macedonia and Thrace, Central Macedonia, Western Macedonia, Western Greece, Ipiros, Thessaly, Ionian Islands, Peloponnesus, Central Greece, Northern Aegean, Crete, and Southern Aegean. General Police Directorates are further divided into 54 Police

Directorates corresponding to the 52 prefectures of the country. In two of these prefectures, there are two Police Directorates. Within each of the Police Directorates are numerous Police Stations.

Operationally, various police functions can be classified as follows:

HP Headquarters Divisions

- General Policing
- Traffic
- Public Safety
- State Security
- Aliens/Immigration
- International Police Cooperation
- Police Personnel
- Civilian Personnel
- Organization and Legislation
- Public Relations
- Training
- Information System
- Finance
- Technical

HP Headquarters

Independent Security Services

- Security of the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister, and the Parliament
- Antiterrorism division
- Internal Affairs
- Forensics
- Police Academy
- Olympic Games Security
- Medical
- Police Helicopters

Police Directorates of Attica and Thessalonica Operational Services

- Violent crimes
- Property Crimes
- Juvenile Offenders
- Economic Crimes
- Vice
- Gambling
- Narcotics
- Immigration
- Organized Crime
- State Security
- Immediate Response Units

Other Operational Services

- Flying Squad
- Traffic Accidents Office
- Bomb Disposal Unit

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

Until 1994, although police recruiting followed certain rules and regulation, it was heavily influenced by government and state officials who thus maintained control over the functions and operations of policing. Currently, admission to the Police Academy (School of Police Lieutenants and School of Police Constables) depends upon the following:

- Candidates' performance at the University Entrance National Examination (same for all high school graduates applying for higher education)
- Fulfillment of specific requirements set forth by the Ministry of Public Order and the Ministry of Education

Police recruits must be high school graduates, Greek citizens, and 18 to 26 years of age. They also have to satisfy specific height and body composition requirements, as well as pass health, personality, and athletic tests. A gender quota (20% for women) was annulled in 2003, and all requirements were unified for both men and women.

Depending on scores and personal preference, approximately 100 recruits are admitted to the School of Police Lieutenants located in Athens; 1,100 recruits are admitted to the country's nine Police Constable Schools located in various towns and cities around the country. The duration of studies is five semesters for the School of Police Lieutenants and eight semesters for the School of Police Constables. During basic training, men recruits fulfill their obligation of mandatory military service. Currently, 420 recruits study in the School of Police Lieutenants, while the Police Constables School has 2,500 recruits. During their training, police recruits receive a salary and full medical insurance. After 3 years of service, any Police Constable who is younger than the age of 35 years can be promoted to Police Sergeant after passing a set of written examinations and being recommended for advancement by superior

officers. Promotions to other ranks are based either on seniority or merit and are decided by police councils of varying composition depending on the ranks of officers to be evaluated. The Chief of Police may be any serving officer with the rank of Major General or Lieutenant General; he or she is selected and appointed by the autonomous Governmental Council of Foreign Policy and National Defense. Upon appointment of the new Chief of Police, an officer with greater seniority is automatically discharged from service. The same holds true for promotions in lower ranks as well. That is, upon promotion of an officer, officers preceding him or her in seniority and not promoted to a higher rank are discharged.

High-ranking police, military, firefighting, and Coast Guard personnel, along with the top-level personnel of ministries and civil service bodies, are trained in the School of National Security in strategic and political matters of national security. The duration of study is 6 months. The school was established in 1997 and conferred its first diplomas in 1999.

The School of Postgraduate Studies and Continuing Education designs and implements continuing education programs related to all aspects of police work. The duration of studies varies from 1 to 6 months.

The HP has the following ranks:

- Police Lieutenant General
- Police Major General
- Police Brigadier
- Police Colonel
- Police Lieutenant Colonel
- Police Major
- Police Captain
- Police First Lieutenant
- Police Second Lieutenant
- Police Warrant Officer
- Police Sergeant
- Police Constable

International Cooperation

The Hellenic Police maintains international cooperation with numerous police bodies and organizations including Interpol and Europol.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

Other law enforcement and security organizations operating in the country include:

- Coast Guard, an armed military agency with jurisdiction over ports and the sea, under the authority of the Ministry of Mercantile Marine
- Custom Services, controlling illegal importing and exporting of goods, smuggling, and tax evasion
- Financial and Economic Crimes Office, a civilian state body under the Ministry of Finance, responsible for the prevention of economic crime

Almost all major Greek cities have established bodies of Municipal Police, answerable to the City Council and responsible for enforcing specific city ordinances. Several hundred unarmed security personnel are employed by private security companies to guard public and private buildings and properties.

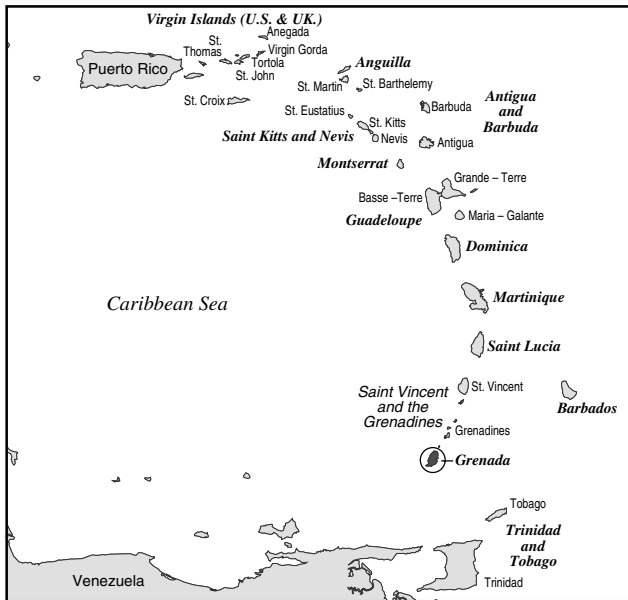
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GRENADA

Grenada is an island between the Caribbean Sea and Atlantic Ocean, north of Trinidad and Tobago, with an area of 344 square kilometers. Its population is 89,000 people (July 2003 estimate). One of the smallest independent countries in the Western



Hemisphere, after more than 200 years of British rule, Grenada became independent on February 7, 1974. Its legal system is based on English common law. As part of the Commonwealth of Nations, Grenada's head of state is the British monarch, represented by a Governor General.

ROYAL GRENADA POLICE FORCE

The Royal Grenada Police Force (RGPF) is headed by the Commissioner of Police and his deputy. The police national headquarters, located in the capital Fort George, has three main divisions each managed by assistants to the Commissioner of Police. The Operation Division controls all four regional Police Districts, the Special Service (riot) Unit, the Drug Squad, and the Traffic/Telecom Bureau. The Administration Division is responsible for the Fire Department, Training Department, Coast Guard, Immigration Department, Port Security, and Logistics/Support. The Crime Division is responsible for the Criminal Investigation Department, Criminal Records, and the Courts processes. There are 15 community-based Police Stations. The total police staff is 755, a ratio of 1 for every 118 inhabitants.

The Royal Grenada Police Force is responsible for enforcing criminal, immigration, and maritime

laws, as well as for seaport security and fire services. In 2001, the RGPF reported that total reported crime decreased 29%; clearances of total reported crime cases exceeded 73%.

The RGPF police ranks are: Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Inspector, Cadet Officer, Sergeant, Corporal, and Constable.

POLICE TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

Since 1984, police officers recruited into the force are trained in yearly classes at the Police Training School, located in Fort George. Prior to 1984, recruits were trained abroad.

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GUATEMALA

Situated in Central America between the Pacific Ocean and Caribbean Sea, and with an area of 108,890 square kilometers, the Republic of Guatemala has a population of 13.5 million people (2002), including large numbers of indigenous people.

GUATEMALAN NATIONAL CIVIL POLICE

The nation's primary police agency, the National Civil Police (PNC), was created as a condition of the 1996 Peace Accords that ended a 38-year civil war. The PNC is an armed, national, service-oriented, civilian police organization. It replaced the former National Police, the Treasury Police, and a large number of paramilitary and civil defense organizations that, along with Guatemalan armed



forces, had been implicated in extensive human rights violations, murders, and disappearances.

An intensive PNC recruitment, training, and organizational initiative began in 1997 under the direction of the Spanish Guardia Civil. Approximately 40% of the new force came from the pre-1996 police agencies. The PNC became operational in 1999 with an authorized strength of 22,050, 1 police officer per 612 citizens. As of 2002, the reported strength was 18,300.

The head of the PNC, the Director General of Police, is appointed by the President of the Republic and is responsible to the Minister of Government. There is no independent inspector general or similar institution to receive and investigate complaints of police misconduct.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

Applicants for the PNC must be Guatemalan citizens, a minimum of 18 years of age, and have a high school education. Women make up 10% of the force and indigenous peoples account for 14% (2002). Efforts to recruit additional indigenous police officers are underway.

The Police Academy, an element of the PNC, recruits and trains all new officers. Instructional staff includes police officials, lawyers, and academics. With the assistance of donor nations, the curriculum and the quality of instruction have been substantially

improved. United Nations representatives conduct human rights training. The United States provides technical assistance and training in criminal investigation and drug enforcement. The European Union, through Great Britain, provides management training for senior ranks.

The PNC Academy and Divisional Operational Support Sections have invested heavily in new technology to improve the collection and analysis of crime statistics and operational data. A new computerized information system tracks criminal complaints, provides case management and crime analysis, and links the Criminal Investigation Department (SIC), Public Prosecution Ministry, and the judiciary.

The PNC maintains nine ranks (see Table 1).

Table 1 Ranks of the PNC

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Numbers</i>
Commissioner General	26
Commissioner	86
Subcommissioner	224
Officer Grade 1	363
Officer Grade 2	385
Officer Grade 3	853
Inspector	1648
Subinspector	3065
Agent	15400

Promotions come from within the ranks with the exception of university graduates, who can enter directly at Officer Grade 3 through the civil service system.

Organization and Operations

The PNC, modeled on the Spanish Guardia Civil, operates six police districts, each commanded by a Commissioner General (see Table 2).

Table 2 PNC Districts

<i>District</i>	<i>Headquarters</i>
No. 1 Central	Guatemala City
No. 2 South	Escuintla
No. 3 East	Zacapa
No. 4 North	Izabal
No. 5 West	Quetzaltenango
No. 6 Northwest	Chimaltenango

The SIC, with 939 officers and a 750-member transit police, is decentralized and distributed throughout operational districts. A Special Operations Force of 1,086 officers addresses public order problems and supports anticrime operations. The Antinarcotics Operations Department (DOAN), with 891 officers, is the nation's primary antinarcotics enforcement unit. PNC duties extend to environmental enforcement, border control, and dignitary protection. Other specialized units include:

- Air Corps
- Office of Professional Responsibility
- Human Rights
- Explosives Deactivation Section
- Maritime Service
- Canine Section
- Personnel
- Support Services

Both the implementation of the PNC and Guatemala's full return to civil authority have been hampered by an escalating crime rate, continuing government corruption, substantial international drug activity, budgetary limitations, and a high turnover of police personnel. Frequent and substantial changes in the national government, the Minister of Government, and the Director General of the PNC have contributed to the problem. Continuing mistrust of the government and the criminal justice system, particularly among indigenous communities, has resulted in mob violence directed at criminal suspects and at PNC officers and facilities.

Common crime is a major problem and threatens national stability. The homicide rate is estimated at 23 per 100,000 (2002) with less than 5% of the cases closed by arrest. Gang activity, kidnappings, and violent robberies of passengers on public transport systems plague most cities. Guatemala, the preferred country for the shipment of cocaine and heroin to the United States, suffers from growing street-level drug use, drug-related official corruption, money laundering, and the theft of public funds by state officials.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

While the role of the military in public order and law enforcement officially ended in 1996 as a condition of the Peace Accords, the Army continues to augment PNC operations in an effort to control the nation's escalating crime rate. The secretive *Estado Mayor Presidencial* (EMP), a combined presidential guard and domestic military intelligence unit long associated with human rights violations and extrajudicial killings, still operates in violation of the Peace Accords.

Immigration and customs services have separate enforcement agencies.

Each of the nation's major cities operates a limited jurisdiction municipal police agency under the authority of the mayor's office, headed by a Director of Police. Municipal police officials provide traffic control in urban areas and preventive patrol of municipal property such as public buildings, city center streets, bus stations, parks, and markets. Their authority is limited to the enforcement of local ordinances and nonfelony offenses.

The DOAN, with considerable technical and financial support from the United States, operates a Central American Regional Counternarcotics Training School.

Guatemala has a burgeoning armed and unarmed private security industry licensed and monitored by the PNC Office of Private Security.

Guatemala is a member of Interpol.

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H

✎ HAITI

Haiti occupies one third of the island of Hispaniola, between the Caribbean Sea and the North Atlantic Ocean. It has a population of approximately 7.5 million people (July 2003 estimate). Following a slave revolt at the beginning of the 19th century, it was the first black republic to declare its independence in 1804. Since that time, it has been plagued by violence and ruled primarily by dictatorships. In 1990, Jean-Bertrand Aristide was democratically elected president, but overthrown in a military coup. He was eventually returned to office through U.N.-sanctioned international intervention in 1994. In 1995, President Aristide disbanded the military forces and founded the Haitian National Police (*Police Nationale d’Haiti* [HNP]) as Haiti’s sole security force. According to the Haitian Embassy in the United States, as of February 2003 there were only 4,000 members of this police force (a ratio of 1 police officer for every 1,875 inhabitants); aid organizations and donor governments indicate this number may be inflated.

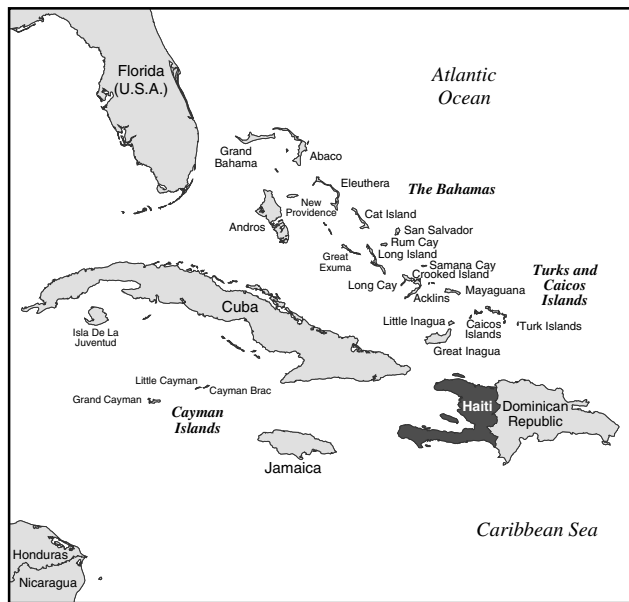
Assistance to Haiti was cut after elections in 2000 were marred by irregularities. Wracked by poverty and violent crime, Haiti has also become a haven for drug traffickers and money laundering. In a 2001 speech, President Aristide called upon citizens to take matters into their own hands rather

than rely on the criminal justice system, a “zero tolerance” policy that many critics cite as leading to trends of mob justice as well as police abuse of authority. The HNP are frequently themselves implicated in political violence and human rights violations. Numerous high ranking police officials resigned in 2002 and 2003 citing dissatisfaction with political interference and corruption. These included successive Director Generals of the police and, in December 2003, the director of the police academy. The ranks of the police, peaking at 6,500 in 1998 following U.S. training, subsequently suffered significant attrition, partly because of the dismissal of as many as 1,100 officers for misconduct. In early 2004, allegations of corruption and dissatisfaction with the rule of President Aristide led to violent demonstrations and the seizure of territory by armed opposition groups.

HAITIAN NATIONAL POLICE

International Assistance in Establishing the Police Force

The United Nations maintained successive missions in Haiti from 1993 until 2001; from 1994, all had a component dedicated to support law enforcement, including Civilian Police (CivPol) missions. Other significant donors to the HNP



included international assistance from the United States through the Department of Justice's International Criminal Investigative Assistance Training Program (ICITAP), and from a bilateral Canadian program run by the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. The total assistance to the HNP from 1994 to 1997, including the cost of international police monitors, well exceeded U.S. \$100 million; the United States alone contributed U.S. \$70 million to the development of the police force between 1994 and 2001.

The CivPol's mission was to provide training and guidance to the HNP and to instill the principles of community policing. The U.S. ICITAP assistance consisted of two phases. The first focused on recruitment, training, and deployment of the new police force and ended in 1996. Phase two was a 5-year plan to support the institutional development of the police, providing specialized training as well as equipment and other resources. During that period, ICITAP supported the development of specialized capabilities in education, professionalism, and accountability.

Structure and Organization

The HNP falls within the authority of the Ministry of Justice. It is led by a Director General,

who also controls the judicial police, the Coast Guard, the prison system, and the Inspector General. The Inspector General reports to the Director General and directly to the Minister of Justice, and is responsible for internal investigations and accountability.

The administrative police comprise the bulk of the HNP's forces, conducting patrols and securing crime scenes. Because of the personnel shortage, officers work 12-hour days, 6 days a week. Many who serve in rural areas live away from their families.

The judicial police, charged with much of the investigation of crimes, had 135 officers in 2000, with only basic training on investigative techniques. Within this division, an antinarcotics unit consisted of 28 persons. Other specialized units include a crowd control unit (*Compagnie d'Intervention et Maintien d'Ordre* [CIMO]), the forensics unit, the operations center, the special investigations unit, and the special weapons and tactics unit (*Groupe d'Intervention de la Police Nationale d'Haïti* [GIPNH]). The Palace and Presidential Guard, formally under the Ministry of Justice, is reported to operationally function directly under the president's command.

The U.S.-trained Coast Guard, based in Port-au-Prince, has three vessels, and in 2000 had approximately 76 members.

Training

According to a 2000 assessment, police officers attend a 6-month training course at the U. S.-built police academy. Follow-up training occurs only if officers are assigned to a specialized unit. Most police officers do not get regular qualification training in firearms use, and thus many are unable to use or properly maintain their firearms. Commanders and supervisors receive little supervisory training.

WHAT WENT WRONG?

When the HNP was formed, there was great optimism for a democratic police force that, as its mission demanded, would protect citizens and ensure

respect for their freedom, life, and property. Interest in joining the force was high. This optimism immediately turned to distrust when the new force controversially incorporated members of the former security forces. Opportunities to overcome this distrust were quashed as the first several years of the police force's existence was marked by numerous scandals of corruption and cases of abuse. Poor working conditions and popular disdain are factors contributing to the HNP's attrition and low recruitment. Given Haiti's high illiteracy and poverty rates, the HNP is not competitive with other employment opportunities for Haiti's educated classes.

Factors contributing to the police force's decline include mistakes from the very inception of the force. When the force was established, the only Haitians with relevant experience had been members of the previous security forces; to avoid controversy, many such vacancies were filled instead with inexperienced political appointees. Although the U.S.-established police academy provided extensive training for new recruits, this often meant they had more training than their superiors, leading to disrespect for authority and a lack of discipline. These problems were perpetuated by a continued failure to promote and appoint individuals on the basis of merit, the failure to provide necessary human and physical resources for an effective police force, the failure to support investigations of serious crimes, and the politicization of the police.

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HISTORY OF POLICE

POLICE IN THE ANCIENT WORLD

There exist few historical records establishing the earliest police, but one can surmise that early policing existed around the idea of communal survival. In these earliest communities, control of various members to maintain some element of safety within the community ensured the survival of all. Protection and social control were usually the responsibility of the eldest or strongest males in the tribe. Rudimentary forms of ensuring compliance included sanctions such as expulsion from the group, ostracizing, or some other form of social exclusion. Within these cultures, there was no organized force mandated to provide social control of the community. Acts considered contrary to the group were dealt with accordingly.

The earliest record of an organized police system is the one instituted by King Hammurabi of Babylon. The Code of Hammurabi was the first known system of rules and regulations of conduct for subjects. Punishments for violations included fines and both corporal and capital punishment carried out by a force appointed by the King.

POLICE IN ANCIENT GREECE

Maintaining social order in the early Greek civilization was based primarily on tribal kinship affiliations. It was the responsibility of citizens to arrest and punish offenders. As the civilization matured, traditional norms were codified into a system of laws that were enforced by an expanded kin system. Although all the city-states in Ancient Greece developed police systems, those developed in Athens and

Sparta are the best known. In Athens, the first police were created by Peisistratus to maintain order, after a successful coup in 546 B.C.E. This police force consisted of slaves that served as guards in the city and on the area roads. Arrested offenders were brought before magistrates, who were unpaid. In Sparta, a different type of police system was created. This force consisted of young men mandated to coercively control the slave population. Subsequent expansion into Egypt by Alexander the Great introduced Greek policing to the Egyptian region in order to maintain order and to protect against invaders.

POLICE IN ANCIENT ROME

Before the development of a recognized police force, and similar to the system used in early Athens, Roman citizens maintained order and meted out punishment after adjudication by a magistrate. Subsequent expansion of the empire required a system of policing to replace military occupation. Augustus Caesar, leader of the Roman Empire from 27 B.C.E. to 14 C.E., created two special units to fulfill this function. The first, called the Praetorian Guard and selected from only the most qualified members of the military, was mandated to protect the emperor and his family. The second unit, called the Urban Cohort, was tasked with maintaining order within the community.

The Urban Cohort was organized according to a precinct system headed by a prefect. Their main function was to protect the patricians, the Roman upper class, from the plebeians, the Roman lower class and slaves. The Urban Cohorts were supplemented by night watchmen, called Vigiles, considered the first, organized, civil police force. Their task was to serve as a fire watch and as law enforcement in the community. Lawbreakers were brought to the Prefect who usually passed judgment on them. Punishment was summarily swift, with no chance for appeal.

The subsequent maturation of justice within Roman society saw the development of the magistrate, versed in the law, to judge law violations. Known as Praetors, they replaced the summary judgment meted out by the Praetorian Guard and Urban Cohort. To provide proper justice, the magistrate

was assisted by the Quaestore. This person assisted the Praetor in investigations and arresting law violators.

POLICE IN ENGLAND (MIDDLE AGES)

With the fall of the Roman Empire, a new system of policing was developed based on localized control. Feudal lords maintained complete control over the peasants and serfs on their lands. With the creation of the manor system by King Charlemagne (742-814 C.E.), local lords were mandated to maintain public order on their lands. Public order at this local level was based primarily on a watch system. This involved volunteers that patrolled urban areas during the nighttime to protect against lawbreakers. Social control of the underclass became the focus of these watch groups.

Prior to the Norman Invasion of 1066, the tithing system was the principal means of maintaining order in England. The tithing system required all males over the age of 12 years to join a tithing, mutually responsible to each other for defense and to neighboring tithing for assistance. A tithing consisted of 10 to 12 men and their families. The kinship connection ensured social order and compliance. Any restitution was shared by all members of the tithing.

Subsequent to the Norman Conquest of England in 1066, a frankpledge system was instituted. Under this system, a hierarchical system of tithing leadership was created. At the lowest level, an appointed constable supervised 10 tithings, also known as a "hundred." It was his responsibility to mobilize the tithing under his supervision for any security or social control needs. Ten "hundreds" were organized into a "shire", led by a "shire-reeve." Twice a year, the shire-reeves traveled around the country to ensure that all eligible males were incorporated into their respective tithing. The shire-reeve was also responsible for collecting fees from each tithing.

When England was organized according to parishes and wards, the Statute of Winchester of 1285 provided for a watch system to assist the parish constable in providing night security, empowered everyone in the parish to assist in enforcing the laws, and mandated all eligible males to maintain a firearm in their home.

POLICE IN ENGLAND (EIGHTEENTH CENTURY)

As a consequence of increasing population, the existing system was left lacking. Constables became corrupt and neglected their duties. Increasing calls for reform led to the formation of the Bow Street Runners in 1748, to combat the increasing street crime in London.

Led by Henry and John Fielding, this uniformed force provided full-time foot patrol in the inner city and patrol on horseback in outlying areas. In addition, a detective-type unit was formed to investigate the large number of thefts from commercial establishments in the city.

Subsequent commercial crime on the docks along the Thames River led to merchants organizing their own private police force to protect their interests. By 1800, London took over this responsibility with the Thames River Act of 1800. This Act established the Thames River Police, which paralleled the mandate of the Bow Street Runners to prevent commercial crime.

With the rapid expansion caused by the Industrial Revolution and the concomitant crime rate in the urban centers, there was public clamor to address social problems. In 1829, Sir Robert Peel introduced legislation to the British Parliament outlining his solution to the burgeoning crime problem in London. His model of a police force would serve as the standard for modern policing in Britain and America.

In his legislation, Peel outlined a police force with a specific mandate to prevent crime and disorder and remain accountable to the public. The force was to be organized along military lines to ensure accountability and stability, both within the organization and to the government. Police officers were to maintain a professional demeanor and appearance. The importance of proper selection and training was recognized as significant to a professional force.

During this time, police officers were assigned to certain areas of the neighborhood according to a community beat system. By being responsible for crime prevention in a specific area, the officers developed a certain rapport with community residents, further establishing their professionalism.

Other duties included a fire watch, maintaining street lamps, and calling out the time.

Despite the apparent successes of the London Metropolitan Police Force, expansion to rural areas would not occur until the Municipal Operations Act of 1835 directed all boroughs to set up police forces monitored by civilian watch committees. In 1856, the police were further organized and implemented in the provinces.

POLICE IN FRANCE

During the Middle Ages and continuing to the fall of the monarchy, policing in France was organized around the monarch. Special units of the military were tasked with protecting the monarch and family members. Subsequent developments included an expansion and specialization of police duties to include order maintenance and disorder control. New magistrate positions were created to adjudicate the growing numbers of arrested citizens.

With the collapse of the monarchy in 1789, Napoleon established a new police force. This force was structured along hierarchical lines to increase accountability to the Emperor. A minister and the prefects controlled the various police elements, which included distinct military and civil elements. Paris received its own police force. There were numerous reserve elements created to assist the established forces in maintaining order.

POLICE IN AMERICA

The development of the police in the United States paralleled that which was evolving in England, in roughly the same order of progression. Possibly the first attempt at organized policing was established by the Dutch in New Amsterdam, where Peter Stuyvesant instituted the "rattle patrol" in the middle of the 17th century. Subsequently, throughout the original 13 colonies, constabular systems were established throughout settled areas along the same order as the system in England. In the southern colonies, slave patrols were organized to maintain submission among the large numbers of African slaves that

in many instances outnumbered their European masters. The settlers in any given area were called upon to donate their time and services on a rotating basis in order to maintain these formations as an effective deterrent to insurrection among the slaves. Another of their functions was to apprehend those that had attempted to abscond with their freedom.

Urban policing was first developed in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia. In New York City, policing was centralized and organized along a military rank structure following the Draft Riots of 1863. This drive to reorganize the police arose from similar concerns in London following class-based riots there in the late 1830s. In New York, as in London 30 years previously, the public was appalled at the carnage caused when military units employing military tactics were employed to suppress civil unrest. In both instances the police were poorly equipped and trained and incapable of effective intervention. The London Metropolitan Police were the example for the New York force in organizational structure. From 1860 to 1880, Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago, and Cincinnati also developed organized police forces along the London model.

Unfortunately, a variety of circumstances engendered an atmosphere within American policing throughout the 19th century that fostered a great deal of corruption. Political entanglements and ethnic conflict interfered with the avowed missions of peacekeeping, social welfare, and crime suppression. At several junctures, there were efforts at reform on either a local or regional scale. However, meaningful reform came only as a result of the findings of the Wickersham Committee in 1932. This congressional inquiry, formally known as the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, focused on the corruption and inept performance that had once again come to the fore in public discourse. Primarily based on the recommendations of August Vollmer, an academic that had also served as Police Chief in Los Angeles for a time, the Wickersham report called for fundamental changes in the structure and practice of American policing. The goal was a uniform degree of professionalism through the implementation of advanced technology, enhanced educational and

training standards, and a national database of criminal history and identification records. Vollmer's recommendations yielded the establishment of the Uniform Crime Reporting system, and the widespread and enduring presence of the Civil Service network that governs the hiring, ethical standards, and disciplinary process in policing. Policing in contemporary America has integrated many innovative strategies and practices, but the basic structure and organizational process continue to owe much to the recommendations that date to the 1930s.

Further change in American policing was again prompted by an unexpected, though serendipitous, circumstance that involved major crises within policing occurring at the same time as significant social upheaval. During the 1960s, civil disorder on a large scale precipitated both self-reflection within policing as well as congressional hearings into the root causes of disorder. Possible remedial strategies were suggested in the work of several prominent social scientists, which was funded as part of the Great Society programs in the mid-1960s. James Q. Wilson, Herman Goldstein, Wesley Skogan, and George L. Kelling suggested that an enhanced level of education and training within the ranks of police forces, if combined with efforts to reach out to the community and repersonalize policing through a decreased reliance on technology, would enable the police to achieve a significant reduction in crime rates. These strategies underwent several stages of transformation from their inception in the late 1970s as "Team Policing" to what has become known in the present day as "Community Policing." The sharp drop-off in crime rates throughout the 1990s, which has continued up to the present, is often attributed to the adoption of these strategies. Along with order-maintenance schemes, community policing continues to play the predominant role in contemporary American policing.

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HONDURAS

The Republic of Honduras, with an estimated population of 6.8 million people, is the second largest country in Central America. The official language is Spanish, although various indigenous groups such as the Garifunas and the Chorti coexist with descendants of European immigrants. Honduras's economic base is rooted in the agricultural sector; coffee and bananas are the most important exports. In 1998, Hurricane Mitch killed over 5,000 people and severely devastated the country's economy.

POLICING IN HONDURAS

Historical Background

Law enforcement in Honduras is dominated by a militaristic approach that has historically been



intrinsic to the maintenance of order. From the mid-20th century, the Honduran army gained political and economic power with aid and training from the United States. Previously, the army had been involved in security operations in rural areas. Its presence at the local village level was strongly felt by peasants, from whom the army drew most of its personnel.

The government of Tiburcio Carías Andino (1933-1949) relied heavily on the United States to make the army more professional. Among the many measures conceived to expand the army's mission was the creation of the Military Aviation School in 1934, run by the United States until the end of the Second World War. In addition, young Honduran officers were trained at the U.S. Army School of the Americas (SOA). These changes eventually led to the formation of a powerful military institution. From the 1960s to the 1980s, the army consolidated its autonomy from civilian authority. The army came to dominate all aspects of state and society, and law enforcement agencies became increasingly militarized. The national police, or Civil Guard, was integrated into the national defense system and under a Supreme Council of the Armed Forces (CONSUFA) in 1975.

Democratic elections were held in the early 1980s, following decades of military coups. This era

also saw the mobilization of leftist guerrilla groups, and although counterinsurgency operations did not escalate to the levels found in countries like Guatemala, the military committed gross human rights violations.

With the return to democracy, poverty and unemployment contributed to a dramatic rise in common crime. Honduras is one of the poorest countries of the Western Hemisphere with a GDP of \$17 billion (2001 estimate). More than 60% of all households live in poverty; in the rural areas, the rate of poverty was 73.8% for the period 1992-2002. Young people between the ages of 15 and 29 years show high rates of unemployment (67%).

Centralized Policing

The Civil Guard was Honduras's first centralized police force, formed in 1957. Its civilian control was viewed as a threat after a 1963 coup, and the Civil Guard was disbanded and replaced by the Special Security Corps, a part of the military. Its jurisdiction was nationwide, and it was charged with border security and investigating criminal activities. In the early 1970s, the Special Security Corps was replaced by the Public Security Force (FUSEP), which remained under the auspices of the military and was charged with investigating criminal cases and keeping public order. In 1985, the United States awarded FUSEP U.S. \$2.8 million in aid (mainly in training, riot-control gear, vehicles, communication equipment, and weapons). FUSEP also received training and aid from the U. S. Department of Justice and the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Diplomatic Security. Despite this assistance, criminal investigations are poorly resourced and rarely produce convincing evidence, fostering a climate of distrust toward the criminal justice system.

Impunity for FUSEP officers allegedly accused of human rights violations against student, trade union, and peasant leaders during the 1980s follows a common trend that runs through law enforcement agencies throughout the region. Although constitutional changes were introduced by President Carlos Roberto Reina (1994-1998), who transferred the police to civilian control with the creation of a

new Public Ministry, the legacy of military control remains even today.

Penitentiary System

Overall, the Honduran prison system is characterized by overpopulation, food deficiencies, corruption, and the lack of rehabilitative programs for its estimated 12,000 prisoners. The sluggishness of court proceedings and sloppy criminal investigations might explain why 90% of those incarcerated are awaiting sentencing, according to the Human Rights Ombudsman. The worst case of fatal unrest in the history of Honduras took place on April 5, 2003, when more than 60 inmates were killed inside La Ceiba penitentiary. Official accounts blame internal disputes among members of the infamous Mara 18 gang, who allegedly shot and killed a correctional officer. Nongovernmental organizations, on the other hand, challenge the official version and claim a massacre, accusing state police and prison guards of stabbing, killing, and setting fire to most victims. The Catholic Church accused the government of employing violence against a fast-growing number of youth gang members.

Zero-Tolerance Policies

Under current (as of 2004) president Ricardo Maduro, violence has escalated. Maduro has implemented zero-tolerance policies to counteract this trend. This has meant the employment of a higher number of police corps and the detention of more alleged suspects of common crime and drug trafficking. Youth gangs and indigenous groups have been particularly targeted by the cleansing operations of the security forces.

HUMAN RIGHTS ABUSES AGAINST INDIGENOUS PEOPLE BY SECURITY FORCES

The arbitrariness of the judiciary system is best illustrated by the relationship between indigenous minorities and security forces. Historically, Honduras's government has employed repressive policies

against peasant or indigenous organizations claiming land ownership. Indigenous populations are overrepresented in the penal system, a result of the political incarceration of union and indigenous leaders and a lack of access to professional legal representation as well as translation of criminal proceedings into local languages. According to Amnesty International, over the last decade police officers, death squads, and the military have been involved in the killings of indigenous leaders.

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☪ HUNGARY

Hungary is a landlocked country of 93,030 square kilometers and a population of approximately 10 million people (July, 2003 estimates) located in Central Europe. The country has a strong history as an established European power. As part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, it held sway over much of Europe until the empire's collapse during World War I. Communist rule after World War II was threatened by a violent revolt seeking Hungary's withdrawal from the Warsaw Pact in 1956, but



Moscow intervened and exerted control until reforms in the late 1980s. Hungary held its first democratic elections in 1990, at which time it initiated a free market economy. It joined NATO in 1999 and the European Union (EU) in May 2004.

HUNGARIAN NATIONAL POLICE

The police was established by the Constitution; however, the first legal act governing the activities of the police was passed in the 1994 (Police Act XXXIV). Previously, the police had been regulated by statute and regulation not available to the public. The goal of the 1994 act was to depoliticize the police, harmonize it with European standards and requirements for the rule of law, increase its efficiency, and create a legal basis for police operation and control.

In 1999, there were 26,628 sworn police officers, a ratio of 1 for every 375 inhabitants. Women comprised 11% of the force; expectations that the number of women in the force will increase is demonstrated by female enrollment at the Hungarian Police College, which approaches 50%.

Operations

The Hungarian police is strongly hierarchical and militaristic; rank structure parallels that of the

army. The Ministry of the Interior is responsible only for normative matters. Operational control of the police is directed by a Commissioner of Police, who is the head of the National Police Headquarters. The Commissioner is appointed (and dismissed) by the Prime Minister at the proposal of the Ministry of the Interior and after a hearing of the relevant parliamentary committee.

At the top of the hierarchy is the National Police Headquarters (ORFK). Nineteen county police headquarters and the Budapest capital headquarters (with the same authority as a county) report directly to it. Local police stations fall under the districts; in 2002 there were 153 local headquarters and 265 local police stations.

The main divisions of the police are criminal, public order protection, traffic administration, and person and object protection. In addition, there are specialized services for counterterrorism, airport security, demolition experts, special forces, on-duty service, and special transportation. Other departments include finance, information technology, personnel, and administration.

Recruitment, Training, and Advancement

Hungarian police are trained in a two-tier system of vocational schools and the Hungarian Police Officer College. The vocational schools accept recruits with a secondary school education. Candidates must be at least 18 years of age and pass aptitude, psychological, physical, and medical tests. They are accepted into the force following a passing grade on an exam at the end of their 2-year course of study. The Police College program, which trains officers, consists of 3 years of full-time study (part-time courses are also available). Entry requirements are similar, although the entrance examinations are more specialized. Inservice training is intermittent and has only recently included management and leadership practices.

Hungary participates in a wide range of internationally organized training programs.

Traditionally, promotion within the Hungarian police was a factor of seniority. Recently, the police have responded to recommendations that merit-based

and promotion tests be introduced as a standard for advancement. Likewise, only police officers who graduated from the Police College are eligible to become officers; thus, those in the lower ranks reach a glass ceiling in their careers after which advancement is not possible.

EFFECT OF TRANSITION FROM COMMUNISM ON POLICE

The changes in Hungary after the end of communism dramatically affected the police. In 1990, responsibility for state security was transferred from the Ministry of the Interior to the Prime Minister's office with the intention of removing all shadows of political influence from the police. The role of police was changed from protecting the state to protecting the people, although this distinction is yet to translate into popular expectations from and attitudes toward the police. However, prestige declined and salaries remained at the national average. Increased rates of retirement changed the rank-to-file ratio. Although institutional reform has been discussed, there have been few changes to the basic structure of the force.

Reluctance toward reform is partially explained by the lack of security. The transition to democracy also brought dramatically increased crime rates and a sense of personal insecurity. These factors led to a sense of nostalgia for the "old days" when crime was virtually unknown and the perception was that it was the authoritarian, hierarchical, and militaristic police force that was able to control crime.

POLICE CORRUPTION AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Hungary, like other former communist countries, has struggled to achieve integrity in all its public institutions, not just the police. Under communism, although equality was declared, it was widely accepted that bribes and other forms of refined corruption were the cost of getting things done.

While documenting the extent of corruption is difficult, surveys into attitudes toward misconduct

reveal continued widespread tolerance of the practice. Research has shown that senior police officers rarely intervene when confronted with incidents and fail to punish offenders with more than a written reprimand except in the most serious offenses.

One explanation for the perpetuation of misconduct is the militaristic structure of the force, which emphasizes command and obedience. The police act specifies that “a police officer must not refuse his or her supervisor’s command, even if it violates the law” unless the command forces the officer to commit a crime (Act XXXIV of 1994, Section 12). Such an environment leaves little room for those willing to break rank and report or take action on misconduct; maintaining the system is more important than ethics.

Lack of rigorous response is not the only factor feeding misconduct, however. Under communism, the structure and operations of the police were marked by deliberate secrecy. Maintaining a line of separation between the police and the public allowed for societal control. However, the legacy of this culture of secrecy and division has persisted,

and a lack of transparency, understanding, and a sense of “ownership” of the police is one reason that the public remains complacent about cases of misconduct and corruption.

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I

☪ ICELAND

Iceland is an island located in the North Atlantic Sea northwest of the United Kingdom. It has an area of 103,000 square kilometers and a population of 281,000 (July 2003 estimate). It was settled in the 10th century by Norwegian and Celtic settlers. After several centuries of independence it became ruled by Norway, then Denmark. Denmark granted Iceland limited autonomy in 1874, and it became completely independent in 1944. More than 90% of the population live in urban areas, and more than 60% live in the capital, Reykjavik.

THE ICELANDIC POLICE

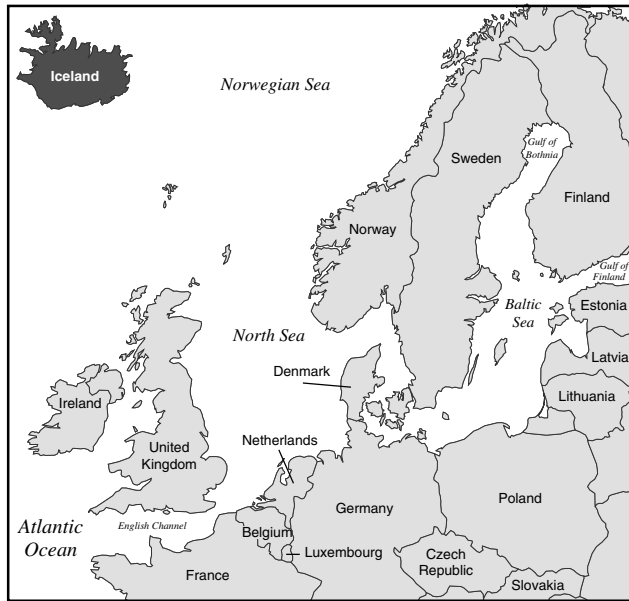
Policing in Iceland can be traced back to 13th-century sheriffs, appointed by the crown to enforce the law. Their role became defined by the 15th century, at which point the responsibilities of a sheriff included attending parliamentary sessions, collecting fines, and arresting thieves and violent criminals and detaining them until their cases were heard. They also monitored trade, prevented illegal private enterprise, monitored the passage of foreign ships, and investigated legal cases by finding and questioning witnesses. They had no employees, but they could mobilize citizens to assist them in their duties.

The first official police force was established in Reykjavík by Denmark in 1803. Policing evolved as a matter of local authority, and, although the state increasingly played a role in financing and supporting the police, it only became nationalized in 1972, when the National Police force was created. In 1978 the role of the Reykjavík criminal police was expanded, and the State Criminal Investigation Police was formed. This was incorporated into the national force under a National Police Commissioner in 1997. The Icelandic Police is now similar in structure to other Scandinavian police forces.

The Icelandic Police has an authorized force strength of 693 (a ratio of 1 for every 405 inhabitants). In 1997 women comprised 4% of the force.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Minister of Justice has civilian authority over the Icelandic police. The police is directed by the National Commissioner of Police. The Commissioner has authority over the Police College and 25 police districts. The Commissioner also coordinates closely with the Keflavík Airport Police, who fall under the authority of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The National Commissioner, Deputy National Commissioner, regional commissioners, and the Deputy Commissioner in Reykjavík are appointed by the Minister of Justice.



At police headquarters, under the Commissioner, there are departments for Police Telecommunications, Computing, Traffic, Alcohol Monitoring, and the Special Task Force, as well as a vehicle fleet for all the district units. The Traffic Department coordinates traffic surveillance and control nationwide. The Special Task Force is an elite unit trained for dangerous interventions, hostage negotiations, and riot control.

Criminal investigation of serious crime is generally carried out by specialized units at the headquarters level, although some major urban areas also have investigative units. The Director of Public Prosecutions oversees and monitors all police investigations.

The 25 police districts correspond to administrative divisions in the country. Each is headed by a police commissioner. Police officers are assigned and appointed to a particular district, but have nationwide jurisdiction and may be assigned to other districts when need arises. The Reykjavík district is the largest and has its own commissioner. It has specialized units including a Drug Squad, other specialized investigation departments, a Forensic Department, a Prevention and Education Department, a Traffic Department, and a General Department.

Links to the community and preventative policing is a priority for all Icelandic police, through

outreach to and communication with the community, particularly youth. In Reykjavík, special community policemen are responsible for monitoring crime patterns and general affairs of a community and take part in the work of local resident associations, investigate cases involving minors, and assist the police investigation department as liaisons to the community involved.

There are two forensic departments, one in Reykjavík and the other at the National Headquarters. There is a special economic crime investigation unit at the headquarters level.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Police officers are recruited from the graduates of the Police College. For admission to the Police College, applicants must be Icelandic citizens between the ages of 20 and 35 years, meet mental and physical health requirements, have finished 2 years of schooling past the compulsory level, and have no criminal record. Entrance examinations include knowledge of the Icelandic language and physical tests.

The program involves a 3-year curriculum. For the first year, study is unpaid but may be covered by a general Icelandic student loan fund. Subjects include law, police skills, Icelandic, psychology, ethics, and other specialized subjects. Teaching is based on practical examples and role playing. Practical on-the-job training occurs between school terms. Third-year students can augment the police force if needed as auxiliaries.

Further training is available at the Police College in specialized subjects. The Police College also conducts research and advises the government on the development of official policy.

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INDIA

India has a population of 1,065,070,607 people (2004 estimate) living in an area of 3,287,263 square kilometers—that is approximately 2.42% of the total world area and 16% of the world's population (the second most populous country). The society consists of people from multiethnic backgrounds, including Indo-Aryan (72%); Dravidian and aboriginal descendants such as the Bhils, Gonds, and Santals (25%); and Mongoloid (3%). According to the 2001 census, the many religions practiced in India include Hindu (82%), Muslim (12%), Christian (2%), Sikh (2%), Buddhism (1%), and Jains (0.5%). India also has Zoroastrians (or Parsis), many of whom represent the business community.

The country extends from the snow-covered Himalayas in the north to the tropical rain forests in the south. It is bounded by the Arabian Sea in the west and the Bay of Bengal in the east. India borders Pakistan and Afghanistan in the northwest; Nepal, Bhutan, and China to the north; and Bangladesh and Myanmar (formerly Burma) in the east. To the south, India is separated from Sri Lanka by the Palk Strait and the Gulf of Mannar. Its 28 states reside in four terrain-defined regions—the great mountain zone, the Indo-Gangetic Plain, the desert region, and the southern peninsula.

New Delhi is the capital (a creation of the British during colonial rule); and the most populous cities are Bombay (12.6 million residents), Calcutta (11.02 million), Delhi (8.42 million), and Madras (5.42 million).

India's history begins approximately 5,000 years ago with the ancient civilization of Mohenjodaro and Harappa in the Indus Valley. This civilization was composed of Dravidians, who are credited with creating a fairly complex urban society. Around 1500 B.C. the Aryan tribes invaded India from



the northwest and created the characteristic Indian culture. Arab invasions commenced in the 8th century, followed by the Turks in the 12th century. Europeans arrived as traders in the late 15th century, and Britain took political control in the 19th century. India finally gained independence from British colonialism through nonviolent resistance, led by Mahatma Gandhi, in 1947.

INDIAN POLICE

Modern Indian policing commenced in 1843 after Charles Napier conquered Sindh. He adapted the Irish Constabulary Model of policing to the Indian context and designed a civilian police force. Prior to this period, policing was either conducted on military lines or was an ancillary function of revenue collection. Policing followed a military model during the Hindu and Muslim periods.

Hindu Period

A clearer picture of the policing system emerges from the *Arthashastra* (Manual of Statecraft) of Kautilya (350–275 B.C.). Regarding law and order in the state, the *Arthashastra* provided that it was the duty of the king to use his executive authority to prevent violence. The *Arthashastra* mentions the *nagaraka*, who functioned as the Chief of the

City Police. Nagarakas performed police functions and controlled the city with the aid of *gopas*, who were responsible for the respective wards of the city and were required to keep a close check on the movements and avocations of the citizens (*Arthashastra*, 1:iv).

During the Hindu period there were four main organized responses by society to crime:

1. Communal responsibility
2. Village watchmen system
3. Espionage system
4. Harsh penalties

According to Megasthenes, Greek ambassador to the court of Emperor Chandragupta Maurya, the maintenance of law and order was very high, but it depended on the severity with which the criminals were treated. Mutilation was a common type of punishment, and the death penalty was given even for such minor crimes as tax evasion, injuring a sacred tree, or intrusion on a royal procession going for a hunt. An elaborate system of spies reported on all matters to the king.

The general administrative system revolved around the collection of revenue. The Collector General was the chief executive officer of the state and was responsible for the collection of revenue as well as all other departments of administration. Three division commissioners functioned under the collectors. The *nagarikas* (later called *kotwals*) were responsible for the cities. The *nagarakas* were required to have the masters of houses report the arrival and departure of strangers or be personally responsible for any thefts. The overall maintenance of law and order, the administration of jails, inspection of defenses of the city, and the custody of lost property were the tasks of the *nagarakas*. They were also responsible for enforcing regulations to prevent fires so that every householder was required to maintain firefighting equipment. The other officials carrying out police duties were the Superintendent of Liquor, the Superintendent of Passports, the Superintendent of Gambling, and the Superintendent of Commerce.

The village organization was less elaborate with much of the responsibility being on the village

community. The administrative organization was set up with *stanikas* (commissioners), who were in charge of divisions, and a *gopa*, who was responsible for a group of villages. These officers were remunerated from grants of land. Under the *gopas* were the *chaukidars* (village watchmen). The system was based on continual vigilance.

Portuguese traveler Fernao Nunez, who visited the Hindu kingdom of Vijaynagar, reported that the kingdom was divided into provinces, and a captain was personally responsible for law and order in each province. An aggrieved person had the right to petition the king also.

Muslim Period

According to the Muslim chroniclers, the *kotwals* performed most of the policing duties; this office was identical to that of the *sahabi shurtah* of the caliphate. During the Sultanate period, the local inhabitants and an elite civil force patrolled the streets and guarded the city, with assistance from the *kotwal*.

The *kotwal* functioned as a magistrate and administered the rural areas also. Sometimes the *kotwal* also had the task of a military commander of a fort. The *muhtasib* performed most of the normal policing functions and was also a censor of public morals with a small civil force under his command. He was expected to both control illegal activities and maintain a high code of conduct of public behavior. The *muhtasib* was essentially an executive officer with a complex set of duties. Unlike the *muhtasib*, the *qazi* was a purely judicial officer who had the task of interpreting and administering the sacred law.

A unique feature during the Sultanate period was that a single person simultaneously held the offices of the *kotwal* and *muhtasib*. The *amir-i-dad* controlled the offices of *muhtasib* and *kotwal* and was the most important official during the period. He functioned as the Inspector General of Police, Chief Engineer of Public Works, and Inspector of Public Morals. In the cities the *muhtasib* delegated his duties to the *kotwal*. The duties of the *kotwal* required him to be ever vigilant. Regular police forces and spies were employed. The force that was under his command was a purely civil one.

Village communities conducted their affairs through *panchayats* (village councils), and these were fairly autonomous units. According to the Muslim chroniclers and foreign travelers, kotwals performed the same tasks as a police commissioner in the big cities and normally had three main tasks: watch and ward duties of a city, control of vice (prostitution and alcohol), and regulation of public gatherings.

In order to accomplish these tasks, the kotwal was assisted by a regular staff of night watchmen and a band of informers to keep abreast of all developments. The kotwal was subordinate to the qazi, who dealt with the sacred law and was the judicial representative of the emperor.

According to the *akbarnama*, the *faujdar* was responsible for the territorial divisions and for external defense as well as action against rebels. In criminal cases, there was joint responsibility between the qazi and the *mir adl*. The qazi was responsible for conducting the investigation, and the mir adl carried out the findings. Besides the *faujders* and the kotwals, the mughals also employed an elaborate network of spies (*khufia navis*) who corresponded directly with the Imperial Court.

Colonial Period

After annexing Sindh, Napier decided to implement the recommendations of Frederick Halliday to improve the efficiency of the police. Modeled on the Royal Irish Constabulary, this new system was a separate and self-contained police organization under which the officers only had to perform the police duties. The system developed by Napier had its basis on two main principles:

1. The police should be completely separated from the military.
2. The police should be an independent body to assist the collectors in matters dealing with law and order, but they should have their own officers.

The main principle here was that the military forces and the civil police should be kept quite separate. This was a novel idea to solve the problem, but it gradually came to be followed throughout India in phases.

Upon visiting Sindh in 1847, Sir George Clerk was very impressed by the efficiency of the Sindh police. He decided to organize the Bombay police on the model that Napier implemented. In 1853 a Superintendent of Police was appointed for each district in Bombay.

In 1860 a police commission was set up to look into the workings of the police. The commission submitted its recommendations through a series of reports. Its first report (which was submitted on September 8, 1860) was an interim report and Draft Bill of the Police Act. The Bill was accepted with few modifications and was eventually enacted as the Police Act (V) of 1861. The police commission of 1860 established the following principles of police organization: Military police were to be eliminated and policing was to be entrusted to a civil constabulary. Civil police were to have their own separate administrative establishment headed by an inspector general in each province. Each inspector general was responsible to the provincial government, as the superintendent was to the civilian collector, and the superintendent was to supervise the village police.

The terms of reference for the Commission can be gleaned from a dispatch by Charles Wood, Secretary of State for India, to the Governor General. Some of the main provisions examined were:

- Special emphasis was laid on the predominance of civil elements for the proposed well-organized police force.
- The entire police force was to be put under the control of an officer who was in direct communication with the local government.
- Adequate measures were to be taken to improve the village watch, which was to be placed under the control of a magistrate.
- In order to create a good police system, a fair pay scale was to be ensured to all ranks of the police.

The government concurred with the commission that the police organization in India should be placed under the exclusive control, superintendence, and responsibility of English officers only. The recommendations of the Commission helped in abolishing the archaic police system and succeeded in ushering in a uniform system of policing under a unified command and established hierarchy

throughout British India. The Inspector General of Police was to have overall control over the police in the provinces and was to be assisted by the District Superintendent of Police in the districts. The District Superintendent in turn was assisted by a number of Assistant District Superintendents. These positions were meant for the English officers only; Indians could not be appointed to these positions. The subordinate police ranks were categorized as Inspectors, Head Constables, and Constables. Indians could only be appointed to these subordinate police ranks. With respect to the village police, the Commission recommended that they should be continued as an institution.

From an objective perspective, the police in the real sense of the term originated in India from the period when the East India Company got political control of eastern India in 1765 C.E. The English authorities carried out a series of experiments over a span of 100 years in order to settle upon the present structure of police. The model of policing that evolved was one that had a definite structure, a robust command and control system, and an established structure.

Period After Independence

The Police Act of 1861 established the main principles for the organization of the police forces in India. This organization has continued to the present with minor modifications. Though state police forces are separate and show some minor differences in detail, their patterns of organization and operation are very similar.

An Inspector General of Police, who is answerable to the Home Minister of the state, heads police forces in each state. For command and coordination purposes, the domain of an Inspector General is divided into police ranges. A Deputy Inspector General, who in turn is responsible for three to six districts, heads each range. The Superintendent of Police is in charge of the district police headquarters and constitutes the fulcrum of the state police operations. District Superintendents of Police have much discretionary authority and are responsible for supervising subordinate police stations along with

many specialty elements, including the criminal investigation detachment, equipment storehouses/armories, and traffic police. The larger districts also have Assistant District Superintendents. Constables, who are assigned to the police stations, conduct much of the preventive police work. The number of stations in a district can range from fewer than 10 to more than 50 in some cases. Stations are grouped into subdivisions and circles to facilitate supervision from district headquarters. Major metropolitan cities like New Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, and Hyderabad have separate municipal forces that are headed by a Commissioner of Police.

Police Structure

The Indian police system has three main features. The first feature is that the police forces are organized, maintained, and directed by the states of the Indian Union. The federal government has some police agencies under its authority, like the Central Bureau of Investigation (CBI). There is diversity of operational control along with remarkable organizational similarity. India has avoided fragmentation of police under a system of local control, like the United States with its 40,000 separate forces and the rigidity of a national police force controlled by a central government.

The second feature of India's police structure is horizontal stratification. The Indian police are horizontally stratified. They are organized into cadres based upon rank. The principle of horizontal stratification goes beyond the organization of ranks. It accounts for relations between the federal and state governments with respect to police administration and the distribution of police powers among the ranks. The officer cadre, known as the Indian Police Force (IPS), is recruited, organized, trained, and disciplined according to national legislation. Police power and authority differ with rank. This is different from the constable of Great Britain, who has all the authority any policeman can have. Horizontal stratification is reflected in rank structure, relations between levels of government regarding police personnel, and the distribution of legal authority among policemen.

The third feature is vertical division. The police force in each state is divided vertically into armed and unarmed branches. This is a functional division.

The unarmed police are in charge of the police stations; they also conduct investigations, answer routine complaints, perform traffic duties, and patrol the streets. They are normally armed with a bamboo staff sometimes tipped with iron (*lathi*). States that have armed police contingents use them as a reserve strike force in emergencies. The armed police are recruited and trained separately from the unarmed police. There are two types of armed police: district armed police and special armed police. The district armed police consist of armed police quartered in each district headquarters under the control of the District Superintendent. The special armed police are under the immediate command of the Inspector-General of police through a Deputy Inspector General and are concentrated at a couple of points in the state. They may have heavier armor than the district armed police and are often used for special kinds of enforcement actions.

At all levels, the senior police officers are answerable to the police chain of command along with the general direction and control of designated civilian officials. In the municipal forces the chain of command runs directly up to the state Home Minister. The dual hierarchy of accountability to civilian and police authorities has been the source of much confusion and disagreement. Though participation by political authorities can be regarded as a symbol of democracy and a safeguard for police accountability, it can also be problematic because police have complained about the political interference in police affairs. There are frequent charges that political parties have increasingly tried to influence the police activities for their personal/partisan ends.

Responsibility for policing is shared by the federal (central) and state governments. The federal government elements include the IPS, various paramilitary units, and police in the Union Territories. In 1980 the state police forces were estimated to number approximately 765,000. These included regular as well as paramilitary forces.

In the 1970s new paramilitary forces were created under central government control to safeguard border and industrial security. As a result, state police forces suffered declines in morale and effectiveness.

THE CONSTITUTION

The responsibility for maintaining law and order rests on the states. The states have exclusive power to control and regulate the police under schedule 7, list II, item 2 of the Constitution of India. Most of the routine policing such as prevention/detection of crime, apprehension of criminals, and maintenance of public order is carried out by state police forces. The Constitution permits the federal government to participate in police operations and organization by authorizing the maintenance of the IPS. IPS officers are recruited and trained by the federal government. Most of these recruits are assigned to senior positions in the state police forces, but they are under the operational control of the states.

The constitution also permits the federal government to have other forces that are necessary to safeguard national security. As such, paramilitary forces are legally created to assist the states only upon request of the state governments.

During the 1970s and 1980s, the police came under increasing public scrutiny because of their inability to deal with crime and public disorder. As an institution, the police were considered to be ineffective, corrupt, and unruly. This was a perennial problem with the Indian Police. A report of 1902 by the Police Commission surmised that the public did not have much confidence in the police. The public also considered the police to be corrupt and oppressive.

The Federal Ministry of Home Affairs is in charge of law enforcement at the national level. It provides assistance and guidance to state governments to perform similar functions. The Ministry deals with all matters related to maintenance of public peace and order, staffing, and administration of public services, delineation of boundaries, and administration of Union Territories.

IPS officers occupy most of the senior positions within all state and territorial police services. They

are also deputed to national agencies that have responsibility for police and security matters. The Union Public Service Commission (UPSC), through competitive examinations on a nationwide basis, recruits officers of the IPS.

POLICE SELECTION AND RECRUITMENT

According to the All India Services Act of 1951, 50% of the direct recruits of all of India's services must be from outside the state in the interests of unity and integrity of the country.

The UPSC conducts annual competitive exams all over the country for positions that are announced by the central government. Exams for the IPS, as well as other civil service jobs through the Indian Administrative Service and Indian Foreign Service, are conducted in two stages. A preliminary exam weeds out more than a million aspirants; those who pass take a final examination, where three candidates compete for every available job. Approximately 800 candidates are appointed to all the services every year.

The educational attainments of Indian police officers are higher than those of their counterparts in the United States and Britain. All IPS officers must have university degrees. To qualify for entry to IPS, a candidate must be between 20 and 24 years old, a citizen of India, and a graduate from an approved university. The candidate must also be in good physical health with no apparent mental/physical defects. Upon completion of the basic course given to members of All India Services, IPS officers attend the National Police Academy. Upon completion of work at the Academy, they are assigned to the state police forces where they usually remain for the rest of their career.

Police in the Union Territories are the responsibility of the Police Division, which also runs the National Police Academy, Hyderabad, and the Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science. The Central Bureau of Investigation investigates crimes that involve public officials and public undertakings.

The Ministry of Home Affairs also controls the paramilitary forces. The Central Reserve Police

(CRP), which was established by the British in 1939, is one of the largest paramilitary forces. The CRP was established to help the military deal with the independence movement. Following independence it was given the task of assisting the state police and the army. The CRP is used to quell internal disturbances. They are called in when disorder escalates beyond the control of the local police. The CRP had a major role in assisting the army to check insurgency in the northeast. It is also used to protect the security of the Ministry of Defense and other federal government institutions.

BORDER SECURITY FORCE

The Border Security Force (BSF) was created to release the army from doing all the routine patrol duties on the border with Pakistan. It was organized by consolidating the state border units and had the additional responsibility of controlling smuggling, resisting infiltration, and assisting the army. It is also used for internal policing. The BSF under the Ministry of Home Affairs, GOI, came into existence on December 1, 1965. The Border Security Force Act of 1968 came into operation on March 1, 1969. Duties of the BSF personnel are mostly to prevent unauthorized entry and infiltration and to maintain security and territorial integrity and peace and tranquility. Generally police and BSF personnel have to enforce the law under several statutory laws such as the Criminal Procedure Code, the Customs Act of 1962, the Foreigners Act of 1946, and the Passport Act of 1962.

The BSF is equipped with more advanced and sophisticated weapons than the other paramilitary forces. It has its own training facilities and has a factory at Tekanpur that produces tear gas and smoke grenades for all the police and paramilitary forces.

POLICE SPECIALIZATION

The major duties of the police are handled by the state police. Along with these, there are auxiliary police units that assist the regular police in certain circumstances. These are of three categories:

1. Railway Police
2. Rural Police
3. Volunteer Police

The Railway Police consists of two forces, the Railway Police and the Railway Protection Force (RPF). The Railway Police is a special branch of the state police that commenced functioning in 1867. Since then it has developed with the growth of the railway network. Control of this force lies with one or more of the Deputy Inspectors-General of Police. This force has the task of preventing and investigating crime that is committed on the railways or within railway property. The RPF is a separate, independent police agency that is controlled and financed by the Railway Administration and is under the command of the Ministry of Railways, GOI. It is responsible for guarding and protecting railway property along with property that is entrusted to the railways. The Railway Protection Force Act of 1947 authorized this force, but it did not come into effect until 1957.

The Rural (or Village) Police are watchmen who are responsible for patrolling the community at night and informing the nearby police authority of criminal acts, suspicious activity, or public unrest. They may also be employed to perform simple and routine administrative tasks such as keeping a register of births and deaths, or helping to collect land revenue. Rural Police are known by many different names—*chowkidar* and *patel* are the most common. They are under a system of dual control, the collector and the *panchayat*, and are paid partially by the state and partially by the local community, through the *panchayat*. The district police supervise their activities.

There are many volunteer police organizations, but the most important are the Home Guards and the Village Volunteer Forces (also called Village Resistance Groups or Village Defense Parties). The Home Guards are members of the public who hold permanent employment outside the police establishment and are subject to mobilization by state governments in local emergencies such as serious riots, floods, or unusual festivals. They are trained for auxiliary police work and are the nucleus of emergency aid units.

The Village Volunteer Forces are small groups of men who are locally recruited and instructed in the elements of village defense. They are allowed to wear distinctive badges, are trained in drill, and are encouraged to take on some responsibility for the security of the immediate area where they reside. These groups have done very useful work in areas of heavy *dacoit* (Indian gang) activity.

Other smaller paramilitary forces that are maintained are:

- The Assam Rifles, which were established in 1866 as a frontier defense force for the northeast. It is one of the oldest of the paramilitary forces and has its headquarters in Shillong. Since independence, its main task has been to suppress uprisings among tribal people in the northeast.
- In 1962 the Indo-Tibetan Border Force was created to provide border security in the mountainous regions of the northern borders. It is mainly a mountaineering force.
- The Central Industrial Security Force, which was set up in 1979, provides security for public sector enterprises and some government installations.
- National Security Guards was established in 1984 as a paramilitary force. Members were used for internal security duties and antiterrorism.

1. Inspector General of Police (#).
2. Deputy Inspector General of Police (#).
3. District Superintendent of Police (#).
4. Assistant Superintendent of Police (#).
5. Deputy Superintendent of Police (*).
6. Inspector (*).
7. Sub-Inspector (*).
8. Assistant Sub-Inspector (*).
9. Head Constable (*).
10. Constable (*).

Figure 1 Organizational Structure of Indian Police

Posts 1 through 4 are reserved for members of the Indian Police Service (also called Gazetted Officers).

Posts 5 through 10 consist of non-Gazetted Officers who can be appointed by the state government.

There can be some overlap between posts 4 and 5.

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✎ INDONESIA

Indonesia is the world's largest archipelago, comprising 17,000 islands over 1,919,440 square kilometers between the Indian and North Pacific Oceans (although only 1,000 of them are permanently settled). Its population is estimated at 235 million (July 2003). It was a Dutch colony that was occupied by the Japanese during World War II. After the war, a strong independence movement finally succeeded in gaining independence from the Netherlands in 1949. Indonesia was hurt by the economic downturn that impacted much of Asia in the late 1990s. This recession and the resulting high unemployment and popular dissatisfaction contributed to the downfall of President Suharto's regime, a leader who had violently taken control of government in 1965 and ruled for more than 30 years. Suharto's policies emphasized a "New Order" of economic rehabilitation and development. The end of the Suharto regime in 1998 paved the way for broad reforms, particularly of the emphasis on the military, which had been a dominant characteristic of the "New Order." However, crime rates continued to soar in most major crime areas. As the



reformed security forces proved unable to manage growing law and order problems, public trust in these institutions waned.

In addition to general law and order problems, Indonesia is fighting separatist movements in Aceh, Papua, and other islands; it also struggles to quell violent homegrown as well as foreign fundamentalist Islamic movements and has been the target of terrorist attacks. Other criminal issues include the smuggling of national resources, trafficking of human beings, and narcotics.

INDONESIAN NATIONAL POLICE

The Indonesian National Police (Polisi Republik Indonesia, known as POLRI), from the 1960s until 1998 was a branch of the Armed Forces, reporting to the Ministry of Defense. By the end of Suharto's regime, the police were considered symbolic of his rule: brutal, corrupt, and incompetent. Police reform, with an emphasis on the introduction of community policing, has been a major feature of the post-Suharto agenda. In 1999, POLRI was separated from the Indonesian armed forces, but the military remain deployed in territories and there is occasionally tension over authority between the two forces. The police do not have jurisdiction over

members of the military. Police reform has been a popular target for international development. Major donors include the United States, Japan, and Australia.

The strength of the national police force in 2002 was approximately 285,000 (a ratio of 1 officer for every 825 inhabitants). Police have announced an ultimate goal of a ratio of 1 officer to 400 inhabitants and recruitment targets of 350,000 officers. In 2001, women comprised 3% of the force, usually performing specialist or office duty, although there were some female commanders at the subdistrict level.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The Chief of Police, the highest ranking uniformed police officer in the nation, heads the police, assisted by a Deputy Police Chief.

Although part of Indonesia's post-Suharto reform included a broad plan of decentralization, POLRI remains an institution with a strong central hierarchy. It reportedly has not changed much since the 1990s, when 17 Regional Commands (Polda) reported to the territorial headquarters. The Poldas were further subdivided at the district, subdistrict, and village levels. The capital, Jakarta, was its own district with subdivisions into precincts, sections, and police posts.

Operationally, the police is divided into departments for intelligence and security (Intel-Pam), criminal investigation (Reserse), patrol (Samapta), traffic (Lantas), and community guidance (Bimmas). These units are reinforced by air, marine, a paramilitary unit (Brimob), and technical support services.

One of the biggest subdivisions is Brimob (Indonesian Police Mobil Brigade, or Brigade Mobil), a paramilitary unit that acts as an elite emergency squad for situations requiring large numbers under a cohesive command, such as crowd and riot control. In 2002, it was reported as having 30,000 members, stationed in Jakarta, Medan, and Macassar. In the Suharto era it gained a reputation for brutality and human rights violations, particularly in East Timor and Aceh, where it was deployed to respond to violent separatism. It also is responsible

for counterterrorism, response to armed robbery, and bomb disposal through its Explosive Ordnance Devices Unit.

An elite American-trained antiterrorist squad, Task Force 88, was initiated at the end of 2003, consisting of investigators, explosives experts, and snipers, all armed with high-end American weaponry. Although only 24 members graduated in the first class to pass through the 6-week program at the state-of-the-art academy, the force has announced a goal of recruiting and training 400 members by 2005. Many members were recruited from the Brimob forces.

OTHER OFFICIAL LAW ENFORCEMENT STRUCTURES

There are unarmed municipal police forces (*polisi pamongpradja*) in Jakarta and some other larger cities to enforce local laws (such as eliminating street vendors or carrying out evictions), which call on the POLRI for backup.

Civil defense forces (*Hansip*, a general term covering many different forces) are volunteer forces mobilized for disaster relief, during domestic or internal conflict, and when extra security is needed for events such as elections or major sporting events. They are allocated to the military or police as needed, although in practice many have been kept on the books longer than necessary as a form of relief from widespread unemployment.

In addition, private security in Indonesia is centralized (SATPAM), providing services and protection for governmental and private property. These forces are employed by the organization seeking security services, but are supervised, trained, and regulated by the police to prevent competition between private companies that itself had threatened security before the system was instituted.

LOCAL SOLUTIONS: CIVILIAN AUXILIARIES

POLRI's inadequate numbers mean that police must rely on other solutions to address Indonesia's significant law and order problems. Partly encouraged

by the concepts of community policing and decentralization, many forces have incorporated civilian auxiliaries on a local level. The use of civilian auxiliaries had long been traditional under military rule, but after the end of the New Order the premise was that partnership with existing security forces would increase local trust in the community. For example, on Bali, the traditional ritual guards (*pecalang*) partnered with the police to monitor migrant activity and enforce local administrative laws, and served as a protection force for only the ruling political party. On Lombok, private militias (*pam swakarsa*), originally established as quasi bounty hunters, were hired in the post-Suharto era to protect traditional religious and political leaders. While their role had always been linked to crime-fighting, the rivalries of the religious and political factions manifested in conflicts between the different militias that were often violent. The International Crisis Group, which analyzed the situation on these two islands, concluded in 2003 that lack of training and accountability meant that such forces were particularly susceptible to authorizing vigilantism and discrimination, and ultimately could undermine the rule of law.

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

One aspect of policing that has taken into account the decentralization of the force is the recruitment of police to serve in their home areas, although officers above the rank of lieutenant may not have a choice over where they are deployed. Requirements for applicants include a sixth-grade education, a passing grade on a competitive entrance examination, physical fitness, and good moral character.

As of the 1990s, police officers with secondary-school degrees could apply for officer training after 3 years of service in the police. Specialized training on specialized technical subjects was available to all police, not only officers. Management and logistics training was available to staff at command units. However, some of the most significant foreign assistance to the Indonesian police since 1998 has focused on police training. The police academy

has modernized its curriculum, and further training on democratic policing and management have been offered to senior leadership. To increase the numbers of serving police officers offered courses in democratic policing, many development programs focus on “training the trainers,” particularly to be able to make inroads at a regional level as the police force decentralizes.

Indonesia is a member of Interpol. In another example of international cooperation, POLRI has established police liaison offices in countries (particularly neighboring countries) where there is an interest in closer information exchange.

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INTERNATIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE MECHANISMS (STATE PARTICIPATION IN INVESTIGATIONS AND PROSECUTIONS)

Trials for war crimes have a long history, dating back to and probably before the time of the ancient Greeks. Some trials considered to be international in character are traced back to the 15th and 17th centuries. The International Military Tribunals (IMTs) formed after World War II, ad hoc tribunals, hybrid courts, and the International Criminal Court (ICC) are four categories of institutions that have been involved in the administration of international criminal justice and have made significant contributions at various stages of their evolution.

Since IMTs began, there has been marked evolution of the framework for the role of states in investigations and prosecutions, characterized by a remarkable increase in the role of states. In the IMTs, the victorious states played a primary and leading role in the processes. While the ad hoc tribunals exercise independent jurisdictions, they require the cooperation and assistance of states. States have a direct and partial involvement in the hybrid courts. Now, the prominence of the complementarity principle in the jurisdiction of the ICC accords more involvement of states not merely in providing judicial assistance but by themselves conducting investigations and prosecutions for international “crimes.”

STATE PARTICIPATION: OVERVIEW

Investigations and prosecutions, as essential components of the criminal justice process, presuppose the existence of frameworks and institutions for their execution. In national jurisdictions, the police, prosecutorial, judicial, and related services exist as departments of the state, each with defined responsibilities in the criminal justice process.

Their functions are included in the programs of the state and as such they draw clout and support from the sovereignty of the state.

The framework at the international level is quite different. The two ad hoc international criminal tribunals (the International Criminal Tribunal for ex-Yugoslavia [ICTY] and the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda [ICTR]) and the ICC are two categories of institutions that are in the course of making landmark contributions to the evolution of international criminal justice. The ad hoc tribunals are currently approaching completion of their mandates, and the ICC has just started to operate.

THE INTERNATIONAL MILITARY TRIBUNALS

International Military Tribunals were established by agreement of the four allies that were victorious at the end of the Second World War—the United Kingdom, France, the United States, and the Soviet Union—for the trial of military officers and others accused of war crimes. Part III of the Charter of IMT outlines the framework for investigations and prosecutions. It required each signatory to the Charter to appoint a Chief Prosecutor. Together, the Chief Prosecutors appointed by the four allies constituted a Committee with specific responsibilities toward enhancing the process. Article 15 of the Charter enjoined the Chief Prosecutors individually and in collaboration with one another to undertake duties of investigation, collection of evidence, and other such matters necessary for the preparation and conduct of trials. Under these circumstances, the involvement of the Chief Prosecutors led to effective participation of the governments of the four allies in conducting the trials and essentially providing the necessary enforcement support on the basis of the Charter of IMT. The preamble to the Charter states that the governments of the four allies were acting in the interests of the United Nations.

The Ad Hoc Tribunals

The ICTY and ICTR are next in creation and type. Both ad hoc tribunals were created by resolution of the United Nations (UN) Security Council acting under

Chapter VII of the United Nations Charter, as a response to situations of gross violations of international humanitarian law that occurred in the two regions. By virtue of the tribunals' creation under Chapter VII powers of the Charter, UN member states are bound to comply with the requests and decisions of the ad hoc tribunals. The ad hoc tribunals do not have territorial sovereignty, and thus they have no means of their own for enforcement; as a result they rely on international cooperation to successfully carry out their mandates. Article 29 of the ICTY Statute and Article 28 of the ICTR Statute are identical provisions, requiring states to provide cooperation and judicial assistance in the identification and location of persons, the taking of testimony and production of evidence, the service of documents, the arrest or detention of persons, the surrender or transfer of the accused to the ad hoc tribunals, and any other related matters. Noncompliance or even noncollaboration that may be reported by the ad hoc tribunals to the UN Security Council renders the defaulting state subject to UN Security Council sanctions.

While the duty outlined above is placed upon states to cooperate with and give assistance to the ad hoc tribunals, two jurisdictional aspects further define the relationship between states and the ad hoc tribunals. Article 9 of the ICTY Statute and identical Article 8 of the ICTR Statute provide in paragraph 1 that the respective tribunal and national courts shall have concurrent jurisdiction to prosecute persons for the crimes at issue. However, paragraph 2 of both statutes confers upon the ad hoc tribunals primacy over national courts. The ad hoc tribunals base requests for judicial cooperation and assistance in investigation and prosecution upon a state's duty to cooperate and to provide assistance to the tribunals. States are bound to execute the request as presented by the tribunals. It is apparent that states have no ability to challenge the basis or premise on which the request is made. This position is an important difference between the framework for the ad hoc tribunals and the hybrid courts and the ICC.

Hybrid Courts

The unique characteristic of hybrid courts is the combination of international and national staff and

also of the applicable substantive and procedural law. Hybrid courts have so far been created in East Timor, Kosovo, Sierra Leone, and most recently in Cambodia. Generally they were established to investigate and prosecute persons accused of serious violations of international humanitarian law and human rights law and as a measure of reestablishing the rule of law in the affected countries. The integrated application of national law and the involvement of national officials links the investigation and prosecution capacity of the hybrid courts to the resources and framework of the state. This represents a significant difference from the frameworks of the ad hoc tribunals as seen above and of the ICC.

The International Criminal Court

The idea of a permanent international criminal court is traced to the 1860s, when it was proposed by one of the founders of the Red Cross movement. While during the intervening period some conventions were enacted codifying the laws of war, the early drafts of a statute for an international criminal court were first prepared after World War II. However, those initiatives were stalled because of political tensions associated with the cold war. Ultimately, the ICC was established on July 17, 1998, when 120 states participating in the UN Diplomatic Conference of Plenipotentiaries on the Establishment of an International Criminal Court in Rome, Italy, adopted its Statute.

The ICC is the first permanent international criminal court created for investigation and prosecution of persons who are alleged to have committed international crimes. The jurisdictional relationship between ICC and national justice systems is founded on the so-called *complementarity principle*. Under the principle, national courts take precedence over the ICC in dealing with violations of international humanitarian law, cases becoming admissible to the ICC only in circumstances in which the state is genuinely unwilling or unable to carry out investigations or prosecutions.

There are three mechanisms by which cases may be commenced in the ICC. First, under Article 15 of the ICC Statute, the prosecutor may initiate investigations

proprio motu on the basis of information received by the Office of the Prosecutor. Secondly, under Article 14, a state party to the Rome Statute may make a referral to the prosecutor of a situation in which one or more crimes falling under the jurisdiction of the Court appear to have been committed and request the prosecutor to investigate the situation. Finally, under Article 13(b) the UN Security Council, acting under Chapter VII powers, may refer to the prosecutor situations in which one or more crimes appear to have been committed. Under Article 19(2)(b) and (c), it is possible for a state to challenge admissibility of a case to the ICC. When that happens, Article 19(7) requires the Prosecutor to suspend the investigation until the Court makes a determination on the challenge to admissibility. This characteristic is unique to the ICC and represents an empowerment of national jurisdictions over international crimes. This evidently complex arrangement potentially determines the relationship between ICC and states in dealing with particular cases.

As noted above, the ICC has a similar characteristic to the ad hoc tribunals in having no territorial sovereignty. Therefore investigations must be conducted on the territories of concerned sovereign states. The involvement or consent of the state obviously facilitates the process. On the other hand, the process is complicated if there is no agreement by the state on whose territory the investigation or prosecution-related process is to be conducted. While the ad hoc tribunals have a direct opportunity to report noncompliance by a state to the UN Security Council, for the ICC there is a requirement for the Court to make a finding of noncompliance before the matter can be referred to the Assembly of States Parties (ASP). It is not clear what the ASP will do with the matter referred to it. The difficulty in dealing with noncompliance is compounded if the defaulting state is not a state party to the Rome Statute. If the state defaults with respect to a matter referred to the ICC by the UN Security Council, then noncompliance will be referred to the Security Council.

Any views expressed in this article are personal and do not represent the position of the Office of the Prosecutor.

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INTERNATIONAL POLICE ASSOCIATION

The International Police Association (IPA), with more than 300,000 members in 58 countries, is the largest independent police organization in the world. It was founded by British police Sergeant Arthur Troop (1914–2000), on January 1, 1950. Its motto, in Esperanto, is “Servo per Amikeco” (Service Through Friendship).

IPA is an independent body made up of members of the police service, both those on active duty and retired, and without distinction as to rank, sex, race, color, language, or religion. Its purpose is to create bonds of friendship and to promote international cooperation. The Association is committed to the principles set out in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as adopted by the United Nations in 1948. The aims of the IPA include developing cultural relationships among its members, broadening their general knowledge, and exchanging professional experiences. In addition, it seeks to foster mutual help in the social sphere and to contribute, within its possibilities, to peaceful coexistence between peoples and the preservation of world peace.

The IPA undertakes:

- To encourage personal contacts by organizing exchange visits of individuals and groups, arranging group holidays, and initiating pen-friendships
- To promote among the police services of all member sections respect for law and order
- To develop social and cultural activities and to encourage the exchange of professional experiences

- To enhance the image of the police in the countries of its member sections and to improve relations between the police and general public
- To foster young exchanges and international youth meetings with a view to promoting greater tolerance and understanding between people and understanding of the work of the police
- To facilitate a regular exchange of publications between National Sections and to provide an information service for the National IPA publications containing news on all subjects of relevance to the Association;
- To promote international publication and to help with the preparation of a bibliography of police works and, wherever possible, of all works connected with the law or legal matters
- To facilitate international cooperation through friendly contacts between police officers of all continents and contribute to mutual understanding of professional problems

LEADERSHIP

The highest body of the Association is the IPA World Congress, held every 3 years. The next one will take place in Ireland in 2006. The supreme organ of IPA is the International Executive Council (IEC), which has overall responsibility for the IPA. The IEC is composed of one delegate from each IPA National Section and of the Permanent Executive Bureau (PEB). The IEC meets every 3 years at an IPA World Congress and once a year at an IEC conference. Each member section and the PEB have one vote in the IEC.

The Permanent Executive Bureau is composed of IPA members elected at the IPA World Congress for 3-year terms. The PEB is responsible for the management of the Association and for implementation of decisions taken by the IPA International Executive Council. The PEB has the power to act on behalf of the IEC in any matters requiring immediate action. Meetings of the PEB take place at least once a year to review the administration of the Association.

The PEB is composed of:

- International President
- International Vice Presidents

- International Secretary General and his or her Assistant
- International Treasurer and his or her Assistant

The International Commissions are supporting bodies of the PEB. These commissions develop ideas and make recommendations within their area of competence. However, they are not decision-making bodies, and any recommendation made requires the approval of the PEB before being put into effect. There are five Standing International Commissions: Professional, Cultural, Social, External Relations, and Internal Matters.

The Professional Commission illustrates the breadth of these standing commissions. Its tasks are:

- Matters relating to police development, structure and history
- Comparative surveys regarding police work within IPA National Sections
- Crime development, criminology, crime prevention
- Police techniques
- Traffic matters
- Police placement program
- Representation of IPA at International Educational Centers
- IPA scholarship (proposal for planning and granting)
- International educational events involving police issues

The Association World Headquarters is located in its own building in West Bridgford, Nottingham, England. The IPA World Regional Offices include: the Asian and Pacific Region (New Delhi, India), Central American/Caribbean Region (San Jose, Costa Rica), the European Region (Borgheim, Norway), the Middle East/North African Region, the North American Region (Toronto, Canada), the South American Region (Brasilia, Brazil), and the sub-Saharan Africa Region (Gaborone, Botswana).

Membership to the IPA is open to active and retired policemen and women of all ages. Each member country is permitted to apply its own criteria for membership. Each national section also determines its own membership fees.

As of 2004, the IPA had 58 National Sections worldwide, namely:

- 36 in Europe, including, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Poland, Monaco, and San Marino
- 6 in the Americas, including the United States, Canada, and Brazil
- 16 in the rest of the world, including India and Japan

Only two Islamic countries belong to the IPA (Turkey and Pakistan). China is not a member, and among the former Soviet Republics, only two (Russia and Ukraine) are IPA members.

PUBLICATIONS

The IPA compiles and publishes books and other commemorative items for its members to purchase. Among the most internationally acknowledged are *Listing of Police Ranks* (Walter Mossbacher, Ed.), containing detailed descriptions of ranks, insignia, and related information from 44 IPA member countries; and *Police and Crime Museums of the World* (Friederich Schwindt, Ed.), a detailed guide to 270 police and crime museums. The IPA International Secretary General (ISG) publishes an ISG Newsletter, which is distributed to all IPA National Sections.

SOCIAL AND CULTURAL ACTIVITIES

For the benefit of members and their families, the IPA organizes social and cultural activities, including holiday international exchanges in numerous IPA houses around the world. These exchanges are frequently held between National Sections for members and their families, or for groups. The IPA International Youth Exchange Program allows for international exchange or hosting of sons and daughters of IPA members. It enables the young person to experience another culture and gain the opportunity to further their educational and cultural experience in the safety of the family circle.

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<http://www.ipa-iac.org>

INTERNATIONAL POLICE COOPERATION

Police cooperation has only become more important in the era of globalization and the corresponding environment in which terrorism and other kinds of serious transnational crime can flow easily across borders. Close international cooperation among police services is essential to prevent and combat these rising worldwide dangers.

FIELDS, TARGETS, DEFINITIONS, AND FORMS OF COOPERATION

There are many channels of international police cooperation. It can take place on the basis of agreements between countries, whether bilateral or multilateral. Cooperation can also take the form of adherence to agreements made by United Nations (U.N.) member countries based on resolutions, conventions, protocols, and other legal documents passed by respective bodies of the U.N. Another form of cooperation comes as a result of membership in subregional, regional, or global international police organizations; or from international voluntary police associations.

The principal targets of international police cooperation are serious transnational crimes. The United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime defines “serious crime” as an offense that is transnational in nature and involves an organized criminal group. An offense is “transnational” in nature when:

- It is committed in more than one state.
- It is committed in one state but a substantial part of its preparation, planning, direction, or control takes place in another state.
- It is committed in one state but involves an organized criminal group that engages in criminal activities in more than one state.
- It is committed in one state but has substantial effects on another state.

Such crimes include:

- Terror
- Drug trafficking

- Organized crime
- Smuggling of migrants and trafficking in human beings, including children
- Cyber crime
- Money laundering
- Trafficking in stolen vehicles
- Intellectual property crime
- Smuggling stolen artwork
- Financial and credit card fraud
- Smuggling and illicit trafficking in weapons and radioactive and nuclear substances

International police cooperation takes many forms. The most frequent are the exchange of information; joint operations; training of police personnel in other countries; participation in international conferences, seminars, and meetings; international publications; cooperation in obtaining modern police equipment; international research projects; and mutual holiday visits.

INTERPOL

The International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol) has 191 member countries and is the world's preeminent police institution in support of organizations, authorities, and services whose mission is preventing, detecting, and suppressing crime. Interpol's objectives are achieved by providing both global perspective and a regional focus, exchanging information, facilitating international cooperation, coordinating joint operational activities of its member countries, and making available police cooperation. The main managing body of Interpol is its Executive Committee. In 2004, this committee consisted of a president serving a 4-year term, three vice presidents, and nine delegates.

Each member nation has established a bureau that maintains relations with the Interpol General Secretariat located in Lyon, France. The national Interpol bureaus (called National Central Bureaus [NCBs]) transmit criminal information that may be of interest to other countries. They undertake inquiries, searches, and arrests within their own countries that are requested by other countries. Member countries also take steps to implement resolutions voted by the Interpol annual assembly.

Interpol can act only within the framework of national laws; criminals can be returned only if an extradition treaty is in force and the offender is a national of the country requesting return.

Criminal Data Processing

At its headquarters, Interpol maintains a voluminous record of international criminals and suspects, containing details of their identities, aliases, associates, and *modi operandi*, gathered from the police of affiliated countries. This information is sent over Interpol's telecommunications network or by confidential circular. There are four types of confidential circular. The first asks that a particular criminal be detained in order for extradition proceedings to be started. The second does not ask for detention but provides full information about the criminal and his or her methodology. The third describes property that may have been smuggled out of the country in which a crime was committed. A fourth reports on unidentified bodies and attempts to discover their identity.

International Interpol Notice System

Interpol has developed a notice system that ensures effective exchange of information between law enforcement agencies on selected topics of international concern. Each notice gives full details of the individual concerned and the relevant national arrest warrant or court order. It also specifically requests that the fugitive be traced and arrested or detained with a view of extradition. Interpol issues five types of notices, paralleling that of the confidential circulars:

- Red Notices—wanted individuals
- Yellow Notices—missing persons and to help identify persons suffering amnesia
- Blue Notices—request for information
- Green Notices—preventative alerts
- Black Notices—identification of bodies

At the end of 2002 there were nearly 11,000 valid Interpol notices in circulation, an increase of 7.5% from 2001. Some 2,000 of these were newly created during the year, approximately 50% of which were requested using the new electronic notice request system via a secure Web site. This process has

allowed a huge increase in the rate at which notices are produced and disseminated; what used to take several months now takes just a few hours.

“Diffusions,” an Interpol term for case information registered in Interpol databases, are also distributed by Interpol member countries themselves using the Interpol communication system. During the year 2002, 7,500 new diffusions were circulated, an increase of 11% over 2001. From previous years, 11,500 remained valid so there was an overall 23% rise in the number of valid diffusions. More than 1,200 individuals were arrested around the world as a result of an Interpol notice or diffusion.

Interpol's Global Communication System I-24/7

Until 2002, Interpol used an X.400 messaging system to facilitate communication between members. In 2002, Interpol introduced a global communication system, I-24/7, which provides police with a range of services to assist in fighting international crime. It is considerably more than a simple message exchange system. Through a single-entry portal, member countries have access to complete messaging services, as well as regular Interpol General Secretariat police services. These include:

- e-ASF (real-time searches, including a stolen motor vehicles database and information on stolen/lost travel documents)
- ASF mail services (including a stolen motor vehicles database and the FBI/NCIC database access)
- Terrorism watch list
- International notices
- Stolen identity documents database
- Payment card database
- Stolen artwork database
- The Interpol Web site (public and restricted)

The I-24/7 system was conceived, devised, and endorsed during 2002. It functions by means of a firewall/virtual private network (VPN) device between each NCB and the General Secretariat, creating secure invisible “tunnels” over the Internet. Security is a key feature, with measures far exceeding former standards. To ensure confidentiality, messages are encrypted at source and decrypted at destination using a highly sophisticated encoding

algorithm. An authentication system identifies and only allows access to authorized users. With its emphasis on developing real-time police services, Interpol is optimistic that I-24/7 has the potential to become the driving force behind Interpol’s capacity to maximize information sharing and international police co-operation.

Forensic Support

Interpol is deeply engaged in forensic support for member countries, through both exchanges of information and its own laboratories. It focuses on counterfeit banknotes, DNA identification, and disaster victim identification. The Interpol’s automated fingerprint identification system (AFIS) encompasses 40,000 searchable records. Five thousand new entries were inserted during 2002, and more than 7,500 searches were conducted.

Publications and Handbooks

Interpol publishes specialized periodicals and guides devoted to specific subjects of interest. These include:

- *Counterfeits and Forgeries Review*—Provides information about genuine banknotes in circulation throughout the world
- *Stolen Works of Art* (on CD-ROM)—Lists more than 20,000 paintings, sculptures, and tapestries (available in English, Spanish, and French)
- *Handbook on DNA Data. Exchange and Practice*
- *Passport Handbook/Guide*
- *Vehicle Registration Documents*

Two other Interpol publications, which are more universal in subject matter, are:

- *International Criminal Police Review*—Interpol’s official instrument for communication from 1946 until 2001. It published more 2,000 articles on subjects including investigative techniques, law, criminology, psychology, forensic medicine, international crime, police, and judicial cooperation. The journal is currently not in production.
- *International Crime Statistics*—Published every year in Arabic, English, French, and Spanish.

The Interpol General Secretariat Annual Activities Report is available online.

EUROPEAN POLICE OFFICE—EUROPOL

Established by the European Council Act of July 26, 1995, Europol's mission is to improve police cooperation between the European Union (EU) member states to combat terrorism, illicit traffic in drugs, and other serious forms of international crime. The Europol headquarters is located at The Hague, the Netherlands. Europol's principal tasks are:

- To facilitate the exchange of information between member states
- To obtain, collate, and analyze information and intelligence
- To notify the proper authorities of the member states without delay of information concerning them and of any connections identified between criminal offenses
- To aid investigations in the member states
- To maintain a computerized system of collected information

Each member state establishes or designates a national unit to carry out Europol's tasks. The national unit is the only liaison body between Europol and the national authorities. To perform its tasks, Europol maintains a computerized information system to serve the member states. The leading organ of Europol is the Management Board, composed of a representative of each member state. It is chaired by the representative of the member state holding the Presidency of the Council.

Publications

Europol issues annual reports on a broad range of general and specific subjects. In addition to the Europol Annual Report, these include:

- European Union Organized Crime Situation
- Trafficking of Human Beings into European Union
- Trafficking in Human Beings: Child Abuse
- Drugs
- Financial and Property Crime
- Forgery of Money

- Illegal Immigration
- Motor Vehicle Crime
- Information Management: Operational Exchange and Liaison
- Terrorism
- Money Laundering

Almost all are available online and are published in English, French, German, Greek, and Spanish.

TRAINING

One of the most important components of international police cooperation is training of police officers in foreign police schools. In Europe this is a common practice. Under the auspices of the European Association of Police Colleges, thousands of police officers of the states of the EU (as well as candidate states) are trained in the European Police College (CEPOL), located in Denmark, and in many other police educational institutions. For example, between 1998 and 2003, the International Police Specialist Police Training Centre in Legionowo, Poland (an establishment of the Polish National Police) organized 230 different training enterprises. These included 148 training sessions, 38 seminars, 17 conferences, 7 symposiums, and 19 meetings with the contribution of 6,736 police officers from 9 Central and Eastern European countries and many from Western European and American countries. Another example is John Jay College of Criminal Justice, in New York, which provides opportunities for academic specialization for students from 35 countries around the world, among them many police officers. Police academies in Great Britain, India, Japan, and Singapore are among the leaders in training police officers to serve in other countries.

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INTERPOL

Interpol is the shortened name for the International Criminal Police Organization, an organization established to promote international criminal police cooperation. The name Interpol, once the organization's telegraph address, was officially incorporated into the updated name adopted in 1956: International Criminal Police Organization-Interpol (abbreviated to ICPO-Interpol or, more frequently, Interpol).

HISTORY

The history of Interpol dates from the 1920s. After World War I, Europe underwent a great increase in crime. One of the countries most affected was Austria, which in 1923 hosted a meeting of the representatives of the criminal police of 20 nations to discuss common problems. This meeting led to the establishment that same year of the International Police Commission (Interpol's predecessor), which had its headquarters in Vienna. From 1923 until 1938, the commission flourished. However, in 1938, Austria became part of Nazi Germany, and the commission with it all of its records was moved to Berlin.

The outbreak of World War II brought the activities of the commission to a standstill. After World War II, the French government offered the

International Police Commission new headquarters in Paris, together with the services of a number of French police officials to form the General Secretariat. The commission was thus revived, although a complete reorganization was necessary because all its prewar records had been lost or destroyed. By 1955, the number of affiliated countries had increased from 19 to 55.

A modern and complete constitution for the organization was ratified in 1956. At the same time, its name was changed to the International Criminal Police Organization-Interpol.

MEMBER COUNTRIES

With 181 member countries (as of April 2004), in 2004, Interpol had the second largest membership of any international organization after the United Nations (see the complete list at <http://www.interpol.int/Public/Icipo/Members/default.asp>).

Every member country has an Interpol office, called a National Central Bureau, which is staffed with the country's own police officers. This bureau is the single point of contact for foreign governments requiring assistance with overseas investigations and information on the different police structures in other countries.

Contrary to popular belief, Interpol officers do not travel around the world investigating cases in different countries. Each member country employs its own officers to operate on its own territory and in accordance with its own national laws. Each member country can also send officers to serve a tour of duty at Interpol Headquarters in Lyon, France.

MISSION

Interpol's official Web site states that its mission is "to be the world's pre-eminent police organization in support of all organizations, authorities, and services whose mission is preventing, detecting and suppressing crime." Interpol seeks to achieve this by providing both a global perspective and a regional focus; exchanging information that is timely, accurate, relevant, and complete; facilitating international cooperation; coordinating operational activities of the member countries; and making available know-how, expertise, and good practice.

Interpol offers three core services as it attempts to achieve its mission:

1. A unique global police communication system
2. A range of criminal databases and analytical services
3. Proactive support for police operations throughout the world

Because of the politically neutral role Interpol must play, its constitution prohibits any involvement in the investigation of crimes that do not affect several member countries or engage in any activity of a political, military, religious, or racial character. Interpol's work focuses primarily on public safety and terrorism, organized crime, illicit drug production and trafficking, weapons smuggling, human trafficking, money laundering, financial and high-tech crime, and corruption.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Interpol has two interrelated governing bodies, the General Assembly and the Executive Committee. Major decisions on the policy, budget, working methods, finances, and program of activities of Interpol are made by its General Assembly, which meets annually. It is composed of delegates appointed by the governments of member countries. Each member country represented has one vote.

The Executive Committee supervises the execution of the decisions of the General Assembly and the work of the Secretary General. The committee has 13 members: the president (who chairs the committee), 4 vice presidents, and 8 delegates. The members are elected by the General Assembly and represent different countries. The president and the four vice presidents must come from different continents. The president is elected for 4 years, and the vice presidents serve for 3 years.

Decisions and recommendations adopted by the two governing bodies are implemented by the General Secretariat.

FINANCING

Interpol is financed by the annual contributions paid by the governments of its 181 member countries.

These contributions are calculated on a sliding scale according to the gross national product of the member countries. Interpol is taking on a multibillion-dollar crime problem with an annual budget of only 32.8 million euros (approximately \$39 million in 2004).

FIGHTING TERRORISM

Interpol's role in fighting terrorism is twofold: to prevent acts of international terrorism and, if these are carried out, to ensure that the perpetrators are brought to justice. It does this by exchanging information with its member countries through its secure messaging system and by arranging meetings of experts to address the subject. Interpol collects, stores, analyzes, and disseminates intelligence about suspect individuals and groups and their activities. These data are provided by its member countries and are obtained from public and other sources of information that Interpol monitors.

To help member countries report on suspect individuals, Interpol has issued a number of practical guidelines to its member countries on the type of information needed. This includes information about suspect individuals and groups, *modi operandi*, evidence from crime scenes, and the use of new technologies by terrorist groups.

FUGITIVE INVESTIGATIONS

Interpol's activities in respect to international fugitives have been part of its core business since the creation of the organization. At the request of its member countries, Interpol circulates electronically on an international basis notices containing identification details and judicial information about wanted criminals.

The General Secretariat of Interpol offers its member countries direct automatic search facilities and responds to queries concerning wanted persons. In an effort to further assist its member countries in apprehending fugitives, the Secretary General has established a new investigative service at the General Secretariat, which deals exclusively with matters related to fugitives. This Fugitive Investigative

Support Sub-Directorate actively encourages the international search for and arrest of fugitive offenders, coordinates and enhances international cooperation in the field, collects and disseminates best practice and expert knowledge, offers direct investigative support and specialized knowledge, and develops and promotes best practice and training.

THE INTERNATIONAL NOTICES SYSTEM

One of Interpol's most important functions is to help the police of its member countries communicate critical crime-related information to one another. This is done primarily through Interpol's system of notices, which helps the world's law enforcement community exchange information about missing persons, unidentified bodies, persons who are wanted for committing serious crimes, and criminal *modi operandi*. In addition, Interpol notices are used by the International Tribunals for the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda to seek persons wanted for serious violations of international human rights law.

Each notice gives full details of the individual concerned and the relevant national arrest warrant or court order, and specifically requests that the fugitive be traced and arrested or detained with a view to extradition.

Interpol issues five types of notices:

1. Red Notices, based on a national arrest warrant, are used to seek the arrest and extradition of suspects; some countries have given Interpol's Red Notices legal status as a basis for provisional arrest.
2. Blue Notices are used to seek information on the identity of persons or on their illegal activities related to a criminal matter. Such Blue Notices are used primarily for (a) tracing and locating offenders when the decision to seek extradition has not yet been made and (b) locating witnesses to crimes.
3. Green Notices are used to provide warnings and criminal intelligence about persons who have committed criminal offenses and who are likely to repeat these crimes in other countries.
4. Yellow Notices are used to help locate missing persons, including children, or to help people

(such as persons suffering from amnesia) to identify themselves.

5. Black Notices are used to determine the identity of deceased persons.

Interpol notices often concern fugitives, terrorists, and violent criminals who pose an imminent danger to people throughout the world, as well as perpetrators of other forms of serious crime with an international dimension. All new notices are now published on Interpol's restricted-access Web site. This allows all member countries having the necessary electronic capability to access them directly and to print copies where needed. In addition, Interpol is seeking to publish all Red, Yellow, and Black Notices on Interpol's public Web site unless a member country directly concerned requests otherwise. Public knowledge of an arrest warrant is often of great value to law enforcement agencies in their efforts to obtain information that is important to their work.

CHILDREN AND HUMAN TRAFFICKING

Interpol's involvement in the investigation of offenses against children began in 1989, following the adoption of the United Nations (UN) Convention on the Rights of the Child. A specialized Trafficking of Human Beings Sub-Directorate was set up at Interpol Headquarters, and the combating of crimes against children became Interpol's highest priority. Furthermore, Interpol's Specialist Group on Crimes Against Children brings together law enforcement officers from every continent in semiannual meetings to exchange information, develop working relationships, and agree on and implement operational matters. The Specialist Group deals with child prostitution, child pornography, missing children, and trafficking in children; it has recently taken on the issue of the management of sex offenders, which reflects the reality that to protect children, known sex offenders need to be prevented from subsequent offenses. The Specialist Group has also produced the *Interpol Handbook of Good Practice for Specialized Officers Dealing With Crimes Against Children*. This handbook has been circulated to all member countries.

Interpol's General Secretariat has set up an automated image comparison database that is capable of

linking a series of images to provide investigators with the tools necessary to rapidly analyze data seized from persons suspected of involvement in child pornography. Interpol also maintains a database on missing and abducted children about whom the respective law enforcement authorities have requested that Interpol circulate information on an international basis.

In June 1999, Interpol's General Secretariat, at the request of member countries, initiated Project Bridge to facilitate more effective and efficient collection of information on organized crime groups and associations involved in the smuggling of immigrants and to improve the combating of this form of crime by undertaking adequate prevention and investigative measures.

DRUG CONTROL

Interpol's Criminal Organizations and Drug Sub-Directorate is located within the Criminal Intelligence Directorate of its General Secretariat. This subdirectorates is the central repository of professional and technical expertise in drug control within the Interpol framework and provides assistance, for example, to National Central Bureaus. Essentially, it acts as a clearinghouse for the collection, collation, analysis, and dissemination of drug-related information. It also monitors the drug situation on a global basis, seeks to identify international drug trafficking organizations, coordinates international investigations, and maintains liaison with the UN, its specialized agencies, and other international and regional organizations involved in drug control activities. To enhance cooperation, it organizes working meetings involving two or more countries where common links have been identified in specific cases, as well as regional or worldwide meetings on specific drug topics, on an annual or ad hoc basis.

FINANCIAL CRIME

Some transnational crimes are clearly financial in nature (e.g., money laundering), but even those without an obvious link will likely involve illicit

financial transactions as an integral aspect of the crime. In its capacity of facilitating the cooperative efforts of police, international institutions, and the private sector, Interpol has an important role in responding to financial crime.

Payment Cards

Interpol assumed responsibility for counterfeit currency as a result of an international treaty, the 1929 International Convention for the Suppression of Counterfeiting Currency (known as the 1929 Geneva Convention), but there are no similar arrangements for counterfeit payment cards, and it is unlikely that there will be such arrangements in the near future.

Money Laundering

During the past 20 years, Interpol's General Assembly has passed a number of resolutions that have called on member countries to concentrate their investigative resources on identifying, tracing, and seizing the assets of criminal enterprises. These resolutions have also called on member countries to increase the exchange of information in this field and encouraged governments to adopt laws and regulations that would allow access by the police to the financial records of criminal organizations and allow the confiscation of proceeds gained by criminal activity. A concise working definition of money laundering was adopted by Interpol's General Assembly in 1995: It is defined as any act or attempted act to conceal or disguise the identity or illegally obtained proceeds so that they appear to have originated from legitimate sources.

In 2001, a Financial and High-Tech Crime Sub-Directorate was established within the Specialized Crimes Directorate of ICPO-Interpol. Police officers in the subdirectorates also deal with offenses relating to money laundering, counterfeit currency, payment cards, and intellectual property. The subdirectorates seek to provide National Central Bureaus with expertise in specialized areas and enhance partnerships with relevant organizations, develop and coordinate best practices, and increase the flow and exchange of information related to these forms of crime.

INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY CRIME

Interpol has recognized the extensive involvement of organized crime and terrorist groups in intellectual property crime. In 2000, the Interpol General Assembly mandated the Interpol General Secretariat to take action not only to raise awareness of the problem but also to provide a strategic plan in close cooperation with private industry. Interpol established a Group of Experts on Intellectual Property Crime, bringing together custom authorities, international agencies, and the private sector to function as a forum for the exchange of information and facilitation of investigations into intellectual property offenses. It also offers support through tailored training programs. It is a multiagency group, drawing its membership from public and private sectors.

CORRUPTION

Interpol's International Group of Experts on Corruption (IGEC) was established in 1998. Its membership consists of law enforcement representatives from eight countries (including the United States), a representative of Interpol's General Secretariat, and seven other persons representing a variety of international organizations, the international financial services community, and academia. This group was mandated to develop and implement an anticorruption strategy, with the objective of not only raising awareness of the major issues but also and, in particular, improving the capacity and effectiveness of law enforcement in the fight against corruption.

Among its activities, the IGEC has prepared a code of ethics and code of conduct (subsequently adopted by Interpol's General Assembly in 1999), a survey of police integrity in its 181 member countries, and global standards to combat corruption in police forces and services (adopted by Interpol's General Assembly in 2002).

PUBLICATIONS

Interpol's primary publications include the *International Criminal Police Review* and *International*

Crime Statistics. The *International Criminal Police Review* was published between 1946 and 2001. Interpol published *International Crime Statistics* every 2 years from 1950 through 1992 and every year since 1993. Since 2000, the publication has been available electronically on a country-by-country basis (free of charge) and in four languages (Arabic, English, French, and Spanish). The data are provided by the National Central Bureaus, and Interpol publishes them as submitted, without any attempt to process them. Primarily because of the legal and procedural differences in the different countries and the differences in statistical methods, the statistics cannot be used for comparative purposes, and the data published in the current set of statistics should be interpreted with caution.

REGIONAL ACTIVITIES

In 2001, the Interpol General Secretariat set up the Directorate for Regional and National Police Services. It consists of five subdirectorates—Africa, Americas, Asia and South Pacific, Europe, Middle East and North Africa—and a Sub-Regional Coordination Bureau. Underlying the establishment of the directorate was the realization that practical law enforcement needs in each region vary to some extent. By promoting a network of regional institutions and developing effective strategic alliances with other institutions, Interpol seeks to provide better-tailored assistance through its National Central Bureaus. In time, the bureau of each region will have the same facilities as at the General Secretariat.

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IRAN

Iran has been a powerful regional force in the Middle East for millennia. It spans 1.648 million square kilometers and has a population of 68.3 million people (July 2003, estimate). It became an Islamic theocratic republic ruled by Shi'ite clerics after the ruling Shah, Reza Pahlavi, was forced into exile in 1979 by a revolution led by religious exile Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini. Although a president is popularly elected, the religiously appointed Supreme Leader (initially Khomeini, and currently his immediate successor Ali Sayed Khamanei) wields constitutional political control. Although the president appoints and supervises ministers, the Supreme Leader is the commander-in-chief of the armed forces (including law enforcement).

IRAN POLICE FORCE (LAW ENFORCEMENT FORCE)

Historically, the Gendarmerie was responsible for law enforcement in rural areas and villages with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants; the Iranian National Police was responsible for policing all areas with more than 5,000 inhabitants. Both reported to the Ministry of the Interior. The Gendarmerie dates from 1910, when it was established with the assistance of the Swedish government, with the primary duty of maintaining the security of roads. In 1991, these institutions were combined, together with village-level revolutionary committees, into a unitary Law Enforcement Force, also known as the Islamic Revolution of Iran Police Force (IRIP).

Before the Iranian revolution, the Shah tolerated no dissent and maintained his grip on power largely through an elaborate network of internal security forces. He periodically assigned army personnel to internal security positions and maintained a secret police, the SAVAK, whose repressive tactics became



infamous internally and externally. Reporting to the Office of the Prime Minister, SAVAK was officially a civilian agency, although it shared personnel with the military. Particularly toward the end of the 1970s, it could arrest and detain individuals indefinitely and without charge and operated its own prisons. The Iranian Revolution's leaders sharply criticized the SAVAK, claiming that it had up to 15,000 members and was a full-scale intelligence operation directed against opposition forces. It was dissolved immediately after the Iranian Revolution, its leaders were executed, and the facilities were overrun. Revolution leaders completely reorganized all security forces, including the Gendarmerie and National Police, according "to Islamic principles."

Organization and Operations

There are few current data available on the strength or organization of the Iranian law enforcement force. In 2003, several hundred women graduated from the police academy to join the police force as fully trained officers; from 1979 until this development, women had worked solely in police administration. Their tasks were originally intended to be similar to their male colleagues, but at the graduation of the first class of officers in October 2004, it was announced

that their work would be with female offenders and that they would not be used for normal patrols.

Other Forces

Although the IRIP provides nominal law enforcement activities under the Ministry of Interior, internal security in Iran is in effect enforced by special security forces. These include forces of the Ministry of Intelligence and Security and the Revolutionary Guard and its associated paramilitary forces.

There is little public information available about the Ministry of Intelligence and Security, founded in 1983 but seen as the descendant of the SAVAK secret police. It is responsible for gathering, procuring, analyzing, and classifying “necessary information” inside and outside Iran, for example, on counterrevolutionary conspiracies. It is suspected of monitoring activities of dissident forces.

Another prominent internal role is played by the Revolutionary Guards (Pasdaran-e Enghelab-e Islami, or Islamic Revolutionary Guard Corps), whose initial purpose was to defend the Revolution. It consisted of an alternative military force as leaders did not trust the army’s many prerevolution ties. Established by Khomeini’s decree on May 5, 1979, the Revolutionary Guards were formally intended to help the ruling clerics enforce the government’s Islamic codes and morality. At least in its early stages, it reported directly to the Revolutionary Council and evolved into a force used to eliminate opposition and enforce the political will of the ruling party. It is estimated to number from 125,000 to 250,000, and it has grown into a military organization whose professionalism rivals the regular army. It maintains its own university and engages in tasks such as border patrol. Although formed specifically to implement the goals of the Revolution, its political allegiances corresponded to those of the national population, split between reformists and conservatives. Analysts report that hard-line clerics can no longer rely on it for repression of dissenters.

A paramilitary volunteer force, Basij, was formed by the Revolutionary Guards as a popular

militia, but in actuality it operates with significant autonomy. It recruits youths from rural or poor areas and is alleged to operate specifically to quell opposition and dissent, including through violence. Another group, Ansar-e Hezbollah (Helpers of the Party of God), has been linked to senior hard-line clerics. Members of both groups have intimidated and physically threatened demonstrators, journalists, and persons suspected of opposition activities.

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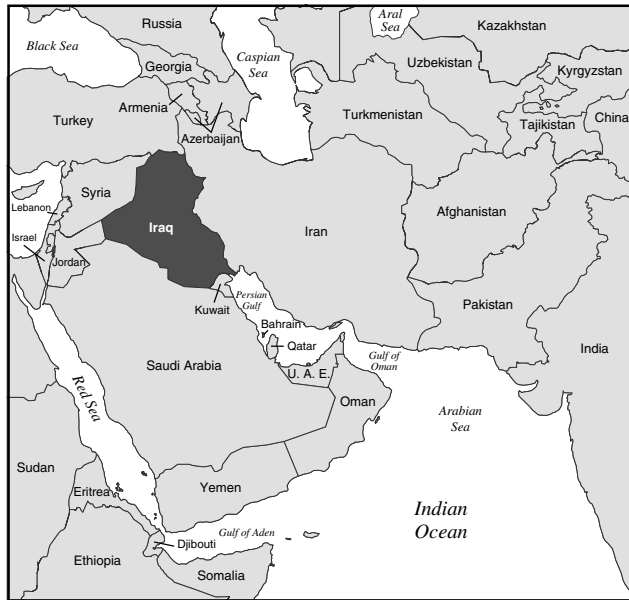
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IRAQ

Bordered by Iran, Turkey, Syria, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and Kuwait, with an area of 437,000 square kilometers, Iraq has a population of 24.6 million (July 2003 estimate).

IRAQI POLICE SERVICE

Authoritarian rule dominated policing and all other aspects of governance in Iraq from the time of its independence in 1932 until the government of Saddam Hussein was ousted by a U.S.-led coalition in 2003. Saddam Hussein used law enforcement as



a vehicle for repression, relying on a complex network of civilian police, military and paramilitary units, and other intelligence agencies to protect himself and his regime. After its March 2003 invasion, U.S.-led coalition forces dismantled the security apparatus, retaining only the regular Iraqi police who had no high-level Ba'ath party (the party associated with Hussein) affiliation. Coalition troops and military police initially bridged the security gap, with the plan being for Iraqi police to take over these functions as they were reequipped. As of early 2004, there are approximately 67,000 police (all men) in the Iraqi Police Service (a ratio of 367 police officers per citizen).

Following Saddam Hussein's overthrow, many areas of Iraq, in particular the capital Baghdad, experienced a dramatic increase in violent crime. Iraqi citizens extensively looted government and private institutions including criminal justice institutions such as police stations, courthouses, and detention facilities following the overthrow. Police were left with no vehicles, weapons, communications equipment, handcuffs, and, in many cases, holding facilities to respond to the complete breakdown of law and order that persisted in the months following the invasion.

Coalition forces, including military police and regular troops, supported efforts to maintain law and order when Iraqi police were unable to do so.

Thousands of security internees were held in makeshift facilities by coalition forces. Coalition forces attempted to provide access to the Iraqi criminal justice system for such individuals, but efforts were slow and many individuals arrested for offenses as minor as a curfew violation were held incommunicado by coalition forces for more than 1 month.

RECRUITING, TRAINING, AND REHABILITATION OF THE POLICE

New recruits for service are trained in 8-week courses at the Baghdad Police Academy and the Jordan International Police Training Center. To instill values of democratic policing, experienced police officers continuing their service in the Iraqi Police Service attend a 3-week Transitional Integration Program class on international standards of human rights, modern policing techniques, and Iraqi criminal law and procedure.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

In addition to the Iraqi Police Service, other law enforcement branches reporting to the Ministry of Interior in the reformed Iraqi Police Service include the Border Police, Bureau of Civil Customs Inspection, Bureau of Immigration Inspection, and the Bureau of Nationality and Civil Affairs (all reporting to the Department of Border Enforcement); other law enforcement organizations include the Facilities Protection Service, which protects government buildings and includes the diplomatic police.

The Iraqi Civil Defense Force was also established to complement the coalition forces' security activities. While independent from the police, its members exercise some law enforcement functions, including illegal weapons seizure and crowd and riot control; they can detain individuals caught committing an illegal act, engaged in escape, or hindering their own activities, but must turn them over to the Iraqi Police within 12 hours.

Iraq is a member of Interpol.

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IRELAND

Ireland is an island situated on the west coast of Europe. The island is divided, with 26 counties in the south forming Ireland and 6 counties, under United Kingdom governance, forming Northern Ireland. Ireland has an area of 68,890 square kilometers with a population of 3.9 million people.

IRELAND'S POLICE SERVICE (*AN GARDA SÍOCHÁNA*)

Ireland's national police service, *An Garda Síochána* (translated from Gaelic as "guardians of the peace"), is responsible for exercising all police functions in Ireland.

Organized policing commenced in Ireland in 1822 with the establishment of the Royal Irish Constabulary. In 1922, with the foundation of the Irish Free State, this force was disbanded and An Garda Síochána was formed. In 1925, the Dublin Metropolitan Police, which had existed since 1836, was amalgamated with An Garda Síochána. The first Commissioner of An Garda Síochána declared "An Garda Síochána will succeed, not by force of arms or numbers, but by their moral authority as servants of the people." Since its foundation, An Garda Síochána has endeavored to uphold this ethos.

Today, An Garda Síochána remains a largely unarmed police service with responsibility for the maintenance of law and order in the state. Its members (*gardaí*) derive their power from the



Common Law and Acts passed by the Oireachtas (upper and lower houses of Irish parliament). Its functions include the prevention and detection of crime, law enforcement, state security, and certain civil and administrative duties. The general management and control of the service is the responsibility of the Commissioner of An Garda Síochána who is appointed by the government.

ROLE IN THE IRISH CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

An Garda Síochána has a unique policing role in a European context, in the sense that it has an investigative role and is responsible for national security. Gardaí decide, subject to law, whether or not to initiate or pursue an investigation of a complaint, and they decide how the investigation is to be conducted. Once the formal investigation is complete, the case is transferred to the Director of Public Prosecutions, an independent national office holder, who decides if there is sufficient evidence for a prosecution. For breaches of the criminal law, gardaí have a right of audience before the courts. At the District Court level, cases are prosecuted by district officers (Garda Superintendents or Inspectors acting on their behalf), who are especially appointed to the courts. Cases heard in the higher courts are prosecuted through the Chief State Solicitor's

Office. The gardaí present the facts to the Court and the Court decides on the innocence or guilt of the accused person. A Judge, when determining the appropriate sentence, may request background information on the accused from the gardaí. Members of An Garda Síochána are bound to supply this background information, both favorable and unfavorable, to the Court. The penal stage of the system is also independent of An Garda Síochána, which is separate and autonomous from the other elements in the Irish Criminal Justice System.

ORGANIZATION AND STRUCTURE

The Commissioner of An Garda Síochána is responsible to the Minister for Justice, Equality, and Law Reform, who is in turn accountable to the Dáil (Irish Parliament) for the activities of the Garda service. The Commissioner is assisted by 2 Deputy Commissioners and 10 Assistant Commissioners. The organization hierarchy comprises eight ranks. Distribution and strength as of March 2004, was:

Table 1

	<i>Strength</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Commissioner	1	1	0
Deputy Commissioner	2	2	0
Assistant Commissioner	10	9	1
Chief Superintendent	47	46	1
Superintendent	173	169	4
Inspector	294	282	12
Sergeant	1,964	1,835	129
Garda	9,398	7,706	1,692
Total	11,889	10,050	1,839

There are approximately 1,700 full-time and part-time civilian personnel working in An Garda Síochána.

The Assistant Commissioner for Human Resource Management is responsible for all personnel matters relating to Garda and civilian staff. This responsibility incorporates human resource management, training and development, internal affairs, health and safety, and performance management. The Assistant Commissioner for Strategy and Services has responsibility for strategy, planning,

implementation of the Government Strategic Management Initiative, community relations, information technology, telecommunications, and transport. These Assistant Commissioners and the civilian Director of Finance, who is equivalent in rank, report to the Deputy Commissioner for Strategic and Resource Management.

Eight Assistant Commissioners are under the control of the Deputy Commissioner, Operations. The Assistant Commissioner for National Support Services controls the operations of centralized, specialist services based in Dublin but available for duties throughout the country. The services include:

- Garda Technical Bureau (including Ballistics, Fingerprints, and Photography)
- National Bureau of Criminal Investigation
- Garda Bureau of Fraud Investigation
- Criminal Assets Bureau
- Garda National Drugs Unit
- Garda National Immigration Bureau
- Garda National Traffic Bureau
- Operational Support Unit (Air Support, Water Unit, Mounted Unit, Dog Unit)

The Assistant Commissioner for Crime and Security is responsible for overseeing the role of An Garda Síochána as the National Security Service in Ireland. This includes monitoring trends in subversive and criminal activity, maintaining links with other police services and organizations such as Europol and Interpol, and provision of security for state office holders and premises.

For policing purposes, Ireland is divided into six regions. Each region is commanded by an Assistant Commissioner. Regions are comprised of between three and six divisions, which are each under the command of a Chief Superintendent. Divisions have two to six districts under the command of Superintendents. Uniformed members of An Garda Síochána do not carry firearms; however, detective units are located within each district, and they are staffed by personnel who carry firearms on duty in plainclothes. Recorded crime in Ireland is low by international standards and has remained relatively stable over the past 10 years. The larceny (theft)

group of offenses is the largest group and homicides is the smallest group.

RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

The Civil Service Commission is responsible for coordinating An Garda Síochána recruitment. Selection is by means of a written test, competency-based interview, physical abilities test, and medical examination. Candidates, who must be between 18 and 26 years of age and be Irish citizens, are selected on the basis of their capacity for performing the basic functions of police work.

Garda training was restructured in 1989 with the introduction of the current five-phase basic training program. The Garda student/probationer training program combines programmed and experiential learning and is divided into five phases. The programmed learning phases—phase one (20 weeks), phase three (16 weeks), and phase five (4 weeks)—are conducted at the Garda College, Templemore. The subjects studied in these phases include law, policing duties, social studies, communications, physical education, technical studies, and a foreign language—French or German. Phase two (22 weeks) is conducted at selected training stations throughout the country where the student is allocated a specially trained and experienced Garda to guide the student through the first experience of operational police work. At the end of phase three, the student becomes a probationer by being attested to the Garda service (i.e., he or she is given full Garda powers) and is allocated to a station, where the probationer spends the 38 weeks of phase four. The probationary period lasts for 2 years from the date the student was attested to the service. During this time, Probationary gardaí are closely monitored by training sergeants. Probationary gardaí act as full members of An Garda Síochána in phase four, engaging in the full range of operational duties. The probationer is required to reflect on experiential learning during this phase by keeping a daily diary and by completing a 10,000-word dissertation on a police-related topic. On completion of phase five, and after passing all examinations, successful probationers graduate with a National Diploma in

Police Studies, which is awarded by the Higher Education and Training Awards Council (HETAC). An average of 350 Probationer Gardaí have graduated from the Garda College each year since the introduction of the new system in April 1989. The Garda College is designated as an Institute for Higher Education, and its staff is responsible for the development and delivery of education and training programs for middle and senior managers and police specialists. The college also conducts a Bachelor of Arts Degree in Police Management.

There is no direct entry provision for officer ranks (superintendent and above), and all members of the service begin their careers at the level of Garda. Promotion is through the ranks by way of competitive interview. In the case of promotion to Sergeant and Inspector, applicants are eligible for interview on successful completion of written professional examinations, which are held annually. Interviews are held at regional centers, with successful applicants going forward to a central interview board. All interview boards have three members—two Garda Officers and one civilian appointed by the Civil Service Commission. Promotion to officer ranks (i.e., Superintendent, Chief Superintendent, and Assistant Commissioner) is by interview only. The Government subsequently ratifies those selected at interview for promotion before appointment.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

An Garda Síochána actively participates in programs that are funded by the European Union (EU) which aim to stimulate and enhance dynamic webs of relations among law enforcement agencies throughout the EU. Liaison Officers from An Garda Síochána serve with Europol and Interpol. There are also Liaison Officers located in Paris, London, The Hague, and Madrid who form part of a European-wide network of law enforcement personnel for the exchange of information and intelligence on drug traffickers and other criminal activity. Garda contingents have served in United Nations policing missions in Namibia, Angola, El Salvador, the former Yugoslavia, Mozambique, Somalia, Cambodia, South Africa, Cyprus, Western Sahara, Tajikistan, and Palestine.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

The Minister for Justice, Equality, and Law Reform introduced new legislation in February 2004, entitled “The *Garda Síochána* Bill 2004,” which has two key objectives. First, it updates and reforms the law on the governance of the *Garda Síochána* by replacing the *Garda Síochána* Acts going back to 1924. Second, it replaces the *Garda Síochána* Complaints Board with a new fully independent *Garda* Ombudsman Commission, with strong powers of criminal and civil investigation. The Bill provides for the recruitment of part-time, reserve police officers.

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- <http://www.justice.ie>

✎ ISRAEL

Israel is located in the East Mediterranean, bordered by Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, and Egypt. The population of Israel is 6.5 million people (2003 estimates, excluding approximately 3 million Arab residents in the Palestinian Authority and in the Administered Territories [The West Bank and the Gaza Strip]).

In November 1947, following widespread immigration after World War II and the holocaust, the United Nations (UN) approved partition of what was then a British Mandate, into Jewish and Arab states. Israel agreed to the decision and proclaimed itself



a state on May 14, 1948. Following this, the Arabs, who did not agree to the UN partition, waged a war on Israel, but failed to defeat the new state. Subsequent periods of armed conflict with Israel’s Arab neighbors have never been fully resolved.

Terrorist activity has been part of daily life in Israel for decades—mainly by Palestinian armed groups. Since October 2000, a second *intifada* (meaning “uprising” in Arabic) has resulted in almost constant fighting between the Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza Strip and the Israelis; Palestinian armed groups use terrorist tactics against primarily civilian Israeli targets.

THE ISRAEL POLICE

Responsibilities

The Israel Police (IP) has been a national, highly centralized force since its inception in 1948. Under the Israel National Police Ordinance (Revised Version) of 1971, which defines the functions and powers of the IP, the Police is responsible for the maintenance of law and order; for crime prevention; for traffic control; for the apprehension and remanding of criminals and suspected criminals; for securing public order and for safeguarding life and property; and for providing a secure environment for detainees. In 1974 the Police were given the

additional responsibility of maintaining internal security, particularly providing proactive and reactive measures to fight terrorism and provide security within the borders of the country.

Structure and Organization

The force is commanded and directed, operationally and organizationally, by its Commissioner (known as Inspector-General), who is appointed by the Government on the recommendation of the Minister of Public Security and is responsible for the Police and Prison Services. Eight Departments constitute the IP's national headquarters (HQ) in Jerusalem, the capital: Investigations and Crime Fighting, Patrol and Security, Intelligence, Traffic, Logistics, Personnel, Planning, and the Community and Civil Guard.

In 2003, the Israel Police employed 25,700 police men and women, including soldiers doing their compulsory military service in the IP, a ratio of 1 for every 293 citizens. Twenty percent of this total are women. Virtually all staff is sworn. Since 1999 the IP has employed civilians, primarily in secretarial and logistical support jobs.

Divided into geographic areas, the IP is organized into District Commands (in 2003 there were six Districts). The District Commanders are directly responsible to the Police Commissioner. The District Commanders and the Department Heads at HQ all hold the rank of Major General and comprise the Senior Command Staff of the Commissioner.

These Districts are divided again into Sub-Districts, each of which is under the direction of a Police Commander. The Sub-Districts are, in turn, divided into large Regional Police Stations or smaller Police Stations and Police Sub-Stations. In 2003 there were 10 large Regional Stations (mostly in the metropolitan centers), 53 stations, and about 100 sub-stations. In addition, there were approximately 250 community policing centers (usually, 1-man police centers in neighborhoods or rural villages but sometimes a mobile or temporary centers set up in a specific area to deal with specific problems), and about 400 neighborhood Civil Guard Bases. The commanding officers of these police units are all selected by national and regional headquarters.

Each District and Sub-District is managed by an administrative and operational headquarters that parallels the organization of the central IP Headquarters in Jerusalem. Since 1997, reorganization has attempted to flatten out the organizational structure and do away with the middle management (Sub-District) levels.

Selection, Training, and Promotion

On average, more than 1,000 men and women were recruited to the Israel Police (IP) force each year from 1995 to 2000, the majority for core duties of patrol work, investigations, intelligence, traffic control, bomb disposal, and the Community and Civil Guard. Some are recruited to the Border Guard or other branches of the police as part of their compulsory military training after completing their high school studies at 18 (3 years for males, and 2 years for females). Some of these continue on to a police career as regular police officers in the Border Guard or in other units within the police.

Candidates are examined for general suitability and for suitability to a particular area of activity of the IP, and must pass security clearance, assessments for psychological and physical health, and educational and intelligence testing. All candidates are obligated to have completed high school (12 years) and taken their matriculation exams.

A new police officer, once recruited, participates in a basic 25-week training course. A new officer becomes eligible for promotion after 3 years, subject to performance on a proficiency test in his or her area of work. After another year on the job, the officer can be recommended by his or her commanders to go to the Advanced Police Officers' Course, which consists of 4 to 6 weeks of specialized training in a particular field of work. Also, during the fifth year of service, an officer is eligible to attend a 5- to 10-week Senior Police Officers' Course, which, if successfully completed, enables officers to become non-commissioned commanders. Only after this second training course can a police officer be recommended for promotion to Commissioned Officer status.

The Commissioned Officer Course lasts 30 weeks, and during this training, the officers also take part in academic studies for one semester at Haifa

University (for those who don't have academic degrees). Commanders then receive further specialized training.

Promotion from rank to rank is achieved by seniority, completion of training courses, and individual evaluation—both by commanders and peers. The IP has the following ranks:

- Noncommissioned officer ranks: constable, lance-corporal, sergeant, sergeant-major, staff sergeant-major, advanced staff sergeant-major, senior staff sergeant-major
- Commissioned officer ranks: sub-inspector, inspector, chief-inspector, superintendent, chief-superintendent, commander, brigadier general, major general, and commissioner-inspector-general.

Police officers having academic degrees are also recruited to the lowest rank, but can advance to Commissioned Officer after approximately 1 year of service if they pass the assessment center appraisal and complete the Commissioned Officers' Course.

THE BORDER GUARD POLICE

The Border Guard Police is a paramilitary gendarmerie force within the IP, with its own organization and structure, but acting under the responsibility of the District Commands. In 2003, there were 8,000 border guards. Its tasks are to deal with security and antiterrorist duties, to guard and patrol the Israel-Palestinian Autonomous Area border, to deal with public order disruptions, and to prevent agricultural theft. The Border Guard police serve as a highly mobile, rapid response and reinforcement force both in criminal and civil order matters and are available to the IP districts as well as to the Israel Defense Forces. From the 1993 Oslo Accords until October 2000, Border Guard police officers conducted joint patrols with the Palestinian Police Force in areas under joint Israeli-Palestinian responsibility.

The IP's Antiterrorist Special Combat Unit, which organizationally belongs to the Border Guard, deals with terrorist activities within the borders of the country, operates in hostage-taking situations, both terrorist and criminal in nature, and sometimes assists in the handling of serious public disturbances.

The Border Guard has separate bases and training centers from those of the districts' regular police personnel.

MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF THE ISRAEL POLICE

Investigations

There are approximately 2,500 investigators (2003) and prosecutors in the IP. Police prosecutors present misdemeanors and some felonies to the Magistrate Courts. The Investigation Department also is responsible for dealing with juveniles, both as suspects and as victims, from age 12 (the age of criminal responsibility) until age 18.

A Victim Support Unit provides professional input on all policy and its implementation regarding the support given to victims of crime, especially regarding special groups of victims, such as those of domestic abuse, sexual abuse, "helpless" victims (such as the mentally retarded), or the aged. Special domestic violence investigators have been deployed since 2001.

The Division of Identification and Forensic Sciences, belonging to the Investigations and Crime Fighting Department, analyzes evidence with an entire range of tests (DNA, fingerprints, drugs, explosives and flammable materials, ballistics, etc.) in specialized laboratories at IP headquarters in Jerusalem. Each regional subdivision has technicians who gather evidence from crime scenes and send it to the IP's centralized laboratories. An Automatic Fingerprint Identification System (AFIS) helps compare latent fingerprints found at crime scenes with a centralized database of known criminals and to authenticate identification of suspects with the help of their fingerprints.

There are two national investigation units: one for serious and international crimes (such as the operation of car theft rings and drug trafficking) and another for dealing with white-collar crime, fraud, and computer crime.

Intelligence

The Intelligence Department coordinates and directs the intelligence and undercover work undertaken throughout the country at all levels. Efforts

are concentrated upon serious “target criminals” in accordance with an evaluation that is made at the various strata of the police hierarchy. In addition to the above functions, the department is responsible for all drug-related enforcement work, as well as for international cooperation with foreign police forces. At the district level, there are centralized intelligence units whose tasks are to gather evidence and do undercover work.

Patrol and Operations

The IP’s central and largest force is its patrol units, whose chief responsibility is responding to public calls for assistance, usually telephoned into an Emergency Calls Center. The patrol function is also the first line of response to any emergency, whether road accident, natural disaster, or terrorist attack. In events and gatherings requiring a very strong police presence (e.g., mass-attendance events, happenings of particular political and public significance, protest marches, big sporting events), patrol units maintain public order and safety.

The Special Patrol Units were established to give the IP a highly skilled and rapid response capacity for incidents of particular severity or danger. Together with the Border Guard’s Special Units, they are the first to respond to any life-endangering security incident or mass-casualty disaster. They are routinely deployed against particularly dangerous criminal targets or where there are geographical concentrations of criminal activity. Any arm of the IP can call on them for immediate reinforcement.

In the context of its direct responsibility for antiterrorist activity, in 1995, the government conferred responsibility for school perimeter security and, in 1997, for public transport security to the IP. For these assignments, the IP has allocated a fleet of vehicle patrol units, briefed to patrol the perimeter and vicinity of schools and other educational institutions, and of bus, train, and taxi stations, to detect and prevent terrorist or criminal activity.

The Patrol and Operations Department is also responsible for providing input regarding the security standards needed to enable the local licensing of “high-risk” business premises. Other units under the direct supervision of the Patrol and Operations Department include The Helicopter Unit; the

National Vehicle Theft Prevention Unit; and a National Negotiation Team, used when hostage situations arise.

Bomb Disposal

Established in 1975, the Bomb Disposal Division operates in the realm of both criminal and terrorist sabotage activities. The Division’s teams, at the local level, handle approximately 100,000 calls per year to check suspicious objects, parcels and cars, and persons carrying on-their-person bombs. On average, less than 1% of these calls actually involve incendiary or explosive devices. An important aspect of the Bomb Disposal Unit’s work is its prevention program, which includes surveillance of crowded public areas and facilities, and educational programs in the schools. The Headquarters Division has its own Research and Development Unit to develop specialized equipment and techniques, as well as a separate laboratory to provide analysis of explosive devices and *modi operandi*. The Israel Bomb Disposal Information Center gathers, analyzes, and disseminates information to police sappers and to other security organizations in the country and worldwide.

Community and Civil Guard Department

In order to prevent terrorist and criminal activity in residential areas, the Civil Guard maintains a network of neighborhood Civil Guard Bases (some 400 in 2003), whose tasks are to recruit and operate armed mobile and foot patrols of volunteer citizens, run training programs, and organize rapid response teams for emergency duty.

In 2003, Civil Guard volunteers, who ranged in age from 17 to 90 years, numbered approximately 50,000. While on duty, Civil Guard volunteers have police authority and are usually armed with police rifles and provided with portable radio transmitters and identification vests. The Civil Guard also includes special units that provide volunteer aid to regular police units in a range of activities including traffic control and enforcement of traffic regulations, patrol functions, emergency rescue units, agricultural theft prevention (mainly as volunteers with the Border Guard Police), and others. These special

uniformed volunteer units undergo specialized training and volunteer 4 to 6 hours per week.

In 1994 the IP command adopted a Community Policing strategy. The essence of this approach is that local police forces should work in partnership with local government (municipalities and local authorities) and community agencies, all pooling their resources to prevent or minimize crime, social problems that lead to crime, and incivilities that decrease the quality of life. The implementation process was initially led by the Community Policing Unit, which was directly responsible to the Commissioner. Starting in 1999 the unit is gradually being merged with the Civil Guard Department, thus joining the two functions of mobilizing volunteers and working with the community on crime prevention and enforcement activities.

In 1999, a system to make the police commanders more accountable to their communities and to achieve their objectives was implemented based on the COMPSTAT method used by NYC Police. The IP Commissioner holds biweekly meetings with a specific area commander, bringing forth statistical information and mapping this information to pinpoint areas and patterns of crime that need to be addressed. The computerization of all policing activities (although incomplete) and linking the stations to the central computer at HQ via an intranet allows for local commanders as well as the management to keep track of changing crime and traffic accident patterns.

Other Departments

The IP's Road Traffic Department enforces road traffic laws, keeps traffic moving smoothly, investigates road accidents, brings offenders to justice, and educates and informs the public in road discipline. Other departments include the Logistical Support Department, charged with the management and care of the IP's material supplies and equipment, and the Planning Department, which manages all IP resources, its budget, staff, and databanks.

ACCOUNTABILITY

At each district level a Public Complaints Officer receives complaints about the IP or IP personnel from the public and investigates them. Alternatively,

the public can send a complaint either to the Police Headquarters Ombudsperson or to the Ministry of Public Security Ombudsperson. The Discipline Division draws up indictments to the IP's Disciplinary Court, where hearings are heard before the Police Judge, two additional officers who act as judges, and usually a public representative, who is a lawyer from another agency. There is also an Appeals Court.

Complaints that deal with criminal matters that are punishable by more than 1 year of imprisonment or the unlawful use of force are dealt with by the external Department for the Investigation of Complaints Against Police Officers (known in Hebrew as *Yachash*), which is under the supervision of the Ministry of Justice and headed by an attorney. Less serious cases continue to be dealt with by the Internal Investigations Unit within the IP, usually followed by a complaint from the public brought to the Public Complaints Officer at the district or headquarter level. It also decides on whether a complaint is sustained or not. If it is, then a Disciplinary Board hears the case and provides judgment. All verdicts are subject to appeal and are then passed onto the Disciplinary Appeals Board for further decision.

Since 1949, Israel has been a member of Interpol, and extensive operational cooperation takes place on a regular basis via this organization. Several police representatives are stationed abroad (United States, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Russia, Ukraine, and Thailand) in order to facilitate international investigations.

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For Further Reading

<http://www.police.gov.il>

ITALY

Italy is located in southern Europe, on a peninsula that extends into the Mediterranean and Adriatic Seas. It is bordered by France, San Marino, Switzerland, Austria, and Slovenia, and has an area of 301,230 square kilometers. Its population is



58 million people (July 2003 estimate). It is a member of the European Union (EU) and has adopted the euro as its currency.

Until it was proclaimed as a kingdom in 1861 and unified as such in 1870, the territory that is now Italy consisted of numerous principalities and states. The state remained a monarchy until 1922, when Benito Mussolini took power and instituted fascism with the assistance and support of the Carabinieri, a paramilitary police organization. The police forces, including the Carabinieri, came together with partisan forces to overthrow Mussolini in 1943. In 1946, Italy became a democratic republic, and it passed a new constitution in 1948. Executive power is exercised by a Prime Minister and a Council of Ministers. Italy has a bicameral parliament that is a mix of direct election and proportional representation. The legal system is based on Roman law as influenced by the Napoleonic code.

Italy has a highly centralized administration. It has 20 regions with limited governing powers. However, most policy is determined by the central government's direct authority over some 100 provinces. Provinces are administered by prefects.

HISTORY OF POLICING IN ITALY

Until unification, policing was conducted primarily by small forces organized by Italy's city states, to

help in defense at times of war and protect people and manage interpersonal violence in times of peace. In Siena, for example, policing can be traced to the 13th and 14th centuries; in 1330, it had a force with a ratio of 1 for every 145 inhabitants. Napoleon introduced a gendarmerie-style force in 1802, and preexisting forces were organized into this force, the Carabinieri. A public security force, the Guardia di Pubblica Sicurezza, was introduced to counter the Carabinieri in the mid-19th century; this force eventually became part of the Ministry of Interior. Through the 20th century until reforms in 1981, the police role was primarily associated with internal security, not criminality.

In 1981, police reform laws gave civil protection, or police status, to five police forces in Italy. The Public Security police (Polizia di Stato [PS], sometimes also called the State Police) has approximately 109,441 personnel. The Carabinieri (Arma dei Carabinieri) has an authorized force of approximately 117,000 persons. The Finance Police (Guardia di finanza) has an authorized force of approximately 67,000 persons. The State Forest Police (Corpo Forestale dello Stato) and Prison Guards (Polizia Penitenziaria) are smaller forces, with respective authorized force strengths of approximately 9,400 and 45,000 persons (statistics for all forces as retrieved in May, 2004, from the respective forces' Web sites). In total, the five forces have a strength of 347,841 persons, a ratio of 1 for every 166 inhabitants.

THE NATIONAL LEVEL

Local prefects answer directly to the Ministry of the Interior and are responsible for coordinating political and administrative activities between the various forces.

Each of Italy's police forces has two functional categories: those dealing with administrative or public security policing (*polizia di sicurezza*) and those involved in judicial policing (*polizia giudiziaria*). The role of the administrative/public security police is preventative, to maintain public order. The judicial police role is reactive, conducting and participating in criminal investigations. The public prosecutor's office also has criminal

investigation departments, but the work of the criminal investigation services within the various police forces is coordinated by the Ministry of the Interior.

Public Security Police

The Public Security police (Polizia di Stato [PS]), sometimes called the State Police, is the largest of Italy's police forces. Subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior, its history dates from 1848, when King Carlo Alberto established a National Guard (Guardia Nazionale) to act as a counterweight to the Carabinieri. It was renamed the Corps of Public Security Guards (Corpo delle Guardie di Pubblica Sicurezza) in 1858, and was responsible for making arrests, maintaining public order, and issuing licenses and permits. The force became dominant in Italy from 1943 to 1946, as it represented a force more sympathetic to partisans after World War II. It was reformed in 1981, at which time it was renamed the Polizia di Stato. The 1981 reforms brought important changes to the PS. It authorized women to become members of the force; it was the first Italian police force to do so. It also allowed for the police to unionize.

The PS is responsible for patrol, traffic control, criminal investigation, intelligence, and combating organized crime. The PS is armed and has access to rifles and machine guns.

Structure and Organization

The Ministry of the Interior has a Department of Public Security (Dipartimento di Pubblica Sicurezza); it maintains branches in the 92 provinces of Italy. It is responsible for research, analysis, planning, and budget coordination for the PS. It is headed by a director (Capo della PS), who sets strategy and coordinates the force. It includes the following directorates:

- Office for Coordination and Planning of the Police Forces (Ufficio per il Coordinamento e la Pianificazione delle Forze di Polizia), including a Service for International Relations
- Central Inspectorate (Ufficio Centrale Ispettivo)
- Central Directorate of the Criminal Police (Direzione Centrale della Polizia Criminale)

including the Interpol office and a serious crime division

- Directorate General for General Affairs (Direzione Centrale degli Affari Generali)
- Central Directorate for the Prevention of Crime Police (Direzione Centrale per la Polizia di Prevenzione), an intelligence branch, primarily for counterterrorism
- Central Directorate for Road, Rail, Border, and Post Police (Direzione Centrale per la Polizia Stradale, Ferroviaria, di Frontiera e Postale)
- Central Directorate for Personnel (Direzione Centrale del Personale)
- Central Directorate for Instruction Institutions (Direzione Centrale per gli Istituti di Istruzione)
- Central Directorate of Technical-Logistic Services (Direzione Centrale dei Servizi Tecnico-Logistici), responsible for equipment, technical services, and motor vehicles
- Central Directorate for Accounting Services (Direzione Centrale per i Servizi di Ragioneria)

Provincial offices of the PS are called the Questura, headed by an official called the Questore. The Questore is the main public security authority at the provincial level and is the liaison to the prefect over coordination of activities within the province.

Police units operating under the PS include:

- The Volanti (patrol) and emergency service
- Traffic Police
- Immigration and Border Police
- Railway Police
- Maritime Police
- Mountain Police
- Air Service (which conducts surveillance and coordinates public order activities, search and rescue activities, and training and security transport)
- Mobile Units (specialized units for crime prevention, antiterrorism, and security during major trials)
- Canine Unit
- Mounted Police
- Bomb Technicians
- Sharpshooters
- Central Security Operational Unit (Nucleo Operativo Centrale di Sicurezza, a special force that intervenes in the case of escaped fugitives or hostage rescue)
- Forensic Science Unit

Major PS police ranks are:

- Dirigenti (leaders)
- Commissari (commissioners)
- Ispettori (inspectors)
- Sovrintendenti (superintendents)
- Assistenti (assistants)
- Agenti (agents)

Training and Recruitment

Candidates who wish to enter the force at the rank of *Agenti* must have a high school diploma; they are trained for 12 months in one of the numerous police academies (Scuola Allievi Agenti). Consoro (inspectors) must have a baccalaureate degree; they are trained in an 18-month program at the Istituto per Sovrintendenti e di Perfezionamento per Ispettori in Rome. They then are admitted to the force upon the successful completion of a 6-month probationary period. Commissioners must have a law or political science degree, and are trained at a 9-month course at the Istituto Superiore di Polizia (the Higher Police School) near Rome.

Carabinieri

The Carabinieri, a paramilitary force first created in 1814 by the King of Sardinia, was created to protect public order and enforce laws in rural areas. It falls within the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Defense. After World War I, the Carabinieri supported Mussolini and the fascists; however, they revolted against him, together with the PS, in 1943.

The Carabinieri conducts patrols, regulates traffic, investigates crime, and conducts other administrative and specialized investigative tasks. It operates in urban as well as rural areas, and thus its territory is broader than that of the French Gendarmerie or Spanish Guardia Civil. It is armed, and specialized equipment includes equipment and weaponry of heavier caliber than that at the disposal of the PS. By reputation, they are considered an elite force.

The force hierarchy is organized territorially as well as into functional branches. It is led by a General Commander. Territorially, the force has

3 divisions (Rome, Milan, and Naples), 9 brigades (Turin, Milan, Padova, Bologna, Florence, Rome, Naples, Bari, and Palermo), 24 legions, 101 groups (corresponding to the provinces), 507 lieutenant bureaus, and 4,625 stations. The station is the basic unit.

There are seven functional branches:

1. General Headquarters (Comando Generale), responsible for planning, organization, and development of the force; and liaison staff with other ministries, and technical and scientific support
2. Training Branch (Organizzazione addestriva), led by the Carabinieri training school (Ispettorato Scuole Carabinieri)
3. Territorial Branch (Organizzazione territoriale) including specialized units for technology, organized crime, border units, and rapid response in addition to the basic territorial deployments noted previously
4. Military Police Branch (Organizzazione di polizia militare)
5. Mobile Police (Organizzazione mobile), including the mounted regiment and 13 battalions for defense of the national territory
6. Special Branch (Organizzazione Speciale) including many significant specialized divisions such as units for the protection of public health, environmental defense, diplomatic protection, counterfeiting and money laundering, rapid intervention and response to serious crime, an antidrug squad, artistic and cultural heritage, presidential protection, the air service, and the naval service
7. Welfare and Leisure Branch, which organizes sport and specialized publications

Major categories of Carabinieri ranks are:

- Ufficiali (officers, general to colonel)
- Sottufficiali (marshals and brigadiers)
- Appuntati (soldiers with no rank)

Training and Recruitment

Candidates for the Carabinieri must be at least 17 years old and have a high school diploma. They

must complete a 7-month training program at the School of Carabinieri in Rome; those candidates who have completed military training may enroll in a 4-month program for cadets. To become an officer, candidates must complete a 2-year training course at the Military Academy in Modena, after which they are admitted to an additional 2 years of training at the School of Carabinieri Officers.

Women were admitted to the Carabinieri after 2001.

Finance Police

The Finance Police (Guardia di Finanza) was established in 1774 to defend the frontiers, and its role became specialized for customs officers in 1862. The force became part of the Ministry of Finance in 1959. It is now responsible for enforcement of financial law, including tax evasion, economic fraud, and economic criminality related to organized crime, drug trafficking, counterfeiting, and protecting the borders from smuggling and illegal entry. It enforces both financial and criminal law.

Structure and Organization

The Finance Police force is headed by a General Commander. The force is organized into 13 zones with general brigades, and includes 20 legions, a central unit, and 11 regional tax police units. It also has some specialized units. In 1992, it had a total of 794 operational centers.

The force has six main divisions:

1. General Command, which provides support for the General Commander, a department for inspection, an administrative department for personnel issues, organization and planning unit, press and logistics, and other administrative functions
2. Zones Command, which administers the territorial divisions
3. Central Zone Command
4. Autonomous Central Unit, which provides administrative/logistic support for the general command
5. Training Command Unit (for general recruitment and training)

6. Academy (for officers) and Graduate Police School (for specialization)

Training and Recruitment

Candidates for the Finance Police are recruited by written examination. Those who pass must attend a 4-year course at the Treasury Police Academy in Rome. After the end of the second year, cadets receive the rank of second lieutenant. While at the academy, recruits specialize in alpine, border, and coastline training or in the study of economics, financial law, accounting, and financial administration. After successfully completing the academy, candidates are offered 3-year tours of duty that are renewed until retirement if performance remains satisfactory. Advanced training is possible for superior officers and career officials at other specialized institutions.

Other Police Forces

In addition to the three main police forces, there are additional policing agencies. The Forest Police (Corpo Forestale) is a law enforcement branch of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests. While it traces its roots to the individual Italian states' contributions toward regulation of forestry, its role now is primarily research and enforcement of environmental protection. The Prison Guards are subordinate to the Ministry of Justice; their role is in corrections, yet they, with the Forest Police, were included in the 1981 designation as one of the five authorized police services.

In addition, some cities have local municipal police (Vigili Urbani), although their status is primarily maintenance of public order, and they have little authority for investigation or other power.

COOPERATION AND COORDINATION

The overlap in function between the various forces has contributed to a situation of competition, particularly between the PS and Carabinieri. The forces are coordinated at the national level by the National Committee for Public Order and Security, chaired by the Ministry of the Interior and including an Undersecretary of State, and the heads of the

Polizia di Stato, Carabinieri, and Finance Police. Its primary role is to coordinate functional and territorial jurisdiction, financial matters, logistics and administration, deployment, and training. This committee has a parallel institution on the provincial level, which acts as a consultative body with the prefect, Questore, and provincial commanders of the Carabinieri and Guardia di Finanza.

A graduate school for police officers (*Scuola di Perfezionamento di Polizia*) was established in 1988 to train senior police management from all the police forces. Courses last from 9 months to 1 year. While one purpose of its establishment was to foster cooperation between the agencies, it has also become a target institution for students from abroad.

Antimafia Investigation Department (Direzione Investigativa Antimafia)

In 1991, the Ministry of the Interior established a special agency for criminal investigation of organized crime, the Antimafia Investigation Department (*Direzione Investigativa Antimafia [DIA]*). Separate from any of the individual policing agencies, it is an interforce structure directed by a high-ranking official of PS, the Carabinieri, or Finance Police. It is staffed by 1,500 employees, seconded in equal numbers from the three policing organizations. Emphasizing intelligence, its departments include preventative investigation, criminal investigation, international cooperation, and field officers.

Antidrug Squad (Servizio Centrale Antidroga)

Established in 1990, the Antidrug Squad is part of the Department of Public Security Central Directorate of the Criminal Police. It brings together the PS, Carabinieri, and the Finance Police to ensure cooperation between the forces on a national level.

Antiterrorism

Beginning in the 1970s, political activism on the left and right took on a violent character, with armed political groups carrying out acts of violence against domestic targets, including bombings of

civilians by a neofascist group at Milan's Piazza della Fontana in 1969 and the assassination of Italian Prime Minister Aldo Moro in 1978 by the leftist Red Brigade (*Brigate Rosse*). The response of the police was initially to increase police power to conduct search and seizures, to increase the authority of the police to use firearms, to extend the amount of time detainees could remain in detention, and to expand the use of preventative arrests. Intelligence services were also established. However, it was the interventionist tactics of Carabinieri General Carlo Dalla Chiesa that were most credited for bringing terrorist tactics under control. Although criticized for violating civil rights, under his command terrorist bases were infiltrated and raided, important links to government officials were exposed by wiretaps and infiltration, and plea arrangements were facilitated to encourage cooperation from insiders.

Since early in 2004, the General Directorate for Prevention Police (which operates as part of the PS) has fought terrorism and subversion, with departments focusing on international, left-wing, and right-wing terrorism. It acts as a clearinghouse for intelligence from the five police forces and coordinates communications, particularly alerts, to be distributed to the forces. It has several departments. The General Investigation Service focuses on the gathering of information and intelligence, and the Special Antiterrorism Operations Service investigates specific terrorist attacks. It has close links with the Italian intelligence services.

ORGANIZED CRIME

The *Mafia*, a term first used in official parlance in 1865 by the prefect of Palermo, plays a powerful role in Italy, taking advantage of weak government and the fractious relationship between the PS and the Carabinieri. Some analysts argue that until World War II, the Mafia essentially complemented the power of the state in protecting against crime, repressing nonconformist behavior, and mediating in societal conflicts. During and after World War II, the Mafia were relied upon by Allied forces to prevent a rise in communism, and the postwar Italian government tolerated violent Mafia tactics when

official police were unable to control a crime situation in Sicily.

Since World War II, the Mafia internationalized and trafficked in drugs and arms, money laundering, protection rackets, and kidnappings. Corruption led to the infiltration of the Mafia into all ranks of government. It was alleged that the Mafia's 1982 murder of then Carabinieri General Dalla Chiesa was ordered to protect then Prime Minister Giulio Andreotti. (Andreotti was eventually acquitted of charges of involvement in organized crime.)

Police action against the Mafia has been a constant battle. One important measure taken in 1965 allows suspects of Mafia-related crimes to be placed under special surveillance. Legislation introduced in 1982 allowed individuals associated with a criminal organization to be detained; the burden of proof was the suspect's habitual involvement in crime. In addition, witness protection programs and asset-seizure initiatives were established in the 1990s to assist prosecutors. Laws against money laundering have enforced the reporting and investigation of suspicious financial transactions.

PRIVATE SECURITY

Private security agents in Italy are regulated in such a manner as to make contractual rules subordinate to discretionary public power. Those who carry the official title of Private Armed Guards (Guardia Particolare Giurata [GPG]) must be licensed by the public authorities at the provincial level. In addition

to granting the authority to use the title of GPG, the prefect licenses guns, approves the employment, and gives service identity to the guards. It also can determine the salary, hours, types of arms and uniform, and the duration of service for a private security firm. The Questore (provincial authority of the PS) can discipline GPGs and can also modify their work instructions, give directions, and interrupt services.

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J

☞ JAMAICA

Jamaica is an island in the Caribbean Sea, with an area of 10,991 square kilometers and a population of 2.7 million (July 2003 estimate).

THE JAMAICA CONSTABULARY FORCE

The Jamaica Constabulary Force traces its genesis to the Morant Bay Rebellion in 1865 when Jamaica was a colony of the British Empire. The peasants in Morant Bay, St. Thomas, the eastern part of the island, had become disillusioned by the British government's response to their poor living conditions.

The Morant Bay Rebellion led to a change in Jamaica's colonial status. Rather than leaving the well-being of the island to a parliament dominated by the planter class, who balked at paying additional taxes, the British government concentrated power in the office of the Governor. In 1867, a law was passed to establish the Jamaica Constabulary Force (JCF). The initial force was set for 984 members, and they were led by an Inspector General appointed by the British government.

Throughout the colonial period the rank and file of the JCF was drawn from the black indigenous population and the officer corps was reserved for British or Irish recruits. Jamaica obtained independence from the British in August 1962, but the first

indigenous Commissioner of Police, Basil Robinson, was not appointed until 1973, more than 10 years after independence.

The police force in Jamaica has a maximum limit of 8,500, and the Constabulary estimates a functioning force of 7,835 (a ratio of 1 for every 345 inhabitants). The structure is extremely hierarchical with a commissioner, 3 deputy commissioners, 15 assistant commissioners, 30 senior superintendents, 62 superintendents, 141 deputy superintendents, 400 inspectors, 1,119 sergeants, 1,802 corporals, and 4,896 constables.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

In addition to the JCF, there is a separate order of policemen who assist the police in the performance of their duties, the Island Special Constabulary Force (ISCF). It was established in 1950 to augment the capacity for social control. When it was initially conceptualized, the ISCF was not systematically structured, but the force has carved out a niche in the division of policing. Members were given full-time status in 1984. Although by the letter of the law, they are entitled to perform all duties and functions of a police officer, they are not used for patrol purposes and are essentially assigned to guard prisoners, provide security for foreign missions, and attend court duties.



There is a Commandant for the ISCF, and there are approximately 1,075 *specials*. They are not as rigorously trained as members of the Jamaica Constabulary Force, and the public differentiates the two entities by designating the JCF members as “red seam” and ISCF as “blue seam.” In times of heightened tensions in civil society, it is not the ISCF that plays a critical role but the Jamaica Defense Force (JDF). Although Jamaica shares no borders with neighboring countries and the threat to social order is from within, from the inception of independence the JDF has been in existence and has been called upon periodically to bolster the arm of the Jamaica Constabulary Force in areas where intercommunity conflicts flare up periodically.

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

The Jamaica Constabulary Force is making efforts to improve the training of police officers. The JCF has been struggling to enter into the age of scientific policing. The early site for training police officers was in Spanish Town; in 1911, the training school was moved to Elleston Road, and in 1957 to Port Royal, Kingston. In 1982, the unit was given new headquarters in Twickenham Park, St. Catherine, and redesignated the Police Training School. On the same grounds, the government of Jamaica also established a Staff College. The intent is to eventually make

the site into a tertiary institution and offer degree programs in collaboration with the University of the West Indies. At present, the Staff College serves the training needs not just of the JCF, but also the police training needs of countries in the English-speaking Caribbean.

The JCF recruit receives 560 hours of instruction. After basic training, the constables are dispatched to the real world for 1 year. At the conclusion of that year, the *rookie* constable returns to the Police Training School for 5 more weeks of training, which includes firearms and computer training. The School at Twickenham Park is endowed with residential halls, computer labs, and a library.

The Staff College provides advanced training for police officers who have been promoted to supervisory ranks. The Police Executive Research Forum, Washington, D.C., was commissioned to do a study of the Jamaica Constabulary Force by the American Chamber of Commerce in Jamaica. The study, titled *Violent Crime and Murder Reduction in Kingston*, is critical of the absence of any ongoing firearm training once recruits have graduated from the Police Training School. The report that was released in January 2001 is critical of the inadequate communications structure extant at JCF and the geographical ambiguity of the command structure.

STRATEGIC DIRECTION

The Police Commissioner of Jamaica, Francis Forbes, was appointed to his position in 1996. Forbes, a graduate of the University of the West Indies’ Law School, represents the new school of thought distinct from the unscientific, undemocratic, brute-force mentality that had achieved dominance in the precolonial and postcolonial eras. Commissioner Forbes has advanced what he has called “The New Corporate Strategy,” with emphasis on:

- Crime management
- Community policing
- Service and ethics
- Traffic management

The police have launched and circulated documents on community policing, and there has been

an effective campaign on bringing civility to the congested roads. The problems of crime management and ethics are far more challenging. The government has established a Bureau of Special Investigations (BSI), which has the responsibility to investigate the excessive use of force. After conducting the investigations, the findings of the BSI are sent to the Director of Public Prosecution, the Police Commissioner, and the Police Complaints Authority. It is the Director of Public Prosecutions (DPP) who has the authority to bring an indictment or refer the case(s) to a coroner's inquest.

From July 1999 to October 2000, the BSI reported 267 police shootings, 188 fatalities, and 135 injuries. Although there are a sizeable number of cases referred to the DPP, only 13 police officers for the period in question had been charged. A number were still pending with the DPP.

In a scathing 2001 report, Amnesty International was extremely critical of extrajudicial killings. The Amnesty report also recognized that police officers in Jamaica were at risk. From 1982 to 2003, there was seldom a year when there were fewer than 10 police officers killed in the line of duty. In 2002 there were 18, and in 2003 there were 20. Although the number of civilians killed by police remains high, the trend line from 1985 is that it has been coming down.

Two recent indictments of police officers constitute a breakthrough and may very well mark a demarcation point for government establishing a new policy of intolerance for extrajudicial killing. In March 2001, seven suspected criminals were executed at close range by members of the newly constituted Crime Management Unit. The police version of what occurred was that there was a shootout. The autopsy report provided by a pathologist representing the deceased and Amnesty International found that the head wounds were inflicted close up—it is clear that what occurred in Braeton, St. Catherine was a summary execution. The DPP indicted six police officers.

A similar incident occurred in Crawle, Clarendon, when four people, including two women, were murdered by members of the same Crime Management Unit. Reneto Adams, Senior Superintendent of the unit, was present in Braeton but not indicted; he was

charged for the Crawle murders along with five other police officers. This is a clear message being sent by the Prime Minister and the Commissioner of Police that Jamaica will not venture outside the path of democratic policing.

The task confronting the Jamaica Constabulary Force is indeed formidable with more than 1,000 homicides occurring each year. Much of that is the aftermath of political violence, which was rampant in the 1960s and 1970s, culminating in the bloody election of 1980 when more than 800 murders were committed. The political parties have stepped back from the precipice of political violence. The persistence of violence is attributable to high unemployment rates and the wealth gap that separates the rich and the middle class from those condemned to poverty.

There are signs that the Jamaican economy is slowly climbing out of its debt trap. The forecast is that the government deficit will be eliminated in the budget cycle of 2005-2006, and that the recovery in agriculture in this budget cycle and the continued expansion of tourism and bauxite/aluminum should usher in a new cycle of economic growth. There has already been a stark decline in poverty rates. In a paper presented at a "Reinventing Jamaica Conference," Professor Patricia Anderson (Department of Sociology and Social Work at the University of the West Indies) provided empirical data showing that 44.6% of the population lived below the poverty line in 1991; that figure dropped to 16.9% of the population in 1999.

Once that growth cycle is in full swing, a modernized Jamaica Constabulary Force, devoid of the curse of extrajudicial killings and having benefited from the critiques of how to make the organization more efficient, should emerge as a vibrant, robust, democratic entity capable of containing crime, particularly in urban Jamaica.

Basil Wilson

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the Sea of Japan with an area of 377,835 square kilometers and a population of 127 million people (July 2003 estimate).

NATIONAL POLICE AGENCY

Background and History

There have been two major transformations in the modern Japanese police system since 1874. The first change occurred during the Meiji Restoration in 1868 and the second after World War II.

During the Meiji Restoration period, the government established a German-style civil police system and used the police forces to promote modernization and unification of the nation. As such, the police represented and reinforced the values, public morals, and official policies of their regime. The police involvement in political and social affairs was one of the foundations of this authoritarian state until the postwar period.

Under the U.S. occupancy after World War II, the position of Ministry of Home Affairs that had directed police forces was abolished and replaced by a far less powerful one without prewar administrative duties. Despite Japanese proposals for a centralized police system to control the chaos of the postwar period, the police system was decentralized.

☪ JAPAN

Situated east of the Korean Peninsula, Japan is an island chain between the North Pacific Ocean and

In 1951, the 1947 Police Law was amended to allow the municipal police of smaller communities to merge with the National Rural Police.

Under the 1954-amended Police Law, a final restructuring created a centralized system in which the Japanese police gave autonomy to 46 prefectures, each responsible for a designated area, and local forces were organized by prefectures under the National Police Agency (NPA).

The amended Police Law of 1954 ensures civilian control and political neutrality, while allowing for increased centralization. State responsibility for maintaining public order has been clarified to include coordination of national and local efforts; centralization of police information, communications, and record-keeping facilities; and national standards for training, uniforms, pay, rank, and promotion. Rural and municipal police forces were abolished and integrated into prefecture forces, which handled basic police matters.

Under the 1954 amended Police Law, the National Public Safety Commission (NPSC) system was retained to guarantee its independence and the political neutrality of the police by insulating the force from political pressure and to ensure the maintenance of democratic methods in police administration.

The NPSC performs primarily as an administrative institution of the police, exercises administrative supervision over the NPA, and indirectly supervises prefecture police organizations through the NPA. The NPSC appoints and dismisses the Commissioner General of the NPA and other senior officials of prefecture police organizations. Thus, Japanese police evolved into an apolitical organizational body under the general supervision of the NPSC and the NPA and free from direct control by the government. The organizational structure of today's Japanese police system is characterized as a decentralized system based on democratic principles, values, and the rule of law.

As of 2001, there were approximately 270,000 police personnel nationwide (1 for every 470 inhabitants). The NPA total force is 7,600: 1,500 police officers, 900 imperial guards, and 5,200 civilians. The prefecture police total is 263,000: 233,000 local police officers and 30,000 civilians. There are approximately 8,800 female police officers and

12,200 female civilians working with the police nationwide.

Japan is a member of Interpol, and its National Central Bureau (NCB) is located within the NPA in Tokyo.

Organization and Operations

The NPSC and the NPA constitute Japan's national police organization. The NPA performs as a subordinate organization of the NPSC. As the central coordinating body for the entire police system, the NPA determines general standards and policies. In a national emergency or large-scale disaster, the NPA is authorized to take command of prefecture police forces.

The NPA consists of the Commissioner General's Secretariat—with divisions for general operations, planning, information, finance, management, and procurement and distribution of police equipment—the International Affairs Department, the Organized Crime Control Department, the Administration Bureau, the Community Safety Bureau, the Criminal Investigation Bureau, the Traffic Bureau, and the Info-Communications Bureau.

Regional Police Bureaus (RPBs), located in major cities of each geographic region, are subordinate to the NPA. Each RPB supervises and provides support to prefecture police headquarters within its jurisdiction under the authority of the NPA's Commissioner General. Metropolitan Tokyo and Hokkaido prefectures are excluded from these regional jurisdictions and are operated more autonomously than other local forces.

Under the Police Law, each prefecture government has its own police organization to carry out police duties under its jurisdiction of prefecture governors. The Prefecture Public Safety Commissions (PPSCs) and prefecture police headquarters constitute the police organization, and the PPSC exercises administrative supervision over the prefecture police and also authorizes issuance of administrative licenses.

Local forces include 43 prefecture police forces, 1 metropolitan police force in Tokyo, 2 urban prefecture police forces in Kyoto and Osaka, and 1 district police force in Hokkaido. These forces have limited authority to initiate police actions. The NPA

provides funds for equipment, salaries, riot control, escort services, and natural disaster duties, and for internal security and multiple jurisdiction cases. National police statutes and regulations establish the strength and rank allocations of all local personnel and the locations of local police stations. Local police finance and control the patrol officer on the beat, traffic control, criminal investigations, and other daily operations.

Recruitment, Training, and Promotion

The NPA, a central police management agency, sets standards of recruitment, duties, and activities of police personnel. It administers and supervises the recruitment, selection, and promotional processes and provides a variety of police training.

Police officers are divided into nine ranks. For the purpose of integration and coordination of the prefecture police, high-ranking prefecture police officers (above Senior Superintendent) are national government employees, and approximately 580 of them are currently assigned to the prefecture police headquarters (PPH) nationwide.

Recruitment procedures at the NPA differ from those of the PPH. The NPA officers must pass one of the most competitive national examinations for governmental officers. Almost all successful NPA applicants are college graduates of prestigious schools. It also recruits from outstanding police officers in the PPH, based on their police career, work performance, and work record. The PPH applicants must pass a competitive written examination administered by prefecture personnel authorities. The examination given to high school graduates is different from the one given to college graduates, who are recruited separately. Almost 70% of the successful applicants are college graduates.

The NPA-attached police educational organization, the National Police Academy, provides training to senior police officers and carries out academic research. It has nine departments, including Community Safety, Criminal Investigation, Traffic, and Security Training. Subunits provide advanced and expert training and also conduct research.

Police promotion depends on rank. Promotion up to Police Inspector is based on a written

examination and professional achievement or seniority, as well as knowledge, skill, and experience. Promotion to Superintendent or above is based on an evaluation of the candidate's talent, experience, and work record.

The salary is based on a special pay scale for police officers. The initial salary for the average officer with a high school diploma is approximately 13% higher than that of administrative personnel. Police officers who are engaged in special duties, such as criminal investigation and traffic patrol and control, are paid special allowances.

Traditional Community-Oriented Policing—Koban

Koban, or the neighborhood police-boxes system, is probably the most unique traditional community-oriented policing system in Japan.

In 2002, approximately 238,000 officers (1 police officer per 541 people) worked at approximately 1,270 police stations throughout the country. Of these, 84,000 worked as community police officers, accounting for approximately 30% of the total police force in Japan. Community police officers were renamed from patrol officers in 1992. They are mainly assigned to 6,609 *Koban* or 8,000 *Chuzai* (residential police-boxes) and engage in community safety activities and provide initial and prompt responses to local issues.

Koban and *Chuzai* serve as community safety centers whose job is to be aware of the problems in the community and to prevent crimes and accidents. Furthermore, community meetings sometimes take place at *Koban* to communicate with local residents and strengthen their relationship with regard to cooperation. Major community-policing services include initial responses to criminal incidents and accidents, and to civilians visiting *Koban*, such as giving street directions, taking care of lost children, handling lost and found articles, taking care of drunken people on the street, making routine visits to single elderly homes, and providing counseling services for local residents.

According to 2001 statistics, community police officers caught approximately 75% of the total penal code offenders and handled the majority of

traffic violations and 60% of traffic accidents. Approximately 95% of the offenders have been arrested and approximately 70% of murder cases have been solved every year. In 1999, nearly 43% of felony offenses were solved within 1 day.

CRIME WAVE AND POLICE CORRUPTION

Over the past few years, the total number of recognized penal code offenses dramatically increased: Police statistics demonstrate that there were nearly 2.7 million recognized penal code offenses in 2001, approximately a 64% increase. The arrest rate for penal code offenses committed in 2001 declined to below 20%, the lowest during the postwar period. The total number of emergency calls was approximately 8.7 million, an 80% increase since 1991.

The fact that the arrest rate for penal code offenses has declined by thousands over the past decade could be explained in part by the complexity of modern crime because of globalization, a rapid increase in the number of illegal immigrants, a series of police corruption scandals, growing public distrust, diminished individual and organizational accountability, and lack of professionalism in policing.

A series of misconduct and crimes by the police have been reported in recent years, such as group violence in the patrol unit, illegal wiretapping, excessive and inappropriate use of physical force (including firearms), extortion and sexual harassment toward vulnerable individuals, rape, drug abuse, negligence of handling cases, and embezzlement of public money.

A deep-rooted traditional police culture leading to systematic cover-up of police corruption, has led to deteriorated public trust and cooperation in policing in the community. There is also a problem in supervising the police nationwide. The authority of the public safety commissions both at a regional and national level is very limited, with their personnel and structure not independent from the police system. Thus, the complexity of the Japanese police structure and culture makes it difficult to counter police corruption both at individual and organizational levels.

In December 2000, Japan's Management and Coordination Agency conducted, for the first time,

an administrative inspection of the police and issued a report and advisory of its own.

Regardless of the negative impact of the rise in crime, the incidence of violent crime is still extremely low. The total number of murder cases was 1,340 in 2001 and approximately 95% of the offenders were arrested. A total of 11 police officers were killed on duty in 2001, including traffic accidents. Among the total penal code offenses, the majority were nonfelonious. Problems of particular concern are those associated with a modern industrialized nation in the process of globalization, including juvenile delinquency, traffic violations, white-collar crimes, and cyber crimes.

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JORDAN

Jordan is located in the Middle East on the western part of the Arabian Peninsula. It has an area of 92,300 square kilometers and its population is 5.5 million people (July 2003 estimate).

The British gained possession of Jordan from Turkey during World War I, when the country was known as Trans-Jordan. It was separated from the Palestine mandate in 1920. It became independent from the United Kingdom in 1946. Jordan is one of the few Arab countries that have diplomatic relations with Israel, its neighbor.

Jordan is a constitutional monarchy whose legal system is based on Islamic law and French codes. The head of state is the King, who appoints the Prime Minister and, on the Prime Minister's proposal, members of the cabinet. It has a bicameral National Assembly that is partially appointed by the monarch and partially elected by popular vote.

JORDAN NATIONAL POLICE

Structure and Organization

The official name of the Jordan National Police is the Public Security Force. Centralized in time of peace within the Public Security Directorate of the Ministry of the Interior, the police is subordinate to the Ministry of Defense and under the control of the army commander in the event of war. Traditionally an officer with the title of Director General of Public Security, who is also usually a senior army general and who reports directly to the Minister of the Interior, has commanded the police. The monarch personally selects the officer assigned to this post on the basis of his military record. As of 2004, the head of Jordanian Public Security Force was the former chief of general staff.

There are few details available about the structure of the Jordanian police. Its headquarters, in Amman, provides administrative control for the police system and an array of centralized technical functions that support police activities throughout the country. The national police headquarters has overall responsibility for police, security, and law enforcement activities. Subordinate to the headquarters are regional



directorates. Eight of the directorates correspond to administrative governorates, and one covers the city of Amman. Until 1987, the desert region had a separate directorate and was patrolled by the Desert Police Force. Under the 1987 reorganization, all directorates were subdivided into 59 Security Centers, each of which is responsible for an area of 5 to 10 square kilometers with a population, on average, of 50,000 people.

The Public Security Force consists of three major divisions: metropolitan (Amman), rural (small towns), and desert contingents. Functionally, the responsibilities assigned to the police are carried out according to a tripartite division of responsibilities on the central level: administrative, judicial, and support operations. The administrative police is charged with prevention of crime and routine maintenance of security and public order. The judicial police conduct criminal investigations, apprehend suspects, and assist the public prosecutor's office. Support police perform budget, planning, training, public affairs, communications, and logistic functions.

In addition to these three police branches, there is also a Special Police Force (SPF) with the principal responsibility to combat terrorism. The SPF actively cooperates with many international bodies in sharing information and resources.

There is no publicly available information available on the total number of Jordan police officers or crime statistics.

Training and Recruitment

Police personnel are recruited mainly among volunteers who have at least some military training. Education for both officers and enlisted ranks is provided by the Royal Police Academy in Amman within the Police Training School in Az Zarqa for enlisted ranks. Since 1987, all commissioned officers of the Public Security Force must have a university degree; noncommissioned officer recruits must have a high school diploma. In 1977,

a Women's Police Academy was opened in Amman, the first in an Arab country.

Michael Sadykiewicz

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K

☞ KAZAKHSTAN

The Republic of Kazakhstan declared its independence in December 2001. Kazakhstan is the ninth largest country in the world, but it has a relatively small population of 15 million.

According to the Constitution, adopted in 1995, Kazakhstan is a state with a presidential form of government. The judicial system is vested in civil, criminal, administrative, and other specialized (military, economic, juvenile) courts. The system consists of the Supreme Court and subordinated local courts. The Supreme Court is the highest judicial authority, has jurisdiction over all civil and criminal cases, and serves as the appellate court for the lower courts. It issues mandatory guidelines on the application of legislation and provides interpretation of legislation. The Chief Justice and other justices of the Supreme Court are elected by the Senate (upper house of the Kazakhstan legislature) under recommendation of the president. All other judges are appointed by the president. All judges, including the Supreme Court justices, are appointed for a period of 5 years and can be reappointed/re-elected upon positive conclusion of the National Justice Qualification College, the highest personnel authority, formed of representatives of the legislature, prosecution, judiciary, legal academia, and judges.

LAW ENFORCEMENT AUTHORITIES

Formal responsibility for law enforcement is divided among the Prosecution Office, the National Security Committee, and the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Prosecution Office, a centralized organization subordinate to the President, is in charge of supervision of law implementation. The Prosecution Office is headed by the Prosecutor General who is appointed for a 5-year term by the President, and each prosecutor subsequently appoints a prosecutor to the next lower level, which coincides with the territorial divisions of Kazakhstan. Prosecutors may bring a protest against a legal act that is contrary to the law. They are allowed to enter the premises of the places under supervision to inspect the state of affairs, to have access to all necessary materials, to subpoena any document required to conduct investigations, and to interrogate officials and individuals. A staff of investigators with advanced legal education is in charge of carrying out the preliminary investigation; however, the Law of 1995 limited prosecutors' investigative capacity, shifting most of this function to the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Prosecutors represent the state in criminal, civil, and administrative court trials. The Prosecution Office has control over operational and investigative activities of other law enforcement agencies; it sanctions arrests, searches, seizures, removal of an accused from office, and



extensions of investigation. It confirms an indictment and may order the return of a case from the court for additional investigation. Supervision of places of detention is also under the jurisdiction of the Prosecution Office. Specialized prosecution offices, which are part of the prosecution system, exist in the military, transportation industry, and the field of environmental protection.

Law enforcement in the field of state sovereignty and protection of the constitutional system, territorial integrity, and national interests is conducted by the National Security Committee (a government agency) with its own investigative branch, national security troops, special operation forces, and educational and research institutions. This system is subordinated directly to the President of Kazakhstan; it conducts operational and search activities in cases related to the national security. All operative employees of the National Security Committee are entitled to use force, weapons, and special means while on duty.

In 2001, the National Finance Police Agency, aimed at fighting against economic and tax crimes, preventing illegitimate interference in business activity, and combating corruption, was created.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE POLICE

General law enforcement is entrusted to national, regional, and local agencies of Internal Affairs, which

are departments of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Their duties include routine protection of public order; prevention and investigation of crimes and misdemeanors; search for criminals; execution of criminal punishments; work with offenders who are juveniles; control over national fire protection system; safety of highway traffic; issuance of passports and visas; control over foreigners residing in Kazakhstan; enforcement of immigration legislation; state protection of official objects and individuals, prevention of acts of terrorism and freeing hostages; enforcement of sanitary and environment protection measures; and international cooperation on issues included in the jurisdiction of the Internal Affairs agencies. The Minister of Internal Affairs, appointed by the President of Kazakhstan, is the nation's Police Chief.

Administrative, criminal, and highway police are major branches of the Internal Affairs authorities. Administrative police consist mostly of precinct inspectors and patrol officers in charge of securing public order in the territory of their precinct. They are involved in regular street patrolling, affairs of juveniles, and population monitoring. Environmental protection, passport and licensing issues, and veterinary control are parts of administrative police jurisdiction. Regional governors and mayors of the largest cities may establish additional local administrative police forces financed by local budgets. Operative, investigative, scientific, technical, forensic, and other facilities are parts of the criminal police.

RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

Operational ranks in police reflect the military rank system. Recruitment is conducted mostly on a contract basis among Kazakh citizens 18 years of age and older. Age limits are 32 years to apply for the lower ranks and 40 years for middle and upper rank positions. Police personnel are trained in police courses, and most low-ranking policemen are recruited while serving their active military duty. Commanding officers are prepared by the Training School of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which is an institution of higher education. Graduates of this school receive an officer's rank and a law degree. The Academy of the Ministry of Internal Affairs is an

institution of continuing education for senior police officers offering 1- and 3-year academic programs. Graduation from the Academy is a requirement for promotion to the highest positions within the police and the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Law enforcement personnel are also recruited from the graduates of civilian universities and law schools. Women may serve in the police force; however, their service is usually limited to analytical and clerical work and work with juveniles.

The system of social protection of police personnel, including early retirement, free housing, and health care, is overseen by law. Reports on excessive use of force methods by police and the rush for quantitative results are common.

Kazakhstan is member of Interpol, which it joined in 1992.

Peter Roudik

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☪ KENYA

Kenya is the doorway to East Africa. The country lies on the Indian Ocean at the equator. Its principal port, Mombasa, feeds the East African Railways which take traffic to the capital, Nairobi, and then to Tanzania and Uganda. The present population of Kenya is approximately 32 million people, with the largest numbers living in Nairobi and the rest in the provincial capitals and towns. The land is 80% dry to arid except in the highlands, which are both lush and temperate. The principal languages are Bantu, Ki-swahili, and English. The society is multiethnic with the largest group being African and the balance being Asian, Arab, and European.



There are some 230 tribes in Kenya, which are mostly governed by tribal elders and patriarchal kinship structures. The Kikuyu, which is the largest tribe, Meru, Luo, and Kamba are traditionally agriculturalists. Significant numbers of Africans are pastoral and nomadic such as the Masai, Samburu, Rendille, and Kipsigis. The country is largely agricultural with large coffee and tea farms. There are sisal plantations and cattle ranches. The average African farmer owns a small family plot that provides subsistence for him and his family with the possibility of a small surplus in good years.

The present size of the police forces in Kenya is nearly 13,000 regular police with 8,000 to 9,000 reserves (a total ratio of 1 for approximately 1,500 inhabitants). The Kenya Wildlife Society has a police component of nearly 800 personnel with vested authority to secure, patrol, and protect the National Parks from poachers while offering safety to visitors. The National Parks and their ambient tourism provide the second largest revenue stream for the nation, after agriculture. Border policing is generally the duty of the Kenyan Army.

HISTORY OF POLICING

Policing in Kenya can be divided into three periods. The first is from the country's beginning in 1885 through the end of World War I, when it was a

British Protectorate, at which time policing was carried out by the military and settlers.

After 1920, when Kenya became a British Crown Colony, policing took on a more structured role, which persisted until Kenya's independence in 1963. During this period the Kenya Police Force was based on London's Metropolitan Police. It was led by European officers, often ex-military, and by white Kenyans. It also had a force of native police officers, called *askaris*, and tribal police who attempted to bridge the divide between the colonist farmers and the local tribes. Policing tended to be reactive rather than proactive with an attempt to establish local European-style law. From 1952 to 1960, the British government fought the independence movement, called *Mau Mau*, largely Kikuyu-led, which sought to break out of the tribal reserves where an increasingly large population was concentrated on limited and poor agricultural lands. While the British Army took the lead in ending this rebellion, the Kenya Police Force, and in particular local policing units, played a significant role in bringing *Mau Mau* to an end.

In 1963, Kenya became an independent country and joined the British Commonwealth of Nations. Since independence, the leadership of the police (*Uhuru*) has moved to the African population. The policing model is still very much based on British-style ranks such as commissioners and superintendents, but its leadership is indigenous. Initially the largest component of the administrative ranks were Kikuyu.

POLICING CHALLENGES AND NEEDS

Policing falls into three main groupings, each with its attendant concerns, some of which overlap jurisdictions. There is urban policing, with particular emphasis on the capital city of Nairobi and the Port of Mombasa. There is rural policing, which involves agricultural regions and pastoral groups in the more remote regions. Finally there are the borders with Uganda, Somalia, and Ethiopia as well as the seacoast on the Indian Ocean.

Urban Policing

The patterns of crime in cities as opposed to rural areas tends to be quite similar with some specific

local distinctions. Street robbery, burglary, and assault make Nairobi a city with fearful residents. Car theft is increasing as are traffic deaths. Electronic crime such as bank fraud must now be addressed. Kenya had to address the terrorist bombing of the United States Embassy with over 200 Kenyans killed and many wounded. The attack on a beach resort outside Mombasa and the attempt to down an aircraft by use of a surface-to-air missile pushed policing into the tragedies of the 21st century. To combat these criminal acts, the Kenya Police, led by Commissioner Shadrack Kiruki and under the guidance of Kenya's President Mwai Kabaki, created a number of specialized units.

These units are based on a proactive policing model and are developing anticrime units, especially in the crowded, poorer neighborhoods in Nairobi. New police stations have been built with the aid of concerned citizens in Machakos, Kitui, and Hardy. Community policing patrols have been set up with the participation of local residents and merchants who endeavor to provide equipment and resources for their community. This is sometimes problematic as it appears that more affluent areas get protection and others do not. However the role of the community policing program is to free other officers to be on duty elsewhere. The community patrols take on an importance as most break-ins occur when residents are at home, unlike typical burglaries.

Antinarcotic units have been developed with the cooperation of the United Nations because marijuana and a local hallucinatory drug known as *bhang* are easily grown. Firearms training has taken on added importance as weapons easily cross the borders and make their way to the cities and towns for use in robberies and assaults. While the typical weapon in such crimes is a long machete-like knife known as a *panga*, firearms are now more plentiful.

Traffic is among the most troublesome of concerns for the police throughout the country. The roads can be horrendous in the rural areas, and city traffic is often chaotic. There are numerous unlicensed taxis, commuter buses, and other vehicles. Drivers tend to speed, pedestrians tend not to observe intersections, and vehicles are often overloaded with people and goods. Nearly 3,000 people are killed on Kenyan roads annually. This figure

does not include the severely injured, which include both the President and a senior police official, each caused by separate incidents. The cost to hospital and family life is considerable. Legislation is under way to license and register transport, have regular inspections, and arrest violators.

Rural Policing

The Kenya countryside, while both beautiful and stark, is difficult terrain to traverse. In the rainy season, which comes approximately twice a year, the roads are quagmires, washed away, and largely impassable. In the dry season they are dusty, rutted, and often disappear in the sand. Communications are limited to radio towers at each police substation powered by generators. Telephone service is sporadic, as overhead wires are often downed in storms or the wire stolen for resale.

The tribal affiliation of rural police is not always matched with the local community. Either way it creates concern for the tribal elders and can be seen as a threat to their authority. Cattle raiding, alcohol consumption, tribal skirmishes, and theft tend to be the most common crimes. Telephones are few in rural areas, and thus reports of crime are sporadic and often by word of mouth (nationally, only about 1 person in 100 has a telephone and this tends to be lower in rural areas). Much of the responsibility of the administration of the law devolves onto the Provincial Administration, which must balance responsibilities between the tribal communities in the province and the local leadership. The local administration can deploy Home Guards to assist the askaris in their duties. Within tribes, there are also efforts to create groups called *vigilantes* (in the best meaning of the term) to act as watchmen for and in the community. Training, understanding civil rights, and avoiding abuse of authority are critical to success of such vigilantes.

Border Policing

While border policing is principally an Army task, the troubled land borders of Kenya have placed a serious drain on the Kenyan economy. Civil disturbances in Ethiopia and Uganda have contributed to a serious refugee problem. This is exacerbated

as most refugees migrate to cities and contribute to urban policing concerns. Border wars and the incursions of Somali *shifita* (bandits) generate the need for highly mobile forces to control tribal wars, cattle raids, and simple cross-border lawlessness.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

During the colonial administration, a police training academy was set up at Kiganjo, Central Province, which is in the highlands. Here askaris from the entire country were trained. These police recruits were drawn from all tribal groups willing to serve and most had a rudimentary but basic education of at least eight grades or had graduated from the equivalent of elementary school. Training was based on Kenya Colonial Law, and efforts were made to develop tribal liaisons with policing. Presently, police recruits are graduates of secondary school and there are some university and law school graduates. The curriculum, like policing, has changed. The Criminal Investigation Directorate (CID) trains in Nairobi at Police Headquarters, while basic programs are still provided at Kiganjo. Firearms training is provided through the military at the Armed Forces College at Lanet, in the Rift Valley near Nakuru. Specialized training is given to the Railways and Harbors Police at their Railway Training College.

POLICING IN THE FUTURE

The Kenya Police Force is struggling to adapt to the cultural, economic, and political changes in the region. Much of rural Kenya remains unchanged in its way of life. However, improved education and development are taking place. Urban life is more problematic as more refugees enter the cities and the flow of poor from rural areas grows. Kenya is working on developing a new Constitution which will give policing a higher profile. The Kenya Human Rights Commission monitors police conduct and standards as does the organization Saferworld in England. Goals for policing in Kenya include:

- Policing by consent not coercion
- Partnerships between police, the United Nations, community, and donor groups
- Building on traditional authority

- Developing behavioral change in policing and respect for human rights, including attention to the most vulnerable communities

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☞ KOREA

South Korea is located in East Asia, on the southern half of the Korean Peninsula between China and Japan. It has an area of 98,400 square kilometers and a very ethnically homogenous population of 48.3 million people (July 2003 estimate). The history of the Korean people dates to thousands of years B.C.E., and historically Koreans always maintained a distinct linguistic and cultural tradition; however, the country has been subject to frequent invasion and attack because of its strategic location. Its 800-year Chosun dynasty had a protected place as a tributary of China until the 20th century. In 1910, Korea was invaded and occupied by Japan. After the Second World War, the northern part of Korea (above the 38th parallel) was put under the trusteeship of the Soviet Union, which in 1948 became the Democratic Peoples Republic of Korea (North Korea). The southern part was put under the trusteeship of the United States and became the Republic of Korea (South Korea). In 1950, North Korea invaded South Korea, launching a 3-year war; the United States led a United Nations-commanded coalition against the invasion, while China and the Soviets gave support to North



Korea. The conflict has never been resolved, and the former front line remains as the de facto border separating the two countries. As of 2004, approximately 37,000 U.S. troops remain stationed in South Korea as part of a defense agreement to guarantee South Korea's security. Contact between North and South Korea was initiated in 1971, and the leaders of both countries held talks in 2000 at the initiative of South Korea. Tensions remain high between them, however, particularly after North Korea revealed the existence of a uranium enrichment development program in 2002.

After decades of successive military dictatorships, South Koreans directly elected a president and passed a new Constitution in 1987. South Korea is a republic with powers shared between the president and the unicameral legislature. Administratively, the country is divided into nine provinces, with seven cities administered separately. The judiciary follows the continental civil law model, but criminal procedure, adopted from Germany and the United States, incorporates elements of the inquisitional as well as the adversarial system.

In the 1960s, South Korea undertook broad social and economic reforms that dramatically changed the nature of the economy. By the end of the 20th century, it was the 12th largest economy in the world. The economy is export oriented, and steel production

and electronics are dominant. After a financial crisis in 1997, the country experienced a significant recession, and relied on International Monetary Fund intervention for recovery. During this period of assistance, violent crime and property crime rates rose.

KOREAN NATIONAL POLICE AGENCY

The Korean National Police Agency (KNP) in South Korea is a centralized force. It was restructured most recently in 1999. In 2003, it had 92,165 officers, a ratio of 1 for every 523 inhabitants (it was 1 per 489 in 1993). In 2003, only 1.9% of police were women.

HISTORY OF THE KOREAN NATIONAL POLICE

Until the Middle Ages, the military was primarily responsible for policing in Korea. In the 15th century, a specialized agency, the Po-Do-Chung, was established in response to crime, but over time it became increasingly used to thwart political or religious dissent as well as common criminality. Although the Japanese only formally occupied Korea from 1905, its influence on policing was felt from 1894, when pro-Japan modernist reformers in the Korean Cabinet created a new police organization on the Japanese model (which itself was modeled on a European centralized paramilitary style force). However, Japanese Military Police had jurisdiction over criminal and military affairs, and its influence gradually led to a whole encroachment of the force. During the occupation, the term “police” was introduced to Korea, and it was eventually separated from the military and other government administration.

When the U.S. military government ousted Japan after the Second World War, it maintained the structure and organization of the Japan-era police. During this era, civil affairs (such as sanitation) were removed from police responsibility, as well as intelligence, which was separated into its own department. An oversight committee, the National Police Board, was also introduced in 1947, although it was eliminated once the Republic of Korea took over from the American military administration.

When democratic activists prevailed in 1987, an independent and politically neutral police was

an important reform. In 1991 the Police Act was passed creating the National Police Agency, removing it from the control of the Ministry of the Interior. The Act also reinstated the National Police Board. Numerous restructurings and reorganizations have taken place since that time. As of 2004, the most recent major reorganization was in 1999, in a program called “Operation Grand Reform 100 Days.” The aims of the program were to instill public trust, eliminate corruption, professionalize the police, and transform the police into a service that served the community.

STRUCTURE AND OPERATIONS

The KNP is commanded by a Commissioner General, who has a Deputy and four Directors General who report to him. Some critics bemoan the fact that Commissioners-General rarely serve in office for longer than 1 year, indicating that political patronage is still a dominant factor in police administration. The Director-General head the offices of Inspection, Foreign Affairs, Traffic Affairs, and Information and Communication. In addition, there are seven bureaus for:

- General affairs
- Police administration and planning
- Crime prevention
- Criminal investigation
- Public security
- Intelligence (including a planning and information analysis officer)
- National security

In addition, affiliated institutions directly controlled by the national police agency are the Police University, the Police Comprehensive Academy, the National Central Police Academy, the Police Hospital, and the Drivers’ Hospital. The forensic institute, the National Institute of Scientific Investigation, also is part of the KNP.

The National Police Headquarters in Seoul consists of six bureaus, five offices, and one Assistant Director General.

There are 14 police agencies under the headquarters: provincial agencies in each of the nine

provinces, and metropolitan police agencies (in Seoul, Busan, Dae Gu, Inchon, and Ulsan). South Korea has 231 police stations, 2,930 branch offices and other affiliated institutes including the Police University, the Police Comprehensive Academy, the National Central Police Academy, the Driver's Licensing Agency, and the Police Hospital. Provincial and municipal agencies have their own specialized divisions and corps. The largest agency, the Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency, has special divisions for protection of the president, national assembly, government complex, and airport, as well as special police security, a mobile police corps, a SWAT team, and a criminal affairs mobile regiment. The Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency also has its own separate departments for Police Administration, Crime Prevention, Criminal Affairs, Traffic, Public Security, Intelligence, and National Security. The Seoul Metropolitan Police Agency employs more than 25% of the total police force.

Ranks of the police are:

- Director General
- Commissioner General
- Chief Superintendent General
- Senior Superintendent General
- Police Commissioner
- Senior Superintendent
- Superintendent
- Senior Inspector
- Inspector
- Assistant Inspector
- Senior Police Officer
- Police Officer

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

There are three primary training institutions for the police: the Police University, Police Comprehensive Academy, and the National Central Police Academy.

The Korean National Police University (also known as the National Police College) is a 4-year educational course with two basic tracks: a regular course leading to bachelor's degrees in law and public administration, and a police educational institute, whose graduates are appointed as police lieutenants. It also is the home to research centers

on public security, anticrime policy, traffic control policy, social security policy, scientific technology, and other special research operations. It opened in 1981; classes generally have 120 students, and admission is highly competitive (the admission rate is 1 per 224 applicants). Applicants are chosen depending on their scores on a preliminary written test, aptitude tests, physical fitness tests, and the National Comprehensive Scholastic Test for high school graduates. Accepted candidates must then successfully complete a 3-week preliminary training program to be admitted.

The Police Comprehensive Academy was founded in 1946. It was originally incorporated into the Police University but became a separate institution in 1984. It trains new recruits in a 1-year program for cadets. It also provides basic education for inspectors and assistant inspectors (2-week courses), and specialized trainings of varying duration. Maritime police officers are also trained at the academy in a basic course for entering officers (12 weeks), and advanced education for inspectors, assistant inspectors, and auxiliaries.

The National Central Police Academy is a residential facility founded in 1987 for training new recruits and auxiliaries. New recruits are trained for 6 months in close order drill, physical training, preliminary education, and on-the-job training. Auxiliary police forces are trained for 2 to 3 weeks, depending on their skills and intended deployment, at the National Central Police Academy.

COMMUNITY RELATIONS AND COMMUNITY POLICING

South Korea's police has only recently transitioned from being an instrument of political oppression or colonial rule to a service to the community. Even after Korea's political leadership embraced democracy, the force's entrenched habits did little to convince public opinion of fundamental change. The first major reforms to address the need to democratize the force happened in 1999, with the Grand Reform Program. While accompanied by a public relations offensive to change public opinion, it also addressed long-standing causes of police problems including:

- Introducing a system of shifts rather than having officers serve for 24 hours at a time
- Shifting resources to ensure more officers are on the street rather than doing desk work
- Basing career advancement on education, examination, and job performance
- Introducing computerized crime trend analysis to assist in objective responses to crime

A shift was made in some practices of law enforcement. Traffic police used guidance-oriented rather than regulation-oriented policies to ensure order. Public order police, who had previously relied on CS gas (O-chlorobenzylidene malononitrile, also known as tear gas) and other physical interventions to counter demonstrations, were trained in other crowd control methods. Through professionalism, the force hopes to remove any connotation of political influence.

South Korea is a member of Interpol.

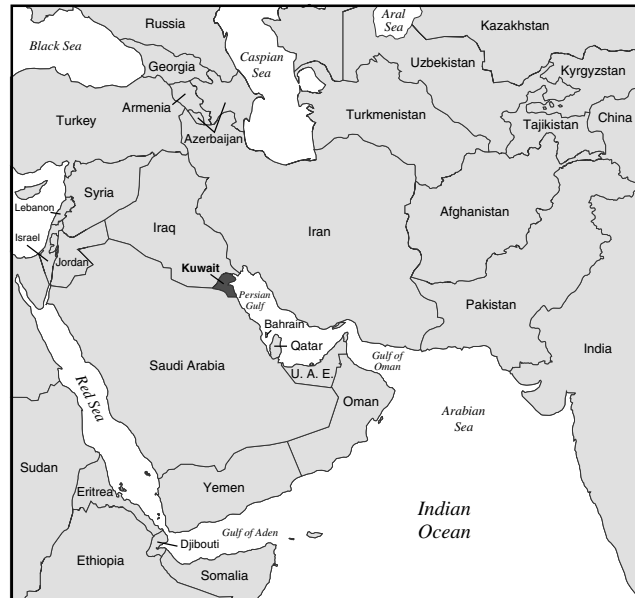
Johanna Bjorken

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KUWAIT

The nation of Kuwait, officially known as the State of Kuwait, is located in the Middle East on the Persian Gulf. The United Kingdom provided



defense and diplomacy for the ruling Kuwaiti Al-Sabah Dynasty from 1899 until 1961, when Kuwait achieved independence. In 1990, Saddam Hussein and his military forces overran Kuwait, but it was later liberated by a coalition military force under the command of the United States. The State of Kuwait has a current estimated population of 2,183,161 people, and this population figure includes 1,291,354 non-nationals. It occupies 17,820 square kilometers. The seat of Kuwaiti power is the capital city of Kuwait.

In Kuwait, the government is a nominal constitutional monarchy; the monarchy is a hereditary position, and the Prime Minister and Deputy Prime Minister are appointed by the monarch. The current monarch, iAmir Jabir al-Ahmad al Jabir Al Sabah, has held power since 1977. There is also a unicameral legislature, the National Assembly, whose members are elected by popular vote and serve 4-year terms.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The law enforcement apparatus of Kuwait is a centralized operation under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior. The Kuwaiti police force is known as the Kuwait Public Security Department, which is the national and only police force. It

is divided into territorial and administrative departments. The administrative departments are Alien Registration, Communications, Crime Prevention, Criminal Investigation, Emergency, General Security, Identification, Public Relations, Prisons, Criminal Sentence Execution, Border, Civil Defense, Planning and Organization, Patrol, and Traffic. The three territorial departments are for the Governorates of Hawalii, Al-Ahmadi, and Kuwait. Each of these metropolitan police departments is headed by a Director of Security, and there are several district commands that are each under the control of a governor-appointed Area Commander. The Director of Security for the Kuwaiti Governorate outranks the other two Directors with the rank of full colonel.

Police officers in the Kuwait Public Security Department use the same rank structure as the armed forces, but the highest ranking sworn officer holds the grade of Major General. There are also noncommissioned officer ranks, which are police guard, policeman, lance corporal, corporal, and master sergeant.

Women have served in the Kuwait Public Security Department since the 1970s. However, one of the conditions of their service is that they be unmarried. They have served in major divisions of departments such as the Airport Police and Public Department of Investigations.

POLICE RECRUITMENT, SELECTION, AND TRAINING

All recruits attend the Kuwait Police Academy. The basic academy is 2 years in duration with two terms per academic year.

Jeffrey Podell

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KYRGYZSTAN

Kyrgyzstan declared its independence in August 2001. Kyrgyzstan has an area of 198,500 square kilometers and is populated by 4.9 million people. The Constitution provides for a strong presidential form of government with extensive authority of the executive branch.

General oversight of law enforcement in the public and private sectors is conducted by the Office of the Prosecutor General, a separate branch of government subordinated directly to the president and empowered with investigative and prosecutorial functions. The Prosecutor General and the lower prosecutors in administrative components of Kyrgyzstan have the authority to decide whether to dismiss a criminal case or to issue arrest warrants, search warrants, warrants for eavesdropping, and pretrial detention of criminal suspects.

The Minister of the Interior, appointed by the President of Kyrgyzstan, is the nation's police chief and has the rank of general. The Ministry of the Interior has its departments in all administrative units of the republic. These departments reflect the Ministry's structure and functions. In addition to the Ministry's control, local Departments of the Interior are also subordinated to territorial executive authorities.

Duties of the police are defined by the 1995 Law on Authorities of the Interior and concern the maintenance of public order and the fight against crime. Police duties include enforcement of court rulings and supervision of persons who have served a sentence for committing a crime. In addition to regular police, the Ministry has two special units for preventing public disorder and crowd management, as well as the National Information System for Criminal Investigations, and a research center dealing mostly with criminology issues and elaboration of police tactics.

The police maintain five operational ranks for lower level policemen and seven ranks for officer. Most of the promotions come within the system, however, executive appointments include a political element. Advancement to senior and executive levels requires a law degree. Recruitment is conducted mostly on a contract basis among Kyrgyz



citizens who are 18 years of age and older. Lower level police personnel are trained in police courses. Commanding officers are prepared in cooperation with neighboring countries through use of their educational facilities. Law enforcement personnel are also recruited from the graduates of civilian universities. Women may serve in the police force; however, their service is usually

limited to analytical and clerical work and work with juveniles.

In 2003, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe initiated educational programs for Kyrgyz policemen and instigated some experimental changes. The reforms are focused on building cooperation between the police and the public, by creating a new service of community inspectors through merging the patrol service with the neighborhood-inspectors' service.

Kyrgyzstan has been a member of Interpol since 1992. In 2000, Kyrgyzstan ratified agreements on coordination of law enforcement activities with most of the former Soviet states. These agreements allow joint investigation and operation actions in the territory of the Commonwealth of Independent States countries.

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L

☪ LAOS

Laos is located in the heart of the Indochinese peninsula in Southeast Asia, bordered by China, Myanmar (formerly Burma), Thailand, Vietnam, and Cambodia. The country covers a total of 236,800 square kilometers, 75% of which is mountains and plateaus. The population of the Laos is 5,921,545 people (July 2003 estimate) and is growing at an annual rate of 2.4%. The capital and largest city is Vientiane. The country is divided into 16 provinces. It remains extremely poor; with 85% of the population relying upon subsistence agriculture.

Laos remains governed by one-party communist rule. Although in 1986 the government began to adopt market-based economic policies, there is a general reluctance to embrace far-reaching reforms. Laos joined the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in 1997.

NATIONAL POLICE

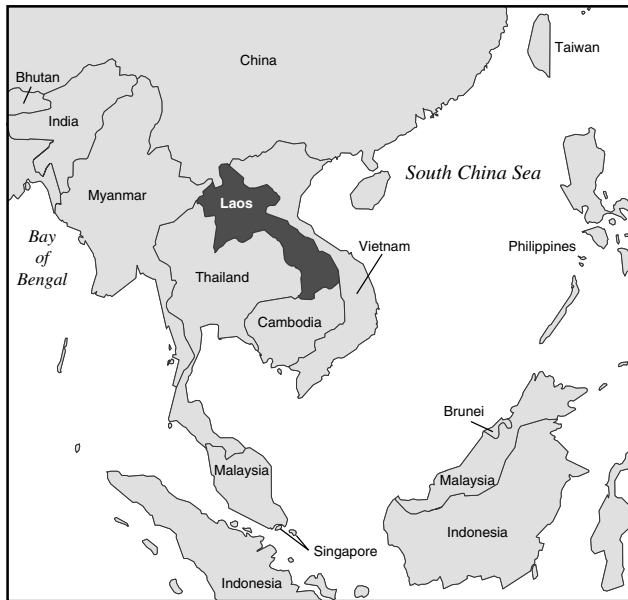
When the Communist Pathet Lao took control of the government in 1975, many soldiers were assigned police duties. When converting from a guerrilla insurgency into a national security force, they encountered difficulties in discipline, training, and reorganization. However, an effective police force was established by the end of 1976. Its mission

was to maintain basic law and order and strictly enforce government policies. During the 1970s, a police academy was established at the U.S.-built police school, where Vietnamese and Soviet instructors taught Laos's policemen basic police procedures.

The Ministry of Public Security (formerly the Ministry of the Interior) shares responsibility for internal security with the Ministry of Defense's security forces and with movements organized and controlled by the party. The Ministry of Public Security forces include local police and specialized forces for immigration and security (including border control and communications police, who monitor telephone and electronic communications). The Ministry of Defense's security responsibilities include counterterrorism and counterinsurgency. A network of village militias also report to the Ministry of Defense.

In February 1998, police officers from Laos participated in a training program for international police officers conducted at the International Law Enforcement Academy (ILEA) in Bangkok, Thailand. In addition, the officers also received training in traditional law enforcement areas such as information gathering and cross-border cooperation from China.

The Ministry of Public Security (formerly the Ministry of the Interior) shares responsibility for



internal security with the Ministry of Defense's security forces and with movements organized and controlled by the Laotian People's Republic Party.

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☞ LATVIA

Latvia is an East European nation of 2.4 million people located on the southern shore of the Baltic Sea and occupying a territory of 38,946 square kilometers. After declaring its independence from the Soviet Union in 1991, the creation of an effective police force in Latvia became a priority. The 1991 Law on Police states that the police are an armed militarized government authority whose purpose is to protect, the life, health, rights, freedom,

and interests of the state and society from criminal and other illegal threats.

LATVIA POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION

The Latvian police consist of the state police, security police, and police units set up by local governments of 26 Latvian counties and 17 municipalities. The state police and security police are components of the Ministry of the Interior. The security police are responsible for the protection of government facilities and state leaders, border protection, investigation of crimes when foreign citizens are involved, and other cases determined by the government. The main police force is the state police. The Deputy Minister of the Interior is the State Police Chief and has the rank of Police General. Chiefs of the State Police and security police are appointed by the Prime Minister of Latvia based on recommendations of the Minister of the Interior.

A candidate for Chief of State Police must be in a senior command rank in the police, have a secondary level legal education, and have 5 or more years police service in managerial positions. Chiefs and Deputy Chiefs of territorial police units are appointed to office by the relevant territorial government with consent of the Minister of the Interior. There are 13 ranks in the state police:

constable, student, corporal, sergeant, first sergeant, deputy officer, lieutenant, first lieutenant, captain, major, lieutenant colonel, colonel, and general. The state police is structured with a central headquarters and subordinated territorial and organizational units, and is divided into three major service units:

1. Public order police
2. Criminal police
3. Administrative

The public order police include the traffic police, minors' affairs, inspection, guarding services, detention, convoy forces, subordinate police units of transport and immigration institutions, and licensing and permit system.

The functions of the criminal police include the preventing and disclosing of criminal offenses, conducting preliminary investigations in the majority of cases, searching for individuals who are missing or hiding from investigation or the court or are evading serving a sentence, and ensuring the participation of criminal experts in investigatory activities.

The criminal police have specialized forces for combating tax violations and fighting against organized crime; they also have the special operations force—the Quick Response Unit, *Omega*. The criminal police are superior to the civil police and local police units, whose officers are obliged to follow instructions of the criminal police officials and hand over any requested information and materials to the criminal police. Issues of internal security, secrecy enforcement, European Union (EU) integration, international cooperation, personnel matters, and professional training are regulated by the Administrative Department. The Latvian Anti-Corruption Bureau is a separate law enforcement agency aimed at the fight against economic crimes and corruption.

The state police is financed through the national budget and has the right to obtain its own income from contracts with other legal entities and by keeping 80% of the income gained from the sale of confiscated property. Municipal police units can be formed by local governments with the purpose of preventing violations of the law, providing social

rehabilitation assistance to persons who have been released from correctional institutions, conducting administrative punishments, controlling the observation of local regulations, and supporting state police and security police forces. If the local police are not formed in a particular municipality, these duties are performed by the state police.

The size of municipal police units is determined by relevant local governments, but they are usually comprised of a chief, his deputies, inspectors, and civil officers. Local police officers have uniforms approved by the Minister of the Interior. Rules for carrying and using firearms are the same for state and municipal police and include a detailed list of situations when a police officer can use his service weapon. It is prohibited to use firearms at locations where other persons may be injured and against women and minors, except in cases when they are executing an armed attack, show armed resistance, or are part of a group attack endangering the lives of others or police officers.

EMPLOYMENT IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

Being state servants, police officers are under the protection of the Latvian State, and the law releases them from liability for economic and physical harm done within the scope of the authority of their service. They have the right to appeal personnel decisions of police officials to a court and the Ministry of the Interior. Police officers cannot participate in activities of political parties; however, professional organizations can be established. There is an elaborate system of social protection, including state insurance, housing privileges, and family support measures. A 40-hour work week is prescribed, and annual vacation, depending on seniority, is from 4 to 7 calendar weeks. Pensions are granted to police personnel.

The police service employs Latvian citizens without criminal records between the ages of 18 and 35, taking into consideration their personal characteristics, education, physical condition, and health. Officers serve in the police until the age of 50. The service period may be extended on an individual basis. Those who served in law enforcement in Latvia during the Soviet period are prohibited

from engaging in police work. Legal and professional preparation for service is conducted by educational institutions of the Ministry of the Interior. Graduation from the Latvian Police Academy is mandatory for middle, senior, and higher commanding officer positions.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Latvia is a member of Interpol, and a cooperation agreement was signed with Europol. EU requirements in the area of police cooperation were met in 2002. Liaison police officers were posted in the neighboring countries, and the International Cooperation Office has been established at the Ministry of the Interior. One of the Office's duties is to supervise Latvian participation in the SIRENE (Supplementary Information Request at the National Entry) network checking data in the Schengen Information System. In 2001, the Nordic-Baltic Network of Policewomen was founded in Latvia. The aims of the network are to develop equal opportunities within the police force, to encourage women to take managerial positions, and to exchange experience and knowledge.

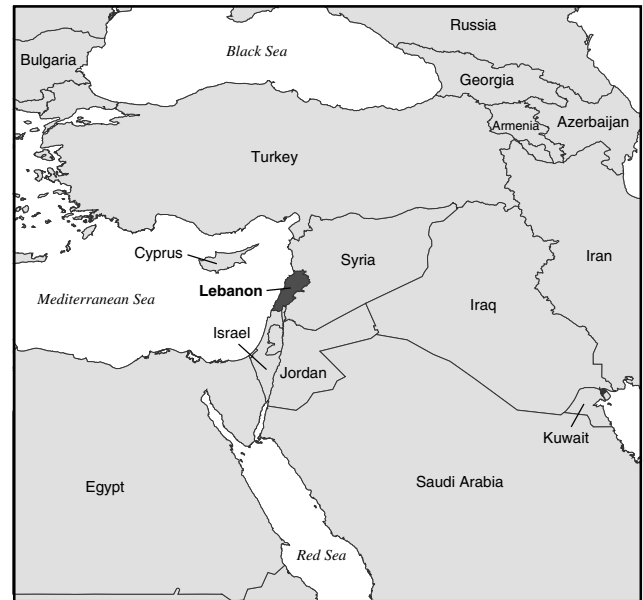
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☉ LEBANON

Situated in the Middle East, bordering the eastern Mediterranean Sea between Israel and Syria, the Lebanese Republic has an area of 10,400 square kilometers and a population of 3.7 million people (July 2003 estimate). The official language is Arabic, although English and French are also spoken widely. The nation is undergoing substantial political, social,



and physical reconstruction following 16 years of violent internal conflict that ended in 1991.

INTERNAL SECURITY FORCES

Historically, French traditions influenced the development of the police and criminal justice system. The first national police, the Lebanese Gendarmerie, was created in 1861 on a military police model. It has been replaced by the Internal Security Forces (ISF), the nation's primary police agency. Although still organized along military lines, the ISF has evolved into an armed, increasingly civilian, service-oriented professional police force. The current strength is 15,000 personnel, with a ratio of 1 police officer for every 249 citizens. The head of the force, the Director General, reports to the Minister of the Interior.

Organization and Operations

The ISF now operates in all Lebanese territories, its regional waters, and its airspace. It is charged with the maintenance of the security and safety of all people residing in Lebanon, including the preservation of their lives, property, dignity, and freedom. In addition to traditional police duties, the ISF guards prisons, embassies, and public and government buildings. The ISF shares national security responsibilities with the Lebanese military.

The Director General commands 10 departments:

1. *The Chief of Staff Department* oversees centralized command, including support services, planning, information technology, research, and international and public relations.
2. *Central Administration* provides financial and procurement services, and manages ISF physical properties.
3. *The Judiciary Police* performs specialist investigations and includes the Scientific, Intelligence, and the Criminal Records Divisions. Its duties extend to financial, money laundering, and antiterrorism inquiries. It executes warrants, judgments, and court orders.
4. *The Territorial Gendarmerie* handles local criminal matters in all territories outside of the capital city, Beirut. It houses the Explosives and Identification Division, Tourist Police, and Coast Guard.
5. *The Mobile Gendarmerie* is a general reserve force, trained and equipped for rapid deployment in police and security emergencies. It is composed of the Central Mobile, Territorial Mobile, and the Rapid Investigations Battalions.
6. *The Training and Research Institute of the ISF* provides police training and education at three training institutions.
7. *The Security Forces of Embassies, Government, and Public Buildings* maintains security at diplomatic delegations and public and government buildings.
8. *The Police of Beirut* provides general policing services, emergency response, and traffic control in Beirut.
9. *The Social Services Division* manages the social and financial welfare of ISF personnel.
10. *The Office of the Inspector General*, jointly accountable to the Director General and the Minister of the Interior, has responsibility for discipline and complaint inquiries and internal inspections. ISF members may transfer among the various departments.

Recruitment, Training, and Promotion

ISF recruits must be at least 18 years of age and be Lebanese citizens. Generally, women serve only in civilian support posts.

The ISF employs a multilevel direct entry program based on academic credentials. Gendarme applicants must have a basic education certificate. They receive 6 months of basic training at the ISF Private School. Direct entry to sergeant rank requires a high school certificate and completion of the 6-month non-commissioned officers' school. Candidates with law degrees qualify as second lieutenants. They attend a 1-year commissioned officers' school followed by 6 months at the Army College.

There are 17 operational ranks: major general, general, colonel, lieutenant colonel, commander, captain, first lieutenant, second lieutenant, aspirant grade 1, aspirant, aide grade 1, aide, sergeant grade 1, sergeant, corporal grade 1, corporal, and gendarme.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

The Lebanese Armed Forces and the Syrian Army Deployment in Lebanon have the primary peace-keeping role throughout the country. The Syrian Army also provides intelligence to the ISF on national, regional, and global terrorism.

The ISF investigated 6,069 serious crimes and 50,000 misdemeanors and simple contraventions during 2002. One hundred and sixty-four homicides, 8,500 serious assaults, and 93 rapes were reported in 2000. Existing hostilities between sectarian clans and political factions in southern Lebanon continue to present problems for the ISF.

Lebanon is a member of Interpol and the United Nations.

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LIBERIA

Liberia is located in West Africa bordered by Sierra Leone, Guinea, and Côte d'Ivoire. It has an area of 111,370 square kilometers and a population of 3.3 million people (July 2003 estimate). Founded by freed slaves from the United States in 1820, it became a republic in 1847, with three branches of government based loosely on the U.S. system; however, in practice the president has always wielded considerable power with few checks or balances. Although returning slave Americo-Liberians frequently clashed with the indigenous population, and the country was subject to other colonial exploitation, it was relatively peaceful until 1980. At that time, Samuel Doe, who claimed to represent indigenous Liberians, took power in a coup. A rebel movement, the National Patriotic Front of Liberia (NPFL), led by Charles Taylor, launched a civil war against the Doe regime in 1989 that lasted until 1997, when he overwhelmingly won national elections. However, the civil conflict has never genuinely been resolved.

Liberia has also intervened and taken part in other regional conflicts, including that in Sierra Leone. Because of Liberian involvement in atrocities there, Liberian President Charles Taylor was indicted on war crimes charges; he stepped down seeking exile in Nigeria in August, 2003. A transitional government was formed, and a peacekeeping mission, the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL), was established in September 2003 to support the transition.

LIBERIA NATIONAL POLICE (TO BE RENAMED LIBERIA POLICE SERVICES)

As of April 2004, the Liberian police were in a state of transition. Under Charles Taylor, the Liberia National Police (LNP) had an estimated force strength of 4,000 (a ratio of 1 for every 825 inhabitants). It was very politicized, and most officers came from the ranks of the NPFL and supportive militias. The force was highly corrupt and responsible for numerous human rights abuses. The reputation of the



armed forces and other special units that played a role in national security was not much better. The Special Operations Division had a particularly odious reputation. It and an antiterrorist unit (an elite special forces group that included expatriate forces) were dissolved by the national transitional government after Charles Taylor stepped down.

Scant resources were devoted to the police. As of 2004, police lacked vehicles and even basic communications equipment. Under Charles Taylor, payment of the police was erratic, and police were not paid at all from 2002 to 2003. Some police property was stolen by rebel militias.

United Nations Mission in Liberia

The mission of UNMIL is to:

- Support the implementation of the cease-fire agreement and the peace process
- Protect United Nations staff, facilities, and civilians
- Support humanitarian and human rights activities
- Assist national security reform, including national police training and formation of a new, restructured military

The UNMIL civilian police (CIVPOL) mission became operational in November 2003. Initially deployed to the LNP headquarters in Monrovia, the

capital, and the police academy, it began deployment outside Monrovia in March 2004.

The peacekeeping mission authorizes 1,115 civilian police officers, including formed units to assist in the maintenance of law and order throughout Liberia (the UNMIL International Police Service), and an appropriate civilian component to support their work. Three police armed units of 120 members each assist the Liberian National Police in performing law enforcement duties, including crowd control. Two units are to be deployed in Monrovia; the third was not deployed as of April 2004. The remaining civilian police personnel are located with Liberian National Police officers. Their tasks include responding to calls, investigating crimes, attending crime scenes, demonstrating respect for human rights, administering police records, and doing community policing; they will be involved in restructuring and recreating Liberia's police service. As of March 31, 2004, the actual strength of the CIVPOL component was 551 civilian police, supported by 267 international civilian personnel and 225 local staff.

The new Liberia Police Service (LPS) will be created from former police who are vetted and retrained, as well as new recruits. As of March 2004, 1,474 Liberian National Police officers and 1,187 Special Security Service officers had started the process of registration, vetting, and selection. As an interim measure, until the new police force is created, the CIVPOL provisionally trained up to 400 serving police officers in 12-day courses focused on rule of law, crime reporting, crowd control, and human rights.

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LIBYA

Libya, located on the Mediterranean Sea between Egypt and Tunisia, occupies 1,759,540 square kilometers and has a population of 5.5 million people (July 2003 estimate). Since 1969, it has been ruled by General Moammar Qadhafi, who espouses a combination of Islam and socialism, although his support for international terrorism made Libya an international pariah. Libya was under United Nations (UN) sanctions from 1992 until 1999.

PEOPLE'S SECURITY FORCE

There is little current information available about Libya's police force. Historically, police in Libya were frequently used by rulers as an auxiliary to the military for maintaining power. After Qadhafi's 1969 coup, members of the military joined the police forces to prevent a counter coup. The police forces were subsequently reorganized along civilian principles, and various regional commands were unified under the Ministry of Interior. In 1983, after numerous complaints that the force had become corrupt and lacked "revolutionary zeal," it was renamed The People's Security Force.

It is widely believed that internal security, particularly suppression of any political opposition, is de



facto controlled by overlapping networks of elite military units, local political committees, and intelligence services.

Johanna Bjorken

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LIECHTENSTEIN

The Principality of Liechtenstein, founded in 1806, is an independent constitutional monarchy located in west central Europe between Switzerland and Austria. The mostly mountainous country of small towns and villages has a current population of 33,000 people (August, 2003). Fifty-five percent are foreign born. The largest town, Vaduz, with only 5,200 residents, serves as the capital. German is the official language.

Despite a land area of only 160 square kilometers, slightly less than that of Washington, DC, and no natural resources, the country enjoys a highly developed economy. Growing industrialization, a substantial financial services sector, and a low tax base provide a standard of living that ranks among the highest in Europe.

The head of state is the hereditary Prince. A senior member of the majority parliamentary party acts as head of government. The country has no armed forces. A single National Police Force, founded in 1933, provides all police services under the direction of the Minister of Government Affairs. The Force employs 89 full-time police officers, a ratio of 1 for every 370 inhabitants, and a part-time police reserve of approximately 30 officers (July, 2002). Police are trained in Switzerland.

Liechtenstein has extensive political and social alliances with Switzerland. The two nations share common economic and customs policies, an open border, and the same national currency (Swiss franc). The Swiss Army provides national defense, and the Swiss diplomatic service frequently represents Liechtenstein's interests.

The Liechtenstein Constitution allows the police to enter into cooperative support arrangements with foreign police agencies. Switzerland, for example, provides medico-legal and forensic services. An Austrian juvenile facility houses juveniles detained by Liechtenstein authorities. Security arrangements for an international soccer match held in Vaduz in 2003 included more than 300 police officers from Switzerland, England, and Austria.

The crime rate is low, with only one murder, five sexual offenses, and four stolen autos reported in 2000. The country's single 35-cell prison, built in 1989, houses both men and women. Traffic accidents and traffic congestion demand considerable police attention.

Liechtenstein has become the focus of some organized criminal activity. Its location at the center of Europe, a highly developed "offshore-style" financial services industry, and strict national standards for professional secrecy make it an attractive center for money laundering. In 2003, National

Police investigators, working under a special counsel from the Austrian Prosecutorial Service, raided major banks in search of evidence of such activity by Russian mafias, Columbian drug cartels, and similar organizations. In response to international pressure, anti-money laundering legislation has been enacted to make the country a less attractive haven for criminal funds. Legal cooperation with European financial institutions and foreign countries has been improved as well.

Liechtenstein is a member of Interpol and the United Nations.

William H. McDonald

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LITHUANIA

Lithuania, the most southern of the three Baltic states, with a population of 3.6 million people and size equal to West Virginia, was the first former Soviet republic that declared independence in March 1990. The Constitution provides for an independent judiciary consisting of the Supreme Court, Appellate Circuit Courts, and local district courts. There are specialized courts for administrative, labor, family, and other matters. The main tasks of the police are determined by the Law on Police Activities of 2000. They are:

- Protecting human rights and freedoms
- Ensuring public order and safety
- Rendering emergency assistance to individuals regardless of their nationality, race, sex, origin, social status, and religious beliefs



- Preventing, detecting, and investigating criminal acts and other violations of law
- Controlling traffic safety

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE NATIONAL POLICE

The national police force is an integral part of the Ministry of the Interior. The Minister of the Interior is a state politician in charge of setting the main trends of police strategy when implementing government programs. He or she exercises political control over police activities. The police system consists of the Police Department at the Ministry of the Interior, territorial police bodies, police professional training institutions, and specialized police bodies.

The nation's police chief is the Police Commissioner General, who is the head of the Police Department at the Ministry of the Interior. All police forces in Lithuania are subordinate to the Police Commissioner General, who is appointed by the President of Lithuania at the proposal of the Minister of the Interior for a 5-year term and can be reappointed only once. This person can be no younger than 35 years of age, must possess a Master's of Law qualification degree or higher legal education, and must have at least 3 years of experience as a chief or

senior police commissioner. The Police Department is a police body that assists the Police Commissioner General in forming a strategy for police activities and controlling its implementation, as well as organizing and implementing the management of the police forces. Other tasks of the Police Department include:

- Implementing the state witness protection program
- Managing special forces aimed at fighting organized crime
- Cooperating with foreign law enforcement authorities
- Recruiting and training law enforcement personnel
- Creating informational databases
- Controlling the use of information collected from databases and other sources

Territorial police bodies are police commissariats, which carry out all basic police functions within established territories. They consist of police headquarters in county seats, which service the county in which they are located, and municipal police units involved in routine police duties. The capital city of Vilnius has a separate police headquarters of a higher level, directly subordinate to the Police Department. Territorial police bodies are headed by officers appointed by the Police Commissioner General. Police units, as structural subdivisions of the police headquarters of a higher level, may be established to serve parts of municipal territories. Law enforcement in airports, railroads, and ports is provided by separate police units.

The police budget is financed through the state budget. Municipal authorities also finance local programs with police participation. In 2001 (latest data available), approximately 20% of the state budget was allocated to the Ministry of the Interior.

The number of reported crimes in 2001 was 1,700 per 100,000 inhabitants. In the majority of cases, operational activities and criminal investigation, with the exception of aggravated crimes and national security matters, are initiated and conducted by the police. The police are obliged to inform the public about their activities, provide access for individuals to personal information collected about those individuals, and secure the privacy of people involved in police operations. Police

officers are allowed to use physical force, special means, and weapons to prevent resistance or offenses while conducting their service responsibilities; however, the law requires that coercion will be used according to the principle of proportionality. Firearms cannot be applied against women, minors, seniors, and disabled persons.

EMPLOYMENT IN LAW ENFORCEMENT

There are three major eligibility requirements for police service: Lithuanian citizenship, physical fitness, and no criminal record. Most police officers are trained at the Vilnius Law Institute, the major educational institution of the Ministry of the Interior, which provides regular legal education and professional knowledge necessary for the enforcement of law. Also, officers are trained at regular educational institutions following professional training at police institutions. Relations between the Police Department and the educational institutions are based on cooperation agreements. Individuals recruited for low-level police positions are subject to 6 months of training at police qualification improvement centers. Women constitute approximately 15% of the force, serving mostly in analytical and clerical positions. The minimum age for service in law enforcement is 18 years. Admission to police educational establishments is allowed at age 17.

There is an elaborate system of social protection of police personnel, including retirement, housing, and health care privileges. Collective bargaining is not allowed in law enforcement. Professional organizations of law enforcement personnel can be created. Police officers cannot be members of political parties or political organizations.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT ORGANIZATIONS

The Office of the Procurator General is an independent institution responsible for enforcing the penal code and ensuring that the detention of criminal suspects is based on reliable evidence of criminal activity. Other police-related functions are conducted by

the Customs Service and the National Security Service within their respective competences. Private detective and protection activity is allowed and is supervised by police.

Lithuania is a member of Interpol.

Peter Roudik

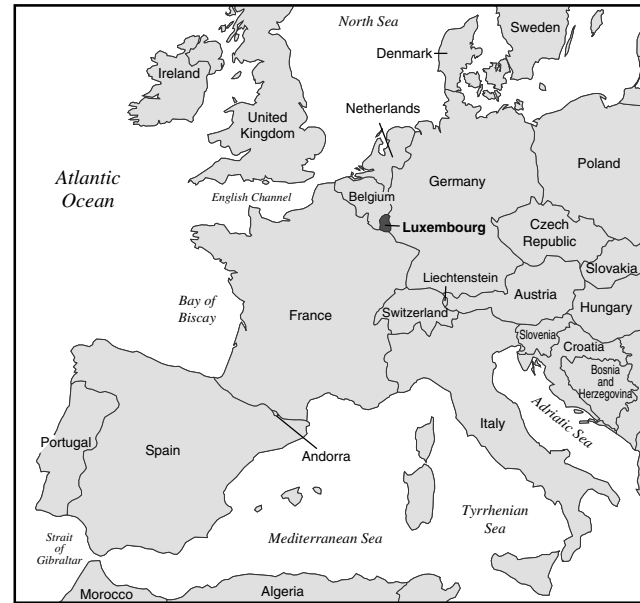
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☞ LUXEMBOURG

The Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, a small nation of 2,586 square kilometers located in Europe between Belgium, Germany, and France, was founded in 963. It became a Grand Duchy in 1815 and, later, an independent state under the Netherlands. The country lost more than half of its territory to Belgium and was occupied by Germany in both World Wars. A constitutional monarchy, where the national language is French, it has a population of 424,000 people. Almost 40% are foreigners, giving it the highest foreign-born population of any European Union (EU) country. It is, according to the World Bank, the second richest country in the world. The country's contemporary history has seen it as a leader of an integrated Europe; it was one of the six original countries that formed the European Economic Community (EEC), the forerunner of the EU.

The country has a very low rate of violent crime with the Grand Ducal police reporting 2 murders in 2002 (although Interpol lists 59, because the police count suicides as homicides), 182 sexual offenses (including rape), 4,917 cases of breaking and entering, and 432 robberies. A 1999 survey of worldwide crime found the city of Luxembourg, the nation's capital, to be the safest city in the world. Nevertheless, there is increasing concern about juvenile delinquency and property crime rates. As of 2000, the incarceration rate was 92 per



100,000 compared to 685 per 100,000 in the United States.

The legal system consists of three Justices of the Peace, two District Courts, and a Supreme Court of Appeals, with all judges appointed for life terms by the monarch. The country is divided into 118 self-governing municipalities in 2 cantons and 3 districts. The Constitution was amended in 1996, reducing the powers of the Council of State and providing expanded powers to the judiciary.

The police of the Grand Duchy were created in a 2000 merger of the gendarmerie and the former police that had functioned under the Department of the Interior. The police force is headed by a director and two deputies and there are a total of 1,170 police officers (a ratio of 1 for every 362 inhabitants). The police service is organized into six regional districts with a central police bureau, which handles judicial policing (including organized crime and an economic and financial crime section), administration, and internal inspection responsibilities.

With 177 financial institutions, many of them foreign owned and conducting transnational business, Luxembourg is a world financial center; however, it has also become the locus of money-laundering activities. The U.S. Department of State designates the country as one of "primary concern" for such activities. The *Commission de Surveillance*

du Secteur Financier (Commission of Surveillance of the Financial Sector) provides oversight of and law enforcement for the financial services sector. Luxembourg also faces problems because of its extremely porous borders, particularly when it comes to drug trafficking and organized crime. Some observers have accused the government of failing to aggressively combat suspicious financial transactions.

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MACEDONIA

The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is located in southeastern Europe, bordered by Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and Albania. It has an area of 25,713 square kilometers and a population of 2 million people. Macedonia became independent from Yugoslavia in September 1991, but disputes with Greece delayed its international recognition; it was eventually internationally recognized as the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM). In 2001, a short but fierce ethnic conflict broke out between Albanians and Macedonians; it was ended in August 2001 following an internationally sponsored peace agreement (the Ohrid Framework Agreement). Regional peacekeeping efforts by the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe and the European Union helped guarantee stability.

THE MACEDONIAN POLICE

Policing was a key element of the peace agreement. Before the crisis in 2001, the Macedonia police force was primarily manned by officers from the Slav Macedonian majority. Albanians, the second largest ethnic group in Macedonia, accounted for only 7% of the police force, although they comprised 23% of the total population (1994 data). Under the Ohrid agreement, the proportion of ethnic

Albanians in the police force was to be boosted to 25%, a measure that resulted in significant budgetary strain. The peace agreements called for the Organisation for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) to assist the Ministry of the Interior in police training and institutional reform. A Police Development Unit (PDU) was established to help recruit, select, and train a police service that would properly reflect the composition and distribution of the population of the country.

The European Union (EU) Police Mission to FYROM plays a complementary role to the OSCE. Its mission is to advise, mentor, and monitor local police with a specific focus in areas affected by the armed conflict.

In 2002, the homicide rate in Macedonia was 6.53 per capita, while the overall crime rate remained low. The main problems plaguing Macedonia are the illegal flow of arms, cigarettes, and drugs across the borders. Members of the police occasionally commit human rights abuses.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The police employ 11,270 police officers (2003 data), a ratio of 1 for every 175 inhabitants. The Ministry of Interior (MoI) oversees a security apparatus consisting of the Bureau of Public Security



(including uniformed police and criminal police) and the Administration of Security and Counter Intelligence. The head of the Department for Uniformed Police holds the rank of General, and the head of the Department of Criminal Police carries the title of Under Secretary. The Bureau of Public Security also has departments for immigration, VIP protection, fire safety, explosives and dangerous substances, analysis and research, and defense preparedness. The Border Sector of the Department for Uniformed Police shares responsibility for border security with the Ministry of Defense. Other agencies authorized to conduct pretrial investigations and other law enforcement functions include the customs agency, as well as a special directorate against money laundering within the Ministry of Finance. Municipal police chiefs are responsible to the Ministry of the Interior.

Specialized units include:

- *Special Task Unit - The Tigers (Tigri)*. Special antiterrorism police unit subordinate to the head of the Department for Uniformed Police. It has approximately 200 specially trained members who wear a distinct uniform and carry heavy weaponry. The unit was formed in September 1991, shortly after independence.
- *Helicopter Unit*. Helicopters are primarily used by the MoI for special tasks: VIP transport, transport of various cargo and special police units, border

monitoring, search and rescue missions, medical evacuations, and traffic surveillance. The helicopter unit is based in Idrizovo. The unit is subordinated to the Director of the Bureau of Public Security.

POLICE RECRUITING, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

Traditionally, Macedonian police recruits were trained at the Police Academy, which has been organized in conjunction with the OSCE since the 2001 conflict. A 2003 law on police education establishes a police school (secondary education level) and a faculty of security (university level).

The OSCE Police Academy, whose premises have been used for police training since 1975, is located in Idrizovo. The Academy graduates three classes per year. The program, jointly designed by the Macedonian Government and the OSCE, lasts 9 months including 3 months of intensive basic police instructions at the Academy, followed by 6 months of field training. The training curriculum is based on European policing and international human rights standards, and covers a wide variety of skills required for policing in a democratic society. An important aim of the curriculum is to ensure that the future police officers become familiar with the concept of community policing. Candidates must have completed secondary school, be between the ages of 18 and 25 years, and be a citizen of the country. They must be mentally and physically fit, have strong moral character, and demonstrate a commitment to protecting the human rights of all people. They must have finished their military service and have no criminal record.

The 9-month Basic Training Program is comprised of two distinct but integrated components: Academy Training and Field Training. New police cadets spend 3 months at the Police Academy. The program includes courses of first aid, traffic control, self-defense, and fire protection, with an emphasis on community policing. Training is carried out by U.S. instructors, domestic personnel (senior national police instructors), and OSCE advisors. Those who graduate from the Police Academy must then complete a 6-month structured field training

program that focuses on the practical application of the coursework and seeks to further develop community policing skills. During this probationary period, newly graduated cadets are paired with a senior national Field Training Officer who functions as a mentor and is tasked with the continuing education and evaluation of the new cadet's overall performance. Once cadets have completed the 9-month basic program, they are eligible to petition to take the state examination, which if passed allows them to receive executive authority. A cadet's petition must also be supported by the Station Commander.

Organized police education has been dormant since 1995, and at present there is no long-term continuing educational strategy. The goal of career training and planning is to have highly skilled police officers at all levels in all units. The OSCE PDU Police Reform Advisors are reviewing the current system and practices to include rank and promotion review in light of preindependence practice and postindependence legislation.

Macedonia is a member of Interpol.

Aigi Resetnikova

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MADAGASCAR

Madagascar, a 587,040-square-kilometer island off the southern coast of Africa in the Indian ocean, has a population of approximately 17 million people (July 2003 estimates). It was a French colony from 1886 until 1960 and retains the French system of criminal justice, and maintains a Gendarmerie and a national police force. Political crisis in 2002 stemming from a disputed election outcome forced one party's leaders into exile; the new government restored calm and undertook widespread reforms. Hundreds were killed in the political unrest surrounding the dispute by security forces, including law enforcement, reserves, and the military.



NATIONAL POLICE AND GENDARMERIE

The National Police (*Police Nationale*) is headed by the Minister for Public Security, and is responsible for maintaining law and order in urban areas. The Gendarmerie (*Gendarmerie Nationale*) falls within the Ministry of Defense and is responsible for rural areas; the Maritime Police also falls within the purview of the Gendarmerie. In 1994, the National Police had approximately 3,000 members and the Gendarmerie had 7,500 members. In 2004, the president dissolved the feared national intelligence service, Directorate-General of Internal and External Information and Documentation (DGIDIE), and announced that a new intelligence agency, the Central Intelligence Service, would be created. The DGIDIE was created in the 1970s and had powers of arrest. Its target had officially been currency violators and other organized crime, but it also targeted sources of actual or potential dissent to the president. The personnel and assets of DGIDIE were returned to the police and Gendarmerie; the future of its archives was not yet determined in early 2004.

In 1998 Madagascar initiated a new training program for police, with the assistance of UNDP, Mozambique, and with international funding for training of new recruits, inservice training, and special skills courses.

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MALAWI

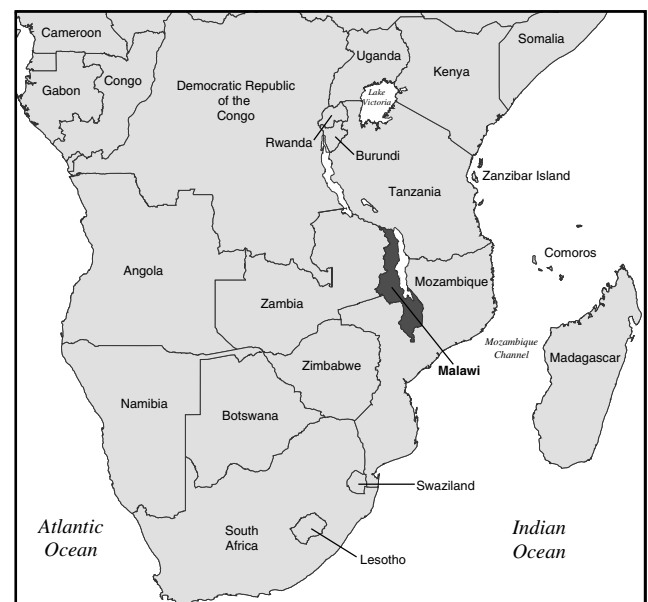
Landlocked in southern central Africa and bordered by Mozambique, Tanzania, and Zambia, the Republic of Malawi occupies an area of 118,480 square kilometers and has a population of 11.6 million people (July 2003 estimate). The capital is Lilongwe. The official languages are English and Chichewa.

Formerly the British Protectorate of Nyasaland, Malawi has been a constitutional democracy since 1994. The legal system is based on a combination of English Law and customary courts procedures.

THE MALAWI POLICE SERVICE

In 1994, Malawi revamped the existing Malawi Police Force to create the Malawi Police Service (MPS), a nonpolitical, national, and unified civilian police organization. It is the nation's primary law enforcement agency. MPS officers do not routinely patrol with firearms.

An Inspector General of Police, appointed by the State President, heads the MPS. A Police Service Commission, which is composed of an ombudsman, legal officials, and civil servants, monitors the MPS, confirms promotions and appointments, receives complaints against police, and conducts disciplinary hearings.



The current force strength is estimated at 5,500 sworn personnel, a ratio of approximately 1 police officer per 2,100 citizens. Because of low life expectancy and the high number of deaths from natural causes of serving officers, the MPS struggles to attain its authorized strength.

Organization and Operations

The MPS maintains four operational territorial regions—Central, Southern, Northern, and Eastern. A Commissioner commands each region. The headquarters is situated in the national capital of Lilongwe. The main branches and departments of the MPS include Uniform Operations (general patrol duties), Criminal Investigation Department, Traffic, Special Branch, Personnel, Training, Research and Planning, and Administration.

The MPS operates an air wing and patrols Lake Malawi by boat. The 895-strong Police Mobile Force (PMF) has a Task Force, Border Patrols, and VIP Protection Units. Essentially paramilitary and separately trained, they do not normally support mainstream policing.

Reported crime has increased steadily since 1995. An influx of firearms from the Mozambique war and the misappropriation of firearms from police and army stocks have caused an increase in gun crimes and armed robberies. Malawi is a major international source of high-grade cannabis. During 2002, the MPS seized 7,600 kilograms of cannabis and destroyed over 700,000 cannabis plants.

Despite a lack of resources and shortage of personnel, the Malawi Police Service has successfully implemented community policing with 350 community-policing forums nationwide.

Recruitment, Training, and Promotion

Recruits to the MPS must be citizens of Malawi and pass the recruitment entrance examination. There are 17 ranks.

All recruits join as constables, although those with higher educational qualifications can become Cadet Inspectors and progress through the senior ranks. Approximately 6% of the workforce is

female. All training is delivered at the Malawi Police Service Training School based at Limbe. Senior officers are trained at the Police College at Zomba. PMF training is delivered at M'Takataka College Wing and Mulangeni Reserve Camp.

Since 1994, substantial donor aid for police reform and modernization has been provided by the United Kingdom.

Other Law Enforcement and Security Organizations

Malawi has two separate Customs and Immigration Agencies. With funding from the United Kingdom, the Malawi Customs Department has modernized and reformed and coordinates operations with the MPS Anti-drugs Unit.

The MPS report a rapidly expanding private security industry.

Malawi is a member of Interpol.

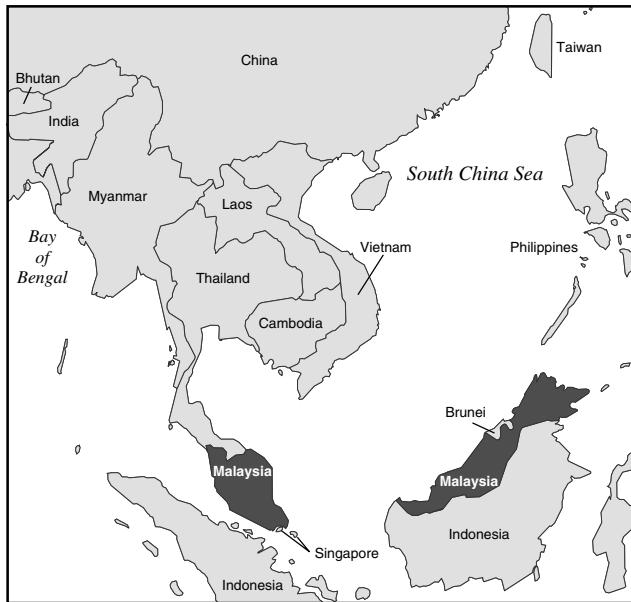
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MALAYSIA

Malaysia is located on the southern part of the South Asian peninsula (between Thailand and Singapore), as well as on the northern third of the island of Borneo (bordering Indonesia and Brunei). It has a total area of 329,750 square kilometers and



a population of 23 million people (July 2003 estimate), of whom two thirds live in the lowlands of Peninsular Malaysia. The area has been strategic for maritime trade between the Middle East, India, and China for millennia, and all these trading partners have left their influence on the region. Malays, who are Muslim by constitutional definition, are politically dominant. The second largest ethnic group is Chinese, who make up approximately 25% of the population. Finally, 7% of the population are Indians. The population on North Borneo consists of more than 50% indigenous ethnic groups.

European forays into southeast Asia began with the Portuguese conquest of Malacca, and the region traded hands back and forth between the Dutch and British before being united as the Colony of the Straits Settlements in 1824 (comprising Malacca, Penang, and Singapore). Territories on the South Asian Peninsula negotiated independence from the British in 1948 as the Federation of Malaysia; they were joined by the former colonies of Singapore, Sarawak, and Sabah (North Borneo) in 1963. Singapore withdrew from the Federation in 1965 and became independent.

Malaysia is a federation of 13 states and 3 federal territories; the federal government remains responsible for internal security. It is a constitutional monarchy, with Islam as the state religion, but kings are

elected to 5-year terms from the sultans of the peninsular states. Prime ministers are chosen from and by the majority party in the lower house of Malaysia's bicameral legislature. Much of the administration, including the legal system, was inherited from British common law.

ROYAL MALAYSIAN POLICE

In British colonial times, each state had its own police force. As the impetus for independence grew, the different forces united, and the first federal police force in Malaysia was created in 1946. The Royal Malaysian Police was officially established at the time of independence in 1963.

In 2000, Malaysia had 82,383 police personnel, a ratio of 1 for every 265 inhabitants. Women comprised 8,008 members of the police force, or 9.7%. The force historically has been dominated by people of Malay ethnicity, a trend the force hopes to reverse by emphasizing minority recruitment.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) is subordinate to the Ministry of Home Affairs and is headed by an Inspector General who reports to the minister. Work of the police is also supervised by the Royal Malaysian Police Force Commission, chaired by the Home Minister but with the participation of other relevant officials, including the Inspector General. The RMP Commission's duties include quality, discipline, promotion, and other appointments.

The RMP is highly centralized; each of Malaysia's 13 states has a force that is subordinate to the federal-level RMP. At the federal level, four directors (with the rank of Commissioner of Police) control the Management, Criminal Investigation, Internal Security and Public Order, and the Special Branch (which collects, processes, and disseminates intelligence information) departments.

These structures are mirrored at the state level, in which each has branches for Criminal Investigation, Special Branch, and Administration. State forces are headed by a chief police officer (or Commissioner

of Police). Territorially and administratively, the state forces are subdivided into districts, police station areas, and police beats and patrols.

COMMUNITY POLICING AND RELATIONS

Historically, the RMP has suffered from a poor image in the eyes of the public, who perceive it as brutal, an instrument of repression, and corrupt. In addition, retaliation against those who report crime to the police dissuades many in the community from participating in the criminal justice process. The RMP has tried to combat this image through increased public communication, particularly at the police station level. Police make visits to homes, neighborhood shops, and markets; they make presentations in schools and neighborhood voluntary associations; and they advise business owners on security precautions to prevent crime.

Human rights groups, however, point out that there is a great deal of impunity when officers are found responsible for excesses; even when police officers are found responsible for criminal abuses, the High Court does not order that action be taken against them. The police seldom make public the results of their investigations. However, in December 2003 the Prime Minister (at the time, also holding the portfolio of the Home Affairs Minister) established a Royal Commission to review police brutality, poor service, and corruption.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Police can enter the police force at three levels: as constable, probationary inspector, or assistant superintendent of police. Constables are required to be Malaysian citizens between the ages of 18 and 28 years, they must have a secondary education, and they must be in good physical shape. Candidate recruits attend 6 months of training at the Police Training Center in Kuala Lumpur.

Those who otherwise meet the requirements who have a diploma or high school education certificate (equivalent to the British “A level”)

can be candidates for probationary inspectors. A bachelor’s degree is required to enter as an assistant superintendent. Candidates for these positions also attend the 6 months of training at the Police Training Center, but are given an additional 3 months of advanced training at the Royal Malaysian Police College.

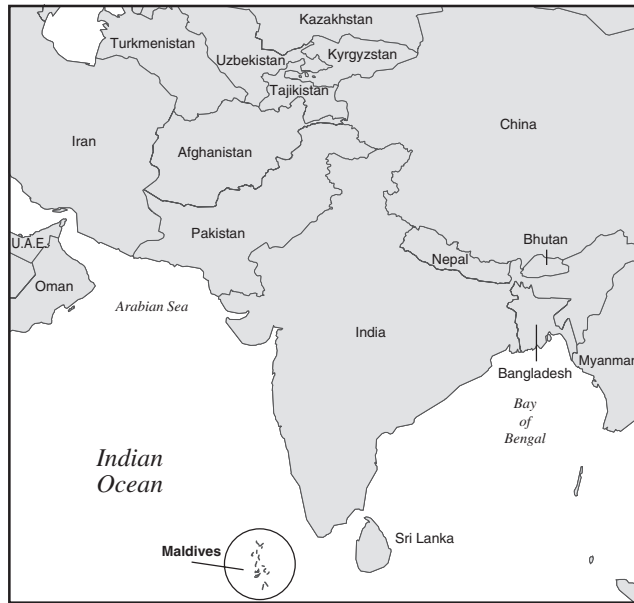
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MALDIVES

The Maldives is a republic of more than 1,000 small islands west of India and Sri Lanka in the Indian Ocean. It occupies 300 square kilometers and has a population of 330,000 people (July 2003 estimate). It gained independence from the United Kingdom in 1960. The economy is based primarily on tourism and fishing. In recent years, increasing dissent against the centralized power of the presidency has led to government crackdowns against protesters and opposition figures, particularly following prison riots in September 2003.



NATIONAL SECURITY SERVICE

The first militia in the Maldives was formed in the 16th century, which included land and sea units. A special elite unit, the *sifian*, was established in the 19th century. The *sifian* had a primarily ceremonial military role until the 1950s, when it was transformed into a security service. It was renamed the National Security Service (NSS) in the 1970s.

The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. The sole security force for the Maldives is the NSS, and it is headed by a Director who reports to the Minister of Defense. In 2003, the President was also the Minister of Defense (as well as holding other posts).

Members of the NSS serve in both military and police capacities during their career. In 1994, the NSS had 1,800 members, performing army, police, and maritime duties, a ratio of 1 for every 180 inhabitants. (In 1997, it reported that the number of personnel working specifically in the police was 187, or 1 for every 1,700 inhabitants).

A police division within the NSS investigates crimes, collects intelligence, makes arrests, and enforces house arrests. The National Security Service is also responsible for immigration and control of the borders and intelligence. Specialized units include a presidential guard and civil defense.

A Police Security and Fire Training Center trains police and firefighters, as well as immigration, border, and customs guards. It also gives training to security officers for government and private buildings. Members of the National Security Force train in numerous other countries; the United States has provided training for the force from the nearby Diego Garcia airbase.

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MALTA

The Republic of Malta is composed of islands in the Mediterranean Sea, south of Sicily, Italy. It has an area of 316 square kilometers and a population of 400,000 people (July 2003 estimate). The people of Malta are significantly influenced by their European and North African neighbors. The country's two official languages are Maltese, a Semitic language, and English. Malta was acquired by Great Britain in 1814, but its legal system is based on civil law practice. It became independent in 1964, and a member of the European Union in May 2004. The primary economic basis of the country is tourism.



THE MALTA POLICE FORCE

The Maltese Police Force was established in 1814 by the British, who modeled it after the United Kingdom's force. It has approximately 1,800 serving members, a ratio of 1 for every 222 inhabitants. In 1994, 12% of the force were women. The armed forces occasionally participate in law enforcement activities. Current priorities for the force include combating the narcotics trade and international cooperation.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Malta Police is a part of the Ministry of Justice and Home Affairs. It is headed by a Commissioner, whose headquarters are in the capital, Floriana.

The ranks of the police are:

- Constable
- Sergeant
- Sergeant Major
- Regimental Sergeant Major
- Inspector
- Superintendent
- Assistant Commissioner
- Deputy Commissioner
- Commissioner

An elite unit, the Special Assignment Group, is a specialized armed intervention unit. Normally, police are unarmed but have batons and handguns available in case of need.

In 1998, the Malta Police embarked on leadership and organizational training to reform the management and vision of the force. One important outcome was a further commitment to serving the community. To help reach this goal, the organization implemented changes to increase the number of "beat patrols" in order to respond to public disturbances, vandalism, and traffic violations. It did this by removing noncore activities from police responsibility, replacing officers engaged in administrative functions with civilian personnel, reducing the number of officers deployed to court duty, analyzing local information to ensure deployment to priority areas, and increasing the efficiency of emergency response.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Recruits to the Maltese police must be at least 18 years of age, have a record of good conduct and character, and meet certain physical requirements. They must possess a secondary education. Successful recruits complete a 6-month training course at the Police Academy and enter the force as constables. The Academy faculty includes serving and retired officers, lawyers, university lecturers, and judicial personnel. Cadets receive 2 years of further education at the Police Academy. Serving police officers participate in periodic in-service training; most of which are for senior officers. Many officers also seek advanced training in international courses abroad.

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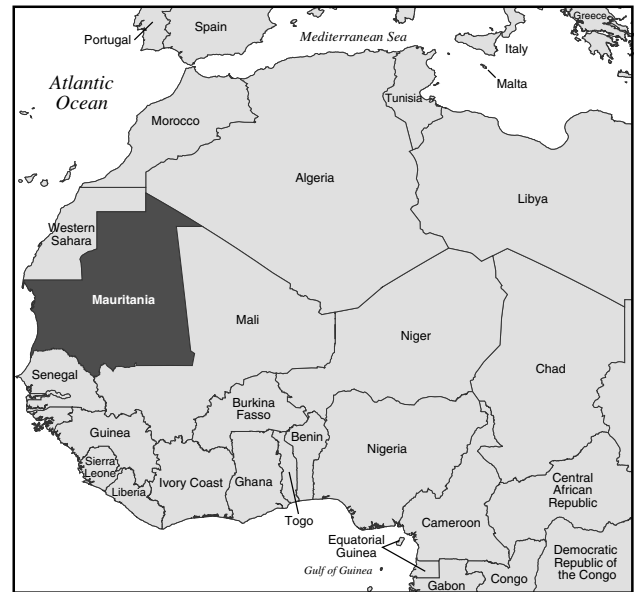
MAURITANIA

Mauritania is located on the Atlantic coast in North Africa, covering 1,030,700 square kilometers between Western Sahara and Senegal. Its population of 2.9 million people (July 2003 estimate) is mixed between Arab-Berber, who migrated from the north in the 3rd through 7th centuries, and indigenous black ethnic groups. It was a French colony until 1960, at which time its population was 90% nomadic and livelihoods were largely based on agriculture. Years of drought, desertification, and infestation have contributed to widespread poverty and migration to urban areas. Slavery, primarily of blacks by white Moors, was not abolished until 1981. Racial and ethnic identity continues to steer politics, as well as economic and social status.

In Mauritania, the Ministry of the Interior controls internal security. The National Police is responsible for police in urban areas; it reports to the Director of National Security, a post under the Ministry of the Interior. Local authorities control police in their prefects and towns; each is responsible ultimately to the Ministry of the Interior through the governing structures for the region. The police are in charge of law enforcement and criminal investigation, with strong powers independent of judicial oversight.

The National Guard is responsible for maintaining law and order in rural areas; it complements the National Police in urban areas during times of emergency. The Presidential Guard, a special unit within the National Guard, protects the president and his home.

In 1986, the National Police consisted of 1,000 people, the National Guard consisted of 1,400, and the Gendarmerie 2,500 (which, given the population at the time, was a ratio of 1 officer for every 367 inhabitants).



The National Gendarmerie, a paramilitary force that in 1987 had six companies, enforces civilian and military law in both rural and urban areas. It was originally part of the army but evolved into a separate force with its own headquarters, reporting to the Chief of Staff of the Armed Forces.

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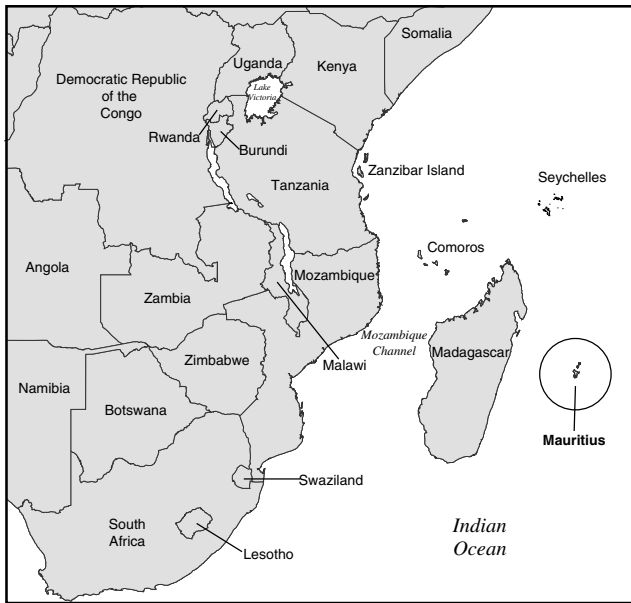
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MAURITIUS

Mauritius is located in South Africa and consists of islands in the Indian Ocean east of Madagascar. It has an area of 2,040 square kilometers and a population of 1.2 million people (July 2003 estimate). Discovered by the Portuguese in 1505, Mauritius was subsequently held by the Dutch, French, and British before independence was attained in 1968.



MAURITIUS POLICE FORCE

The origin of a police organization in Mauritius can be traced back as far as 1766 when the island was in French possession. From the British occupation in 1810 two Commanding Officers of Police were appointed, one British and one French.

The present organization of the Mauritius Police Force appears to have resulted from a Commission of Enquiry in 1859, which amalgamated the state police with the municipal police under one commanding officer bearing the title of Inspector General of Police. This title was changed to that of Commissioner of Police in 1934.

The current police force of approximately 9,000 officers (a ratio of 1 for every 133 inhabitants), is organized into:

- Police Headquarters
- Police Districts
- Branches and Units

The Office of the Commissioner of Police is located at the Police Headquarters building in Line Barracks, Port Louis (the island's capital). This is the administrative center for the entire police force. The Commissioner of Police is assisted by Deputy Commissioners, each in charge of a designated area of responsibility.

The Republic of Mauritius is divided into seven Police Districts, each under the command of an Assistant Commissioner and two Superintendents. Each district has its own headquarters block.

The Police Districts are further divided into policing areas known as Police Station areas, with each station being under the charge of a Chief Inspector, Inspector, or Sergeant, depending on its classification and workload.

The main departments operating within the force are:

- *Criminal Investigation Department*: a central bureau with specialist squads including those of homicide and fraud as well as district teams.
- *Anti-Drugs and Smuggling Unit*: dealing with offenses relating to the misuse of drugs, customs and excise laws; and prostitution and gambling, among others.
- *Traffic Branch*: responsible for traffic control, all road accidents; administration of driving tests, issuing driving licences.
- *National Security Service*: responsible for all matters of internal security under the command of a Director (senior police officer).
- *Passport and Immigration Office*: commanded by the Passport and Immigration Officer (Superintendent) and responsible for all immigration affairs (including the immigration counters at ports and the airport), issue and renewal of passports, and registration of foreign nationals.
- *National Coast Guard*: paramilitary specialist unit of the Police Force headed by the Commandant, usually on deputation from the Government of India. The Commandant is responsible to the Commissioner of Police for security and the prevention of illegal activities within the Mauritian Coastline and Exclusive Economic Zone.
- *Marine Authority*: responsible for law and order within the port and headed by a Superintendent.
- *Special Mobile Force (SMF)*: paramilitary unit headed by a Commanding Officer. This is the largest Mauritian specialist police unit and is specifically trained to deal with cases of serious civil disturbances, search and rescue operations, and aid to civil authorities during disasters.
- *Airport Police*: responsible for law and order throughout the airport complex and the security of aircraft.

- *Special Support Unit*: kept in permanent readiness to deal promptly with outbreaks of disorderly behavior and riots.
- *Police Training School*: responsible for most aspects of training for all ranks. In recent years, following the 1987 Chesworth Report, the training has been radically restructured, with a shift away from traditional *militaristic* models, toward a *student-centered* and *facilitative* style, which includes the establishment of a Management Training Unit. The new program of recruit training was adapted from the London Metropolitan Police model. In 1999, with the assistance of Training School personnel, a BSc (Honors) Degree Course in Police Studies commenced at the University of Mauritius for selected cadres of police officers up to the rank of Superintendent. The course is run as a collaborative venture between the local University and the Institute of Criminal Justice Studies, University of Portsmouth, United Kingdom.

As of 2003, under the command of Commissioner of Police, Mr. Ramanooj Gopalsingh, PMSM, the force has achieved considerable progress in developing a 3-year strategic plan for reform and organizational growth, which covers all aspects of policing from operations to human resource management. Many additional functional units have been established as a result of the reorganization program, such as:

- Major Crime Investigation Team
- Scene of Crime Officers Unit
- Emergency Response Service
- Divisional Support Unit
- Police Fiscal Unit
- Fraud Squad
- Anti-Piracy Unit
- Brigade des Jeux
- Family Protection Unit
- Police de l'Environnement
- Information Technology Unit
- Police du Tourisme

The Commissioner of Police is also responsible for the policing of Rodrigues Island positioned some 300 kilometers off the coast of Mauritius.

Bill Scurlock and Tom Ellis

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☉ MEXICO

Mexico is a federal democracy with an area of 1,964,735 square kilometers and a population of 103.5 million people (January 2003). It is located in North America, bordering the United States and Guatemala, between the North Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico. As a large federation of 31 states and 1 federal district, Mexico maintains a complex variety of police forces with different functions and jurisdictions. Though estimates vary based on different definitions, poor centralized data collection, and changing conditions, there are currently more than 350,000 police officers in the country and approximately 3,000 different forces at municipal, state, and federal levels. Besides the multiplicity of police in Mexico, the other outstanding features of the country's police are their corruption, growing militarization, poor preparation, and ineffectiveness in fighting increasingly severe crime. Some causes and attempted redresses for these problems are explored below.

There is no predominant police force that represents Mexico's policing in a definitive way. However, recent reforms in three of the most significant police bodies serve to demonstrate the complex and fluctuating picture of Mexican policing. First, the Federal Attorney General's Office (*Procuraduría General de la República* [PGR]) established a new police force, the Federal Agency of Investigation (*Agencia Federal de Investigaciones* [AFI]), which replaced the notoriously corrupt Federal Judicial Police (*Policía Judicial Federal* [PJF]) by the presidential decree of Vicente Fox (2000-2006) on November 1, 2001.

Second, the Federal Preventive Police (*Policía Federal Preventiva* [PFP]) was created in 1999 by the initiative of President Ernesto Zedillo (1994-2000) to prevent and combat crime throughout the country. The PFP is assuming its authority in stages over time,



as its budget has grown and it has combined and reorganized police departments from major agencies such as those for migration, treasury, and highways.

Third, the Secretary of Public Security of the Federal District (*Secretaría de Seguridad Pública del Distrito Federal* [SSP]) does not have national reach like the previous two, but it does manage a combined force of more than 90,000 officers in the Federal District (DF). The SSP is charged with maintaining public order and safety in the center of Mexico City, where public insecurity and crime rates are the highest in the nation. As a result, there have been concurrent efforts to increase accountability and improve police effectiveness. Beginning in 1996, authorities began a dramatic restructuring of the SSP, which included replacing major officials with army officers. The most high-profile effort was Mayor Andres Lopez Obrador's announcement in 2002 that the DF would contract former New York City Mayor Rudolph Giuliani as a consultant to the SSP.

The police in Mexico, properly understood, are the public security forces charged with the prevention and investigation of crimes; these forces are therefore meant to support the Public Ministry (*Ministerio Público*) and the judiciary. Given the changing, complex nature of these police institutions, two defining dimensions—function and jurisdiction—enable the clearest description.

FUNCTIONAL DESCRIPTION OF THE POLICE

Typical of Latin America, Mexico's police has a dual structure, composed of:

- Preventive police (the order-controlling *policía preventiva*)
- Judicial police (the typically plainclothes, investigative *policía judicial*)

The preventive police do what is often called “ostensive policing” and thus maintain order and public security in cities and towns; they do not investigate crimes and only assist the Public Ministry at its request. They are empowered to act according to police and governmental regulations (Article 21 of the Constitution).

The judicial police are auxiliaries to the Public Ministry and act under its authority and command. The judicial police belong to institutions known as *procuraduría generales*, which are important justice institutions translated as attorneys general offices or sometimes *procuracias*. There are three key types of police actors in this type of law enforcement:

1. Police officers (*policías judiciales*)
2. Investigating agents of the public prosecutor (often simply called *ministerios públicos*)
3. Technical experts (*peritos*)

Depending on their jurisdiction, judicial police enforce federal law (*fuero federal*) or local law (*fuero común*).

According to the National Public Security System (*Sistema Nacional de Seguridad Pública* [SNSP]) municipal- and state-level police forces employed approximately 280,000 officers in 1999. The nearly 34,000 preventive police of the federal district (i.e., Mexico City) and the federal preventive police (which operates throughout the country) raised the number to 319,600 preventive police in 1999. Today there are probably more than 330,000 preventive police. The judicial police force, which numbered 24,069 at the last official count in 1999, now certainly number more than 25,000.

JURISDICTIONAL DESCRIPTION OF THE POLICE

There are four types of jurisdictions that affect the nature, activity, and organization of police institutions: the three levels of government—federal, state, and municipal—and the federal district.

Municipal

The *municipio* represents the local level of government and may contain many smaller towns and cities. Like counties in the United States that have sheriffs, they can maintain a police force. *Municipios* only have preventive police, but not all do. There are 2,395 *municipios*; 335 of them have no police force. There are 2,000 *municipios* with fewer than 100 officers, which implies a rather simple organization. However, 87 of the largest *municipios* account for 68.7% of preventive police at all levels of government, so some are quite complex.

Federal District

The Federal District (*Distrito Federal* [DF]) is a region of 1,479 square kilometers that contains the heart of Mexico City and the seat of federal government. There are 8.7 million residents of the DF, according to 2002 estimates, and another 18 million people in the metropolitan region.

Preventive Police

The DF has the highest crime rate in Mexico, as well as a huge preventive police force of approximately 34,000 officers, not to mention 40,000 auxiliary police and 15,000 banking police. These nearly 90,000 officers work for the Secretary of Public Security of the DF (*Secretaría de Seguridad Pública* [SSPDF]). In 2000, the SSP had a budget of approximately 10 billion pesos and six major divisions.

Slightly less than half of the preventive police belong to the first major division, the Sectoral Police (*Policía Sectoral*), which is distributed geographically into six main regions with usually three precincts in each (a total of 16 precincts) and a

number of sectors within each precinct (a total of 70 sectors).

The rest of the preventive police (more than 17,000 of the 34,000) are organized into five special divisions. The second, the Metropolitan Police (*Policía Metropolitana*), consists of six special units:

1. Public Transit Police
2. Tourist Police
3. Grenadiers (*Granaderos*), which protects the historic district
4. Mounted Police
5. Feminine Police (*Policía Femenil*), which works in schools, with juveniles, at public events, and in public parks and gardens
6. Emergency Rescue Squad (ERUM)

The third division is a set of Special Squadrons (*Fuerzas Especiales*) that consists of four main groups:

1. Helicopter Squadron
2. Special Unit, which specializes in motorcycles
3. Task Force (*Fuerza de Tareas*), which deals with terrorist and bomb threats
4. Alfa Group, which is a secretive, ad hoc force that works with the Special Unit and fights drug trafficking

The fourth division is Roadway Security (*Seguridad Vial*), which maintains a force of brown-uniformed police that patrol the roads and highways. An understaffed Internal Affairs department is the fifth division.

Two separate forces, under the SSP but not part of the preventive police, comprise the Complimentary Police: the Auxiliary Police (approximately 40,000 strong), which guards official buildings and other specific locations like the airport; and the Banking Police (about 15,000 officers), which guards businesses, financial institutions, and banks. It bears noting that these departments and organizational schemes change on a regular basis, so it is worth consulting the relevant Web sites (see For Further Reading section).

Judicial Police

The DF is also unique for maintaining its own force of judicial police, the Judicial Police of the Federal District (*Policía Judicial del Distrito Federal* [PJDF]), which is organized under the Attorney General's Office of the DF (the *Procuraduría General de Justicia del Distrito Federal* [PGJDF]). The PGJDF receives complaints and reports of possible crimes and investigates them. It maintains 16 precincts (*delegaciones*), with an estimated 3,500 judicial police, 1,100 investigating agents for prosecuting attorneys (*agentes del ministerio público*), and 941 experts or specialists (*peritos*). The PGJDF budget exceeds 3 billion pesos each year.

States

The 31 states maintain, like the DF, both preventive and judicial police forces. The state-level preventive police are perhaps 90,000 strong. The judicial police, by definition, must enforce a set of laws or codes; in the states and the DF, the relevant jurisdiction is the local state law (commonly called *fuero común*). By the best but infrequent estimates, in 1995, there were 21,000 state-level judicial police officers from the State Judicial Police forces (*Policía Judicial de los Estados* [PJE]) organized under Attorneys General offices (*Procuradurías Generales de Justicia*).

Federal

Federal Judicial Police of the Attorney General's Office

The Federal Public Ministry has a separate judicial police force that operates nationwide under the Federal Attorney General's Office (*Procuraduría General de la República* [PGR]) to investigate and prosecute federal crimes such as drug trafficking, arms trafficking, kidnapping, and environmental and public health crimes. The PGR budget is approximately 5 billion pesos. The force consists of more than 4,000 judicial police officers, 1,600 investigators, and 450 specialists.

The PGR reconfigured and renamed the Federal Judicial Police (*Policía Judicial Federal* [PJF]), which was much maligned for corruption and

ineffectiveness. They were replaced by a new police force, the Federal Agency of Investigation (*Agencia Federal de Investigaciones* [AFI]), which was probably intended to invite comparisons to the FBI of the United States.

The federal police are notable for their focus on illegal drugs and other types of organized crime. The PGR's Special Anti-Organized Crime Unit (*Unidad Especial contra la Delincuencia Organizada* [UEDO]) appeared as a response to organized crime, which was first defined in Mexico's legal code in February 1994 as "three or more persons organized under rules of discipline and hierarchy in order to commit, in a violent and repeated way or with the purpose of profit, any of the crimes legally defined." The Federal Law against Organized Crime (*Ley Federal contra la Delincuencia Organizada* [LfcDO]) was passed in November 1996 to deal with the problem of drug trafficking; other crimes, such as migrant smuggling, trafficking in arms or infants, and terrorism, were covered and targeted by LfcDO as well.

The Office of the Special Prosecutor for Crimes against Health (*Fiscalía Especializada de Delitos contra la Salud* [FEADS]) appeared in 1997 after General Gutiérrez Rebollo, head of the National Antidrug Institute (*Instituto Nacional de Combate a las Drogas* [INCD]), was arrested on charges stemming from association with leaders of the Juárez cartel. Consequently INCD, which previously dealt with drug trafficking, was dismantled and FEADS was put under the direction of a civilian, Mariano Herrán; the UEDO operated out of FEADS headquarters in Mexico City. Two other key units within the FEADS are the Border Rapid Response Groups (*Grupos de Respuesta Rápida Fronteriza*) and the Special Anti-Money Laundering Unit (*Unidad Especializada contra el Lavado de Dinero* [UECLD]). UECLD was created in January 1998 to implement anti-money laundering legislation, which dates from 1990. The problem of corruption in FEADS has not been entirely solved, with agents in Tijuana and Monterrey being arrested for extortion and kidnapping.

Federal Preventive Police

The Federal Preventive Police (*Policía Federal Preventiva* [PFP]) was created in 1999 at the behest

of the Zedillo administration (1994-2000) and the prompting of the SNSP to control crime throughout the country. The Mexican Senate passed legislation in December 1998, which called for the creation of a national law enforcement body that would combine the Federal Highway Police (*Policía Federal de Caminos*), the Federal Fiscal Police (*Policía Fiscal Federal*), and the Federal Immigration Police (*Policía Migratoria Federal*). Initially, concerns focused on the fact that the new police force could be politically repressive toward opposition parties, and then attention turned to their military training, service background, and ethics.

At last count, in 2000, the PFP had 10,699 officers; 4,899 of these were from the military (3rd Brigade of the Military Police), approximately 4,000 came from the Federal Highway Police, 1,500 from the Fiscal Police, and 600 from the Interior Ministry's intelligence agency, the Center for Research and National Security (*Centro de Investigación y Seguridad Nacional* [CISEN]). In short, rather than creating an entirely new police force, the PFP has cobbled together a force with a decidedly militarized character.

THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM AND PUBLIC SECURITY

Other Security Organizations

Center for Research and National Security

The Center for Research and National Security (*Centro de Investigación y Seguridad Nacional* [CISEN]), created in 1989, is Mexico's principal civilian intelligence agency. CISEN is an instrument of the government's executive branch, subordinate to the Interior Ministry. CISEN's primary function is to collect and process intelligence and security-related information. Its director served as "technical secretary" for the National Security Cabinet (*Gabinete de Seguridad Nacional*) created by President Salinas in 1988. Salinas also created within the presidency the Coordinator for National Public Security (*Coordinación de Seguridad Pública de la Nación*) in 1994. The difference between these two offices is that the former was a staff position within the presidency, while the

latter was a special response combatant to tackle the upsurge in public security problems in 1994.

Since drug-trafficking organizations have proved successful in penetrating the security institutions, the antidrug-trafficking part of CISEN's intelligence and operations was transferred in 1992 to the newly created INCD and to its intelligence arm, the Antidrug Center (*Centro de Planeación para el Combate contra las Drogas* [CENDRO]). INCD did not solve corruption problems, and FEADS was subsequently created.

National Public Security System

Another important addition to the public security apparatus was the National Public Security System (*Sistema Nacional de Seguridad Pública* [SNSP]), the creation of which began in 1994 with constitutional changes (Articles 21 and 73) raising public security to the status of a state policy. The Zedillo administration followed the next year with legislation formally creating the SNSP. A key decision was to locate the SNSP within the Interior Department (*Secretaría de Gobernación*) rather than the Attorney General's Office (PGR). Also created were a series of coordinating councils at the state and local levels, emphasizing the central government's role in data collection, coordination, and planning rather than control. The SNSP has grown exponentially, in budgetary terms—from 1996 to 1998, the federal budget allocations to the SNSP jumped from 226.6 million pesos to 2.72 billion pesos. By 1999, the resources allocated by federal and state governments reached nearly 9 billion pesos.

Police Corruption and Public Confidence

Corruption and severe inefficiency plague the Mexican police. Further, low pay and lack of resources have hindered efforts to improve police performance, battle corruption, and professionalize the police. A subsequent lack of public confidence has further eroded the ability of the police to respond to crime: A survey in 1999 found that 90% of respondents in Mexico City had "little" or "no" trust in the police. Such a lack of public confidence translates into a lack of support—that is, an unwillingness to report crimes or assist in investigations,

which is crucial to solving crimes. Nationwide, only 12% of the population has expressed confidence in the police.

In 2002, an advocacy group (Transparency International) estimated that the median Mexican household spends 8% of its income on bribes (*mordidas* or “bites”). On the Transparency International scale, Mexico ranks 57th in perception of corruption, one notch better than China at 58 and well below Brazil and Peru at 45. In 1997, Mexico ranked 47th; in 1998, 55th. A management consulting firm (A.T. Kearney) reported, also in 2002, that Mexico’s attractiveness to foreign investors dropped, from fifth to ninth place worldwide, because of concerns with corruption and crime.

Police and the Justice System

Overload is a significant problem in the Mexican criminal justice system. When a complaint is received and a preliminary inquiry (*averiguación previa*) begun, a criminal case is opened. Alternatively, cases can be initiated when a law officer detains a person caught in the act of committing a crime. The person can be detained for up to 48 hours before being brought before a judge for a preliminary hearing. The judge has up to 72 hours to decide on one of three options: the person is jailed subject to trial, freed on bail, or freed because of lack of evidence. If the person is not freed because of lack of evidence, the judge may ask the police to gather more evidence. When the investigation is complete, the judge concludes the trial portion of the process and issues a sentence. Part of the overload problem arises because investigating officers, on average, receive a new complaint for each day of the year. Reported crimes practically doubled from 1991 to 1997, and reported crimes are only a small fraction of actual crimes. As the DF in particular implements “zero-tolerance” policing policies, which require a high number of arrests, this administrative backlog could worsen.

Human Resources

Training, preparation, and institutional support for the police are generally poor. For the preventive

police, academic and professional training are recent additions to policy. Twenty-five of 58 police academies began training operations within the last 23 years; most do not enforce a minimum educational requirement. Basic training lasts an average of 4.5 months. The majority of Mexican police officers have completed only elementary school or less. This situation has accelerated the erosion of institutional standards and postponed the modernization of the police. Police departments often lack tools to evaluate job performance, guidelines for performance, methods to ferret out corruption, technical support, and understanding of human rights and community relations.

Crime and Public Security

Crime rates and the perception of public insecurity grew substantially in the 1990s. Three major cities—Mexico City, Tijuana, and Ciudad Juarez—stood out with high rates. Kidnapping has gained the most media attention, but the most common crime is theft (*robo*); theft represented 42% of reported crimes in 1998. Homicide rates also increased in Mexico, although not as severely as in other parts of Latin America. Based on victimization studies, it is clear that crime reporting is low. Surveys reveal that the main reason is lack of confidence in the police. However, of the 1.37 million crimes reported in 1998, less than 9% resulted in arrest warrants. According to official data (INEGI), in 2001 there were 24,742 sentenced criminals and 28,619 people charged (*delincuentes presuntos*) in the federal jurisdiction (*fuero federal*), and there were 123,071 sentenced criminals and 163,995 people charged in local crimes. Thus, Mexico had a conviction rate of 1 person for every 10 crimes reported (from a total of approximately 150,000 convictions for over 1.5 million reported crimes, which may involve multiple people) in 2001.

Security Threats

In January 1994, the Zapatista Army of National Liberation (EZLN) appeared in the southern state of Chiapas. Because of uprisings, reported human rights abuses, assassinations, and political turbulence,

concerns about internal security have increased since then. In addition, other guerilla groups have appeared in the south, such as the Insurgent People's Army (ERPI) and the more lethal Popular Revolutionary Army (EPR), which have inflicted casualties on police as well as army in Guerrero and Oaxaca, among several other states. These popular insurgencies, like endemic corruption, have naturally led to the increased involvement of the military in police work and order maintenance.

Private Security

Mexican security companies have grown significantly in recent years, in response to the state's failure to provide security. Mexico holds third place in the world in the purchase of security equipment. Between 1998 and 1999 private security companies increased some 40%. The Mexican government has had serious problems in regulating these companies, most of which are illegitimate since they lack the necessary legal permits. It was estimated in 1999 that approximately 10,000 private security firms operated in Mexico, yet only 2,000 had some form of official permit. According to official figures, in December 2000 there were 2,984 private security companies registered with 153,885 employees. The inability to regulate or control these forces creates potential security problems. Because many of these companies are unregulated, some will engage in criminality instead of (or as a means of) protecting their clients, thus exacerbating the problem of insecurity. According to a study by the Mexico City legislative assembly, in 1998 there were more private security guards than police. A substantial number of private security guards were formerly police officers or presently work as security guards while off-duty; these dynamics increase the likelihood of police corruption.

Benjamin Reames

Glossary

Attorney General's Office (Procuraduría General de la República – PGR)

Attorney General's Office of the Federal District (Procuraduría General de Justicia del Distrito Federal – PGJ-DF)

Center for Research and National Security (Centro de Investigación y Seguridad Nacional - CISEN)

Experts, technical experts or specialists (peritos)

Federal Agency of Investigation (Agencia Federal de Investigaciones – AFI)

Federal District (Distrito Federal – DF)

Federal Judicial Police (Policía Judicial Federal – PJF)

Federal law (fuero federal)

Federal Preventive Police (Policía Federal Preventiva – PFP)

Interior Department (Ministerio del Interior)

Investigator for the prosecuting attorney/public prosecutor (Agente del Ministerio Público)

Judicial Police of the Federal District (Policía Judicial del Distrito Federal – PJDF)

Local law (Fuero común)

Office of the Special Prosecutor for Crimes against Health (Fiscalía Especializada de Delitos Contra la Salud - FEADS)

Public Ministry (Ministerio Público)

Secretary of Public Security of the DF (Secretaría de Seguridad Pública - SSP)

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MOLDOVA

Moldova is a landlocked country located between Ukraine and Romania, along the Danube river to the west and Dniester river to the east. It has an area of 33,843 square kilometers and a population of 4.4 million people (July 2003 estimate). Historically part of Romania, it became part of the Soviet Union after World War II, from which it gained independence in 1991. Although the country is 64.5% Moldovan/Romanian ethnicity, there are significant Slav minorities (primarily Ukrainian and Russian). In areas east of the Dniester river, Slavs have declared independence as the “Transnistria republic,” supported by Russian forces; the government does not control that region. Moldova is one of the poorest countries in Europe, and more than 25% of its working-age population is employed abroad. Organized crime is high, and it is a major shipment route for drugs into Europe. Moldova is also a significant source country for the trafficking of women and girls and other bonded labor.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Various legal acts regulate the activities of law enforcement, most importantly the Police Law of 1990 (as modified), No. 416. Total employment of the Ministry of Interior is mandated by law to be 8,500 (excluding Carabinieri troops). No more than 3.5% can be employed in the administrative headquarters of the Ministry of Interior. Sixty-seven percent of the force are ethnic Moldovans, with the rest being a mix of Russians, Bulgarians, and Germans. Approximately 10% to 15% of police are women.

The Moldova police is structurally divided into national and municipal forces. It is decentralized. The central authorities report to the Ministry of Interior. Nationally, there are 40 districts subject to



the Ministry of Interior. Districts are then subdivided into towns with patrol areas. Municipal forces are also responsible to the local governments. For example, in Chisinau, the capital, there are additional municipal police under the Ministry. Within the Ministry, law mandates a unit to investigate internal corruption. Prosecution also has its own internal affairs division to investigate allegations of corruption. In addition, oversight exists in the Center for Combating Crime and Corruption.

There are two main categories of police: the carabinieri (internal troops) and the forces of the department of public order. The Ministry of Interior also controls the Department of Criminal Pursuit (a special force created in 2003 to conduct complex investigations), State Guard, Transport Police, techniques and criminalistics, and information and operative evidence. Investigators in Moldova may investigate many types of crimes, in many areas. Specialized units also exist in such areas as antidrug, trafficking in persons, public order policing (events or armed conflict), and counterfeiting. All report separately to the Ministry of Internal Affairs.

Training is extensive for the police, with a 4-year Police Academy that offers a college diploma. Officers graduate with the rank of lieutenant and are initially under the supervision of field training officers to acquaint them to the realities of the street. A Police College also exists to train future

police officers beginning at the high school level. Graduates of law school can enter the force as a lateral entry. Before 1990, all police officers had continuous education opportunities. The equivalents of in-service training courses in the areas of law, ethics, and other sciences are periodically offered for 6 months to 1 year, in addition to physical and firearms training. Generally after 4 to 5 years of work officers will take another course. Physical fitness testing is mandated every year. In addition, the police receive a significant amount of international training from the International Law Enforcement Academy, Turkey, and the United States.

CARABINIERI

Established in 1991, the Carabinieri consists of law enforcement agents whose historical roots are in the Gendarmerie of Romania. In addition to law enforcement duties, they are also responsible for executive and diplomatic protection and intervention at times of emergency. The Carabinieri are organized along military principles. A rapid-reaction department is responsible for deployment in catastrophic events, counterterrorism, and response to public disorder. Although a national force, they are accountable to local administrative rules in the areas where they are deployed.

PUBLIC ORDER POLICE

The public order police include most of the rank and file of Moldova police, responsible for conducting patrols, and controlling traffic. They also control immigration and border patrols, as well as traffic patrols and the judicial police.

OTHER FORCES

Internal troops were reported to have 2,500 men in 1995, and the numbers of the riot police (also known as the Black Berets and *Fulger*) were 900 men. These special purpose forces are heavily armed, tactical units. They specialize in antiterrorism, and

their priority is quick response. Combating terrorism; they have been deployed to the Transnistria areas.

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✎ MONACO

The hilly, rocky, and rugged Principality of Monaco, one of the smallest countries on earth, with a land mass of 1.95 square kilometers, is located on the southern Mediterranean coast of France, near the border with Italy. In recent years, owing to coastal and landfill land reclamation efforts, the country has actually increased in size. The constitutional monarchy is a French protectorate with no military of its own and is divided into four quarters for governance purposes. The total population of approximately 32,000 residents includes people from 108 different nationalities. For years, Monaco has been known as both a playground for the rich and famous who visit its casinos, and as a tax haven for the wealthy seeking places to shelter income. With a per capita GDP of \$27,000, it is one of the richest countries in Western Europe. It boasts virtually zero percent unemployment.

The nation's legal system is based on French law; Members of the Supreme Court, or Tribunal Supreme, are appointed by the monarch on the basis of nominations from the legislature, the National Council. There are also a civil court, court of appeal, revision court, and criminal court.

Policing is provided by the Interior Department's Public Security (*Surete Publique*). The police service, which numbers some 500 officers (1 for every 64 inhabitants), is headed by a Director and is divided into five major divisions:



1. Judicial Police
2. Division of Administration and Training
3. Maritime and Airport Division
4. Administrative Police
5. Urban Police

Violent street crime is rare in Monaco, although property crime is on the rise. In 2001, the Principality reported 22 vehicle thefts, 54 breaking and entering offenses, 7 sexual offenses (including rape), and 1 murder. In 1999, the Principality received worldwide attention when billionaire Edmond Safra and another man were killed in an arson fire, which prosecutors claim was set by one of Safra's employees, Ted Maher. After being arrested for the murder, Maher escaped from his cell in Monaco and was later apprehended in France. He is serving a 10-year sentence.

Monaco has developed a secretive reputation in recent years, and it has been accused of being insufficiently aggressive in rooting out money laundering. Because of strict bank secrecy laws, critics have charged that the Principality's financial community is too willing to process questionable financial transactions. The United States Department of State has placed Monaco on a list of countries of concern in the area of money laundering,

and a 2003 report prepared by the U. S. Library of Congress's Federal Research Service called Monaco a money-laundering "magnet" for Italian and Russian organized crime and various terrorist groups.

The French government, with which Monaco enjoys close economic, customs, and trade ties, has also been vocal in accusing the Monaco government of dragging its feet on actions to deter suspicious financial dealings in the banking sector. Some countries affiliated with the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) have accused Monaco of refusing to cooperate with them in conducting criminal investigations. For its part, the government has replied that it is serious about, and is making progress in, improving the image of its financial institutions for probity.

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✎ MONGOLIA

Mongolia is a landlocked country in Central Asia bordered by Russia and China. It has a population of 2.7 million people (July 2003 estimates), almost half of whom live in its capital, Ulan Baator. It has an area of 1.565 million square kilometers. Famous for its 13th century ruler Ghengis Khan, who conquered large areas of Eurasia, Mongolia later was conquered by China. It became independent in



1921 with assistance from the Soviet Union. The two superpowers struggled for influence over Mongolia, and in 1966 Mongolia allowed Soviet ground forces to fortify the border with China. They remained until 1992. After the dissolution of the Soviet Union, communist authorities lost favor; a new Constitution was passed in 1990 and multi-party elections were first held in 1992. Mongolia signed a treaty of friendship with China in 1994. In 2000, the former Communist Party was again reelected by a public supportive of issues of social welfare and public order.

Security in Mongolia, particularly in rural areas, is often more influenced by traditional clan and tribal affiliation and traditions of respect and dignity than civil administration.

Mongolia was a “closed” country until the early 1990s. The legacy of this isolation continues to have an impact on security forces, which struggle with antiquated technology in the face of modern crime problems.

MONGOLIA PUBLIC SECURITY FORCE

The Public Security Force, reformed in 1992, is headed by a Chief of Police and is part of the Ministry of Justice and Home Affairs. In 1998, there were approximately 6,000 public security

officers throughout the country (a ratio of 1 for every 450 inhabitants). Rank designation is paramilitary, and approximately 66% of the force are privates and sergeants. In 1998, Mongolia public security forces had 45 district stations with distribution varying according to the size of the district, community need, and crime level. Urban areas are frequently divided into numerous districts.

Special forces units fall under the control and direction of the Public Security Force.

POLICE TRAINING

Privates and sergeants attend a 3- to 6-month academy, where the course of study is primarily skill training in public security enforcement, as well as basic legal education, self-defense, and weaponry. Upon completion, their task is primarily patrol, although some sergeants are allotted some investigative responsibility.

Officers study from 3 to 5 years at the Mongolia police academy; graduates are assigned at the level of lieutenant to a 1-year probationary period of specialized on-the-job training. The academy includes courses in criminal and economic (white-collar) laws and language.

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MOROCCO

Located in North Africa, Morocco has a total area of 446,550 square kilometers and a population of 31.7 million inhabitants (July 2003). The Moroccan political system is considered a constitutional



monarchy. Policing in Morocco is the work of a national force, composed of the Sûreté Nationale and the Royal Gendarmerie.

MOROCCAN SÛRETÉ NATIONALE AND ROYAL GENDARMERIE: BACKGROUND AND HISTORY

For the Berbers, the indigenous ethnic group in Morocco, early order maintenance was largely performed in traditional kinship units. According to a Finnish ethnographer, Edward Westermarck (1862-1939), most tribes lacked the division of labor of what could be likened to a police force. Rather, traditions of paying blood money and revenge-seeking by paternal kin of victims characterized the Berber response to crime. Leaders, known as *shareefs*, often acted as mediators among intertribal or interkinship homicidal rivalry.

The advent of a police force as an organized protective and law enforcement organization came to Morocco with the Roman Empire (146 B.C.E. until the 3rd century B.C.E.). The Roman military acted as guardians for the peace in cities. However, traditional modes of order maintenance continued in the countryside.

From the 7th century C.E. until the encroachment of the French in the late 18th century,

Morocco was ruled by a series of Islamic monarchs, beginning with Moulay Idriss in 788 C.E. Under the Islamic order maintenance, laws, known as *shariah*, were revealed to humankind by *Allah* via Muhammad's recitation of the *Qu'ran*. There is no doctrinal difference between judicial and executive functions among authorities under this tradition; however, in actuality, the institution of the *shurta* developed. The *shurta*, which evolved into the modern-day Arabic word for police, was given authority to investigate crimes, conduct trials, and punish offenders. The *shurta* was led by the *wali al-jara'im* (official in charge of crimes). Settlements of disputes, which often fell into the category of criminal violations, were also negotiated by a parallel system of justice practiced by *qadis*, specially designated Islamic judges who claimed legitimacy via local Moroccan saints (*marabout*). In some rural areas, *qadi* justice remains as an alternative to the state-sanctioned criminal justice system.

With the advent of French control over Morocco in 1918, the French government used a similar police structure for its management of the colonies as it did domestically. The modern French system of policing was developed by Napoleon. It consisted of two branches of service:

1. Police force for urban centers
2. Paramilitary force for rural settings (*Gendarmerie*)

In addition, the French-occupying military also had order maintenance responsibilities. For criminal investigation, the French often deputized local people. This practice was notable in its use of ethnic policing. Local officials were primarily hired from among the indigenous Berber minority rather than from the Arab majority. Because the main goal was suppression of political dissent among colonial subjects, this strategy enabled the use of force against an ethnic "other."

After 1956 when Morocco gained its independence, the existing colonial police force took over policing the new nation. Local forces were often young, inexperienced, and minimally supervised. Working under a fragile new government, the force

had the audacious goals of easing social, economic, and political reform. However, the police were often used to suppress dissent among political opposition groups.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The Sûreté Nationale is an armed, civilian police force, subdivided into 37 local districts. The Royal Gendarmerie is an armed paramilitary force, policing rural areas and highways. Both the Sûreté Nationale and Royal Gendarmerie are part of the Ministry of the Interior.

In 2000, there were approximately 40,000 police officers in Morocco, not including the occupied land of Western Sahara. In Casablanca, the largest city in the country, there are approximately 5,000 police for 5 million inhabitants.

In December of 1997, the Ministry of the Interior first allowed women to enter the uniformed force of the Sûreté Nationale. Prior to this, women were restricted to plainclothes duties in police stations or at border posts. The Royal Gendarmerie, however, has recruited female officers for approximately 2 decades. Despite these developments, the profession remains largely male-dominated, although precise figures are not available.

Police recruits are trained at the royal academy in Kenitra, north of the capital city of Rabat. In addition, the Moroccan police agencies work closely with their French counterparts in the training of officers. Moroccan and French officers also have made security agreements for cooperation in combating crimes that often occur in and between the two jurisdictions—organized crime, human trafficking, drug trafficking, and document fraud.

In addition, since September 11, 2001, the Moroccan police forces have worked to combat al-Qaeda-linked terrorist organizations within its borders. In the summer of 2002, several attacks being planned by Salafiya Jihadia were thwarted.

In recent years, the Moroccan police have been singled out by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) for human rights violations. A 1998 Amnesty International report indicates that police use torture in some criminal cases for the purpose of extracting confessions against international human rights

conventions. Human Rights Watch has documented that the Moroccan police have used ill-treatment and torture in apprehending children attempting to illegally enter Spain in search of work.

Morocco is a member of Interpol.

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MYANMAR

Squeezed between India and Bangladesh to its west, and China, Laos, and Thailand to its east, Myanmar, formerly Burma, occupies 678,500 square kilometers along the Bay of Bengal, and has an approximate population of 42.5 million people (July 2003 estimate). It was a British colony until 1948; until 1937 as a part of India. A police force modeled on British precedent was created after 1937.



Burma's military rulers changed the country's name to Myanmar in 1989; this name change was not recognized by the democratically elected parliament and has not been universally recognized by other countries.

In the late 1980s, student demonstrations protesting economic policy led to civil unrest and a military crackdown in which thousands were killed or imprisoned. The emerging opposition movement, headed by democratic leader Aung San Suu Kyi, won parliamentary elections in 1990, but the results were never implemented because of a junta imposed by the ruling military regime. A council of military officials, the State Peace and Development Council (SPDC), has controlled Myanmar since that time. The military (Tatmadaw) exerts a powerful degree of control over the lives of Myanmar's citizens and is heavily criticized for numerous human rights violations. The police force, which arguably plays a secondary role in security to the other armed forces, is the Myanmar Police Force (MPF).

MYANMAR POLICE FORCE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Myanmar Police Force (MPF) obtained its current structure following a 1994 reorganization by the State Peace and Development Council. It is part of the Ministry of Home Affairs. According to

nongovernmental sources, the MPF had 72,000 officers in 2002, of which 4,500 are paramilitary units; the police itself reports a ratio of 1 officer for every 702 inhabitants.

The MPF is commanded by a Director General, whose rank is Major General. His deputy, who holds the rank of Brigadier General, is responsible for command, control, and supervision of the police throughout the country.

The force is comprised of the following administrative structures:

- Headquarters
- State and Division Police Forces
- Special Forces (consisting of the Special Branch, the Criminal Investigation Department, the Railways Police Department, and the City Development Department)
- Training Centers
- Reserve Units (which augment the State and Divisional Forces to help with highway patrol and oil field security)
- Police Battalions

There are 14 state and divisional police forces and 3 additional state police forces (who have equal status), which are commanded by police colonels. Their jurisdictions follow civil administration demarcations. Each state and divisional police force has a command level, and then is broken up into districts, townships, and individual police stations. The commander's rank at each depends on the level of the administration:

- Police station officers are commanded by police lieutenants.
- Township police forces are commanded by captains.
- District police forces are divided into two classes—class A districts are commanded by lieutenant colonels, and class B districts are commanded by police majors.

The Police Battalions are specialized units offering security in urban areas where unrest threatens public buildings. There are nine such battalions under a single command reporting directly to the police General Director; seven are located in the capital Rangoon/Yangon, 1 is in Mandalay, and 1 is in Rakhine State.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Myanmar has three training centers for police. The Central Training Institute trains officers. Courses include a 2.5-year cadet training program (including 1 year of police training, 6 months of military training, and a 1-year apprenticeship) that prepares recruits to be captains in the police force. It also trains officers in courses from 8 weeks (for a staff officer) to 12 weeks (to be a commander of a police station, township, or district station).

Two other training facilities, referred to as “depots,” provide 6 months of training for police constables, and one of them offers advanced training for sergeants (9 months), and non-warrant officers (12 weeks). State and divisional police forces organize their own refresher and on-the-job training for serving officers.

The Criminal Investigation Division offers specialized training for detectives (16 weeks), security

and intelligence (10 weeks), and drug investigation (6 weeks).

The Myanmar Police Force cooperates with other regional police forces to battle drug and human trafficking and other interstate crime. Myanmar is a member of Interpol.

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N

✎ NAMIBIA

The Republic of Namibia, formerly known as South West Africa (SWA), is located on Africa's South Atlantic coast, bordered by Angola and Zambia on the north, Botswana and Zimbabwe on the east, and South Africa on the south. With an area of 317,827 square miles and a population of 1,927,447 people (2003), there are approximately six persons per square mile. The per capita annual income of approximately \$1,668 (2001) places Namibia in the World Bank's lower middle-income range, but with a very skewed distribution.

In 1884, after 80 years of German missionary activity, Deutsch Sudwestafrika was formally recognized as a German colony at the Conference of Berlin. However, during World War I, Great Britain's South African ally seized the colony. After the war, the South African occupation continued as a League of Nations mandate. After World War II, the United Nations designated SWA a trusteeship to be administered by South Africa. In 1990, after a century of resistance, including a 30-year long liberation struggle led by the South West Africa Peoples Organization (SWAPO), Namibia won its independence. Namibia is a parliamentary democracy and a member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

HISTORY OF THE POLICE

In 1905, Germany established the Kaiserliche Landespolizei to assume police functions, including suppression of indigenous resistance, from the military. The Landespolizei was supplanted by South African occupation forces, including military police, and ultimately by the South African Police Force (SAP) itself in 1939. An SWA Police Force (SWAPOL), comprised largely of officers seconded from SAP, was established in 1981. SWAPOL's focus on political intelligence and counterinsurgency was dictated by apartheid South Africa's domestic and regional policy.

NAMIBIAN POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

In 1990, the Police Act and the Constitution of independent Namibia established the Namibian Police Force (NamPol), an armed, civilian, service-oriented national police force. Within a year, NamPol's strength declined from 4,000 to approximately 2,200 as most of the seconded SAP personnel and many of the white (and some nonwhite) SWAPOL officers left for South Africa.

To reconstitute its strength, and in keeping with a national policy of reconciliation, NamPol



incorporated former SWAPOL members and even former members of South Africa's paramilitary antiinsurgent South West Africa Task Force (SWATF) when possible, as well as police officers trained by SWAPO in exile. NamPol also eventually absorbed thousands of unemployed Peoples Liberation Army of Namibia (PLAN) ex-combatants. Its current strength is approximately 11,000 officers, which is 1 officer per 175 citizens. Women comprise approximately 30% of the force and have risen as high as the rank of Deputy Commissioner.

NamPol's Inspector General (IG) is appointed by the president and reports to the Minister of Home Affairs. There is a Deputy IG for Operations and one for Administration. NamPol's Divisions are Human Resources, Finance and Logistics, Inspectorate, Complaints and Discipline, Public Relations and Liaison, Special Field Forces, and the Criminal Investigation Department. Each division has a Commissioner appointed by the IG.

The Criminal Investigation Department's many specialized units include Commercial Crime Investigation, Crime Information, Drug Law Enforcement, International Police, Motor Vehicle Theft, Criminal Records Centre, Forensic Science Institute, Protected Resources, Scenes of Crime, Serious Crime Investigation, and Women and Child Protection. Many functions are decentralized,

distributed to the regions to provide unified operational command.

The controversial paramilitary Special Field Forces (SFF) Division accounts for nearly half of NamPol's budget and personnel. SFF consists primarily of former PLAN combatants with limited education and law enforcement training. Its main responsibilities are patrolling borders against incursions by foreign combatants; suppression of secessionists; and protection of Namibian officials, foreign dignitaries, and diplomatic missions.

Each of Namibia's 13 administrative regions (Khomas, Kavango, Caprivi, Kunene, Karas, Oshana, Omusati, Hardap, Erongo, Otjozondjupa, Ohangwena, Omaheke, and Oshikoto) has a NamPol Regional Headquarters to which stations, substations, and satellite stations report. There are 104 police stations, 27 substations, and 21 satellite stations. There are also 19 border posts and 1 checkpoint.

POLICE RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

The Human Resources Division administers recruitment, selection, and promotional processes. The Police Act and Regulations establish admission standards and qualifications. Recruits must be Namibian citizens; 18 to 25 years of age; have at least a 10th-grade certificate; undergo educational, aptitude, physical, and medical testing; and complete 6 months of basic training at the Pius Josef Kaundu Training Center. The Israel Patrick Iyambo Police College provides specialized training, including training for middle and senior officials. Promotions may be based on service or academic qualifications. Qualified university graduates without prior police experience may enter at the senior or executive level.

NamPol's Commissioned officer ranks are Lieutenant General, Major General, Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Chief Inspector, and Inspector. Noncommissioned officer ranks are Warrant Officer 1, Warrant Officer 2, Sergeant 1, Sergeant 2, and Constable.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

Namibia has a large private security industry employing both armed and unarmed security officers. The Namibian Army, the Namibian Defense Force, has limited public order and law enforcement responsibilities, primarily coast guard and border patrol antismuggling efforts.

In 2003, the capital city of Windhoek reached agreement with the Ministry of Home Affairs to establish a Municipal Police Force to focus on crime in the capital and its environs.

Namibia is a member of Interpol and SARPCCO (Southern Africa Regional Police Chiefs Coordinating Organization).

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NEPAL

Nepal is a landlocked country in South Asia, bordered by India and China. It has a population of 24.5 million people (July 2003 estimate) and an area of 140,800 square kilometers.

Formed in the 18th century when the principality of Gorkha consolidated a number of independent hill states, Nepal has historically isolated itself from foreign influence. Since 1990, it has been a multi-party democracy in the framework of a constitutional monarchy. In the initial multiparty elections, the slight majority received by Marxist and Leninist parties led to instability as repeated governmental coalitions broke down. A Maoist insurgency has created further instability since 1996; between 1996 and 2003, it resulted in the deaths of approximately 8,300 people, including 1,096 members of the national police, 362 members of the Royal Nepal



Army, and 173 members of the Armed Police Force. In 2001, the crown prince shot his father and nine other family members before killing himself. The king's brother assumed the throne, and declared a state of emergency that was still in effect in 2004.

Under the state of emergency, the Royal Nepal Army took responsibility for some internal security functions.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Until 1990, the Nepalese police was organized along political grounds, and it predominantly served ruling officials. In 1992, a reform commission was established that reorganized the police according to democratic principles.

The police are headed by the Inspector General of the Police. Directly under the Police Headquarters are departments of Administration, Crime Investigation, and Operations (which controls international airport security). Directly reporting to the headquarters are also the Valley Police Office (which covers the capital area, and has its own Traffic and Criminal Investigation offices, and a Security Police Battalion). There is also a Directorate that includes Training, Medical Services, Technical Services, and Traffic Police. The National Police Academy, including the Detective Training School, the Police

College, and the Armed Police Training College, also reports to the police headquarters.

Under the headquarters are five Regional Police Offices (RPOs)—Far Western, Mid-Western, Western, Mid, and Eastern. Each RPO has regional police training centers, laboratories, armed police battalions, riot control police battalions, and regional and district traffic police. District Police Offices fall under the authority of the Regional Police units. In 2004, the 75 District Police Offices fell within 15 zonal police offices; there were 340 Police Stations and 937 Police Posts.

The 2004 strength of the police was 46,481 distributed among the following ranks:

Gazetted Ranks

- Inspector General of Police (1)
- Additional Inspector General of Police (4)
- Deputy Inspector General of Police (15)
- Senior Superintendent of Police (41)
- Superintendent of Police (89)
- Deputy Superintendent of Police (270)
- Police Inspector (839)

Non-Gazetted Ranks

- Subinspector of Police (2,175)
- Assistant Subinspector of Police (4,455)
- Police Head Constable (8,687)
- Police Constable (27,363)
- Recruit (650)
- Auxiliary Staff (Followers; 1,892)

Training for recruits is conducted at Regional Police Training Centers as well as at the Nepalese Police Academy (NPA). The NPA conducts basic training for recruits, junior commissioned officers, and cadets at the rank of Police Inspector as well as conducting continuing service training in managerial and other specialized topics.

The Nepalese Police has established special offices to address crimes affecting women, including domestic violence, sexual exploitation, trafficking, rape, bonded labor, child labor, child marriage, and polygamy. In 2004 there were 19 such centers and 6 additional centers at border control posts. Staffed

by female police officers, they are part of the Criminal Investigation Division and are meant to help women victims of crimes seek justice as well as develop policy and improve public awareness of issues of women's and children's rights.

The Nepalese Police have been adopting community policing methodologies. A community police unit at the headquarters level directs policy. The police force has established 80 community police centers in 33 districts, where specially trained personnel solicit public opinion on police procedures and modalities through questionnaires and liaison with community leaders. They also offer trainings and public awareness campaigns on matters of public interest such as health and cleanliness, water sanitation, and environmental protection.

In 2004, discussions of establishing local militias, Village Defense Councils, to assist in the defense against the Maoist insurgency drew criticism that it might lead to increased civilian casualties and the potential for turning the conflict into an ethnic or other civil war.

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THE NETHERLANDS

The Kingdom of the Netherlands includes the Netherlands in Europe; Aruba, Bonaire, and Curacao in the Netherlands Antilles in the Caribbean; and half of St. Martin and other islands. The small country in Europe comprises 41,528



squared kilometers with a population of 16 million inhabitants. This makes the Netherlands one of the most densely populated unitary states in the world (more than 450 inhabitants per square kilometer). Its territory is divided in 12 provinces and approximately 500 municipalities. The Netherlands is part of the European Union (EU), with virtually open borders, a multicultural population, and a high standard of living.

The Netherlands is a constitutional monarchy. The Head of State is the King (even if the monarch is a woman), whose position passes through to the first-born child. Together with the Prime Minister and Cabinet Ministers, the monarch forms the Dutch government. All ministers have full constitutional responsibility. They have executive and legislative powers and are accountable to the Dutch parliament.

Provinces and local municipalities are the subnational governments in the Netherlands. The 12 provinces are an intermediary level between national and local authorities. Municipalities are at the local level of the political system. Together with the mayor, a board of aldermen form the executive branch of a municipality. The mayor, who is appointed by the central government, has special responsibilities toward the police.

THE DUTCH POLICE ORGANIZATION

The total Dutch police force has approximately 53,000 employees (337 police officers per 100,000 inhabitants), of which 25% are female. The majority of these employees are executive police officers (70%). The other employees are administrative officers. Roughly 45,000 officers serve as a full-time force, 8,000 workers are employed on a part-time basis. Apart from the professional police, there are approximately 2,500 members in the voluntary police force. Voluntary police are people who work together with regular officers on a wide range of tasks. These volunteers fulfill various executive and supportive functions.

Since the 1993 Police Act the police is organized in 25 regional forces. The size of each force varies, depending on the population density and crime level of a region. The largest police force is in Amsterdam-Amstelland (more than 5,000 officers), whereas Gooi-en Vechtstreek has the smallest police force (550 officers). Most regions are divided into a number of districts. These districts are, in turn, subdivided into basic units (or police departments). The main task of the police is “to enforce the legal order, and assist those who need help.” Most work is absorbed by 24-hour “basic police care” that comprises patrolling, providing emergency assistance, mediating, keeping in touch with the population, enforcing laws, managing traffic flows, and so forth. All forces have specialized divisions, such as criminal investigation teams, drugs units, migrant traffic units, juvenile squads, riot squads, and intelligence services.

In addition to this regionalized system, there is a national police force, the Dutch Police Agency (*Koninklijke Nederlandse Politiediensten* [KLPD]). This agency is responsible for the supervision of the national infrastructure (motorways, railways, and waterways), nationwide crime investigation, the provision of expert support, and the security of important (royal) persons. The Dutch police also have had a Military Police since 1814, the Royal Military Constabulary (*Koninklijke Marechaussee*). This force also ensures the safety of the Royal Family. Furthermore, the Military Police perform security

tasks for the Dutch army, control the national borders and airports, provide assistance to the civil police, and safeguard international conflict zones.

A police officer has jurisdiction in the whole of Dutch territory, but as a practice his or her actions are restricted to his or her own region. The Dutch police are vested with statutory powers such as arrest, seizure, custody, body search, and the right to give traffic tickets. Police officers may use force in the exercise of these tasks. They carry a baton, pepper spray, handcuffs, and a handgun. The police have limited authority to infringe upon somebody's privacy if required for maintaining public order or criminal investigation.

A Dual System of Control

The Dutch police are subjected to a dual system of control. There is a crucial distinction between the power to decide on issues of finance and personnel (*administration*) and the power to decide on actual police action (*authority*). On the national level, the Minister of the Interior has special powers concerning the administration of police forces. The Minister of Justice, on the other hand, is involved because of his responsibility for the work of public prosecutors. Although the National Cabinet establishes general guidelines for the police, major decisions are made at the lower levels.

In this connection, the authority over the police is divided between the mayor of every municipality and a public prosecutor. Each mayor can direct the priorities and actions of the police concerning order maintenance, whereas the public prosecutor is responsible for criminal investigations. A municipal system of triangular consultation and decision making, in which mayors, public prosecutors, and chief constables participate, is designed to ensure the necessary coordination and effectiveness of police forces.

The regional level, mediating between the ministries and the municipalities, takes a relatively independent position. All 25 regional boards (*bestuurscolleges*) can more or less independently decide on policy issues as well as on the distribution of finance, personnel, vehicles, and buildings. The

boards consist of all mayors in the region, a regional chief constable (*korpschef*), and a chief public prosecutor (*hoofdofficier van justitie*). The mayor of the largest municipality is the chief regional manager. Even though the law only permits this triangle to decide on the police administration, it also directly influences the actions of police forces. In practice, the theoretical separation between administration and authority can hardly be maintained.

The regional board has proved to be a problematic institution in the Dutch political-administrative system. Police regions fall apart between the provincial and the municipal level of government. Proper democratic accountability mechanisms are, therefore, lacking. A city council can directly supervise the mayor, but it is unable to control the regional board. Nevertheless, a lot of power over the police is concentrated in this board.

The police are monitored by the Police Internal Investigation Department (*Rijksrecherche*). This department deals with internal affairs and guarantees the integrity of police work. It is embedded within the police organization and directly subjected to the authority of the Ministry of Justice. The National Ombudsman and the regional boards, in addition, investigate complaints against the police.

Police Training

The system of police vocational training has been developed since 1998 and is based on the perceived need to bridge the gap between police education and police practice. Job profiles defined in terms of competencies have led to the establishment of five levels of police profession and training programs. Curricula are now organized in line with those levels. A parallel development has led to the evolution of a dual model of education and training, which combines learning in professional practice with courses in a training institute. The training times, depends on the officer levels, are:

- 1.5 years for assistant police officers
- 3 years for advanced police officers
- 4 years for senior police officers

In addition, there are two supplementary levels for police scientists (bachelor and master). Within the police itself, the existing ranks are police trainee, Police Patrol Officer, Constable, Constable First Class, Police Sergeant, Inspector, Chief Inspector, Commissioner, and Chief Commissioner. More cooperation with educational institutions other than police colleges is being discussed. At those institutions new programs and curricula are being developed in the area of security and safety, for example, for local government civil servants.

Police Unions

There are four police unions in the Netherlands:

1. Dutch Police Union (*Nederlandse Politiebond*)
2. Christian Police Union (*Algemene Christelijke Politiebond*)
3. Federation of Police Staff (*Vereniging van Middelbare en Hogere Politieambtenaren*)
4. Dutch Police Federation (*Algemene Nederlandse Politievereniging*)

Approximately 80% of the Dutch police officers are union members. This high percentage can probably be explained by intensive membership recruitment during police training. The unions are very powerful organizations that are actively involved in collective bargaining. They have a major influence on the outcome of labor agreements.

OTHER POLICING BODIES

In addition to the regular police force, other policing bodies exist. First, there are many regulatory bodies (*Bijzondere Opsporingsdiensten*) with specific (limited) tasks, powers, and jurisdictions. These bodies are responsible for the maintenance of economic and social laws. More than 20,000 officials, such as labor inspectors, tax inspectors, and agricultural inspectors, carry out tasks of supervision and assessment. Other public officials are employed as, for example, public transport supervisors and customs officers.

Second, the General Intelligence and Security Service (*Algemene Inlichtingen en Veiligheidsdienst*)

and the Military Intelligence and Security Service (*Militaire Inlichtingendienst*) are secret services protecting the country against existential threats such as domestic and international terrorism and crime. These services gather information about suspicious individuals and organizations, inform the government and assist the police and military forces to counter serious violations of national security. Several hundred people work for these services.

Third, commercial policing is of increasing importance for the provision of safety and security. Since the 1980s, the number of private security companies and detective agencies has grown rapidly. Although data on the size of the market must be treated with caution, estimates indicate that security companies employed more than 30,000 people in 2001. The number of private detectives has grown to more than 600.

Finally, uniformed city wardens (*stadswachten*) and so-called “junior police” (people 15 years of age can apply for this job) operate under the supervision of the Dutch police. City wardens and junior police are primarily “extra eyes and ears” in streets and crowded areas such as shopping malls. Their main tasks are surveillance, supervision, and assisting the public. Both organizations do not have formal police powers and only assist patrol officers with their work.

Table 1 Policing in the Netherlands

<i>Policing Bodies</i>	<i>Number of Employees</i>
Total police force	53,000
Special investigative bodies:	
Specific policy areas (national)	1,500
Special investigation (subnational)	8,000
City wardens	4,000
Private security industry	30,000

Sources: the Ministry of Justice and the Ministry of the Interior (*Beveiligingsjaarboek*), 2003.

INTERNATIONAL POLICE COOPERATION

Organized crime is of major concern in the contemporary European Union. Since the collapse of the

communist system in 1989, cross-border crime has increased rapidly. This development has stimulated international police cooperation within EU borders. On a formal level, Europol was established in 1995. Europol is a European equivalent of Interpol, which has the main task of supporting the international exchange of information on terrorism, drugs trade, trafficking in people, and other crimes. With no executive function, Europol has not yet proven its effectiveness. Countries agree on bilateral cooperation to establish more solid joint policing activities.

Apart from Europol and bilateral agreements, informal international networks have developed. These more fluid networks of cross-border policing vary from working groups, which meet on a regular basis, to ad hoc police cooperation. Police officers often use their informal contacts because they lack knowledge and faith in the formal institutions. Given the ongoing Europeanization process and the threats of terrorism and organized crime, international police cooperation is expected to become ever more important in the future.

L. W. J. C. Huberts and R. van Steden

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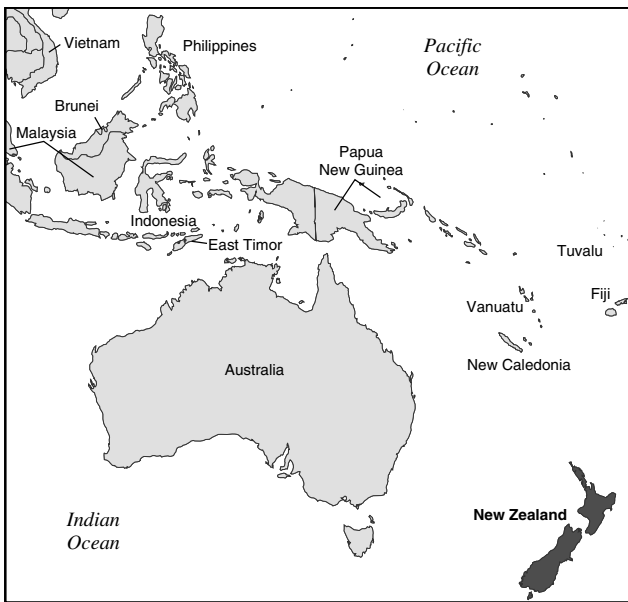
NEW ZEALAND

New Zealand consists of two main islands and a number of smaller islands covering 268,680 square kilometers that is located approximately 2,026 kilometers southeast of Australia. It has a population of 3.9 million people (July 2003 estimate). The Maori people were the first inhabitants of New Zealand, starting in AD 800. The islands were formally annexed by Britain in 1840. The British colony of New Zealand became independent on September 27, 1907. New Zealand fought with the Allies in both World Wars as well in Korea. It is a parliamentary democracy whose legal system is based on British law, with special land legislation and land courts for the Maori. Because it is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, its head of state is Queen Elizabeth II, represented by a Governor General. The Cabinet is appointed by the Governor General at the prime minister's recommendation. Its unicameral parliament has 120 seats: 69 members elected by popular vote in single-member constituencies and 51 proportional seats chosen from party lists; all serve 3-year terms.

THE NEW ZEALAND POLICE

In 1846, an ordinance for the establishment and maintenance of a constabulary force was passed. This Act described the police force as "a sufficient number of fit and able men who would serve as an 'armed force' for preserving the peace and preventing robberies and other felonies and apprehending offenders against the peace." The Police Act of 1886 established New Zealand's civil police force. The force was generally unarmed. In 1958 a new Police Act was passed in which the word *force* was removed. The name now used is *The New Zealand Police*.

The New Zealand Police is responsible for enforcing criminal law in New Zealand. Thus, the main police tasks are reducing the incidence and effects of crime, detecting and apprehending offenders, maintaining law and order, and enhancing public safety. The New Zealand Police aims to work in partnership with the community through:



- Empowering communities to deal with issues of community safety and creating more effective community partnerships
- Reducing the fear of crime by reducing actual crime
- Helping to support and rehabilitate victims
- Maintaining order and keeping the peace
- Keeping people free from intimidation, civil disturbance, and unreasonable annoyance
- Helping to keep traffic flowing easily
- Increasing people's personal safety
- Reducing the risk of property theft, loss, or damage

The total number of police is 7,000 sworn police officers and 1,800 civilian support staff. There is a ratio of 1 sworn officer for every 558 inhabitants. The ranks of the New Zealand Police are Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, Superintendent, Inspector, Senior Sergeant, Sergeant, Senior Constable, Constable, and Recruit. The breakdown of police officers in the respective ranks is as follows: 75% are Constables, 15% are Sergeants, 5% are Senior Sergeants, and 5% are commissioned police officers.

Structure and Organization

The New Zealand Police is a decentralized organization divided into 12 district commands. The national chief executive of police is known as the

Commissioner and is appointed by the Governor General. The Commissioner reports directly to the Minister of Police. The national police headquarters, known as the Office of the Commissioner, is located in the capital, Wellington. A Board of Commissioners is responsible for high-level leadership of the police and makes decisions on strategy, governance, and performance management. The Board consists of the Commissioner and two Deputy Commissioners (one responsible for Operations and one for Resources Management). Supporting the Board is a team of advisers, including General Managers of the following departments: Finance, Public Affairs, Planning and Policy, Cultural Affairs, and Human Resources/Organizational Development. An external Maori representative is a part of this body. A Commissioners' Support Group, headed by an Assistant Commissioner, provides executive support and oversight to the Commissioner, the Board, and the Minister of Police. There are three operational branches: General Duties sectional staff, Criminal Investigation, and Traffic Safety. The police also have staff who provide administrative and specialist support such as forensic services. Each of the 12 regional Police Districts has a Central Station from which subsidiary and suburban stations are managed. In total, there are 400 community-based police stations.

The New Zealand Police is essentially an unarmed service, and both the police and public are determined to keep it that way. In 1964, after the fatal shooting of four police officers in two local incidents, the Armed Offenders Squad (AOS) was established. The AOS provides police with the means of effectively and safely responding to and resolving situations in which there is an actual or threatened use of firearms or other weapons against members of the public or police. There are now 17 such squads, covering all main centers.

The basic operation of the AOS has not changed since the first of these squads was founded—that is, to cordon, contain, and appeal to armed offenders. These tactics are successful in the vast majority of incidents, which are resolved without the use of force. The AOS is also used in some preplanned operations where there is a high risk, for example, escorting large cash movements, or assisting other

police with search warrants. Negotiation teams and specially trained dogs and handlers support these squads. AOS members are all volunteers. They must qualify at a rigorous national selection and induction course and receive regular additional training in their districts. They are part-time, drawn from all branches of the police, and operate on a callout basis. The AOS attended 533 incidents nationwide in a year spanning 1998 and 1999.

The Police Negotiation Teams, which support each AOS, are likewise part-time volunteers who are drawn from all areas of police work. Police negotiators are specially trained in psychology and crisis intervention techniques. They are most frequently summoned during AOS incidents. The vast majority of incidents are resolved peacefully with the suspects surrendering at the request of the Police Negotiation Teams. Negotiators may also be required to respond to a range of other cases.

Beat and Patrol Constables are the most visible and diverse part of the New Zealand Police. Their duties are divided between proactive policing, where officers patrol or take other measures to detect and prevent crime, and responding to calls for service. In any given shift, section constables might help prevent street disorder, deal with a lost child, investigate reports of a stolen motor vehicle, intervene in a domestic violence incident, or respond to a serious road crash. The New Zealand Police employs nearly 3,500 Beat and Patrol staff in addition to 3,500 sworn officers. Crime prevention cameras are being installed in growing numbers in many public places.

Crime Statistics

From 1996 to 2002, overall recorded crime in New Zealand dropped by 7.8% against a population increase of 4.3%. Over the same period, the police rate for solving crime improved by 5%. The total number of offenses reported to the police for the 2002 calendar year was 440,129, compared to 426,526 in the calendar year 2001. The level of offending per 10,000 people dropped from 1,274 in 1996 to 1,112 in 2002. Recorded burglaries remained stable in 2002. As the New Zealand population also rose over this period, this represents

a net decrease in the rate of burglaries offenses per 10,000 people of 1.5%, down from 155 burglaries per 10,000 people in 2001 to 153 burglaries per 10,000 people in 2002. With regard to drug offenses, in calendar year 2002, the police put 147 clandestine methamphetamine laboratories out of action. There was a 7.5% decrease in cannabis-related offenses. While possession offenses went down, however, there was an increase in the number of dealing offenses. The 2002 year-end statistics for drunk-driving offenses were down by 6.6%.

Police Youth Education Service

One special program of the New Zealand Police is the Police Youth Education Service (YES). Within this framework the New Zealand Police, through special Education Officers, work in partnership with teachers in the classroom. The goal is to promote individual safety to young people, families, teachers, and school communities. YES has identified four strategic themes for educational programs:

1. Crime Prevention and Social Responsibility
2. Drug Abuse Resistance and Education
3. School Road Safety Education
4. Violence Prevention

The Police Education Officers are experienced uniformed police officers specifically trained to fulfill this mission.

Recruitment and Training

Candidates for the New Zealand police must be between the ages of 18 and 22 years; have a high school diploma; no criminal record; be physically and mentally fit; possess a current driver's license; have New Zealand citizenship or permanent residence; and demonstrate good spoken English and literacy and numeracy skills.

COMBATING TERRORISM

Eighty Australians and three New Zealanders lost their lives in a nightclub bombing on the Indonesian

island of Bali in 2002. Following this terrorist act, the Terrorism Suppression Act of 2002 was passed. Heralded by the Police Commissioner as an important tool in combating international terrorism, the first stages have substantially increased the international and regional cooperation of the New Zealand police with the national police agencies of other countries. New Zealand police liaison posts have been opened in Washington, DC, London, and Jakarta.

Michael Sadykiewicz

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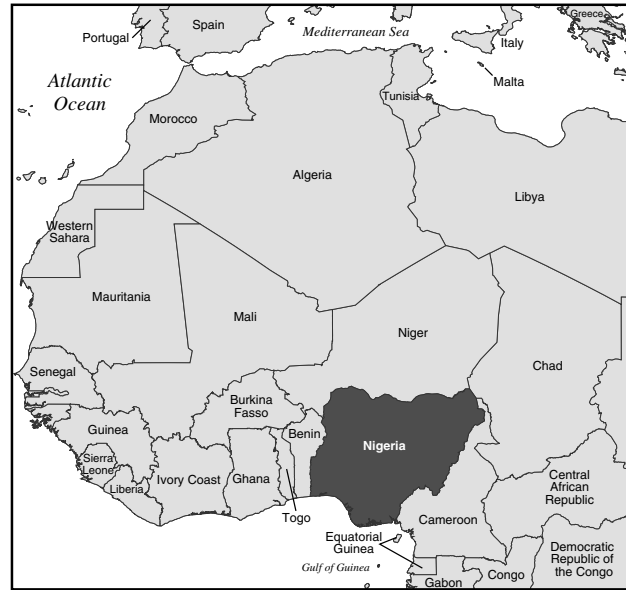
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✎ NIGERIA

Nigeria is located on the west coast of Africa and is the most populous nation on the continent with an estimated population of 130 million people and a landmass of 923,768 square kilometers. The modern history of Nigeria dates from 1861. Before that time, there were local police in the emirates of northern Nigeria called *Dongari*, and in the south by members of secret society.

THE NIGERIA POLICE FORCE

The present-day police force emerged from the British colonial government into what has now come to be known as the Nigeria Police Force (NPF). It was created under the police ordinance number 2 of 1930, establishing its headquarters in Lagos. It was headed by an Inspector General and assisted by a Deputy Inspector General and two assistant Inspectors General. This unitary structure of policing continued until Nigeria obtained its independence from Britain in 1960. At that time, the Nigeria Police



Force was constitutionally established as a unified federal force exercising authority in every part of the new republic. According to provisions of that order-in-council, the Nigeria Police Force was charged with maintaining law and order and protecting life and property throughout the federation.

Nigeria has the largest police force in Africa with a current strength of approximately 300,000 officers (1 for every 430 inhabitants) and a mandate to recruit and train 40,000 personnel annually until the year 2007.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The operational control of the force is under the Inspector General of Police. The Inspector General is appointed by the President on the advice of the Nigerian Police Council from among serving members of the Nigeria Police Force. The Police Service Commission appoints a Commissioner of Police for each of the 36 states of the federation plus the Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. The President is the *police authority* and may give the Inspector General of Police lawful directives, as he considers necessary, with respect to the maintenance and securing of public safety and public order.

In the 1980s violent developments in the country necessitated reforms in the Police Force's organization and structure. These reforms were carried out

with the view of enhancing the operational capacity of the force and to meet new challenges and the ever-changing dynamics of the Nigerian society.

The Nigerian Police Force is organized into force headquarters with 11 zonal commands and a 36-state structure, with a separate command for the federal capital territory. One of the main features of the 1988 reorganization was the decentralization of the administration structure at the force headquarters level with the creation of an additional six directorates, each headed by a Deputy Inspector General of Police. These six Directorates are:

1. Finance and Administration
2. Operations
3. Investigation and Intelligence
4. Logistics and Supply
5. Recruitment and Training
6. Research and Management Services

The 11 zonal commands are each headed by an Assistant Inspector General of Police (AIG). Within these zones are the state commands, each headed by a Commissioner of Police (CP). Under the state Commissioners of Police are Area Commands, which are headed by Assistant Commissioners of Police. The divisional police formations within each area are under a senior police officer, usually Superintendent of Police.

Structure of Nigeria Police Force Commands and Operations

- *Force Headquarters*—Inspector General of Police assisted by six Deputy Inspectors General of Police Force Secretary
- *Eleven Zonal Commands*—Assistant Inspector General of Police
- *State Commands*—Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners
- *Area Commands*—Assistant to Commissioners
- *Divisional Commands*—Chief Superintendent/ Superintendents
- *Police Stations*—Superior Police Officers/ Non-commissioned Officers (i.e., Inspectors/ Sergeants)
- *Police Posts*—Noncommissioned Officers (i.e., Inspectors/Sergeants)

The Nigeria Police Force has extensive powers, including the power to:

- Arrest with or without a warrant
- Maintain and enforce order
- Conduct searches and seizure of property
- Detain suspects
- Investigate criminal cases and conduct prosecutions

The wide latitude of these powers have unfortunately been abused, leading members of the public to question police accountability and legitimacy. Current efforts at training and retraining of officers have reduced the number of abuses and misconducts by the rank and file.

Nigeria, as an emerging and developing country, is one of the most turbulent and challenging societies for police, as is acknowledged by Nigerians and international experts. Crimes of all types, ranging from political to economic, are prevalent in the country.

The most common crimes, which pose great danger to the credibility of the country and have strained the nation's crime-fighting capabilities, are financial crimes. These are commonly referred to as "419" crimes, which include:

- Obtaining property under false pretenses
- Advanced fee fraud scams, in which criminals convince their subjects to advance them money with the promise of a larger reimbursement
- Transborder armed banditry
- Human trafficking
- Commercial and bank fraud

In order to curb the scourge of money laundering, financial crime, and advance fee fraud, the federal government of Nigeria, through appropriate National Assembly legislation, established the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission in 2002. It is charged with the responsibility of fighting the financial crimes described above.

POLICE TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

Only citizens of Nigeria are eligible for enlistment in the Nigerian Police Force. People seeking enlistment must have an educational qualification

commensurate with their point of entry. For a recruit constable, candidates must have at least a high school diploma or equivalent. A male candidate must be a minimum of 5' 6" tall, and females must be a minimum 5' 4" tall. In addition, candidates must be physically fit and must pass a prescribed medical examination as well as an entrance examination. A candidate must not be younger than 19 or older than 25 years of age. A recruit usually trains for 6 months.

To become an Inspector or Assistant Superintendent of Police (ASP) a cadet officer must meet the requirements described previously, except he or she must be between 23 and 28 years of age and have received a degree from a recognized university. A cadet usually trains for 12 months.

POLICE RANK STRUCTURE

The police are organized into the following rank structures:

Superior Police Officers

1. Inspector General of Police (IGP)
2. Deputy Inspector General of Police (DIG)
3. Assistant Inspector General of Police (AIG)
4. Commissioner of Police (CP)
5. Deputy Commissioner of Police (DCP)
6. Assistant Commissioner of Police (ACP)
7. Chief Superintendent of Police (CSP)
8. Superintendent of Police (SP)
9. Deputy Superintendent of Police (DSP)
10. Assistant Superintendent of Police (ASP)

Inspectorate

1. Chief Inspector of Police
2. Inspector of Police
3. Subinspector of Police

Rank and File

1. Sergeant Major (S/MAJOR)
2. Sergeant (SGT)

3. Corporal (CPL)
4. Constable (PC)

Aside from the Inspector General of Police, who is appointed by the President upon consultation with the Police Service Commission, all other promotions in the officer cadre are made by the Police Service Commission subject to the following considerations:

- Fitness of the individual for the vacancy to be filled, including physical fitness, knowledge of duties of the appointment, general capability, training and experience
- The individual's degree of efficiency, intelligence, zeal, and good conduct
- Seniority in rank

The Inspector General of Police makes promotions within the inspectorate cadre when vacancies occur.

POLICE DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

The Nigerian Police Force is the only police force recognized by law in Nigeria to perform the following functions:

- Prevention and detection of crime
- The apprehension of offenders
- The protection of life and property
- The preservation of order
- The enforcement of all laws and regulations
- The performance of military duties within or outside Nigeria
- The preservation of the liberty of the citizens

However, recent events in the country have led to gradual erosion of police powers, especially in areas of criminal investigations in specialized areas such as drug trafficking, fraud, financial crime, and federal highway patrol. Agencies such as the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA) handle all drug-related cases in Nigeria, and the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) handles all advance-fee fraud, money laundering, and other financial crimes. Responsibilities

for ensuring safety on federal highways now rest with the Federal Road Safety Commission (FRSC).

In the international arena the Nigeria Police Force has been an active participant in the United Nations (UN) Peacekeeping Operations since the Congo (Democratic Republic and Congo) crises in the early 1960s. Presently, it has civilian police officers deployed to UN peacekeeping missions in Kosovo (UNMIK), Congo (Democratic Republic and Congo) (MONUC), Western Sahara (MINURSO), Sierra Leone (UNAMISIL), and Liberia (UNMIL). The Nigeria Police deploy and maintain officers both at the Nigerian Mission to the United Nations in New York and at Interpol Headquarters in Lyon, France.

Cornelius Kayode Aderanti

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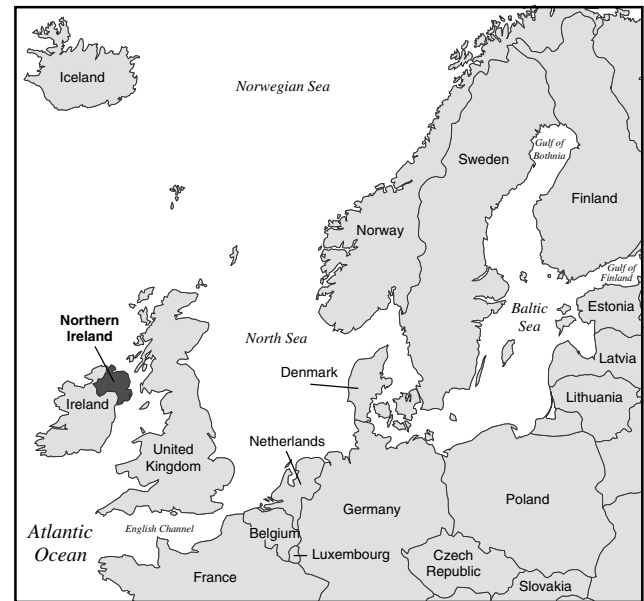
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☞ NORTHERN IRELAND

POLICE SERVICE OF NORTHERN IRELAND

The Police Service of Northern Ireland (PSNI) is the successor police force to the Royal Ulster Constabulary (RUC), which itself emerged from the Royal Irish Constabulary (RIC) after the partition of Ireland in 1922.

The policing of Ireland prior to partition in 1922 (the original embryonic police force was established by Robert Peel in 1814) has never been free from controversy. Ireland, as a colony of Britain, proved difficult to subdue, and the establishment of a police force was seen as an alternative to the blunt instrument of the military. In reality, a hybrid organizational form emerged, which, while having some of the characteristics of normal civic policing, had the central task of imposing British rule on an increasingly recalcitrant nationalist population. The model of colonial policing, which emerged in 19th-century Ireland, was replicated across the British Empire.



With the establishment of the Irish Free State (later to become the Republic of Ireland) and the entity of Northern Ireland, the RIC was disbanded. The police force established in the Free State, the *Garda Siochana*, was, unlike the RIC, unarmed and enjoyed a considerable level of legitimacy and acceptance, at least until recent times. The RUC, as it was to be named, was staffed in the main by former RIC officers and retained the quasi-military structures and training of the latter, including the issue of infantry style weaponry. The retention of a colonial-style police force was justified by the perceived threat from nationalists who did not accept the legitimacy of the new entity of Northern Ireland. The majority of the population was Protestant and overwhelmingly committed to union with Britain; however, the Roman Catholic minority, nearly one third of the population in 1922, disputed, with various degrees of assertiveness, the legitimacy of the state of Northern Ireland. The RUC soon became an overwhelmingly Protestant and Unionist force as the initial complement of Catholics recruited from the RIC (approximately 15% of the new force) declined. The ratio of police to population was startling. From a population of 1.5 million, the police and police reserves (“A” and “B” Special Constabulary) numbered 50,000, and a further 100,000 were members of the “C” special reserve force.

Although the regime in Northern Ireland—Unionist rule continued uninterrupted for half a century—did not have the support of one third of the population, it remained stable until the onset of the civil rights agitation in the 1960s. Whereas the police had been successful in suppressing any challenge from the Irish Republican Army (IRA) and were adept at the everyday control of the minority population, the mass actions of the civil rights movement brought the RUC to its knees, unable to deal with agitation on the streets. This led to the direct intervention of the London government and the deployment of the British Army.

In the wake of the onset of serious civil unrest in 1968, a number of attempts were made to reform the RUC. These efforts foundered in the absence of a political settlement, and the police became increasingly militarized. By the end of the 1970s the RUC had become the frontline counterinsurgency force in the war with the IRA. The force became embroiled in numerous controversies involving mistreatment of suspects, the killing of civilians and what came to be known as the *shoot to kill* strategy. The involvement of the police Special Branch in the murder of suspects became the subject of the longest criminal inquiry in British history—the Stephens Inquiry—centering on the killing of a Catholic lawyer in 1989 and alleged widespread collusion between the security forces and loyalist murder gangs. The London Metropolitan Police Commissioner John Stephens, who headed the inquiry, commented: “Various eminent people have been to look at the inquiry and I’ll just say one thing that they have said: If you read what has happened in this inquiry in a book, you would not believe it. And I can confirm that” (*The Guardian*, 20.1.2003).

In the wake of the IRA cease-fire in 1995 and moves toward a political settlement, reform of the RUC became a priority. In some ways the force had become a victim of its own success: By depriving the IRA of a decisive victory it had transformed itself into an unaccountable, secretive, and militarized organization unsuitable to take on the task of policing a society which, apart from political violence, had one of the lowest crime rates in Europe.

In the wake of the Belfast Agreement in 1998, designed to formulate the basis for new cross-community political structures, the Patten Commission, was created to make recommendations on the reform of the RUC. The commission reported (*A New Beginning: Policing in Northern Ireland*, Belfast 1999) a year later and made recommendations that were centered on the transformation of the police into a force acceptable to all sections of the community. The name of the force was to be changed to the Police Service of Northern Ireland, structures of accountability were to be introduced, the role and power of the Special Branch was to be curtailed, and the focus was to move from counterterrorism to community-based policing. In addition, the proportion of Catholic officers was to be commensurate with the proportion of Catholics in Northern Ireland, which, according to the latest census figures, now stands at 44% of the population.

Resistance to change came both from within the police and from Unionist politicians, while the Nationalists broadly welcomed the report. The full implementation of the report’s recommendations, which required enabling legislation from Westminster, had not yet taken place as of early 2004 because the implementation of some reforms had become embroiled in ongoing political negotiations between the local political parties and the British and Irish governments.

The significance of these reforms in a broader international context should not be overlooked. The Patten report was an attempt to deal with the problem of police legitimacy in a deeply divided society, and the success or failure of the reforms will have implications for policing in other societies where ethnic and other cleavages are a potential or real source of conflict.

Jim Smyth

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NORWAY

The Kingdom of Norway is situated on the Scandinavian Peninsula in Northern Europe. Norway is characterized by its long coastline, facing the Northern Atlantic. The land area covers 324,220 square kilometers (118,865 square miles, slightly larger than the U.S. state of New Mexico). Norway has 4.5 million inhabitants, resulting in a low population density (38 inhabitants per square mile). Norway is not a member of the European Union, but partakes in the Schengen agreement and is a member of Interpol.

THE NORWEGIAN POLICE

Norway has a national police force under the Ministry of Justice. The organization of the Norwegian Police is largely based on the principle of a decentralized and integrated police, where all functions of the police are collected in one organization. The total force consists of 12,000 employees (34% women) of whom 8,000 are police officers (16% women), which is a ratio of approximately 178 officers per 100,000 inhabitants or 1 officer per 560 citizens.

The police organization in its modern sense was created during the last half of the 19th century after the English pattern. From having been divided between municipal and state organizations, the state got total responsibility for the police in 1937. Police forces include *lensmann*, a category of senior policeman (akin to a constable or sheriff) that has been in existence since the 14th century. That the *lensmann* still exists today underlines the Norwegian conservative tradition in policing. In a comparative perspective, the development and the functioning of the Norwegian police has been strikingly peaceful. It is one of the few police forces that is unarmed.



During the last few years, the Norwegian police have shown a considerable international involvement in peacekeeping and humanitarian operations all over the world through the United Nations (UN)-administered CIVPOL-(civilian police) concept. The scope of this involvement is made clear by the fact that every tenth Norwegian police officer has had experience with CIVPOL operations.

Central Administration

In 2001, the National Police Directorate (NPD) was established as part of the Police Reform of 2000. This reform is characterized as the most comprehensive police reform in Norway of the past 100 years. Besides the establishment of the National Police Directorate, the reform resulted in a substantial reduction in the number of police districts. The overall goal with the reform was to get a more efficient organized policing, to meet the challenges of a changed society.

A National Police Commissioner, appointed by the government, is in charge of the NPD and is the head of the Norwegian police. The duties of the NPD comprise support functions such as strategic and operative coordination and professional management. With the exception of the Police Security Service, which still reports directly to the Ministry

of Justice, the authority of the NPD covers all branches of the Norwegian police service. The NPD is given the authority to issue general instructions to the police service, and is aiming toward a more problem-oriented policing.

Besides the NPD, there are five other central police institutions:

1. The National Criminal Investigation Service (NCIS) assists the local police with both technical and tactical expertise. The Interpol and SIRENE (Supplementary Information Request at the National Entry) offices are located at the NCIS.
2. The National Authority of Investigation and Prosecution of Economic and Environmental Crime is a central institution to combat economic and environmental crime, and is both a unit of the Public Prosecutors Office and a key body within the police.
3. The National Police Academy is responsible for the training of police officers.
4. The Police Security Service (PSS) has the task of preventing terrorism, espionage, and threats to internal security of the realm.
5. The Mobile Police is responsible for traffic control across the country.

In addition, the Police Computing Service and the Police Equipment Service are special administrative bodies.

Local Level

As a consequence of the Police Reform of 2000, the number of local police districts was reduced from 54 to 27, each under the command of a Chief of Police. Moreover, there is a special police force on Svalbard, headed by the District Governor. The Chief of Police has full responsibility for policing in the district. Each police district has a headquarters, as well as several police stations. There are 27 police districts with 410 locations, 71 police stations, and 339 lensmann stations. The largest police district is Oslo with 2,300 employees of whom 1,700 are police officers.

The mission of the police is stated in the Law on Police (4th of August No 53, 1995). In the first paragraph it is stated that the state shall provide police service that is needed by society and that the police by preventive, executive, and assisting activities shall be part of society's endeavor to ensure and ascertain the rule of law, safety, and common well-being of the residents.

Every police officer is trained to be a generalist, able to fulfill all aspects of ordinary police work including criminal investigation, patrolling, and public order policing as well as crime prevention. The first level of prosecution is organized within the police. The police prosecutors do primary and basic prosecution service and go to court with minor criminal charges. In this respect the police receive their instructions from the Higher Prosecuting Authority. In all other questions, the police have instructions from the National Police Directorate and the Ministry of Justice and the Police. State Attorneys, organized in an independent body, handle major criminal cases.

POLICE TRAINING

The National Police Academy is situated in Oslo. To ensure a more efficient recruitment of officers in the northern part of Norway, there is also a division in Bodø. To be accepted, applicants are required to have graduated from upper secondary school and to have an unblemished record. They must also pass physical tests and an interview. In 2002 there were approximately 2,100 applicants, of whom 240 (34% females) were admitted.

Basic training takes 3 years. The first and third years are spent at the Academy. The second consists of practice in a police district. The academy also provides training on higher levels.

In 1992, the Police Academy was transformed into an institution of higher education with standards similar to those applied to other higher educational institutions. As part of the reform a research unit was set up at the Academy. To ensure the quality of research, principles used at universities are practiced. The task is to produce knowledge that is of relevance for the police. Important themes

for the unit are police accountability, police use of firearms, traumatic experiences of police officers, history of police, investigations involving juveniles, and efficiency of police in general.

POLICE ARMAMENT

Norwegian police officers are not regularly armed but are trained in the use of firearms (Smith & Wesson caliber .38 revolvers and MP 5 for reinforcement) as part of the regular basic training. However, according to Weapons Instructions for the Police, a Chief of Police must order the officers before they may arm themselves. The firearms are stored in police stations or, in case of revolvers, may be stowed unloaded in sealed bags in service cars. For the whole Norwegian Police Force, approximately 1,300 orders for police to arm themselves are issued per year (less than four times per day). In 3% of these conditions of armaments, firearms are used solely for the purpose of threat (almost 50 times per year), and in two cases per 1,000 to shoot (approximately 3 times yearly). On the average, less than one suspect is injured per year, and one suspect every third year is killed by a police officer.

POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

The NPD exercises control functions to ensure that allocated resources are fully and adequately used, and that all police activity is in accordance with the rules, regulations, and legislation applying to the police service.

In cases where police officers are suspects of crime or misbehaving, a Special Investigatory Body

(SEFO), organizationally independent of the police and subordinate to the Director General of Public Prosecution, carries out the investigations. A SEFO body has three members: a chairman with qualifications equal to a Supreme Court Judge, a lawyer with a minimum of 2 years practicing criminal law, and a member with well-documented experience of police investigations. A State Attorney makes the final decision about further action after recommendations of the SEFO body.

MEASURES OF POLICE EFFICIENCY

Each year the police register nearly 450,000 crimes. Levels of reported crimes are notoriously hard to compare between countries, except for a few categories, such as murder and manslaughter. In Norway the murder rate is approximately 1 per 100,000 inhabitants. As in many other countries, the clearance rate is used as one of the major indicators of efficiency. The total clearance rate for all reported crimes is generally 30%.

Johannes Knutsson

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O

OMAN

Oman, an oil-rich Middle Eastern monarchy bordered primarily by United Arab Emirates, Yemen, and the Arabian Sea, occupies 212,000 square kilometers of mostly arid desert and has a population of just under 2.4 million people (January, 2003). The official language is Arabic. The Sultan is both head of state and head of government, and has directed 3 decades of rapid social and political modernization.



THE POLICE FORCE

The nation is served by a single, modern, armed national police force, the Royal Oman Police (ROP). Founded in 1970, the ROP replaced the existing national security system and has total primacy in matters of internal security and policing operations. It employs 16,500 police officers and civilians (2003). Women, part of the ROP since its inception, account for 4.5% of the sworn personnel. They are primarily assigned to airport security duties, the directorate of prisons, and the criminal investigation division, where they provide assistance to women and children involved in crimes and during the judicial process.

Oman maintains strong political and social ties to the United Kingdom, and both the ROP and the Criminal Justice System reflect a mixture of British and Islamic traditions.

In addition to traditional police and public security duties, the ROP has sole responsibility for the customs service, prisons, the coast guard, passport control, immigration enforcement, firefighting, the national emergency medical service, and civil defense. It also maintains an expansive and busy licensing bureau with a wide range of licensing responsibilities. A mounted horse and camel unit patrols oil pipelines and assists with border control and airport security.

National Police Headquarters is located in the capital, Muscat, with divisional headquarters in Al-Sharqiyah, Al Wusta, Al Betinah, Al Dahirah, Al Dakiiyah, Muscat, Dhofar, and Mussandam. Since 1999, the government has undertaken an aggressive building program to replace older police buildings with modern, state-of-the-art, high-technology facilities.

POLICE RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

The force has 15 operational ranks: Police Officer, Corporal, Sergeant, First Sergeant, Sergeant Major, First Sergeant Major, Murrashah (candidate for officer rank), Lieutenant, First Lieutenant, Captain, Major, Lieutenant Colonel, Colonel, Brigadier, and General.

Applicants to the ROP must be at least 18 years of age and citizens of the Sultanate. A multiple entry system allows new officers to join the police service at four separate ranks depending on their educational qualifications. Candidates with high school certificates qualify as basic police officers. Those with arts degrees enter as lieutenants. Master's degree applicants are appointed at the captain rank. A doctorate degree is required for admission at the rank of major. Each rank has a specialized basic training curriculum.

All police training takes place at the modern Sultan Qaboos Academy for Police Sciences, which opened in 2000 and is located in Muscat. Advanced training is provided, and senior officers attend specialized management courses in the United Kingdom and the United States.

OTHER SECURITY AND LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

Oman has an extensive private security industry owned and operated as a profit-making commercial

enterprise by the national government. Privately owned security companies are prohibited. The ROP, under the supervision of a Lieutenant Colonel, recruits and deploys civilian security personnel as guards to hospitals, banks, commercial and private property, and as escorts for cash and other valuables in transit.

An armed and trained paramilitary home guard, part of the national defense forces, patrols the rural and sparsely populated border areas. It provides police services to nomadic tribes living in those regions.

Oman has a low crime rate. Only 22 homicides, 188 sexual crimes, and 45 serious assaults were reported in 2000. The country has had no apparent terrorist threats and little narcotics activity. Police officials are increasingly concerned with a growing number of illegal immigrants, abandoned in Oman by human traffickers.

Oman holds membership in the United Nations, Interpol, and in the Arab Organization for Social Defense Against Crime.

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P

☪ PAKISTAN

Pakistan is located on the Arabian Sea, between India, Afghanistan, Iran, and China. It covers 803,940 square kilometers and has a population of 150 million people (July 2003 estimate). Pakistan separated from India in 1947, and its relations with India have been tense since that time, particularly in the province of Kashmir, whose status is disputed. Administratively, Pakistan consists of four provinces and a tribal territory (bordering Afghanistan), which is federally administered but largely autonomous. The capital, Islamabad, is also a separately administered federal territory.

THE PAKISTAN POLICE

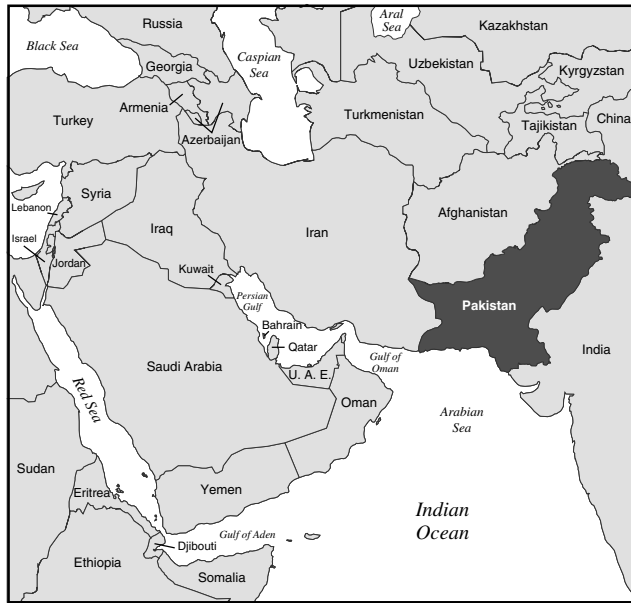
Although outdated, the applicable law concerning the police function in Pakistan dates from colonial times, when the Police Act of 1861 organized a force similar to the Irish Constabulary. Pakistan is a developing country in which some critics claim the police continue to act toward the government as they did when it was under a colonial power; that is, the perception that the police role is to protect the government, rather than the people. The police are frequently criticized by human rights organizations for abuses, including torture, excessive use of force, illegal searches and seizures, and other forms of corruption.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The police force falls under the Ministry of Interior but is decentralized to the Provincial level. The Chief Minister of each province is responsible for law and order within the province. Each provincial police force is headed by an Inspector General who is the departmental head of the Provincial Police Force, which controls divisions and districts. These are provincial administrative units, consisting of cities, towns, and villages, with the smallest being 3,000 square kilometers. A division consists of a number of districts. Province departments have very similar structures and working procedures.

The police force is divided into three tiers. The lowest tier is comprised of the constabulary (constables and head constables). The middle rank is the inspectors (ranging from Assistant Subinspector to Inspector). The highest tier is that of gazetted officer, which includes the high ranks from Assistant Superintendent to the Inspector General of the Police. Gazetted officers consist of federal officers (who directly enter the force in this tier) and provincial officers (who are promoted from the ranks).

Police stations are headed by inspectors or subinspectors and have teams of constables, head constables, assistant subinspectors, and subinspectors. Police work is not specialized, and every police officer performs a range of tasks: patrol, detection of crime, investigation, and prosecution.



OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES

The Federal Investigation Agency (FIA) is an investigative force that has four goals:

1. Combat bribery and corruption in federal government departments and public sector corporations.
2. Monitor and respond to violations of the Passport Act and Emigration Ordinance.
3. Investigate economic crime.
4. Investigate white-collar crime having interprovincial and international ramifications, entrusted by the federal government as well as National Accountability Bureau (NAB).

The FIA falls under the Ministry of Interior but has its own headquarters, Director General, and Police Academy, which conducts initial and in-service training for force members. The FIA's functions are divided into several wings:

- The *Crime Wing* manages cases of corruption, embezzlement, cheating, forgery, and fraud.
- The *Economic Crime Wing* also investigates cases of fraud and embezzlement in corporations, commercial banks, and development finance institutions. It also investigates leakage of Government revenue occurring through evasion of taxes and duties. The Economic Crime Wing has field units

at Rawalpindi Peshawar, Lahore, Quetta, and Karachi.

- The *National Central Bureau (NCB)* includes Pakistan's Interpol bureau. It supervises all cases relating to international police cooperation, including fighting against crimes and all criminals subjected to surveillance, identification, search, arrest, interrogation, and extradition.
- The *Immigration Wing* administers 18 immigration check posts (land, sea, and air routes) and is responsible for offenses under the Passport Act and Emigration Ordinance.
- The *Technical Wing* provides technical/scientific support and opinion during inquiries/investigations conducted by the FIA.
- The *Legal Wing* provides legal guidance during investigations and inquiries and prosecutes cases in various courts.

An Anti-Narcotics Force (ANF) is responsible both to the Ministry of Interior and the Ministry of Narcotics Control.

The Civil Armed Forces, which include the Pakistan Rangers, Frontier Corps, and Pakistan Coast Guard, are the field organizations of the Ministry of Interior. The roles assigned to these forces are securing and preventing illegal border crossing, preventing smuggling, enforcing drug control, and assisting Provincial Governments in maintaining law and order when requested. They are separate from Civil Defense, whose main responsibility is to educate people about safety measures to be adopted at times of calamities such as fire, flood, earthquake, and natural and man-made disasters, and to provide relief services to the victims of such events.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Most police recruits are directly recruited at the rank of constable, assistant subinspector, or assistant superintendent. Eleven percent of the force are inspectors, who must have a high school education (12 years), and superintendents, who are primarily college graduates. Higher ranks are selected through competitive examination. Most lower ranks are recruited locally by the department. Appointments

are frequently made through bribery or political influence, leading to a condition where the recruited officer owes a debt to whomever was influential in obtaining the position.

In 1995, the United Kingdom sponsored the establishment of a Central Planning and Training Unit within the National Police Academy to improve training. Previously, training facilities were poor, frequently lacking water and electricity. Training consisted of drills and lessons based on orally transmitted police culture.

ACCOUNTABILITY

Pakistan has been ranked 92nd out of 133 countries included in Transparency International's evaluation of countries (2003); the society is highly tolerant of corruption. The police represent a problem that crosses government at large. The wide discretion exercised by police encourages kickbacks, pay-offs, and shakedowns. In a survey conducted among police in Lahore, only 8.2% of respondents declared that accepting a bribe from a speeding motorist violated the rules; similarly, fewer than 10% of officers believed stealing an object from a crime scene or money from found wallets violated the Penal Code.

A middleman, popularly known as a "tout," serves as a liaison with the police for payments; these individuals have usually established a reputation of dealing with police officers and criminals, and usually keep a percentage of bribes. Bribes are not only paid to have officers overlook illegal activity, but they also are frequently necessary for those who want the police for legitimate purposes, such as registering a criminal complaint or initiating an investigation.

While the factors contributing to police corruption in Pakistan include recruitment methods that favor patronage, another problem is training that emphasizes tradition over professionalism. Supervisors are given few tools for controlling their subordinates; for example, police officers are not asked to write reports detailing their patrol activity. The low salaries and insufficient budget allocated to the police force also push police officers to supplement

their pay (or the amount of gasoline they have for their vehicles) by accepting bribes or kickbacks.

Internal and external accountability processes are weak. Every province has an anticorruption department responsible for conducting inquiries and for investigating and prosecuting cases reported to provincial departments. Although statistically a great number of disciplinary procedures are initiated against officers, it is very difficult to know their results. Furthermore, the police leadership is heavily manipulated by political interference.

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PANAMA

Panama is bordered by Costa Rica to the north, Colombia to the south, and both the Caribbean Sea and the North Pacific Ocean. It has a population of 2.8 million people (July 2002 estimated) who live within its 78,200 square kilometers. Weeks after the December 19, 1989, invasion of Panama by the United States, a new national police force was formed. By means of General Order on May 17, 1990, the force was transferred to a civil and uniformed group of units. While balancing security and sovereignty, Panama modified its constitution to demilitarize its Panamanian Public Force (National Police, National Maritime Service, National Air Service, and Institutional Service of Protection). The Panamanian Public Force now provides national defense and police services but is restructured so as to have police services with separate commands.



The Panamanian National Police (PNP) is a civilian, service-oriented police organization with an estimated 12,000 officers, a ratio of 1 police official for every 230 inhabitants. Women police officers comprise 6% of the force.

The agency is headed by the Director General of the Police, a civilian appointed by the President of the Republic of Panama and held accountable to the Ministry of Government.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The PNP is organized into zones accordingly to its nine provinces and one territory, with divisional headquarters located in each: Bocas del Toro, Chiriqui, Cocolé, Colón, Darién, Herrera, Los Santos, Panama, Veraguas, and San Blas (the territory). The metropolitan area is divided into three additional regions: Metropolitan North, East, and West. The Panama province is divided into Panama East and Panama West. Police services can be found in rural and remote areas as well.

Special Forces include:

- Customs Guards
- Railroad Guards
- Port Guards
- Forest Guards
- Tourism Police

- Community Police
- Antiriot Police
- Female Police

POLICE RECRUITING, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

The PNP receives training from the President Belisario Porras Police Academy (*Academia de Policía Presidente Belisario Porras* [ACAPOL]) and the Doctor Justo Arosemana Center for Higher Learning (*Centro de Enseñanza Superior Doctor Justo Arosemana* [CES]). ACAPOL offers training to newly enlisted police cadets in basic policing practices as well as the practice and the maintenance of human rights inside the framework of the state. The CES was created specifically for the formation, training, and specialization of its officers. Here, officers are trained in critical incident management and operating and administrative functions of policing. After 4 years of study, the young cadets graduate with a Bachelor's Degree in Public Administration and are commissioned as second lieutenants. The Police Training Center (*Centro de Capacitación Policial* [CECAPOL]) offers different training programs. Among them are an 8-week training course on Border Security and Border Control and a 6-week course in legal aspects of policing.

In the past, Panamanian officers and enlisted men have also received their training by the U.S. Army School of the Americas, the Inter-American Air Forces Academy at Albrook Air Force Base, and the Small Craft Instruction and Training School at the Naval Support Facility near the Pacific end of the Panama Canal. However, the number of Panamanians receiving their training in the United States has fallen because the School of the Americas moved to Fort Benning, Georgia.

Police applicants must:

- Be 18 to 23 years old
- Be single and without children or other family ties
- Have graduated from high school
- Have letters of recommendation from the faculty of the University of Panama
- Have acceptable scores on academic tests of abilities (PCA)

- Provide copies of their transcripts and two copies of identification
- Not belong to any institution of the Public Force or of the Technical Police Court
- Not have any tattoos or body piercings.

The PNP has the following ranks:

- Director General
- Director
- Inspector General
- Inspector Chief
- Commander
- Colonel
- Lieutenant Colonel
- Major
- Captain
- Lieutenant
- Second Lieutenant
- Sergeant
- Second Sergeant
- First Tip
- Second Tip
- Agent
- Cadet

In addition to awarding promotions, transfers, and military decorations, the Commander in Chief supervises disciplinary measures and ways to improve the moral, cultural, intellectual, and overall condition of the FDP. The Commander in Chief has a staff that assists with the planning of areas of military and police operations, training, and administration. The President of the Republic has the authority to replace the Commander in Chief in case of retirement, death, failure to follow orders, or personal incapacity.

The FDP is an autonomous government agency that determines its own internal procedures in regard to personnel policies, disciplinary sanctions against FDP members, organizations created to further the social welfare of members, and recommendations for the defense budget.

Widespread drug trafficking in Panama is a problem. Newspapers in Panama and the United States question the integrity of the Panamanian system of justice as well as the personal ethics of highly placed government officials. Panama is an alleged

transshipment point for the movement of drugs from South America to North America and a banking haven for laundering funds. In the late 1980s, the country declared a state of emergency and temporarily suspended Articles of the Constitution that guarantee basic rights such as freedom of speech and assembly.

The incidence of crime has risen 7% since 1983. The greatest number of arrests comes from the most populous province, Panama, which accounts for nearly 50% of the total. Juvenile crime has increased since the early 1980s, with the largest categories of offenses being property damage, assaults, and fights.

Since the early 1900s, the U.S. armed forces have provided the primary defense of the Canal Zone and, in effect, of Panama itself. Panama Canal treaties mandated cooperation and coordination in the protection and defense of the canal until December 31, 1999. In 2000, the United States withdrew its troops, and Panama is now fully responsible for its operation; however, the United States continues to share responsibility for the defense of the canal. A bilateral military assistance pact exists between the United States and Panama in which, under the Panama Canal treaties, the two countries pledge themselves to the joint defense of the Panama Canal.

The private security industry has grown considerably in the past 20 years. Panama currently has 108 private security agencies. It is one of the most patrolled countries by security forces in Central America, with 12,000 public security agents and 16,000 private agents. Because of high costs, Panama eliminated a physical exam for its private forces, but officers must complete required training that ensures they have basic reading and writing skills.

Minerva Sanchez

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✎ PAPUA NEW GUINEA

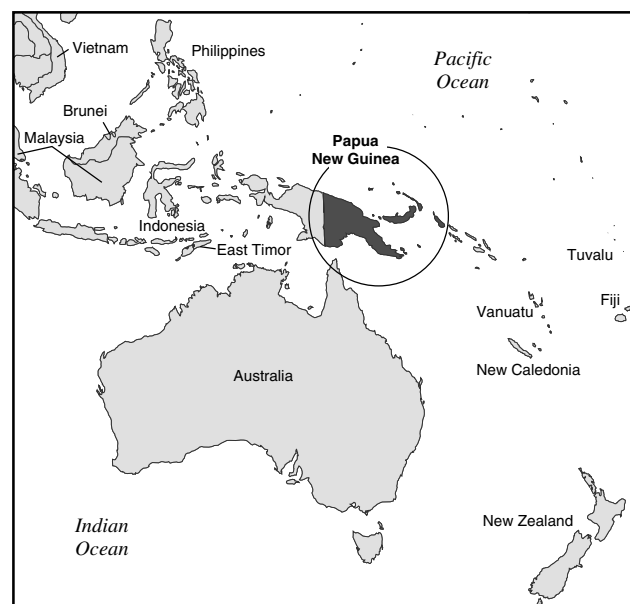
Papua New Guinea's population of 5.3 million people (July 2003 estimate) is among the most heterogeneous in the world because its mountainous terrain has kept generations of its inhabitants separated. Even today, its citizens speak more than 800 distinct languages. Although its 462,840 square kilometers includes some small neighboring islands, Papua New Guinea's main territory is the eastern half of the New Guinea island—the second largest island in the world—which it shares with Indonesia. The economy is rich in natural resources, but more than 75% of the population relies on subsistence agriculture. It was colonized in the late 19th century, although administration shifted between German, British, and Australian control. Papua New Guinea became independent in 1975. A constitutional monarchy, it is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations and recognizes the Queen or King of England as its head of state. It is governed by a popularly elected parliament, which chooses the Prime Minister. The island is located in a volcanic zone, and earthquakes, tsunamis, and landslides are common.

THE POLICE SYSTEM

During the colonial period, the criminal justice system was part of an undifferentiated system of native administration. The *kiap*, or patrol officer, investigated crime, apprehended suspects, heard cases as a magistrate in the Court of Native Affairs, and incarcerated offenders for minor matters. This form of administrative justice was replaced with a centralized criminal justice system in the 1950s.

According to statistics reported to the United Nations in 2000, the Royal Papua New Guinea Constabulary (police force) had 5,462 police officers (1 for every 970 inhabitants), of whom 287 (5%) are women.

An increase in violent crime, particularly in urban areas, has accompanied an economic crisis. In addition to common, economically motivated crimes such as theft and burglary, interethnic violence is common. Violence is also a common reaction to perceived inequalities in the distribution



of government benefits. Residents of the island of Papua New Guinea attempted to secede in 1990; after 7 years of conflict, the revolt was resolved.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The police force falls under the authority of the Minister of Police. A Commissioner of Police is responsible for monitoring, organizing, and controlling the force. In practice, the Minister is responsible for policy, but operational matters are controlled by the Commissioner and senior police management.

The administrative headquarters of the force is in the capital, Port Moresby. The country is divided into five Divisional Commands (each with its own Divisional Commander). Each province within the divisions has its own Provincial Commander and headquarters.

Members of the defense forces can provide assistance to civilian authorities during times of civil disaster, thus augmenting the police. This provision has most often been called upon by special police operations during national disasters, general elections, and states of emergency.

The Bureau of Customs and the Taxation office (both part of the Internal Revenue Commission) enforce customs and taxation policies. Within the

Department of Foreign Affairs, the Migration Division enforces migration laws and regulations.

POLICE TRAINING

Recruits must have a secondary school education and meet physical and moral requirements. The Bomana Police College, Papua New Guinea's police academy, offers initial recruits a 6-month training program. After graduation, new recruits undergo a probationary period of 3 years. During this time, they must gain additional educational credit in order to be confirmed in their position.

Australia, which neighbors Papua New Guinea, is one of its biggest development donors. In December 2003, this support was expanded to include 230 Australian police officers, who serve in the Papua New Guinea police force, and an assistance package for equipment and training. Deployed in the capital, regional, and suburban police stations, the Australian police's mission is to investigate corruption and fraud and also to help prosecute ordinary criminal suspects.

POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

Papua New Guinea has both internal and external mechanisms for accountability. The Internal Affairs Division investigates police wrongdoing; it has a Public Complaints division to receive, register, and investigate allegations and determine appropriate action. Potential penalties range from a caution through a fine, to demotion in rank, and, finally, to dismissal. Serious affairs may be referred for criminal proceedings in regular civilian courts. The Papua New Guinea Ombudsman's office can initiate investigations *ex officio* or following a complaint. The Ombudsman can require documentation and demand that the police answer questions; serious wrongdoing can be referred to criminal proceedings.

LOCAL CUSTOM

Before colonization, the largest permanent political units in Papua New Guinea typically consisted

of several hundred people who lived together in villages, hamlets, or homesteads. Traditional Papua New Guinea societies were organized on principles of kinship, marriage, and descent. While the effects of modernization have made inroads into Papua New Guinea culture, tradition still has a major influence. Characteristics include kinship bonds that extend beyond the immediate family, generally egalitarian relationships with emphasis on acquired status (instead of inherited status), and a strong attachment to the land.

The majority of Papua New Guinea residents continue to live in rural villages, where allegiance to tribe, clan, and subclan has more relevance than the national legal system. The principle of individual criminal responsibility, as opposed to collective responsibility, has been a particularly alien concept for many communities. Custom, adapted to modernization, often carries great influence at the village level in maintaining law and order.

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PARAGUAY

Paraguay, a constitutional democracy, is a landlocked developing country roughly the size of California (252,743 square kilometers) in the center of South America. Ninety-five percent of the estimated 6 million residents (July 2003 estimate) are descendants of indigenous people. Most live within



100 miles of the national capital, Asunción, while 60% of the country remains relatively uninhabited. Among the poorest of South American nations, Paraguay suffers 35% unemployment and a per capita annual income averaging U.S. \$940 (2003). The official languages are Spanish and Guaraní.

A former Spanish territory, Paraguay gained independence in 1811. The nation has a long history of dictatorial rule that officially ended in 1989. Periods of political instability, restricted human rights, and substantial political corruption have made the struggle for full democracy, promised by the 1992 constitution, difficult. Most observers describe the country as “chaotic.”

Since 1999, a popular vice president was assassinated, allegedly by a political rival; a serving president narrowly avoided impeachment for driving a stolen BMW and being involved in a 16-million-dollar theft; and there have been at least three attempted coups.

PARAGUAYAN NATIONAL POLICE

The nation’s primary law enforcement agency is the Paraguayan National Police (PNP), an armed military-style police force under the direction of the Minister of the Interior. The PNP was created under the 1992 constitution when two basically separate

forces were combined, the police of Asunción and a police force operating in the country’s provinces. At that time the PNP numbered approximately 8,000 officers. Current personnel numbers are estimated at 12,500 (2003), a ratio of 1 for every 400 inhabitants, with a large percentage assigned to the capital city.

The PNP is a highly centralized organization with headquarters in Asunción. The nation is divided into six police commands, each subdivided into provincial districts. Under the existing constitution, Paraguayan armed forces have responsibility for internal security, and they are active public order partners with the PNP. Military officers serve in the PNP command and operational staffs. The military provides border control, carries out traditional policing duties in rural areas, and participates in riot control and in antismuggling activities.

Paraguay requires mandatory government service for all males who are 18 to 19 years of age. Conscripts serve in both the army and the PNP. International human rights groups have documented incidents of conscription of children as young as 12 years of age in both services. Conditions of service are difficult. Police and enlisted military personnel are poorly paid even by Paraguayan standards. Most live below the poverty line, forcing some police officers to live in police stations. The ongoing economic crisis has created shortages of equipment and substantially hindered modernization of the force.

The PNP operates training schools for recruits and officers. Rank structure and recruitment standards follow those of the army.

Paraguayan police and military personnel have historically been involved in government repression and restriction of human rights, including incidents of torture, “disappearances,” and extrajudicial killings. Police are widely viewed as susceptible to political and economic influence. Some observers describe police and military corruption as “rampant.” In 2003, an entire police brigade was disbanded for links to gangs of car thieves, and proceedings were launched against another group of police officers accused of robbing currency dealers. In 2004, a prosecutor accused 20 high-ranking police officers

of trying to involve him in a scheme to steal part of \$540,000 taken in a national bank robbery. Other senior officers were recently removed for participation in a major smuggling case.

In a December 2003 public interview, President Nicanor Duarte pledged to modernize the police in an effort to return the country to “a state of order.” Suspect officials are being purged, a new internal affairs unit has been created, training standards have been improved, and the country has entered into bilateral anticrime agreements with police agencies in Brazil, Argentina, and Chile.

CRIME

Paraguay does not report crime statistics. The press and informal, and official government sources from neighboring countries indicate that crime is rising throughout the country, particularly in rural areas. Armed street robberies, auto theft, bus robberies, and burglaries have increased, and high-profile kidnappings are on the rise. Some government officials estimate that 70% of the cars operating in the country have been stolen from other countries and illegally imported.

Demands for land and political reform and endemic poverty have fueled frequent public demonstrations and national strikes. Some have been accompanied by violence. In several recent incidents, police and military officials have been implicated in extrajudicial killings of union and activist leaders.

Paraguay has long been a major smuggling center. Narcotics, weapons, fake designer clothes, firearms, counterfeit name-brand cigarettes, and stolen autos move freely in and out of the country, but especially in the area known as the “triple frontier zone,” an area where the borders of Paraguay, Brazil, and Argentina meet. The region’s largest city, Ciudad De Ester, hosts an extensive international money-laundering network.

A large Shia Muslim community, which migrated to the area after the Lebanese war, controls much of the smuggling traffic. The Triple Zone has been identified by Paraguayan and international officials as a growing haven for Islamic terrorist

activities. Recent attacks on Jewish targets in Buenos Aires are believed to have been staged from there. Transfers of millions of dollars from Paraguayan Arab “charities” to Hizballah, Hamas, and similar terrorist institutions have been well documented. Al-Qaeda agents are active in the region as well. A network of recently discovered sophisticated telephone switching stations allowed international terrorists to call from anywhere in the world and make undetectable transfers to telephones worldwide.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY AGENCIES

The national government maintains a separate law enforcement agency to address money laundering. A national narcotics bureau is responsible for narcotics smuggling and related crimes.

Paraguay has an active armed and unarmed private security industry.

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PERU

Peru occupies 1,285,220 square kilometers on the western coast of South America, bordering Ecuador, Colombia, Brazil, Bolivia, and Chile. It has a population of 28.4 million people. The home of the prominent Inca civilization, Peru was conquered by the Spanish in 1533. It won independence in 1824, finally defeating the Spanish 3 years



after it declared its independence. Peru witnessed an economic revival in the 1990s, but then-President Alberto Fujimori's authoritarian style led to dissatisfaction and his overthrow in 2000. Peru is the second largest producer of coca leaf in the world, and thus it is a major source country for narcotics trafficking. The Peruvian government has had to balance crackdowns on producers against the need to quell popular unrest. A subversive group, Shining Path, has been responsible for terrorist acts carried out against both official and civilian targets.

PERUVIAN NATIONAL POLICE

The Peruvian National Police shares responsibility for internal security with the military.

The first law enforcement forces in Peru, the National Guard and the Police Guard (within the armed forces), were established in 1825. After several reorganizations, a Civil Guard and Gendarmerie emerged. In 1922, Peru appealed to Spain for assistance in reorganization. At that time, the Republic Police, the School of Civil Guard, and other specialized investigative arms of the police were created. This structure stayed more or less stable until 1984, when the Civil Guard, Investigative Guard, and Republican Guard were placed under unitary command and trained by a single

institution. In 1988, the force was renamed the National Police.

The police force had 99,123 members in 1994, a then-ratio of 1 for every 239 inhabitants. A review of the vision and mission statement of the National Police demonstrates a direction that is functionally the same as other democratic police forces, such as a focus on preventing crime and the protection of human rights.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Peruvian National Police is subordinate to the Ministry of Interior. The police is commanded by a Director General. The main staff and inspector general also report directly to the Minister.

Under the Director General are departments for intelligence, the air wing, human resources and training, administration, tourism and ecology, and civic participation.

The Operations Branch, which also reports to the Director General, consists of departments for counterterrorism, antidrugs, state security, public security, criminal investigation and judicial support, anticorruption, prison guards, and financial police.

The National Directorate against Terrorism (DINCOTE) was created in 1991 in response to the rising threats of the MRTA (*Movimiento Revolucionario Tupac Amaru*) and the Shining Path. The operations of this unit have led to the capture of leaders from both of these organizations, such as Víctor Polay Fields (MRTA leader) and Abimael Guzmán Reynoso from the Shining Path. In several operations, the Peruvian National Police have turned to a taskforce structure to combat insurgents and terrorism, combining resources with the Army, Navy, and Air Force special operations, and National Intelligence Service.

To combat illegal drug traffic as outlined in the Peruvian Government's National Drug Prevention and Control Plan (1994-2000), the Peruvian National Anti-Drug Directorate (DIRANDRO) conducts a combination of interdiction and prevention activities throughout the country. Interdiction operations of cocaine and cocaine paste rather than eradication strategies of coca plants have been

emphasized in the past. The Specialized Directorate was restructured into three tactical antidrug divisions with jurisdiction in the coca-producing valleys and zones of the country. Although the National Police has primary responsibility for anti-narcotics efforts, the army has been called in to drive out insurgents in some operations.

Like many countries around the world, the National Police has struggled with issues of corruption. As such, a specialized anticorruption unit was created in August 2001 to investigate and denounce crimes generated by corruption. It offers technical support to the authorities of the Judicial Power and Public Department, among others, on all corruption-related criminal investigations.

Other specialized functions include a unit whose function is to coordinate and supervise all National Police activities related to tourism and the environment (DIRPOLTURE), as well as those to investigate and to denounce crimes against tourists and the environment.

The territorial distribution of police is divided into 11 police territories, which are further subdivided into anywhere from 1 to 4 regions. Lima is the only territory with no subregions.

The grades and ranks of the police are categorized into a hierarchy similar to many police departments internationally. The force is mainly comprised of a military-like General Police, a plainclothes investigative Technical Police, and a Security Police for the borders and penitentiaries.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

All cadets entering the PNP for the General Police must participate in a National Police School. Police training in the school is differentiated by career path as with many academies around the world. To be admitted to the Superior Technical School of the PNP, applicants must:

- Be Peruvian citizens (by birth)
- Be between the ages of 18 and 25 years
- Meet height and weight requirements
- Be unmarried and without children
- Have completed 5 years of secondary education
- Have completed mandatory military service
- Be of good character with a clean criminal record

Applicants who have completed training in specialized higher or technical institutions beyond the mandatory 5 years of secondary education must have successfully completed their degree; they may apply up until the age of 27. All candidates must pass an entrance examination.

At the Superior Technical School, students receive a general education in language and computers; after completion, they may enter the force at the rank of Sergeant-Major, can be appointed to the specialized units, and are eligible for further advanced training.

REFORM

In its efforts to transition toward democratic standards of policing, the Peruvian police established community-based networks for crime prevention in 2003. Called the National Citizen Security System (SINASEC), it promotes the involvement of local police commanders working together with local authorities and community representatives, creating bottom-up mechanisms to hold police accountable for the quality of service and their conduct. These local councils develop community-specific security plans and also monitor and evaluate their impact.

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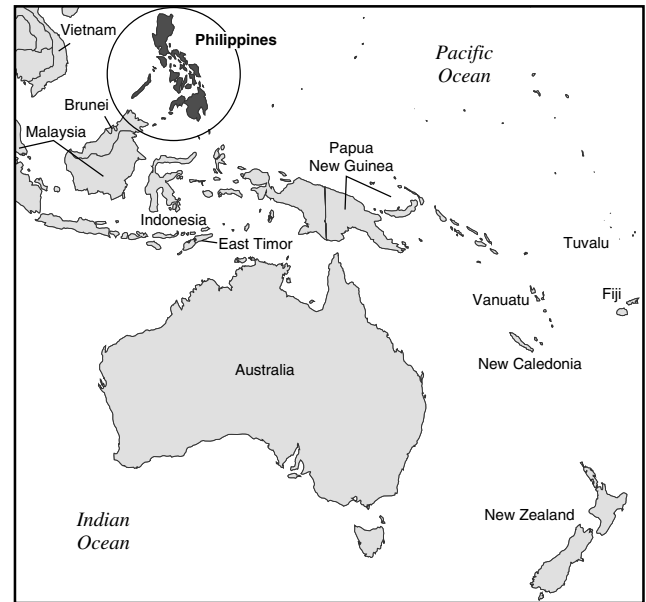
PHILIPPINES

The Philippines are an archipelago east of Vietnam and north of Malaysia and Indonesia in the Philippine Sea. The islands of the Philippines cover an area of 298,170 square kilometers and have a population of 84.6 million people (July 2003 estimate). The Philippines were a Spanish colony until 1898, then ceded to the United States, and became independent in 1946. The republic was ruled by Dictator Ferdinand Marcos for 21 years until 1986. At the beginning of the 21st century, the country was struggling to maintain democratic governance. Administratively, the country is divided into provinces, cities, and municipalities; the some 79 provinces are organized into geographical regions.

Since the end of the Marcos regime, there has been an increase in general criminality, including drug offenses, carjacking, robbery, theft, and illegal weapons possession. In many areas, organized criminality is a major problem. In addition, the Philippines struggle with a number of armed disturbances. The New People's Army, the military arm of communist dissenters, has committed political assassinations, kidnappings, and torture. The terrorist Abu Sayyaf Group has also committed kidnappings and killings and has beheaded foreign and local hostages. In southern areas of the country, the army has been fighting Islamic separatists for numerous years.

THE PHILIPPINES NATIONAL POLICE

The Department of the Interior and the Local Government Act of 1990 regulate the Philippines National Police (PNP). Until it went into effect, internal security was the responsibility of the Philippine Constabulary and local police forces (who were initially merged as the Integrated National Police) and the armed forces. The Police Act specifies that personnel levels should have a police-to-population ratio of 1 for every 500 persons, and not less than 1 to 1000. In actuality, police numbers rarely meet those specifications. In 2001, in six regions the ratio exceeded 1 to 1,000, and the average was approximately 1 for every 850 inhabitants.



POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

A National Police Commission, comprised of a chair and four commissioners, oversees the police. It has departments for planning and research, legal affairs, crime prevention and coordination, administration, inspection and monitoring, and installations and logistics. It also is responsible for organizing disciplinary and appellate boards for the police. The Commission has offices in the Philippines respective regions.

The PNP is headed by a chief who is assisted by deputies for operations and administration. All are appointed by the President at the recommendation of the National Police Commission. The PNP is composed of a national office, regional offices, provincial offices, district offices, and city or municipal stations.

At the national level, the PNP has regional offices, including that of the National Capital Region, each headed by a regional director for peace and order. At the provincial level, PNP offices are headed by a provincial director. In the case of large provinces, police districts may be established by the Commission to be headed by a District Director. At the city or municipal level, there are PNP stations, each headed by a Chief of Police.

Local government officials have some degree of authority over the police—Provincial Governors choose Provincial Directors from three candidates nominated by the Regional Director. They also oversee the implementation of provincial safety plans. City and municipal mayors direct, superintend, oversee, and inspect PNP units in their jurisdictions, except for 30 days before and after elections, and they have the authority to employ and deploy units to ensure public safety. Mayors also are responsible for public safety plans and have the power to impose disciplinary penalties. They also choose the Chief of Police from a list of five candidates proposed by the Provincial Police Director and can recommend transfer or reassignment or appointment of PNP personnel.

Ranks of the PNP are:

- Director General (the Chief of Police and Chief of Directorial Staff at the national headquarters)
- Deputy Director General (the Deputy Chiefs of Police)
- Director (heads of various staff divisions in the directorial staff)
- Chief Superintendent (heads of Inspectorate, Administrative, and Operational Support Divisions, as well as the head of the National Capital Region [NCR], and heads of regional offices, heads of NCR district offices)
- Senior Superintendent (heads of provincial offices)
- Superintendent (heads of district offices)
- Chief Inspector (heads of municipality or city offices)
- Senior Inspector
- Inspector
- Senior Police Officer IV
- Senior Police Officer III
- Senior Police Officer II
- Senior Police Officer I
- Police Officer III
- Police Officer II
- Police Officer I

There are “Women’s and Children’s Desks” in police stations, to address crimes against chastity, sexual harassment, domestic violence, and child abuse. In 2001, 1,669 such desks were in effect, manned by 2,259 people.

SPECIALIZED UNITS

The Philippines police is supported by administrative, operational, and other support units. The administrative support units include the Crime Laboratory, Logistics Unit, Communications Unit, Computer Center, Finance Center, and Civil Security Unit. The operation support units include the Maritime Police Unit, Police Intelligence Unit, Police Security Unit (responsible for VIP protection), Criminal Investigation Unit (responsible for crimes involving economic sabotage or professional criminal syndicates and organizations), Special Action Forces (to respond to civil disturbances, counterinsurgency, hostage-rescue operations, and other special operations), Narcotics Unit, Aviation Security, Traffic Management, Medical and Dental Centers, and Civil Relations Unit.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Candidates for the PNP must be Philippines citizens of good moral conduct, sound mind and body, and must have finished at least the second year of college or equivalent credits (for appointment as a nonofficer), or a baccalaureate degree (to be appointed as an officer). They must meet height and weight requirements, and must be between the ages of 21 and 30 years old. A qualifying entrance examination is administered by the Civil Service Commission.

Police are trained at Regional Training Centers. The Philippine Public Safety College consists of a number of institutions for members of forces serving under the Ministry of Interior and Local Government (including Fire and Jail Bureaus in addition to the PNP). Police can be trained at the Philippine National Police Academy, the Police National Training Center, and the National Police College (secondary school). Graduates of the Philippine National Police Academy are appointed initially at the rank of inspector.

In 2001, the police recruited 5,709 entry-level policemen, the largest deployment being to the National Capital Region (with 1,700 recruits). That year, the PNP also appointed 237 Police

Commissioned Officers (PCOs). Approximately 60% of the commissioned officers were recruited from the National Police Academy; the rest were appointed through a lateral entry program.

In 2001, more than 48,500 police received in-service and specialized training in more than 650 seminars and programs on Law Enforcement Enhancement, Criminal Investigation and Detection, Community-Oriented Policing, Practical Traffic Law Enforcement, Antinarcotics Enforcement, Police Intelligence, Firearms Proficiency, and Computer Literacy.

POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

Citizens' complaints or other infractions can be brought to the relevant Chief of Police (for offenses punishable by sanctions not exceeding 15 days), mayors of cities or municipalities (for offenses punishable by sanctions of 16-30 days), or the People's Law Enforcement Board (when offenses are punishable by either sanctions exceeding 30 days or dismissal). Police Law Enforcement Boards are comprised of locally appointed civilians; their decisions can be appealed to regional or national appellate bodies. Minor disciplinary offenses are heard by supervisory officers or directors, proceeding up the chain of command and authority according to the severity of the offense.

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✎ POLAND

Located in Central Europe, between Germany, Russia, and other former Soviet satellite countries, Poland has an area of 312,685 square kilometers



and a population of 38.6 million people (July 2003 estimate). It is administratively divided into 16 provinces (*Voivodships Wojewodztwa*). Poland's legal system is a mixture of civil law with steadily decreasing holdovers from the communist legacy. The head of state is the President, who is elected for a 5-year term by popular vote. The Prime Minister is appointed by the President and approved by the parliament. Cabinet ministers are appointed by the President on the recommendation of the Prime Minister and approved by parliament. Poland's legislature is a bicameral National Assembly (*Zgromadzenie Narodowe*) consisting of a lower House (*Sejm*, which has 460 seats elected by popular vote) and the Senate (*Senat*, which has 100 seats elected by popular vote).

Poland is an ancient nation whose history dates from the middle of the 10th century, although its golden age was in the 16th century when it was one of the most important countries in Europe. During the following century, the aristocracy strengthened but internal disorder weakened the nation, until 1772 when the neighboring empires of Prussia and Austria partitioned Poland. Poland briefly regained its independence between 1918 and 1939, after which Germany and then the Soviet Union occupied its territory. Following World War II, Poland became a Soviet semisatellite but was governed with relative tolerance, particularly after 1956. As a

result of the nationwide labor turmoil in 1980, an independent trade union, Solidarity, was established, and it won the next parliamentary elections. In 1989, the first noncommunist government took power in Poland, initiating its transformation into a fully independent and democratic state. In 1999, Poland joined NATO; it joined the European Union on May 1, 2004.

THE NATIONAL POLICE: STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Poland's law enforcement system includes a National Police Force (*Policja*) and the Border Guard (*Straz Graniczna*) under the Ministry of Interior. An FBI-style Internal Security Agency (*Agencja Bezpieczenstwa Wewnetrznego* [ABW]) reports directly to the Prime Minister. There are also special groups subordinate to the respective civil ministries: Forest Guard (armed), Railroad Guard (armed), Taxation Police (unarmed), and Custom Service (unarmed). A military counterintelligence service and military police (*Zandarmeria Wojskowa*) fall under the control of the Defense Minister. The Prison Service is under the authority of the Justice Minister, who also is responsible for operations of the Court Police (*Policja Sadowa*).

Police reform during the democratic transition included the very name of the force itself. It was renamed *Policja* in 1990 to emphasize the separation from the communist-era institution, the Civil Militia (*Milicja Obywatelska*), which had served primarily the communist regime, not the people. In the first years following Poland's transition to democracy, far-reaching changes were introduced into the police. The police became fully independent from the Internal Security Services, which had formerly controlled it. The police force was definitively cut off from any political activity or association. Communist Party organizations within the police units were disbanded, as was the police corps of political officers. Most generals and high-ranking officers, especially those who were earlier communist activists, were dismissed. The reform movement cut a broad sweep, and many senior police officers and experienced professionals with clean

political histories were also dismissed. This left vacancies for all senior police command officers on central, regional, and even subregional levels. Ten years later the police continued to suffer from the lack of experienced professionals.

The National Police is a strong centralized force of 98,165 sworn officers (and 5,144 vacant posts), a ratio of 1 for approximately every 375 inhabitants (July 2003 figures). In 2003, there were 9,817 sworn female police officers (9.5%), among them 2,287 commissioned officers, and 2,923 warrant officers. Of the three basic police services, Prevention has the greatest number of sworn officers (58%), followed by Criminal (33%) and Support (9%). In terms of education, 74.7% of officers have a high school education, 23.5% of officers have a higher degree, and 1.8% have elementary education only. The police employs 19,814 civilians, of whom 60% are women.

The main Chief of Police is subordinate to the Ministry of Interior, specifically reporting to a Deputy Minister responsible for police, border guard, and regular firefighter brigades. The Polish National Police has four territorial levels: central, provincial (*Wojewodztwa*), subregional (i.e., districts; *Powiaty*), and local. The central level includes the national police headquarters (HQs) and specialized institutions such as the Police Central Forensic Laboratory, educational and logistic units, and central detachments of antiterrorist and antiriot police. Each of Poland's 16 provinces (*Wojewodztwa*) has a regional command, and there is one metropolitan police command in Warsaw. A total of 329 subregional districts (*Powiaty*) report to the Provincial Command, with some 2,000 police stations. The budget of the police (as of 2002), 5.164 million zloties (approximately \$1.359 million), is divided as follows:

- National Police HQ and police institutions and units of central subordination receive 11.9%.
- Regional Police HQs receive 60.7%
- District Police HQs receive 27.4%.

The main Chief of Police heads the National Police HQ (*Komenda Glowna Policji* [KGP]). His First Deputy supervises the Criminal Police; the

two other Deputies are responsible for Prevention and Logistics. The National Police HQs has standard police departments on the national level including Operations, Administration, Personnel, Finance, and Training. Two departments are of special importance: the Inspectorate and the Central Investigation Bureau.

The police Inspectorate is an internal affairs division whose aim is to prevent and combat corruption and other crime within the police. The Inspectorate has, apart from its officers working at the National Police HQs, its own departments and/or branches in the regional and subregional police commands.

An integral part of the National Police HQs is the Central Investigation Bureau (*Centralne Biuro Sledcze* [CBS]), which was created in 2000 and is subordinate to the Chief of Police. The CBS is a division within the police that is focused on major organized crime, including groups involved in terrorism, firearms, explosive materials, and extortion. The responsibilities of the CBS border upon the jurisdiction of the Internal Security Agency (ABW), although the specific division of labor between the two is not publicly available.

The structure of the CBS includes (in the central-level departments):

- Criminal
- Narcotics
- Economics
- Analysis
- Operational Technology
- Protection of Witnesses
- Special Operations

Every province-level police headquarters has a CBS department, but in operational matters these departments report directly to their national authorities. In major cities, detachments of the CBS report to provincial CBS departments.

The police is constantly seeking new technological innovations. In January 2003, a National Center for Criminal Information was established within the National Police HQs. This technologically advanced center collects, analyzes, and distributes full and constantly updated information on all types of crime to all law enforcement agencies. In 2002, the police

introduced an Automated Fingerprint Information (AFIS) program. As of April 2003, this database contained more than 1 million fingerprints; running a fingerprint against this system can take a mere 1 to 12 minutes.

THE MUNICIPAL GUARD

In Poland almost all cities, even small ones, have a local Municipal Guard (*Straz Miejska*) that is directly subordinate in all matters, including planning and operations, to the respective head of the local administration. The responsibilities of the Municipal Guards are very limited; they are unarmed and cannot make arrests. They do enforce administrative rules, ticketing offenders on offenses such as parking violations or unauthorized street trade. They also serve as a reliable mobile communication center to the nearest police station for urgent response. The Municipal Guards closely cooperate with the local National Police, often taking part in joint patrols. In some cities the Municipal Guard also provides security for schools. Calls to abandon this institution because of the limited services they provide tend to be protested by local administrations, who remain attached to the idea of maintaining their “own” force.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Police receive basic training in 12 police training centers throughout the country. Future commissioned officers are educated in the Higher Police Academy in Szczytno. The Police Training Center in Legionowo trains officers in traffic regulation, criminal techniques, and observation on the level of noncommissioned and warrant officers. Additionally this Training Center offers specialized courses for police officers with advanced education. In 1998, the Legionowo Training Center opened an International Center for Specialist Police Training. This active institution organizes international police courses, conferences, seminars, and symposiums to police officers from many European and American countries. It also offers basic training for commissioned police officers from Poland and other

countries in specialized areas such as river police, mine disposal and pyrotechnics, and juvenile delinquency.

Polish police officers, particularly enlisted, non-commissioned and warrant officers, receive very low salaries. One out of every four police families lives below the national poverty line. Forty percent of police officers do not own or rent their own housing, a standard 14% worse than the average family in Poland. Many police officers thus search for additional sources of income. Police are permitted to moonlight in some occupations, such as driving instructors, lifeguards at swimming pools, or in other fields in accordance with their primary police professional obligation. Poor quality of life has led police officers to demonstrate in favor of improvement of their material compensation; although striking is illegal for police officers, popular demonstrations are allowed.

Since 1989, the command of the Polish police has been marked by particular turbulence. Mirroring governmental upheavals that resulted in 9 Prime Ministers and 10 Ministers of the Interior, the police was commanded by 10 different Chiefs of Police in 14 years. Because of the hierarchical nature of the administration, each incoming leader handpicked his own subordinates, and changes at the top levels snowballed down all levels of police command, typically also to the district level. The result of this personnel management system is that command is constantly staffed by inexperienced newcomers.

FAILED EXPERIMENTS IN DECENTRALIZATION

In 1999, the police adopted a policy of decentralization, but after less than 5 years this policy may be abandoned as a result of corruption scandals. The target of decentralization was to bring police officers closer to the regional and local civil authorities and closer to the public. Police commanding officers (provincial and district) were to be chosen through competition, with local politicians participating in the decision-making process, together with the main Chief of Police. Police budgeting was

also radically overhauled. Until the decentralization, budget allocations and force deployment were determined centrally. From 2000, the National Police HQs was to be allocated a budget sufficient for its operations only. The provinces were distributed state-budgeted resources for policing in adequate amounts secured for the operations of their police units, based on an assessment from the national Chief of Police. Funding for the district commands came from each district's governmental administration (*Starostwa Powiatowe*) in the form of "goal donations." The money was to be under the public's control, as both province and district commands were accountable for budget allocations to the head of the respective administration areas.

As a result, the decentralized councils were vested with significant input into police planning and operations. From 2000 to 2001, the implementation of these concepts met with varying degrees of success. However, pressure exercised by local governing bodies on the police did not always contribute to effective policing or to the elimination of integrity-related problems. In many cases, the alliance between local police and civil administration fed corruption and organized crime, at times also involving high-ranking officials.

A scandal erupted when the CBS investigated one such alliance in Starachowice, a small district city, in March 2003, ultimately leading to the dismissals of the Deputy Interior Minister responsible for the police and, in November 2003, the national Chief of Police and two of his Deputies. Criminal proceedings were initiated against two members of parliament (who relinquished their parliamentary immunity) and local administration officials from Starachowice.

CRIME

Patterns of criminal behavior changed significantly after 1989. Some behaviors were decriminalized, while others became deviant. Some categories of illicit behavior decreased significantly, and others almost disappeared. Criminal activity, previously practically unknown, now presents a serious threat to the security of the country.

Despite formalistic changes, the increase in crime is almost catastrophic. In 2002, 1,083,854 crimes were recorded, an increase of more than 100% since 1989. The clearance rate for 2002 was 54.9% of all cases and only 42.5% of criminal cases.

According to media reports, the most dangerous crimes in Poland are corruption, drug offenses, and the trafficking of weapons and human beings. Organized crime groups have established themselves in smaller cities and border areas, and have taken control over many local social and economic activities. There has been cross-fertilization between traditional criminal activities (burglaries, car theft, bank robberies, etc.) and white-collar crime. The increase in “traditional” crime has become increasingly burdensome on average citizens.

Economic crime has also developed. In the early 1990s, economic crime primarily involved bank-related fraud, tax evasion, and the corruption of government employees. These crimes have developed into more sophisticated categories, including the fraudulent use of credit cards, computer crime, and falsification of documents related primarily to stocks and bonds.

The understaffed and underpaid police force does not have tools to effectively counter this crime avalanche. On the contrary, their unsurprising involvement in various forms of misconduct is part of a historically normative and presently reinforced mode of adaptation to unfavorable socioeconomic and political circumstances.

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

The Polish police is an active member of Interpol and Europol and has been a longtime participant in the international peacekeeping police force under the auspices of the United Nations. The Polish police cooperates significantly with the police of Germany, the United Kingdom, France, the Netherlands, and the United States.

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POLICE AND PEACEKEEPING IN THE UNITED NATIONS

The United Nations (UN) Civilian Police’s role in peacekeeping and other UN field missions has become integral to many UN operations. The police contingents participated in 13 different missions around the globe at the end of 2003. At that time, more than 7,000 police officers from 80 countries conducted patrols, provided training, advised local police services, helped develop and ensure compliance with international human rights standards, and assisted in a wide range of other fields.

As their deployments are to conflict and postconflict areas, UN Civilian Police help to create a safer environment where communities will be better protected and criminal activities will be prevented, disrupted, and deterred. The diverse national experiences of United Nations Civilian Police officers and their commitment to peace and security are their best tools to promote the rule of law.

The mandate of United Nations Civilian Police is different in each mission. In some missions, the mandate has been limited to monitoring the local police services. In more complex missions, the mandate includes advising, training, helping establish local police services and enhancing their work, and, in some cases, law enforcement. This

complexity is compounded by the need to integrate all components of the criminal justice system to ensure comprehensive and sustainable rule of law.

Generally, the police contingent deployments are based on United Nations Member States' personnel contributions to a particular mission. For instance, a mission may consist of police contingents from many countries and have various specialties. The officers are tested in firearms, language, driving, and other skills before deployment from their home country. The length of deployment may depend on the need of the UN, the contributing country's requirements, and mission mandates.

United Nations Civilian Police officers were deployed for the first time in the 1960s, in the UN peacekeeping operation in the Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo). And for more than 30 years they have been part of the UN Force in Cyprus.

Beginning with the United Nations mission in Namibia in 1988, UN Civilian Police have become an increasingly important element of UN peacekeeping in helping war-torn societies restore conditions conducive to social, economic, and political stability. In these conflict areas, the UN was able to ensure the population that policing of the society was seen to by a civilian law enforcement system and that the country's police would be monitored to acclimate themselves to the new peace-building setting.

The United Nations Interim Administration in Kosovo (UNMIK) deployed as many as 4,700 UN Civilian Police to maintain civil law and order as well as develop a future police service for the territory. UNMIK police are the first United Nations international police tasked with full executive law enforcement authority. By 2002, more than 4,500 local police officers had graduated and were in active service alongside UNMIK police.

In East Timor, UN Civilian Police were mandated to maintain law and order, and to establish and train a credible and professional police service. By the end of 2002, more than 2,000 local police officers were certified and co-located with UN Civilian Police officers from more than 40 countries. The country's police and international police are under the command of a UN-appointed

police commissioner. A gradual handover of police management from UN Civilian Police to the newly established national police force (*Policia Nacional de Timor-Leste*) was completed in December 2003.

In Bosnia and Herzegovina, more than 1,400 UN Civilian Police personnel carry out tasks relating to human rights investigations, monitoring and restructuring of the local police, and the development of and training in guidelines within the framework of democratic policing principles. More than 1,165 cadets, including approximately 400 women, have been trained at the two police academies that the UN mission helped establish. The UN Mission in Bosnia and Herzegovina drew to a close at the end of 2002, when the European Union (EU) assumed the role that had been undertaken by UN Civilian Police.

The UN Civilian Police Division, which is located in UN Headquarters in New York, was established in October 2000 as part of the Department of Peacekeeping Operations with a staff of experienced police officers from contributing countries. The Division is mandated to plan and support the work of United Nations Civilian Police officers in UN peacekeeping operations.

See Figure 1 for a list of current missions and UN Police deployments as of the end of December 2003.

Kenneth C. Payumo

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☪ POLICE AND TERRORISM

Terrorism is not a new phenomenon to the world; however, following the tragic events of September 11, 2001, many people both domestically and

internationally struggled with the search for answers to how this was able to happen. In its wake, law enforcement has been forced to re-examine its role in society as new questions surface related to the balance between public safety and security, the extent of collaboration with federal jurisdictions, the ability to mobilize community support for information-gathering and intelligence activities, and how to develop sufficient resources for both the detection of incidents and response to those that occur.

Although the magnitude of the September 11 attacks created a sense of urgency and priority, the need for strategies and tactics to thwart terrorist attacks is not new to law enforcement officials. In Italy in the 1970s, the response of law enforcement officials to attacks by the Red Brigade brought in an era where crackdowns on civil liberties were considered a necessary price to pay for a secure environment. Likewise, after France's political strategy of offering sanctuary to terrorists or armed groups failed to deter those who would have made it a target, the country increased its intelligence activities and facilitated the relationship of such agencies to courts using the criminal justice process. In response to Northern Irish armed groups, strategies employed by law enforcement agencies in the United Kingdom included extensive community involvement and participation to identify risks (e.g., suspect packages on public transportation) and harden potential targets.

BALANCE BETWEEN PUBLIC SAFETY AND SECURITY

Following September 11, Western governments around the world implemented antiterrorism legislation as a means of enhancing the capacity of law enforcement to investigate and respond to acts of terrorism. Civil libertarians in each of the countries where such legislation passed have raised claims of the dangerous "slippery slope" of government intrusion into the lives of citizens now being justified in the name of the war on terror.

From the perspective of law enforcement in the United States, little embodies public fears of the

erosion of civil rights and liberties more than the enactment of the USA PATRIOT Act on October 26, 2001. The Act passed with nearly unanimous bipartisan support in the days following the terrorist attacks and sought to enhance law enforcement's ability to investigate terrorist activity by allowing surveillance against the full range of terrorist-related crimes, from financing to the use of weapons of mass destruction. Other provisions allowed for the use of "roving wiretaps" and an ability to obtain a search warrant anywhere a terrorist activity occurred rather than having to obtain multiple warrants in multiple jurisdictions. The Act also increased penalties for the harboring of terrorists and/or involvement in terrorist activities both within the United States and abroad.

Similarly, the United Kingdom presented its own antiterror legislation on November 12, 2001, in the form of the Anti-terrorism, Crime, and Security Act. Like the USA PATRIOT Act, the UK version was broad in scope, providing additional powers for the police, measures to facilitate interagency information sharing, and airport security. Receiving the most attention within its provisions, the Act also permits the indefinite detention without formal charges of foreign nationals suspected of involvement with al-Qaeda or associated terrorist networks. The UK Act also makes possible the exchange of information between public organizations, tax collection departments, and intelligence services related to terrorist investigations.

The Government of Canada passed Bill C-36, the Anti-Terrorism Act, as its own means of combating domestic and international terrorism. As with the Patriot Act, Bill C-36 makes it easier to use electronic surveillance against terrorist groups, including eliminating the need to prove that such surveillance is a last resort. The former period of wiretap authorization of 60 days was extended to up to a year. A "preventive arrest" power was created that allows officers to arrest and bring a suspect before a judge who can impose supervision conditions in cases where there are "reasonable grounds" to suspect involvement in terrorist activity.

Although in many cases, the elements of the USA PATRIOT Act (and similar proposals around the

world) simply enhanced existing law enforcement capacities, a combination of misinformation and media attention has led many to worry about the potential “slippery slope” of the war on terror. Particularly within some communities, such as the Muslim and Arab American communities, local jurisdictions have had to work aggressively to restore and/or maintain the support and trust of the residents they served. Aggressive efforts to seek information and register Arab immigrants in the United States generated a backlash and fear on the part of many. To this end, law enforcement executives implemented creative solutions nationwide, such as holding community forums with community leaders to address issues related to the war on terror and other community mobilization activities. In many cases, such activities earned the needed trust of citizens to actively share information with law enforcement jurisdictions nationwide.

In seeking to increase its ability to respond to terror, many have argued that the need to partner with the community or engage in community mobilization activities are now far less significant. However, whether we are speaking of ordinary crime or terrorism, law enforcement relies on information from the community in order to be better equipped to prevent or respond effectively. Sole diversion of resources to counterterrorism activities that distance the police from the community will erase years of research and practice related to “what works” in law enforcement at a significant cost: decreased public safety. Law enforcement agencies around the world should appreciate how the violation of human rights concerns or professional, democratic policing can actually make the “war on terror” more difficult to win; such activities can deteriorate the support or trust of the community needed for information that might be able to prevent or respond to terrorist acts.

COLLABORATION WITH FEDERAL JURISDICTIONS

September 11 brought to the forefront the significant problems related to cross-jurisdictional information sharing that have been allowed to exist for

years. Although these problems exist in countries around the world, the decentralized nature of law enforcement in the United States has posed even more significant problems, with 13,524 municipal jurisdictions in 1999, in addition to numerous state and federal jurisdictions. As a result, the largest government restructuring in more than 50 years occurred with the creation of the Department of Homeland Security (DHS). The restructuring involved moving 22 formerly disparate domestic agencies into one department, including:

- Coast Guard
- Customs Service
- Border Patrol
- Federal Emergency Management Agency
- Secret Service
- Transportation Safety Administration
- Border inspection component of the Animal and Health Inspection Service

Although there was even consideration given to folding the FBI and CIA under the DHS umbrella, this idea was rejected in favor of the establishment of an Intelligence Analysis Division within the new agency that would receive intelligence reports from the CIA and FBI that were related to terrorist threats. A threat warning system was developed as a means to provide state and local jurisdictions with information regarding the risk of terrorist activity. Despite these efforts, it will take many years before the cultures and bureaucracies of these formerly disparate agencies are able to operate in a smooth and efficient manner.

Moreover, the creation of DHS primarily deals with information-sharing activity within the federal level. However, the reality of both international and domestic terrorist activity is that local law enforcement will generally be the first responders to a terrorist act, as well as potentially have the closest ties to the community and needed information.

Even before 9-11, local law enforcement in the United States has traditionally been reticent to collaborate openly with federal law enforcement, particularly in the area of immigration enforcement. Although local involvement in immigration

enforcement will usually occur where an arrested offender is found to be in violation of immigration requirements, proactive enforcement of such laws has been found to be detrimental to local agencies. Where the connection between federal and local law enforcement is seen as blurred, immigrant communities are more likely to fear the police and not come forward with information. This is particularly true where there are large pockets of illegal immigrants in a community. As a result, following the increase in federal attention on Arab American and Muslim communities after 9-11, many law enforcement executives turned to community leaders and hosting community forums to answer immigrant community concerns and reduce reporting fears.

Although strict enforcement of immigration has surfaced as a concern internationally in response to new trends in terrorism, a balance needs to be struck with the need to foster the trust of immigrant communities. At the point of border entry, many European countries such as Germany, the United Kingdom, and France have implemented elaborate databases to track the movements of foreign visitors in and out of the country. The United States (under its new Office of Immigration and Citizenship Services, DHS) modeled its own such tracking technology on European efforts. Beginning with the Special Registration Program, which required temporary visitors from certain countries to submit photographs and fingerprints upon entry to the United States, a more sophisticated system was implemented in January 2004, known as the U.S. Visitor and Immigrant Status Indicator Technology project (USVISIT). Incorporating the biometric technology of fingerprints and digital photography, USVISIT uses scanning equipment at the point of entry to verify the visitor's identity and compliance with visa and immigration requirements. Through the development of such a system, it is hoped that less immigration enforcement will have to occur within the United States' borders. As a further means of facilitating information sharing related to terrorist activity, the names of immigrants and visitors can be checked against international terrorist and criminal watch lists. A similar system has

been implemented for student visitors called the Student and Exchange Visitor Information System (SEVIS).

COMMUNITY MOBILIZATION AND PARTNERSHIP

A theme throughout this discussion has been the need to find ways to maintain community trust and support even while becoming more sophisticated in our approaches to counterterrorism. The importance of human rights concerns and innovative approaches to immigration enforcement are all realities in the fight against terrorism. Maintaining partnerships with the community has been stressed within the profession for many years. At no time has the need for such information-sharing and support mechanisms been more important than in the post-9-11 world.

In addition to traditional counterterrorism training and preparing officers to efficiently and safely respond to acts of terror around the world, community mobilization approaches need to also be emphasized. As part of these efforts, law enforcement training also needs to sensitize officers to some of the cultural concerns related to policing within diverse populations such as the Arab and Muslim communities worldwide. By demonstrating sensitivity and concern to community needs, at the same time as safety concerns are made paramount, law enforcement will be better prepared to deal with emerging and changing trends in both domestic and international terrorism. Within this perspective, law enforcement officers need to also be better prepared to respond to the hate crimes that can occur following terrorist incidents. The regrettable incidence of acts such as those that occurred around the world following September 11 can have a detrimental effect on police-community relations.

Part of officer training should include such items as respecting religious holidays and places of worship, as well as how to interpret the nonverbal cues common to populations that are within the respective jurisdiction. To this end, many such training programs have been developed that need to be evaluated and refined. The Cultural Diversity and the Police

(CDAP) initiative involved the partnership of John Jay College and the police departments of New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, Atlanta, and Houston. Over a 3-year period, curricula were developed that address the important issues and skills required for policing diverse communities. Although initially written prior to September 11, recent evaluation funding has been received to examine its relevancy in counterterrorist trainings nationally and internationally. Similarly, researchers from John Jay College have begun work with the Turkish National Police on the creation of counterterrorism training that incorporates needed community mobilization strategies. Similarly, the U.S. Department of Justice, Community Relations Service has created a sensitivity training for officers on how to communicate with Arab, Muslim, and Sikh communities.

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✎ POLICE CORRUPTION

The police organization is the primary public agency representing the state in the lives of citizens. In Western-style democracies the police institution is ostensibly subject to accountability through adherence to the rule of law and due process. Deviation from the ideal of an accountable public service reflects on the legitimacy of the state. Yet in studies of policing in numerous countries there is evidence of deviation from rules and laws by

officers; this may be related to disciplinary offenses, crimes (excessive violence, abuse of human rights, burglary, etc.) and corruption in its many forms (but principally financial arrangements for not enforcing the law). In some less developed countries or so-called *failed* societies (hereafter LDCs), the police may even become involved in political violence, drug trafficking, and exploitation of the vulnerable through predatory corruption; this may be conducted with near impunity because there is no effective redress. These practices raise some of the most profound issues in policing: why do police officers, who are meant to abide by the law, break the law; why do police organizations seem unable to anticipate and to combat corruption; and, the perennial point, “who controls the controllers?”

In the past, corruption has frequently been associated with bribery. Conventional corruption is found at some time in virtually all forces, at every level of the organization, and in all countries; in short, corruption is an inherent and universal facet of policing and cannot simply be the product of some “bad apples.” This in turn raises questions about the wider institutional context in which corruption occurs. In this broader perspective, financial transactions are only part of deviant police behavior and only part of their interaction with those who pay *graft* money. The concept can be widened to represent the spectrum of police deviance and crime where officers abuse the trust in them to engage in serious offenses against citizens, suspects, and criminals. Corruption in this wider sense of police *crime* exists in three levels.

First, the police may collude with **external** groups, such as politicians, and/or organized criminals, to engage in politically motivated crime. It may take the form of assassinations, involvement in the drug trade, or granting immunity to members of the political elite or criminal gangs for their criminal conduct. In so-called narcostates, politicians, organized crime groups, and the police may be intertwined (as they also have been in some cities in the United States). It is typically, but not exclusively associated with LDCs; for example, South America’s police death squads.

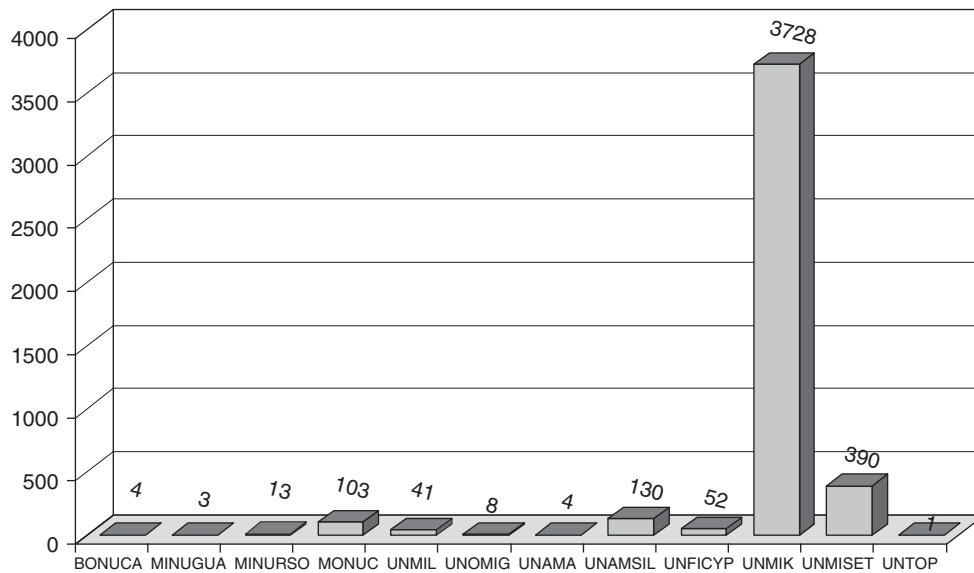


Figure 1 United Nations Missions and Police Deployments, December 2003

However, the police in Northern Ireland cooperated with British security services to leak information about people suspected of supporting the republican cause (of the Irish Republican Army [IRA] and Sinn Fein) to Protestant, paramilitary groups who then murdered innocent citizens. In this category, certain segments of the police apparatus have been captured, or influenced, by external groups and collude with them in illegal conduct.

Second, most research attention to corruption has been paid to practices that are largely **internal** to the police organization. These can be roughly classified into four categories:

1. *Grass eaters* accept the perks of free meals, gifts, and goods that are offered to them by legitimate and illegitimate enterprises and indulge in fairly low-level corruption (turning a blind eye to offenses or offering protection); this may be widespread and is seen as acceptable.
2. *Meat eaters* are the proactive entrepreneurs of corruption who set out actively and even aggressively to regulate graft by effectively licensing criminal enterprises by demanding money and cooperating with favored criminal groups. Generally this is found within detective units with close links to organized crime.

3. *Noble cause* corruption represents activities where officers convince themselves that in order to secure a conviction they have to bend the rules. There is no corruptor, no direct financial gain, and no relationship with organized criminals; rather, there is a determination to achieve results. In Britain a series of cases of miscarriages of justice were uncovered, involving suspected terrorists, where detectives had falsified statements, interfered with evidence, pressured suspects to give false confessions, and lied in court.

Although the justification was that some of these were high-profile cases, it also emerged that the deviant techniques were employed in routine cases (particularly with vulnerable suspects). In some societies it may be that this is standard practice simply to get work done and especially when suspects' complaints are not taken seriously.

4. The fourth category relates to the purely *criminal conduct* of *superpredators* where officers have, in effect, become criminals, engaging in violence, drug dealing, stealing from suspects, torture, burglary, and even sexual offenses.

Of course, officers may move between these categories; they might use noble cause simply to justify their deviance, and they may also step out of corruption and go on to *clean* careers.

Third, when police corruption is exposed, ensuing scandal and reform may attract attention to deviance in the **wider system**. The miscarriages of justice in Britain led to criticisms of the judiciary and the appeal system and weaknesses in the use of forensic evidence; this in turn fostered major legislative reform. In Belgium, the turbulence around the police and justice failures in the case of Marc Dutroux, a convicted rapist who abducted young

girls of whom four died, led to an upsurge of popular demands not just for reform of the police and judicial apparatus but also of the broader political and societal system.

In short, police corruption takes many forms, is a reoccurring and resilient element in police functioning, can be highly pernicious, and revelations about it can have considerable implications beyond the police organization itself. It cannot be dismissed as episodic and cannot be seen as easily dealt by a quick-fix response from senior officers.

This is perfectly illustrated by two commissions on corruption within the New York Police Department (NYPD). The Knapp Commission of 1972 established that corruption was systemic; widespread, low-level corruption cultivated an environment where more serious forms could flourish. A battery of reform measures were proposed, and the hope was expressed that the NYPD would escape its history of 20-year cycles of scandal. But some 20 years later the NYPD was confronted with yet another scandal. The Mollen Commission of 1994 revealed that corruption had changed its form. It was more serious, centered on small, tightly knit crews of deviant officers, with drugs and drug dealers playing a pivotal role. Nearly all the reforms sponsored by Knapp had lost their bite. The lessons from this experience are that corruption can be cyclical and can change its form over time in accommodating to control strategies, and even extensive institutional reforms have a limited shelf life.

Serious deviance within the police organization raises questions about how is it able to flourish. For instance, several scandals have exposed units where officers became violent, stole and recycled drugs, came to arrangements with informants, were into heavy drinking and/or drug use, and operated closely with criminal gangs. They had, in effect, become criminals. Yet they often evaded control for long periods of time. This may be related to traditional, bureaucratic, reactive forms of internal control. Senior officers may wish to evade negative publicity and ignore signals that something is badly wrong, or they may find achieving results more important than the quality and integrity of the work.

Alternatively, much police work is characterized by high autonomy, which poses difficulties for supervisors. Those officers who appear to be active, at the edge of criminal activity, and who bring in a lot of arrests and drugs may well be praised, rewarded, and encouraged; instead, critical questions should be raised about their methods. But police culture often fosters deviant conduct, reveres thief-catching, believes that rule bending is necessary to get results, and looks up to active cops. This culture can promote rule bending in general and oppose control from above through peer-group loyalty and the code of silence. Lastly, some corrupt units adopt a tough, aggressive style and escape scrutiny because they intimidate supervisors. Colleagues are reluctant to intervene, and cops who do break the code of silence can expect physical sanctions or ostracism. In essence, there are structural and cultural features of policing that enhance deviant behavior and make its exposure problematic.

But, if corruption is a continuous occupational and organizational hazard for the police, tending to appear in predictable areas (contact with criminal gangs and undercover work), can anything be done about it? There is clearly no magic bullet, but there has been considerable attention paid to combating corruption and enhancing police integrity in recent years. The message is clear: A professional police organization that wishes to function with integrity requires strong leadership with no ambivalence from the top. It requires senior officers who understand the primary processes and the bag of tricks used to camouflage deviant work, assertive supervision at the front line, mechanisms of transparency, and proactive internal control.

Internal Affairs or Professional Standards Departments have often become robust in their methods by treating bent cops as equivalent to serious criminals and pursuing them with covert units employing the methods of surveillance, cultivating informants, and integrity testing. Targeted officers are filmed stealing planted drugs and officers are recruited to inform on their colleagues; the aim is to get convictions in court and remove the corrupt cop from the force. Persistent, well-resourced, intelligence-led

strategies are needed to anticipate and locate deviant activities and to tackle them as serious crime within the police organization. A crucial feature of control is the presence of an external oversight agency with teeth. Citizens who experience police deviance need to have recourse to an impartial and independent ombudsman-style agency that takes their complaint seriously, investigates it, relays any deficiencies uncovered back to the force, and, where appropriate, prepares the case for prosecution.

Inevitably, the subject of corruption raises painful issues for the police, but these cannot be denied or ignored. In many societies police agencies are changing and reforming. There has been a managerial revolution characterized by police concern for efficiency and effectiveness, an awareness of the public's needs and a new accountability to the community. Furthermore, many Western institutions and governments have stimulated, encouraged, and financed change in policing in LCDs. One can be skeptical about some of the motives behind this trend, but generally the thrust is toward improving training, infrastructure, integrity, and accountability. A police force that maintains that it is in the business of public service, of tackling crime and creating security, of establishing client-friendly relations with its public and of transparency in its policies and performance cannot then abuse peoples' rights, cannot physically assault them, and cannot collude with criminals.

Policing is the state made flesh. Its functioning reflects the health of civic and political life. Deviance from the rule of law and from norms of impartial, professional, and accountable service undermines the legitimacy of the state. It fosters a feeling of living in an unjust world where the cancer of impunity gives free rein to corrupt officials. The evidence is sometimes bleak; in many societies there are police forces that abuse human rights, employ excessive force, and cooperate with criminals. Where states and their economies are weak, where police forces are underfunded, where organized crime is prominent, and where there is no tradition of respecting human rights, it is extremely difficult for the police to operate professionally and with integrity. This then becomes a matter of developing

democracy and the rule of law, of resources and training, and of reforming the police.

In Western societies there can also be no complacency; the higher the standards of civic culture the worse police corruption appears. The ideal is a professional and accountable police force that polices by consent and that is transparent about its faults. Research and scandals that continue to reveal that corruption occurs in many countries in no way invalidates that ideal. Rather attention should be paid to the institutional causes of corruption and the weaknesses of organizations in tackling it. The focus should not be solely on bad cops, but on the tough dilemmas associated with reforming bad systems and of ridding them of corruption.

Maurice E. Punch

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POLICE CORRUPTION: COMBATING STRATEGIES

When a government makes a commitment to ending police corruption, the most tempting approach is to try to weed out the “bad apples,” instead of considering a comprehensive strategy for overcoming corruption. However, the success of any strategy is possible only when it covers all corrupt situations and intervenes against all individual, organizational,

and public environments that are connected with the police corruption. Police officers do not live in a vacuum; they live in society that has its own hierarchy of values. If the fight against corruption has a low priority in this hierarchy, one cannot expect this strategy to be very successful.

Between May and July 2001, Transparency International of the Czech Republic conducted a survey of strategies in combating police corruption. Survey results were based on 71 completed questionnaires from 25 countries. The goal of the investigation was not to supply detailed and representative data on the notoriety of police corruption in each country. Rather, the value of the results is in hypotheses, theories, and, based on this, the propositions of various anticorruption strategies. Three experts in each target country were contacted, and the selection process was governed by the principle of maximum heterogeneity and by targeting several types of institutions (such as the police, police academies, universities, and nongovernmental organizations). The majority of the questioned experts work in senior and leading positions. All of them had significant experience with working on corruption. The single most frequent source of information used when filling out the questionnaire was personal experience and interviews, not any official statistics.

The survey found that the most efficient tools for fighting corruption in police forces worldwide are good and well-enforced legislation and effective internal control, positive police culture, and high moral standards set by organizational leadership, as well as recruitment procedures and educational systems concentrated on police integrity.

The strategies can be divided into four categories:

1. Repressive—relies mostly on the strict enforcement of repressive measures; preventive measures are used much less frequently.

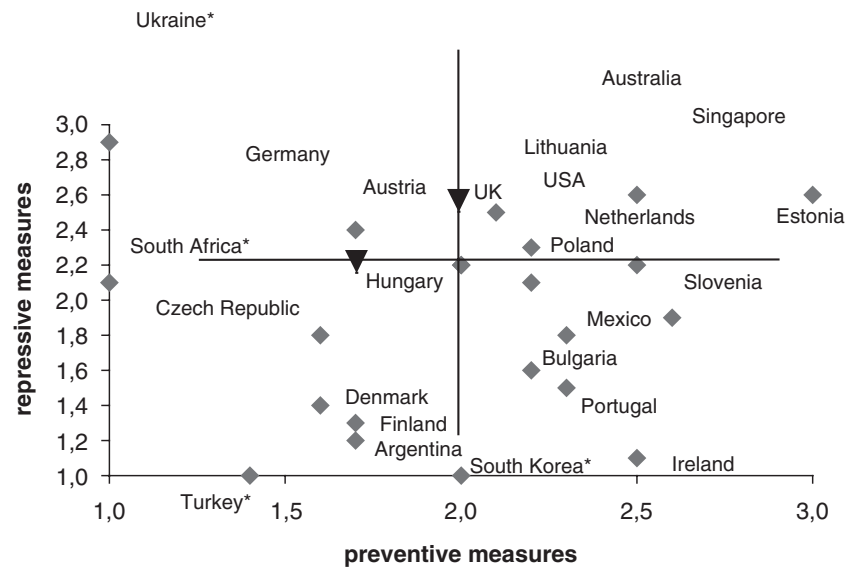


Figure 1 Implementation of Preventative and Repressive Anticorruption Measures in the Police Service

2. Complex—based on broadscale application of preventive as well as repressive measures.
3. Minimalist—based on a small number of strategies employed, whether preventative or repressive measures.
4. Preventative—distinctly prefers prevention to repression.

A variety of approaches are used worldwide, and what is right for any particular country or jurisdiction will vary on that country or jurisdiction's individual situation. What follows is a description of some of the most common tactics and their pitfalls.

ZERO TOLERANCE OF POLICE CORRUPTION

Strategy should be based on zero tolerance. This principle should not be understood in terms of repressiveness of measures, but rather in terms of effectiveness of implementation of these measures. A repressive approach is crucial at the first stage of implementing any strategy against corruption. For example, in the Czech Republic, a high-profile case of a corrupt police officer went to trial; the police officer had attempted to bribe an investigator half

a million Czech crowns (approximately U.S. \$17,000) to stop investigation of a businessman. The court found the police officer guilty of bribery, but sentenced him to a demotion and 2 years conditional punishment (probation). This light punishment sends a message to other police officers that bribery is a tolerated practice. Likewise, in Albania, political leader Fatos Nano came to power on a ticket criticizing prior government members for their corrupt regime; however, he appointed one of them to his cabinet once he assumed office.

LEADERSHIP

Another principle included in every strategy should be leadership. As is the case whenever a new practice is introduced to police officers, there must be strong support from leaders of the police but also from political leaders. Support does not only include frank statements and words, but also high moral standards that serve as an example to those police officers on the street. For police officers, leadership from above must accompany leadership from within. Every single police officer has to be a leader, at the very least by demonstrating, through his or her behavior in situations, a good example for citizens. There are thus two angles to the leadership issue.

Legislation

Most importantly, anticorruption strategies should be encompassed in the current legislation governing police service. In many countries, a wide variety of legislation applies to law enforcement, and internal rules, whether formal or not, govern police practice. Frequently, such rules are internally contradictory or even conflict with contemporaneous legislation. It is essential that police practice leave as little room as possible for ambiguity and individual interpretation.

Apart from repressive measures that should come into action at a later stage, preventive measures are crucially important right from the beginning of the police services.

Recruitment

The hiring process should be tailored in such a manner that integrity of candidates can be checked. There are various methods to achieve this goal—through screening methods, psychological tests, personality tests, checking the history of candidates, and others. Through a well-tailored hiring process there is a high probability that individuals with low integrity will be singled out right at the beginning. Many forces, especially in areas where the reputation of the police suffers and/or remuneration is weak, struggle with attracting viable candidates. In other circumstances, change in government, particularly accompanying a change from an authoritarian to a democratic system, may lead to widespread abandonment or dismissals from the force, leaving a personnel vacuum that needs to be filled. In such circumstances, it may be tempting to accept the minimum acceptable candidate; however, such practices can be perilous to the future performance, and possibly more importantly, to the reputation of the force.

Integrity Training

Equally important is the integrity training of police recruits and officers. The introduction and maintenance of professional ethics and integrity through education cannot be disregarded. It is crucial that integrity not be merely an element of basic training, but also be part of ongoing follow-up and inservice training, once integrity is a practical issue, not just a theoretical one.

Another preventive measure that we believe is of high importance is the Police Code of Ethics. Although typically such codes are not enforceable, they can be an important tool to create transparent rules at the workplace, once police officers identify themselves with it. Alternatively, a Code of Ethics should be added as an appendix to the job contract, and its violation may lead to disciplinary procedures.

The United Nations has a Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials that can serve as a guide for best practices. Regional variations are also

available. For example, the Council of Europe has produced a Code of Ethics for police officers and recommended that member countries take it into consideration while creating their own Codes of Ethics. However, the introduction of such measures can lead to resistance. The Czech Ministry of Interior created two Codes that were disapproved by police officers. Transparency International found the process of creation was mismanaged and recommends that the Code of Ethics be created by police officers themselves rather than by ministerial officials. In this way police officers can identify themselves with the Code, which will then facilitate implementation.

ROLE OF THE IMMEDIATE SUPERVISOR

Arguably, one of the most important roles in preventing as well as controlling corruption is played by an officer's immediate supervisor. In many cases corruption and other forms of police misconduct result from deep frustration. The supervisors should be the main monitors of these frustrations; they should know their staff and realize when something is not going well. On the other hand, they have to set an example for police officers. The question is how to guarantee that every single manager will prevent corruption of his or her subordinates. Well-tailored and regular training may help. The personal characteristics of the individual also matter, making it an important consideration for who is appointed to such positions.

Very often managers are blind to, or even cover up, the misconduct of police officers; do not start disciplinary procedures; or do not take into account the number of complaints against specific police officers. From the other perspective, many police officers complain of a lack of leadership on the part of police management. Managers are less concerned with the frustrations of police officers in service than their performance on the job.

Complaint Mechanisms

An effective complaint system is a very important tool in combating corruption. In addition to

detecting and preventing police misconduct, the complaint system should:

- Enable individual members of the public to express their concerns about police actions and to have these concerns taken seriously
- Dispense justice by assuring proper investigation of these complaints
- Deter future inappropriate behavior
- Inform the police management about the performance of individual officers
- Maintain public confidence in the integrity of police

The mere existence of such mechanisms is not sufficient. If the citizens do not have much confidence in the integrity of the police, they will not use it. In many cases, the public is not even aware that complaints are possible, does not know the mechanisms for registering a complaint, or does not know about any rights of appeal.

Effective Control and Investigation System

Another tool that should be incorporated in anti-corruption strategy is an effective control system that would prevent and expose corrupt behavior. One example of the measures widely used to accomplish this task is random integrity testing. Such measures risk becoming ineffective or abused. Tight measures should be in place regulating rights of officers implicated, procedures for addressing cases, and sanctions. Programs must be budgeted and financed to ensure that they are more than words on paper.

To effectively fight corruption, well-designed and regular surveys should be conducted on the stages and recent trends in corrupt behavior of police officers. These surveys can be conducted either by the police force itself or by an independent agency.

Finally, all measures taken and strategies should be presented in a clear and transparent way both to the public and to the affected personnel. Both public upheaval and personnel frustration and suspicion about the new practice have the potential to wreak havoc and possibly undermine the desired outcome. For example, in the Czech Republic, two elite

units investigating financial crimes and corruption were reorganized. Although the reorganization itself was well planned and designed, the communication of the process both internally and externally was so poor the public became concerned about possible police organization against the public interest. Moreover because of badly designed communication strategy, 13 investigators resigned from the office, significantly hobbling the capacity to actually investigate these crimes.

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POLICE STRUCTURE: CENTRALIZED/DECENTRALIZED

There are two main aspects of police force structure to consider when thinking of police centralization or decentralization:

1. Level of subordination, which refers to aspects of the police hierarchy
2. Range of fragmentation of the forces, which refers to the number of agencies performing law enforcement tasks

SUBORDINATION LEVEL

In a police service or force, the superior is the person or institution to which the chief of a given police unit is directly subordinate in operational, personnel (appointments and promotion), and budgetary matters. Other kinds of subordination matters are of secondary importance.

A centralized organizational structure system means that the sublocal police units (police stations) are subordinate to the local units; these local units in turn report to the subregional (county) headquarters, and the subregional units report to the

regional (state) headquarters. Finally the chief of the state police is under the direct supervision of the supreme commander of the national police. In this model, the local and regional government and self-government authorities do not exercise any power over police units located on their territory, at least not on operational, personnel, and budgetary matters.

Decentralization of the police structure means that the superior of a given police unit is responsible for operational and personnel matters to the head of the government (or self-government) of the local (or regional) administration, which also is fiscally responsible for a given police unit.

Which model of the police organizational structure is used depends on the type or category of police service/force. Internationally, and even within particular countries, there are many types of police agencies. These can be classified into four main categories according to the basis of their missions:

1. Internal Public Security Police Agencies
2. Paramilitary Police Forces
3. Specialized Police Services
4. Criminal Police

Internal Public Security Police Agencies

Internal Public Security Police Agencies are commonly responsible for preventing and combating the most dangerous crimes, for example, terror, espionage, organized crime, drug mafias, and other serious crimes. They include specialized police agencies like the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and similar police organizations in other countries, such as the British Serious Organised Crime Agency (SOCA), the German *Bundeskriminalamt* (Federal Crime Office), the Russian *Federalna Sluzhba Bezopasnosti* (Federal Public Security Service [FSB]), and the Polish *Agencja Bezpieczenstwa Wewnetrznego* (National Internal Security Agency [ABW]).

These agencies typically have a very strong centralized structure, organized on the national level

and directly subordinate to the highest government bodies.

Paramilitary Police Forces

Paramilitary Police Forces (PPFs) exist in many countries. They are typically composed of well-trained, armed, and equipped conscripts and professional staff. Their numbers frequently parallel that of the regular police. Their main mission in peacetime is to support the national criminal police and other police agencies. In times of war they act as a part of the national armed forces. Typical of these formations are:

- French *Gendarmerie Nationale* (strength: 92,000 versus 112,000 members in the National Police)
- Italian *Arma dei Carabinieri* (85,000 versus 137,000)
- Spanish *Guardia Civil* (72,000 versus 83,000)

In terms of organizational structure they are all highly centralized, subordinate to the respective defense ministers.

Specialized Police Services

Specialized Police Services parallel the National Criminal Police or are within its organizational structures. Almost all countries have an array of specialized police services, for example, Border Police, Riot Police, Taxation Police, Highway Police, Railway Police, Custom Police, Forest Police, and so forth. As a rule such forces are centralized.

Criminal Police

The Criminal Police force generally is the typical, most numerous category within a police service. These forces break down into two rough categories: those called the National Police and those without the *national* designation. The former typically has a centralized organizational structure, while the latter is usually substantially decentralized.

CENTRALIZED POLICE STRUCTURES

Centralized police structures exist in many countries and on all continents, and statistically this model of police management is the most common. In Western Europe, countries that have centralized police structures include France, Italy, Spain, Sweden, and Finland. On the national level, these countries' agencies may be subordinate to different cabinet ministers, for example, the Interior Ministry governing the National Criminal Police and some specialized police formations; the Defense Ministry controlling paramilitary police forces, the Finance Ministry controlling the Taxation Police, and the Transport Ministry controlling the Railroad Police.

The most centralized form of the police structures exists in totalitarian nations. They are very typical of the former United Soviet Socialist Republic (USSR) and other communist states, such as the People's Republic of China, Vietnam, and Cuba. Even today, although all 15 former Soviet Republics are now fully independent countries, the strong centralized system of their police structures remain in place. The national police in all six East European former Soviet satellite countries have also kept centralized structures with some small modifications. Some experiments to partially decentralize police structures in these countries failed. For example, Poland initiated such changes in 1999, but by 2003 experts found that it had created favorable conditions for corruption and illegal links of the local police with the local mafias and gangs.

The centralized model of police management is dominant also in almost all developing countries, especially in Asia and Africa. Most Arab and Islamic countries also favor a centralized model, independent of the level of economic progress.

DECENTRALIZED POLICE STRUCTURES

While less common than centralized structures, the decentralized system is followed by many countries, on all continents. It is typical for most English-speaking countries including the United States, Great Britain, Canada, India, and Australia. The Police

Service of Force in all these countries does not have a national police headquarters or other center for exercising command and control over all national police units. Instead police headquarters exist at the regional, subregional, and local levels of administration and are subordinated also in terms of operational use, personnel, and budget to the chief of the local government or self-government administration.

The most typical model of decentralized police organizational structure is the police in the United States. Presently there are approximately 19,000 separate police agencies, with almost one million employees and a combined annual budget of approximately \$51 billion (2000).

The U.S. police (the adjective *criminal* is not used) is so decentralized that there is no homogeneous system for police uniforms, service titles, ranks, distinctions, or insignias. There is no common system for police recruitment, police training and education, or salary and retirement rules.

The police structure encompasses three levels: state, county/municipal, and local. In addition, most states have special agencies separate from their state police or highway patrol, and most major metropolitan cities also have special port, transit, causeway, housing, school, and/or capital police.

On the state level in United States there are 26 Highway Patrol agencies and 23 State Police agencies (Hawaii state police is called the Department of Public Safety). Thirty-five states have additional agencies with police or investigative powers, for example, *ABC* (Alcohol Beverage Control), *DCI* (Department of Criminal Investigation), *SBI* (State Bureau of Investigation), *DMV* (Department of Motor Vehicles).

Large U.S. cities have their own police forces directly subordinate to the cities' mayors. For example the New York Police Department encompasses 40,000 regular police officers and 13,000 special-purpose staff of the transit, port, school, and housing officers.

On a county level, the police are frequently organized under the authority of the Sheriff. There are 3,100 sheriffs in the United States; most are elected. Some counties have two sheriffs, one criminal and the other civil. Some counties, particularly large counties, do not have a sheriff, but

have a County Police Department run by a Chief of Police.

Great Britain is another example of a country with a decentralized force. There are no national police headquarters or other national authorities to govern the police. In England and Wales, there are 44 autonomous police forces, each covering one, two, or three counties. The largest of these forces is Scotland Yard, or the Metropolitan (London) Police Force, with some 30,000 regular police officers. These 44 police forces perform standard police functions. They are each commanded by a Police Chief Constable, who is appointed by the Home Secretary, and who reports to the head of the local civil authorities. Unlike the U.S. regional police, the British have common standards with regard to police uniforms, service titles, ranks, and insignias. There is also the central Police Staff College, in Bramshill; all chief police officers must be trained in this school. With regard to fiscal and personnel issues, British police are only partly decentralized. The police forces are financed 50% by the Home Secretary and 50% by the regional civil authorities.

In addition to the regional police force, there are some national police agencies in the United Kingdom. The National Criminal Squad (NCS), established in 1998, targets criminal organizations committing serious and organized crime, typically drug and arms trafficking, immigration crime, money laundering and counterfeiting, and other major crimes. The NCS has a national headquarters and three regional operational units. In February 2004, a Serious Crime Organized Agency (SOCA) was founded; it is unclear what the division of responsibilities will be between the NCS and SOCA. Other special police services in the United Kingdom include:

- Transport Police
- Ministry of Defense Police (security for military objects)
- Port of Dover Police
- U.K. Atomic Energy Constabulary

The sole paramilitary police force is the Royal Ulster Constabulary in Northern Ireland, which has been heavily engaged for decades in combating terrorism.

FRAGMENTATION RANGE

The other component issue to centralization/decentralization is the range of fragmentation of the force. Police forces with centralized structures typically have a small number of bodies that fulfill all the tasks and are subordinate to the government; in other words, they are “all under one roof.” Decentralized systems frequently have functions fragmented across different agencies.

The United States has the world’s most fragmented system. There are approximately 60 different federal police agencies plus 13 intelligence agencies that can be also counted as law enforcement. Among these 60 federal police agencies, the 10 most significant reside in the Departments of Justice, Treasury, or the recently created Department of Homeland Security. Some of the agencies within each of these departments are:

- U.S. Justice Department—Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms (ATF); Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA); FBI; Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS)-Border Patrol; U.S. Marshals
- U.S. Treasury Department—U.S. Customs Service, the Criminal Investigation function of the Internal Revenue Service (IRS)
- U.S. Department of Homeland Security—U.S. Secret Service, U.S. Coastal Guards, U.S. National Security Agency.

Such fragmentation often leads to overlap in the mission and tasks of the various agencies.

In other countries, national police agencies are much less fragmented. For example, in most Western European countries there are only five to eight national police agencies. In Russia and other East European countries this number is even smaller. The same numbers are found in Japan, China, and India.

There is no right or wrong police organizational structure, whether in terms of subordination level or range of fragmentation. No single model can be recommended for all police forces around the world. Factors influencing police organizational structure include tradition, history, geographic location, level of democracy, culture, economical development, and type of government. What is

clear is that each model has both positive and negative attributes. The art of effective police management depends upon minimizing the negatives and maximizing the positive. Recent trends, however, tend toward increasing the degree of centralization in police organizational structures. This consequence likely stems from the threat of international terrorism and the substantial increase of serious organized crime led by national and international mafias.

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☞ POLICE TRAINING: A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

In many progressive countries, including the United States, training is an ongoing and constantly evolving venture; therefore, information about training curricula is constantly becoming obsolete. Nevertheless, the approaches some countries have taken

to common training obstacles are worthy of consideration in comparative perspective.

Three countries, the Netherlands, Finland, and Canada, have model approaches to professional police training. The Netherlands has adopted a useful model for addressing the need for specialization and general skills. Finland's dedication to comprehensive education has contributed to a highly professional and respected force. The Canadian approach, developed in an environment dedicated to community policing, is exemplary in the length of its programs, the variety of approaches offered, and its commitment to in-service training.

THE NETHERLANDS

In recent years the Dutch police service has undergone radical changes in its organization and training. Prior to joining the police service, all recruits follow one of three basic courses of training. There are also a number of additional courses provided by several institutes. The responsibility for the implementation and quality of training lies with the National Police Selection and Training Institute (LSOP).

The three forms of basic training are for surveillance officers, constables, and senior police officers. What appears to be the most important trend from the Dutch experience is their approach to specialized training. The separately designed training modules for surveillance officers and constables seem to target the problem of overspecialization, which essentially becomes underspecialization for most of the officers in many countries around the world.

Surveillance Officer

Training for the rank of surveillance officer is a new form of basic training for officers whose duties will lie mainly in the field of monitoring and prevention. It lasts 6 months and is comprised of six modules. The LSOP can, if required, design supplementary optional modules for specific functions. Training can be extended through optional modules and periods of placement to a maximum of 1 year, and always culminates with an examination. Surveillance officers are also permitted to investigate offenses.

Constable

As of early 2004, basic training for police officers (constables) is under reform in the Netherlands. The most likely format to emerge will reflect changes in the professional profile of police officers, and will probably last 16 months.

Standardized course material can be supplemented with material specific to a certain region. On-the-job training is being extended at the specific request of the forces. Trainees experience several periods of on-the-job training, thus reducing the gap between theory and practice.

Senior Police Officer

A basic training course to prepare senior police officers for management positions within the service is offered by the Netherlands Police Academy (NPA), an educational and research institute located in Apeldoorn. Typical candidates are experienced officers with several years of experience, who already head a district team or a force unit and are sent by their forces to attend the advanced training.

There are four types of courses and paths of study; each takes between 2 and 4 years interspersed with periods of on-the-job training at the candidate's own force. In addition to the centers providing basic training, there are also training institutes that provide other courses. A Junior Officer Training School and the central Training Institute provide practical courses aimed mainly at the middle ranks of the police.

Other Courses

Many regional forces send officers who have completed their basic training to specialized courses to qualify them for service in mobile units. These specialized courses are offered at the Police Institute for Public Order and Security, which offers both basic and advanced training courses.

FINLAND

Finnish practice treats police training as a college degree, instilling recruits with a correct attitude

for the profession from the very start. In Finland, a graduate of the police academy has 82 credits and basically carries a degree. The difference between an officer with such an educational background and one who merely has a certification from a police academy can, indeed, make a difference in the way both police and the public view this profession.

Police training in Finland is delivered in Police School and the Police College of Finland.

The Police School

The Police School in Finland is an institute subordinate to the Ministry of Interior. It is responsible for student selection for the Basic Degree in Police Studies, providing basic training, and the further Noncommissioned Officer's Degree. It also provides specialized professional training in the police field. Candidates for the basic degree must complete 82 credits, divided into three modules: Basic Studies 1, Field Work, and Basic Studies 2.

The Noncommissioned Officer's Degree requires a minimum of 20 credits. The study program consists of mandatory courses and electives. Holders of the degree are qualified to apply for the posts of Sergeant, Detective Sergeant, and Senior Detective with no supervisory tasks.

Higher Degrees in Police Studies

There are two higher degrees in police studies: a Commanding Officer's Degree and a Master's Degree. A Commanding Officer's Degree is a college degree. Completing the studies for the degree takes 3 years. After graduation, the police officers holding a degree may apply for the posts of Inspector and Superintendent. Applicants for the post of Police Chief are required to have a second university degree, a Master's Degree. Those who have taken a Commanding Officer's Degree may apply to universities to continue their studies with the aim of acquiring a Master's Degree in Administrative Sciences.

The curriculum for Police Chiefs, offered by the Police College of Finland, consists of complementary

training designed to fit the personal needs of students.

The Police College of Finland

The Police College of Finland is a college with a vocational focus. The curriculum and degree requirements have been set up to correspond to a college degree. Graduates from the Police College of Finland have an opportunity to continue their studies at the university for higher degrees, up to the PhD degree. The College focuses on providing training for commanding officers and for police administration in general, with special emphasis on the Command-Level Police Officers and Police Chiefs. The highest level of police studies and related research are conducted in close cooperation with the Universities of Tampere and Turku.

Candidates for the Commanding Officer's Degree are selected on the basis of an entrance test and an aptitude test. A Noncommissioned Officer's Degree and work experience of a minimum of 2 years are requirements for taking the entrance test. Applicants who pass the entrance test are then assigned to paid training for the time of their studies. A Commanding Officer's Degree completed at the Police College is a college degree, with 120 credits required. It is possible to complete the degree in 3 years. Those who have a Commanding Officer's Degree have an opportunity to continue their studies at universities, particularly at the Universities of Turku and Tampere.

CANADA

When the Canadian police forces moved into the 21st century, community policing was already firmly established as the dominant orientation and philosophy of policing, and Canadian training methodology reflects their embrace of this approach. The Canadian approach is one of the leading approaches to police training in the world. Both the length of the training and the variety of topics included reflect the results of extensive experimentation with different styles. Probably the most impressive part of the training is the Operational Field

Training, which exemplifies the complexity of police work and the constant need for additional in-service training.

There are currently four models of basic training for police recruits operating in Canada:

1. Separation of police education and training from mainstream adult education
2. Police education and training on a university campus
3. The holistic approach
4. The Quebec model

Model 1: Separation of Police Education and Training from Mainstream Adult Education

Recruits and police officers who have at least a 12th-grade education are trained in separate and independent institutions. These include the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) Training Academy in Regina, the Ontario Police College in Aylmer, and police training academies in major cities where there are no provincial training institutes.

The RCMP Cadet Training Program, as an example, offers a competency-based training program to identify core organizational values. This approach is centered on the “CAPRA” approach:

C = Client

A = Acquiring and Analyzing Information

P = Partnership

R = Response

A = Assessment of Continuous Improvement

Model 2: Police Education and Training on a University Campus

In this model, police staff teaches classes on police administration and procedures; academic staff teach classes on criminal justice and social services; and lawyers and judges teach classes on criminal law, evidence, and procedure.

Model 3: The Holistic Approach to Recruit Training

This model is based on the assumption that police recruits should be exposed to the entire criminal justice system rather than just to the field of policing. An example of this model is the Justice Institute in British Columbia, which provides training for police officers, probation officers, courts staff, and correction personnel. The basis for the training block is alternating classroom teaching with field experience. For example, Recruit Training in the Justice Institute of British Columbia is composed of five blocks, which is a 3-year training program. Successful candidates are Certified Municipal Constables (first class constables).

Model 4: The Quebec Model

Police training in Quebec attempts to integrate police education with adult education. New recruits are required to complete a 3-year college program and obtain a Diploma of Collegial Studies (DEC), which includes general academic courses and instruction in criminology, policing, and law. Following this, candidates are sent to the Quebec Police Institute in Nicolet. The training center places a strong emphasis on hard police skills (driver training, firearms, and arrest and control techniques) as well as soft skills (physical fitness and community relations).

The intent of the training center is to break down the knowledge into a variety of disciplines that can be enhanced when the recruit begins his or her field training on the street. Recruits at the Nicolet Institute experience the work of police officers in the field in a simulated station, located on the premises. The training program at Nicolet incorporates a competency-based learning approach.

The Ontario Police Foundation Program

In 1998, the Province of Ontario implemented an innovative approach to police training centered on a 2-year Foundation Program offered primarily

at community colleges. The first year of the program includes courses in general areas such as criminology and psychology, while the second-year courses focus more on specific areas of police work, including criminal law, case investigation, and conflict resolution.

Upon successful completion of the 2-year course, students receive a Foundations Training Certificate and then complete a provincial examination. Successful applicants to police services are then sent for further training at the Ontario Police College.

Operational Field Training

Upon completion of recruit training, the individual officer is usually assigned to general patrol duties for a period of roughly 3 to 5 years. After this initial period, the officer receives additional in-service training. For the most part, in-service training is designed for learning the basic skills of police work by complementing recruit training and the hands-on experience received in the field.

During this second component of the training/learning process, known as operational field training, the recruit learns to apply the basic principles taught at the training center. Under the guidance of a specially trained senior officer, the recruit is exposed to a variety of types of general police work. A primary objective of the field trainer is to enhance the skills and knowledge that the recruit has learned at the academy.

In-Service Training

Training provided to police officers during the course of their career is usually conducted by individual police agencies or by provincial training centers. A key issue surrounding this type of training is whether it should be mandatory or optional. Some police services mandate a specific number of training hours to be completed, while others offer the opportunity to the police officer for further training if they so desire. The trend in Canadian police services is toward integrating in-service

training with career development and requiring that officers achieve certain educational and training competencies in order to apply for promotion and advancement.

A variety of in-service specialty courses are available to Canadian police officers including administrative skill, general patrol skills, investigation-related skills, and traffic-related skills.

Although there are many opportunities for police officers to participate in in-service training and continuing education programs, few police services have the capacity to retrain officers or to conduct reassessments of basic policing skills after officers have been on the job for several years.

The Canadian Police College

The Canadian Police College (CPC), located in Ottawa, is operated by the federal government under the federal Ministry of the Solicitor General. The education and training programs offered by the CPC are national in scope and are designed to provide police officers from municipal and provincial police services, as well as RCMP members, with upgrading and development programs, research, information, and advice. These specialized training courses are typically 2 to 3 weeks in duration.

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PORTUGAL

Portugal is a parliamentary democracy located west of Spain on the Atlantic coast with an area of 92,391 square kilometers. It has a population of 10.1 million people (July 2003 estimate). Portugal



was ruled by a series of repressive governments after overthrowing its monarchy in 1910. A 1974 military coup brought in democratic reform. Portugal became a member of the European Union (EU) in 1986.

THE PORTUGUESE POLICE

Dating from the 14th century, the Portuguese police—today consisting of three basic forces—is one of the oldest in Europe. The Public Security Police, the Republican National Guard, and the Judicial Police have undergone various transformations in their long history—surviving the fall of the monarchy in 1910 and extensive reorganization after the 1975 Portuguese Revolution, which created a new legal order—to achieve their current form as modern police forces.

The present-day Portuguese police trace their origins to the reign of King Dom Fernando in the 14th century, who established the first police patrols. The *quadrilheiros* consisted of four men charged with seizing people in the act of committing crimes and persecuting vagabonds and highway robbers.

After a disastrous earthquake, fire, and tidal wave destroyed much of Lisbon in 1755, the government realized that the provincial *quadrilheiros*

needed to be replaced with a better-trained and more responsive police force. In 1760 the *Intendência Geral de Polícia* or “Police” was created. However, it dealt more with political security than public safety and dissolved in 1833 because of the political instability of the 1820s and 1830s.

In 1918 an autonomous board of directors, called *Direcção Geral de Segurança Pública*, was created in the Interior Ministry. It supervised the police services and security for the whole country. In 1922 a decree led to the reorganization of the Civil Police into four sections:

1. The Public Security Police (*Polícia de Segurança Pública* [PSP])
2. The Criminal Investigation Police (*Polícia de Investigação Criminal*)—the forerunner of the Judicial Police
3. Administrative Police (*Polícia Administrativa*)
4. State Security Police (*Polícia Preventiva de Defesa do Estado*)

The Portuguese revolution of April 25, 1975, brought an end to the colonial wars in Africa and decades of repressive rule. However, public distrust of the police was then high, and disorder and social chaos ensued for the following months as people threw off the social and moral constraints of the old dictatorship. The PSP and *Guarda Nacional Republicana* (GNR) were disarmed until they could be reorganized and retrained to operate in Portugal’s new political environment. During this period of turmoil, armed forces security units assumed responsibility for internal security. By 1976, control of the police was returned to civilian authorities in the Ministry of Internal Administration. The new Constitution of 1976 (revised 1982) brought about a substantial reorganization and modernization of the Portuguese police, which emphasized the responsibility of the police to defend the democratic process while acting within the law to safeguard the rights and freedoms of citizens.

Today, the Portuguese police have three main branches. The Public Security Police was retained and organized as a uniformed urban police force

responsible for the maintenance of public order, minor criminal investigations, and traffic duties in large cities and towns. In 1994 the PSP numbered 18,500 personnel. The GNR is a paramilitary force similar to the French Gendarmerie and Italian Carabinieri, charged with safeguarding internal security and patrolling rural areas and border communities. Headquartered in Lisbon, the GNR is organized into five territorial divisions, which in 1994 employed 24,796 people. The Judicial Police (*Polícia Judiciária* [PJP]) is a special investigative police force that operates on both national and local levels. It works with prosecutors in investigating serious crime but is under the surveillance of the Ministry of Justice. In 1994 the PJP had 1,400 personnel. The ratio of the overall force strength to the population in 1994 was 1 police officer for every 234 inhabitants.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

Public Security Police

The PSP is a uniformed urban force responsible for the internal security of the country and the safety of its citizens in the 18 districts into which Portugal is divided. It was founded as the “Civil Police” in 1867 by a decree of King Dom Luis to create a political corps in the districts under the control of the district governors. Among its duties is the maintenance of public order, safeguarding citizen rights, minor criminal investigations, and traffic duties in cities of more than 10,000 people. With primary headquarters in Lisbon, the PSP has divisions in the major cities and squads in smaller towns. The PSP deal with minor offenses in their own judicial courts (*Tribunais de Polícia*), while more serious crimes are taken up by the Judicial Police.

Within the PSP there is a special division trained to deal with terrorist incidents—the Specialized Operations Group (*Grupo de Operações Especiais* [GOE]). It was founded as the Intervention Corps, but was later disbanded and reorganized as GOE. Officers in the GOE undergo extremely rigorous screening and training, which eliminates all but the most determined. They spend 8 months in an advanced training course in counterterrorism techniques

including hostage rescue in urban environments; rappelling; long-range shooting; tubular assault in trains, buses, and planes; building clearing; and seafaring vessel assaults. In 2003, GOE had 150 members broken down into units of 25 men—each supported by a well-developed intelligence and planning section.

Republican National Guard

Today’s GNR originated as the Royal Guard (*Guarda Real de Polícia*), established in 1801 and modeled on the French Gendarmerie (1791). The Royal Guard was the first well-equipped and armed force to guarantee public safety and security. However, its involvement in the civil wars of the mid-19th century led to its being dissolved by King Dom Pedro in 1834 and reorganized with the same characteristics as the Municipal Guard (*Guarda Municipal*) of Lisbon and Oporto. With the advent of the Portuguese Republic (1910-1926), the Municipal Guard was dissolved and reorganized in 1913 as the Republican National Guard.

Designed as a check against the military, the GNR was first employed to suppress monarchist revolts within the ranks of the armed forces. Today, the GNR performs the same duties as the Public Security Police—but in rural areas and border towns where one of its main functions is traffic patrol and investigation of minor crimes. As a paramilitary force, GNR is also responsible for the internal security of the state. It reports to the Ministry of Defense in wartime and to the Ministry of Internal Administration in peacetime. In the fall of 2003, a contingent of the Portuguese National Republican Guard was sent to assist American troops in Iraq.

The Judicial Police

The PJP is responsible for criminal investigations. The growing sophistication of crime in the 20th century led to the need for a modern police force specially structured and trained for criminal investigation. The PJP, established in 1945, had antecedents in the Civil Police created by King Dom Luis in 1867. Under the control of the Queen,

the Civil Police functioned as judicial police charged with investigating crimes and violations, gathering evidence, and turning over criminals to the courts. In 1922 when the Civil Police was reorganized, the Investigation Police was created, and 5 years later, the services of the Investigation Police were transferred to the Ministry of Justice.

The Judicial Police has specialized scientific and technical training geared toward investigation tactics. Organized hierarchically under the Ministry of Justice, PJP is the only police force that carries out investigations of major crimes on the national level; for example, subversion, drug trafficking, thefts of art, counterfeiting, and terrorism are all handled by the PJP. It also conducts and investigates missing persons cases, sexual abuse cases, abductions, hostage situations, air piracy, robbery, murder, crimes against state security, and crimes involving bombs or other prohibited firearms. The Judicial Police also has overall responsibility for coordinating investigations of international drug trafficking focusing on major traffickers and organizations. Consumption and drug trafficking are significant problems in Portugal. Because of its long, rugged, and poorly patrolled coastline, Portugal is an easy entry point for heroin and cocaine traffic for the rest of Europe.

LEGACY OF PAST ABUSE

Today, the Portuguese do not harbor distrust of the police despite its involvement under previous governments in suppressing political rights. The long-time ruler, Antonio Salazar (1933-1968), created a regime police force in 1945—the State Security Police (*Polícia Internacional e de Defesa do Estado* [PIDE]). Under Salazar's successor, Caetano, its name changed to *Direcção Geral de Segurança* (DGS), but its methods were the same: political control of all opposition to the State. While PIDE functioned under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice, it was actually an arm of the regime in power and answered directly to Salazar. PIDE was given broad powers in 1954 to act as inquiring judges to arrest and detain people suspected of crimes against state security. Numerous people

were arrested without warrants, detained without access to legal assistance, tortured, and sometimes killed. Agents of PIDE had covert operations in clandestine communist organizations, government-run labor unions, armed forces, universities, and Portuguese immigrant communities abroad. In the 1960s and 1970s, they were also involved in attempts to terminate war in Portugal's African colonies.

Despite improvements since the severe PIDE of the Salazar era, complaints of police abuses have continued. The European Committee for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (ECPT) report on its January 1992 visit to Portugal concluded that ill treatment of detainees by GNR and PSP was a "relatively common phenomenon." In a subsequent visit in 1995, it found continued allegations of physical and verbal abuse by law enforcement officers from across the entire spectrum of Portuguese society—including a high proportion of African immigrants and gypsies. There were also reports of an illegal shooting and of the killing of detainees. Following the European Committee's 1995 report on unlawful practices of the police, a special Inspector General was appointed within the Ministry of Interior (the General Inspectorate of Internal Administration [IGAI]) to supervise the activities of law enforcement and defend the public against police abuses. IGAI operates in all of the Ministry's law enforcement agencies—notably the Public Security Police and of the paramilitary Republican National Guard—with the exception of the Judiciary Police, which is responsible to the Ministry of Justice.

INTELLIGENCE SYSTEM OF THE REPUBLIC OF PORTUGAL (SIRP)

On account of the atrocities committed by State Security police under Salazar and Caetano, there was widespread public reservation about the establishment of new intelligence agencies. It was not until 1984, 10 years after the Portuguese Revolution, that legislation was passed authorizing three separate intelligence agencies under the control of a single governing body:

1. The Security Intelligence Service, which gathers intelligence to insure internal security and to prevent acts of sabotage, terrorism, and espionage
2. The Military Intelligence Service
3. The Defense Strategic Intelligence Service, which reports directly to the Prime Minister and collects intelligence to safeguard the independence and internal security of the Portuguese state

In 2004, there was discussion of reorganizing the intelligence system.

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PRIVATE SECURITY INDUSTRY GROWTH IN WESTERN COUNTRIES

THE PRIVATE SECURITY INDUSTRY

The organization of policing has been restructured globally over the last 25 years. A major development is that certain public functions of social control and order maintenance are shifting toward private organizations. In this respect, it is worth noting the “multilateralization process” of providing security. Both the state and nonstate sectors are directly involved in the governance of security, and public–private divisions of tasks have become blurred. Public authorities are now embedded in “nodes of governance”—a multifarious interlocking of state, market, and civil society. It is particularly commercial organizations in the West that play

an increasingly important role in protecting the citizens of nation–states. In some contemporary societies, uniformed private guards even outnumber national police forces.

Private contract security companies employing guards are most well known and most visible in shopping malls, business complexes, airports, and other quasi-public spaces. At present, surveillance officers occupy a major position in the “extended police family.” The security industry, however, has swept the market with an array of other products and services and is still growing. Important professions are private detectives, forensic accountants, proprietary or “in-house” security, central alarm respondents, armed couriers, and a wide range of jobs including door supervisors, bodyguards, stewards, and producers of technical security equipment.

This diversification of the security business makes it hard to make clear statements about the shape and size of this industry. Different definitions sometimes exclude specific private security segments, which has an indisputable impact on the measurements of the industry. Furthermore, actual data hardly differentiate between full-time and part-time security personnel. This distinction could make a huge difference in the extent of the actual workforce. A second and related problem is the quality of empirical sources. Information about the commercial industry is hard to obtain, and the little available data are often not very reliable. What trends nonetheless make clear is that the private security industry around the modern world has grown significantly.

PRIVATE SECURITY AROUND THE WESTERN WORLD

Drawing on academic literature and national statistics, a comparative overview of the private security industry in 31 Western countries is provided. In addition, attention will focus on the issues of legal regulation, licenses, and training. Presented results must be treated with caution because of the problems mentioned above. Tables 1, 2, and 3 show the absolute and relative numbers of private security employees, the strength of police forces, and the

ratio between private security employees and police.

United States

The first study conducted on private guards in the United States was published in 1971, followed by a second publication in 1977. These studies are known as the RAND reports. The latter report indicates that 429,000 people were employed in the private security industry in 1972. At the same time, the public sector employed 694,000 officers. A total of U.S. \$12 billion was spent on crime security forces, including nearly U.S. \$4 billion on the private security sector.

In 1985 and 1990, two other reports on private security were published by Hallcrest Systems, Inc. The second report predicted that private security employment (excluding proprietary guards) would grow from 556,200 in 1980 to almost 1.5 million in 2000. These numbers indicate an enormous growth of the security market, outnumbering the total U.S. police forces and public expenditures on crime by far. It is suggested that there are approximately two times as many people employed in the private security sector as there are in the public security sector. These measurements might be an exaggeration as a result of imprecise data. The U.S. Department of Labor reports that security guards (including surveillance officers in casinos) and private investigators hold approximately 1,140,000 jobs, and private security is a multibillion industry (2000 estimate).

Almost every state requires guards to be licensed, especially those who carry a weapon. Armed guards are better screened and enjoy better primary and secondary conditions of employment. The amount of training and payment varies depending on the responsibilities employees have. Although many guards are not highly skilled workers, officers employed, for example, at nuclear power plants undergo a more elaborate training. Most private investigators have college degrees and are trained on-the-job. They are often former law enforcement officers, military investigators, government agents, and financial or legal experts who started a (small) private detective company. The regulations for

receiving a proper license vary throughout the United States.

Canada

With regard to the private security industry in Canada, reliable data on the number of employees do not exist. It is nevertheless assumed that security workers outnumber the Canadian police force nowadays. Compared to approximately 82,010 guards and detectives, statistics report on 59,090 police officers (1996 estimates). Based on a survey in 1997, the amount of revenue generated by the industry is believed to be more than Canadian \$2 billion and consist of approximately 2,740 establishments.

Each Canadian province has regulatory mechanisms concerning criminal background checks, training standards, and licensing. These rules, however, do not apply to “in-house” security and forensic accountants. Guards working with valuables (e.g., cash, goods, and precious metals) are allowed to carry a gun for self-defense or the prevention of serious damage to other persons.

South Africa

The private security industry is of great importance in South Africa. After the breakdown of the Apartheid system in 1992, the security market began to boom. Figures indicate a rise in the total value of the private security industry from R 1.2 billion in 1990 to R 6 billion in 1997. By the end of the 1990s, roughly 350,000 people were contracted as private security guards. This number excludes 60,000 “in-house” security officers. The South African Police Service (SAPS) employs some 90,000 officers.

In 1987, the Security Officers Act was passed to set up regulatory mechanisms for the private industry. These mechanisms include:

- Registration of security companies and security guards
- Regulation of minimum training standards
- Creation of an inspectorate to enforce regulations

The Security Officers Board is the single supervisory body, which consists mainly of private security representatives. This means that the Board is funded by the industry itself, raising fundamental questions about its independence and actual powers. Other major problems are the insufficient regulation of “in-house” security and the appearance of security companies involved in prohibited mercenary activities from within South Africa’s borders.

Japan

The Japanese private security industry grew from 775 companies employing 41,146 guards in 1972 to 8,669 companies employing 377,140 guards in 1996. This means a massive increase by almost 820% in a quarter of a century. In 1995, Japanese security companies sold over 1775.85 billion yen on products and services. The total government budget for the police was 3658.10 billion yen, while the total police force comprised a total of 224,985 officers in this year. Hence, the private security industry outnumbers the police in Japan.

Since 1972, the Private Security Business Act has regulated the Japanese security industry. For 10 years this act included only documentation of administrative guidelines. It failed to exercise strong legal control over the industry. This situation changed in 1982 when the National Police Agency (NPA) amended the act to regulate the security industry better. First, the training system of security personnel became more demanding. Second, security companies were forced to provide personal backgrounds (e.g., name, photo, address, date of birth, qualifications) of their employees. Third, the police started to supervise the design, colors, and emblems of security guards’ uniforms. Guards are not allowed to use coercive force except for self-defense purposes. The police can sanction security firms that violate the rules by penalties, imprisonment, or suspending and even terminating businesses.

Australia

In 1990 the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) estimated a total employment of 28,000

people in the security industry. At the end of June 1999, the ABS believed that the security industry employed 31,752 people. Almost 75% of these employees were guards, while the other 25% were managerial, administrative, or other security staff. Alternative measurements, however, indicate a total employment of more than 90,000 guards. According to the ABS, a total of 43,048 Australian police officers were registered in 1999.

Various jurisdictions adopted a range of legislation on licensing and registering private security firms. Moreover, the regulatory agencies responsible for the enforcement of rules differ. Some guards are allowed to carry guns by law. Prescribed training standards are very weak, meaning that guards are only required to attend a 2- or 3-day course. The 1997 Security Act aims at improving the quality of regulation, licensing standards, criminal record checks, and education. Firearms training is mandated under a different Act.

European Union Countries

Although the European Union (EU) tends to move toward an integrated guarantee of safety and security, the size and regulation of the private security industry within each member state varies drastically. On the threshold of the 21st century, a total of approximately 730,000 people are employed in the industry. As can be seen from Table 1, the United Kingdom is indisputably the leader in Europe in providing private security services. Informed estimates place the number at a minimum of 315,000 employees in the UK, of which 220,000 are directly engaged in policing: uniformed guarding, door supervisors, stewards, and professional investigators. Other private security personnel include transporters of cash and valuables, alarm monitor respondents, assistants in managing prisoners, consultants, and producers of equipment. The private sector has become larger than the public police force and comprises a market size of approximately £ 1.2 billion (1990) in the UK.

Germany takes a second position in the EU. The total number of registered people employed in guarding services has increased from 30,000 in 1980 to at least 168,000 in recent years. In 1998

Table 1 Private Security in North America, South Africa, Japan, Australia, and New Zealand

Country	Total private security personnel	Total police personnel	Security personnel per 100,000 inhabitants	Ratio police/private security
United States	1,140,000 – 1,500,000	828,435	582	0.73
Canada	82,010	59,090	267	0.72
South Africa	350,000	90,000	866	0.26
Japan	377,140	224,985	299	0.60
Australia	31,752	43,048	177	1.35
New Zealand	5,478	6,967	153	1.27

the turnover rate was estimated at DM 5 billion (€2.56 billion). The German police are still the most important protective organization.

Legislation for regulating the private security industry did not exist until recently in the UK. Therefore the British Security Industry Association (BSIA) took the responsibility to lay down binding guidelines and codes for its members. In 2001, however, the House of Lords passed the Private Security Industry Bill. Although this Act might need further refinement to extend its scope to the wider industry in the future, it is an attempt to regulate guards, private investigators, wheel clampers, security consultants, and key holders. Main contributions are the introductions of a licensing system and the creation of a Security Industry Authority (SIA) to monitor the quality and legitimacy of security industry services.

Germany is a country without any special legislation to govern private security firms. Regulations are embedded in several different acts and laws. The Trade Regulation Act (*Gewerbeordnung*) regulates the applications for licenses for guards. Other specific rules concern minimal training standards and a check for criminal records. Approximately 6% of the security guards carry guns. Either the army or armored car services employ these guards. The Firearms Law (*Waffengesetz*) regulates the possession and use of guns comprehensively without making any exception for the private security industry.

The Greek tradition of private policing is quite different from that of the UK and Germany. A private security industry barely existed until 1997.

Statistics showed a total of 18,769 security guards and 674 companies or franchise offices in 2001. In-house security is not included in these data. For 2001, the police force comprises 51,658 officers. This is a ratio of 2.75 times the total contract security market. Legislation was introduced in 1997 setting a number of special requirements for private security personnel, such as licensing. The license holder's criminal record must be checked and he or she is obliged to have joined the Greek army.

Luxembourg employs the lowest number of security guards, but in proportion to its population the industry is fairly big. The lowest level of private security workers relative to its population can be found in Italy. The Italian police force is huge, consisting of 278,640 officers (2001). Despite all variances in the strengths of police and private security, the commercial industry appears to gain a stronger position from Scandinavia to the Mediterranean. Finland, the Netherlands, and Spain, for example, had a substantial increase of security personnel in the last decades.

National legislation of private security is very diverse in the EU. Britain and Greece have implemented Security Acts, but Germany lacks any special legislation. The Netherlands, however, has tried to increase the regulation density to ensure the quality standards of licensing, recruitment, education, training, and delivered services. The EU calls for an overall legal perspective on the security industry. Individual states remain nonetheless the most successful actors in maintaining and regulating internal security.

Table 2 Private Security in European Union (EU) Countries, 2001

Country	Total private security personnel	Total police personnel	Security personnel per 100,000 inhabitants	Ratio police/private security
Austria	5,500	25,440	69	4.63
Belgium	15,000	35,885	148	2.39
Denmark	5,250	12,230	98	2.33
Finland	6,000	11,816	118	1.97
France	107,400	227,008	182	2.11
Germany	168,000	262,967	205	1.57
Greece	18,769	51,658	178	2.75
Ireland	5,150	10,828	145	2.10
Italy	25,000	278,640	44	11.15
Luxembourg	1,200	1,111	302	0.93
Portugal	15,000	46,072	144	3.07
Spain	90,247	179,400	226	1.99
Sweden	16,000	17,500	184	1.09
The Netherlands	30,717	53,000	193	1.61
United Kingdom	220,000	185,156	368	0.84
EU total	729,233	1,393,322	197	1.91

Central and Eastern Europe

In Central and Eastern Europe, private security companies are mushrooming everywhere since the collapse of the communist system. The Czech Republic, Poland, and Hungary have particularly strong industries in which the employment exceeds the police force. Poland employs the most private personnel with an estimated commercial security force of 150,000 to 250,000 people. The number of Polish police officers dropped from 109,500 in 1991 to 102,355 in 1997. Data on annual turnover rates are not available yet. Slovenia has the smallest security industry, employing a total of 4,000 people. In relative terms Romania has a very small industry with only around 86 guards per 100,000 inhabitants.

It is not surprising that the developing democracies of Central and Eastern Europe are reorganizing their legal systems. Special legislation on the private security industry is often a work in progress, whereas existing regulations prove to be inappropriate. The Czech Republic and Slovenia offer university training on the subject of private security services. Both police officers and students seeking a career in the commercial sector are taught at the Police Academy in Prague or the College of Police and Security Studies in Ljubljana.

Russia

Like the other former Warsaw Pact countries, Russia is confronted with a severe rise in private security and detective agencies. Since the rapid development of a free-market economy after 1992, businessmen seek a *krysha* (roughly translated as “roof”), which means an enforcement partnership that safeguards them from violent competition. Security agencies sometimes work on the edge of criminal methods to be successful in protecting these clients and their property. This dynamic in relation to the collapse of the so-called Soviet power-wielding Ministries has contributed to a spectacular growth of the private security industry. Figures show that one third of the total number of licensed security employees are former agents of the Committee for State Security (KGB) and the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MVD).

The protection market is generally divided into detective agencies, private security services (PPSs), and private protection companies (PPCs). Little is known about the business of private investigations. Large institutions such as banks and state enterprises have established PPSs for their own protection, while PPCs are independent organizations serving their individual clients. In 1999,

Table 3 Private Security in Non-European Union (EU) Countries and Russia

Country	Total private security personnel	Total police personnel	Security personnel per 100,000 inhabitants	Ratio police/private security
Iceland	200	620	76	3.10
Norway	4,800	7,500	108	1.57
Switzerland	8,000	13,887	118	1.74
Turkey	82,000	175,000	143	2.1
Czech Republic	50,000	49,000	481	0.98
Hungary	54,981	30,817	532	0.56
Latvia	4,500	9,457	120	2.10
Poland	150,000 – 250,000	102,355	518	0.68
Romania	20,000	—	86	—
Slovenia	4,000	5,870	249	1.47
Russia	200,000 – 850,000	—	586	—

statistics indicated that formally almost 200,000 employees were working for security services and protection companies, but their total number exceeds 850,000. Compared to a nonexistent private security industry in the pre-1992 era, this is an unprecedented expansion. Exact data on total annual turnovers are lacking, but it sounds reasonable to say that private security is a very profitable industry. The total number of Russian police officers is unknown.

Regulatory structures are weak in Russia and so is the supervision over private policing practices. It is relatively easy to get a license, and business relations are highly informal, which has a negative impact on the transparency of the industry. The 1992 federal law on private detective and protective activity acquired a legal status to the commercial provision of security. This policy was a pragmatic attempt to get a grip on the already existing initiatives of private security and investigation.

EXPLAINING THE GROWTH OF PRIVATE SECURITY

In the sociological and criminological literature, five interrelated hypotheses are given to explain the rise of private security around the Western world. From a broad perspective, *social developments* such

as social complexity, social heterogeneity, modernization, individualization, and liberalization could contribute to contemporary changes in the policing of modern countries. These developments have led to a diversity of norms and practices as well as to communities that try to construct security on behalf of its members. The decline of social cohesion and the reduction of the idea of trust play an important role in this context. Commercial security agencies are seen as a cost-effective alternative to government in defending the central values of liberty and freedom on which Western societies are built.

A second argument is the *problem of crime* in Western countries. Crime rates have risen sharply in the last decades. Violence, shoplifting, robberies, thefts, white-collar crime, and a Mafia underworld are serious dangers in current Western societies. Recently, the horrible events of September 11, 2001, have posed a new danger to national security by enhancing people's worries about their safety. In this setting, the feeling of insecurity takes a life of its own. While crime levels might be more stable now and the risk of being a victim of terrorist attacks is relatively low, the desire for certainty and protection has become normal. The perception and consciousness of risk and the need to control our lives, liberties, and estates are, in other words, embedded within the nature of Western industrial

countries. In particular, the mass media have made us more aware of the threats and tend to exaggerate events.

It is furthermore important to understand the changes that have taken place in the organization of *mass private property*. More wealth simply creates more opportunities to steal or damage properties. In other words, economic development and growing prosperity have had their impact on opportunities to commit crimes. Particularly in urban areas, the rise of consumerism stimulates the emergence of easily accessible and thus vulnerable “quasi-public” or “new communal” spaces. These physical environments are privately owned by commercial entrepreneurs, but at the same time publicly accessible in the sense of “open to all of us.” Such territories include industrial complexes, shopping malls, football stadiums, airports, amusement parks, holiday resorts, and discotheques. Because of several risks related to deviant behavior, these sites of commerce and leisure need to be protected by a kaleidoscope of bouncers, guards, and police officers. Privatized, but frequently visited, spaces are turned into heavily protected urban areas.

The fourth argument concerns a lack of *government performance* and the financial weakness of welfare states. Governments try to control their growth of expenditure and restrict the funding of public services. The police, like other public services, face a cutback in financial support. Accordingly, police forces reduce their policing functions and create a vacuum in the provision of safety and security. In solving this budget problem governments around the world try to contract-out and privatize policing services to (cheaper) non-governmental agencies. Policing as a public activity has been crumbled into private pieces of peace-keeping that should “fill the gap” left behind by states.

Finally, *big commercial security companies have become professional providers of safety and security*. Private policing is generally accepted as a proper way to protect a society against potential threats. Problem solving in the more intimate sphere (so-called private justice) also becomes more prevalent. Police forces and the official

judicial system are not necessarily involved in dealing with deviant behavior. It is both the state and the business community that take this autonomous and pragmatic approach to certain forms of internal rule breaking. While police officers are not always easy to control, private guards and detectives are more dependent on their specific contracts. They are experts who perform certain tasks on behalf of paying customers.

SOME EXPECTATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

The current restructuring of policing is expected to continue in the future. At this point the globalization of private policing is an interesting topic. There has already been an expansion of transnational security firms around the world. Giant multinational companies such as the Securitas Group (Swedish, 230,000 employees), Group 4 Falck (Danish, 215,000 employees), and the Securicor Group (British, 125,000 employees) are confronting us with a “McDonaldization” of commercial security activities. This development also has an impact on issues other than private policing. Transnational security firms are engaged in fire departments, ambulance services, and car assistance services. A diversity of commercial activities are, in short, penetrating national markets of safety and security.

The ongoing marketization of policing raises serious questions about the powers of security officers. In most countries private guards have—like every citizen—the legal authority to arrest people on reasonable grounds, and they can conduct searches of persons who voluntarily enter private property. Guards are sometimes allowed to carry guns and patrol public streets. These issues emphasize questions of accountability and democracy. Countries adopt different models of legislation for the private security industry. While the industry is expanding rapidly, governments try to put in place regulatory mechanisms that must protect the rights and liberties of its citizens. Private security services are in need of further democratic legitimacy.

A related question concerns the problem of justice. The idea of security being a commodity might

imply that privileged individuals and institutions are allowed to buy extra protection. Consequently, this situation could lead to social inequalities in society. Authors criticize the idea of “gated communities,” a well-known phenomenon in South Africa and the United States. They foresee an unwanted situation of fortified resorts surrounded by presumably poor and dangerous neighborhoods. Another issue for critique refers to the required knowledge, skills, and working conditions of security workers. Although big security companies are professional businesses, discourses still focus on the problems of long working hours, low education, low payments, and the poor quality standards of provided services. In many Western countries, governments try to implement better regulation and supervision mechanisms that must improve the competency of the whole security industry.

The growth of a private security industry has restructured the organization of policing around the Western world. Alongside this industry, other new forms of formalized social control, such as city wardens, neighborhood watches, and transnational policing initiatives, also affect the central role of government functions. It is believed that these patterns tend to erode the central place that police forces occupy in modern societies. Yet the current replacements of police work to a range of (non)governmental organizations will probably change the positions and powers of nation-states in the future.

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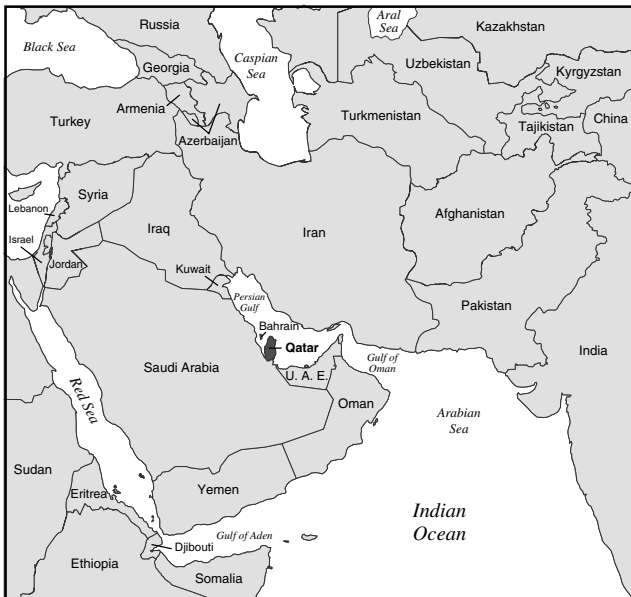
QATAR

The state of Qatar is located halfway along the west coast of the Persian Gulf bordering Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. It has a total land area of approximately 11,437 square kilometers with a population of approximately 817,052 people (July 2003 estimate), the majority of whom live in capital city of Doha.

Although the British involvement in Qatar from 1916 to 1971 brought British legal institutions,

Qatar is a traditional emirate governed by the al-Thani family in consultation with a council of ministers, an appointed advisory council, and an elected municipal advisory council. Islamic ideals and beliefs provide the conservative foundation of the country's customs, laws, and practices.

The Qatar Government operates an efficient security apparatus. The public security and law and order are controlled by the Interior Ministry, which was launched with the independence of the State of Qatar in 1971. Sheikh Abdullah bin Khalid al-Thani has been the minister since January 2001.



POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The Interior Ministry consists of two sections: the Police and the General Administration of Public Security. The current strength of the police force, including local police and police under the Interior Ministry, is 11,833 personnel—a ratio of 1 police official for every 63 citizens. Women make up 4.57% of the force (2000 estimate). The local police enforce laws and arrest violators. The General Administration of Public Security, which in 1991 replaced the Criminal Investigation Department, is a separate unit of the Interior Ministry and is charged with investigation of crimes.

Crime is rare and generally not a problem in Qatar. Based on the seventh United Nations Survey

of Crime Trends, Qatar's crime rate ranked 58 out of 60 (2000) countries. Qatar police spend a great deal of time controlling misdemeanors, such as traffic violations.

POLICE RECRUITING AND TRAINING

Law enforcement officials in Qatar are selected by mandatory screening procedures including competitive examinations, interviews, and security checking of applicants. Screening procedures also focus on the moral, psychological, and physical qualifications of applicants. All police officers receive continuous and thorough professional training in the Police Academy.

As one of the most liberal and progressive of the Gulf countries with a very low crime rate, Qatar has gradually opened more professional opportunities in many fields for women including law enforcement positions. For example, in 2003 there were 107 women cadets graduated from Qatar's Police Academy and the number is increasing. Experts in the field see this number as a milestone for women.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

As an independent branch of the Interior Ministry, the Mubahathat (secret police office) deals with sedition and espionage. The Mubahathat is nearly

independent from the regular civil security forces and has been known to use severe force in its investigations. It can incarcerate suspects without charge but reportedly does this infrequently. The army's mission does not include internal security, although the army can be called on in the event of serious civil disturbances. Nevertheless, a separate agency, the Mukhabarat (intelligence service), is under armed forces jurisdiction. Its function is to intercept and arrest terrorists and to keep surveillance over political dissidents.

Qatar is a member of Interpol.

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✎ ROMANIA

Situated in southeastern Europe, with an area of 238,000 square kilometers, Romania has a population of 22 million people (2004). The capital of Romania is Bucharest (2 million people), and the official language is Romanian, one of the five major Romance languages. Policing is the responsibility of the Ministry of the Administration and Interior. The two main branches of this Ministry that are concerned with police activities are the Romanian Police (Poliția Română) and the Romanian Gendarmerie (Jandarmeria Română). The Romanian Police is primarily responsible for law enforcement, and the gendarmerie preserves public order.

HISTORY OF ROMANIAN POLICE

Prince Alexandru Ghica created the Romanian Gendarmerie on April 3, 1850. In 1893 its role toward the rural population was more clearly defined as public security, maintenance of public order, execution of laws, and guarding transportation facilities. In 1949 its name was changed to Trupe de Securitate (Security Troops), and this military structure was moved from the Ministry of Defense to the Ministry of the Interior.

After the 1989 Romanian Revolution, the institution regained its traditional name of the

Gendarmerie (Jandarmeria). Its responsibilities are stated in the Law Concerning the Organization of the Romanian Gendarmerie issued in 1998. With a force that consists of approximately 50,000 people (a ratio of 1 police officer per 440 inhabitants), the Romanian Gendarmerie is in the middle of a restructuring process. In Romania, military duty is still mandatory, but important steps have been made to transform it into a professional force.

ORGANIZATION OF THE GENDARMERIE

Organized as a centralized military hierarchy, the Romanian Gendarmerie has the following structure:

- National Command of the Gendarmerie (Comandamentul National al Jandarmeriei [CNJ])—the headquarters is in Bucharest.
- Territorial Command of the Gendarmerie (Comandamentele de jandarmi teritoriale [CJT])—eight large military bases corresponding to the main geographic areas: Timisoara, Cluj, Craiova, Constanta, Brasov, Targu Mures, Bacau, and Ploiesti.

These divisions are further subdivided into:

- Judet Command (Comandamente de Jandarmi Judetene) 41 military bases, following the administrative division of the state into 41 geographical territories (“judet”).



- Mobile Intervention Battalions (Batalioane Mobile de Interventie)—responsible for emergency response in cases of public disturbances.
- Specialized subdivisions (alpine, parachuting, decontamination, antiaircraft fire, mortars, intelligence)—platoons and groups.
- The Mobile Intervention Brigade—located in Bucharest, but responsible for the entire Romanian territory. Using only professionals, it is deployed to resolve complex situations. This Brigade also provides troops for international missions.
- Training Centers—preparation and training school for commissioned and noncommissioned officers.
- Logistic and Maintenance Units.

RECRUITING, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION OF THE GENDARMERIE

Military service is mandatory in Romania, and much of the Gendarmerie is staffed with conscripts (men older than 18 years of age). After completing their required 1 year of military duty, they can be selected to continue on a professional basis. The remainder of the members are made up of a continuously growing number of professionals (sergeants under contract).

Low-ranking officers (under the rank of first lieutenant) attend a 2-year program at the Dragasani

School for noncommissioned officers. Officers above the rank of first lieutenant receive training at the Police Academy, which provides education for all personnel in the Ministry of the Interior. After 4 years, the officers graduate with a Law degree.

Civilians may also join the Gendarmerie. The law requires a college or a university degree to become a first lieutenant.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE GENDARMERIE

In peacetime, the gendarmerie's responsibilities include:

- Guarding important governmental structures (Parliament, Presidential Residence, Ministries), foreign embassies and diplomatic buildings, strategic points (airports, nuclear plants, the Treasury, armament factories), and other important buildings or assets (oil pipes)
- Maintenance of public order, together with other public order institutions (primarily the police)
- Prevention of crime through checkpoints and patrols in cities, rural areas, and remote regions
- Reestablishment of the public order in cases of serious disturbances (strikes, meetings, marches, important sport and cultural events, etc.)
- Protection of important shipments (secret correspondence, money, valuable assets, hazardous materials, explosives, etc.)
- Protection of prominent individuals during their presence in public places
- Intervention in case of terrorist attacks

In times of national emergencies, the Gendarmerie participates in the evacuation of the affected areas, prevention, and crime fighting.

In times of war, the Gendarmerie's responsibilities include:

- Maintaining order behind the front line
- Combat missions (e.g., against the airborne troops who land on Romanian territory)
- Evacuation of population
- Response in case of nuclear, biological, or chemical attacks
- Traffic control, managing prisoners and refugees

ACTIVITIES ON THE INTERNATIONAL LEVEL

In 2002, the Romanian Gendarmerie joined the International Federation of European and Mediterranean Police and Gendarmerie having Military Status (FIEP), a European organization of police forces organized on military principles. The other members are France, Italy, Spain, Portugal (the four members who founded the organization), the Netherlands, Morocco, and Turkey. It maintains close relations with the French Gendarmerie, which has been the main source of inspiration for the Romanian Gendarmerie organization. A French-Romanian School of Gendarmerie (*Scoala de Aplicatie a Jandarmeriei Romane*) was inaugurated in 2003 in Bucharest as a recent concrete result of this collaboration. The School trains not only Romanian officers, but also officers from neighboring countries.

The Romanian Gendarmerie participates in peacekeeping in Kosovo. It is a member of Interpol.

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RUSSIA

Russia is the largest country in the world (territorially), and its population of 144.5 million is the seventh largest worldwide. It is the largest successor state of the former Soviet Union and administratively is a federation of republics and other territories. The Russian Federation is made up of 89 constituent parts, or “subjects,” which include republics, territories (*krais*), regions (*oblasts*), federal cities (Moscow and Saint Petersburg), an autonomous region, and autonomous areas. The



relationship between the federal government and its subjects is still evolving. Initial post-Soviet efforts toward decentralization were reversed in 2000, when President Vladimir Putin combined geographically related republics and other territories into seven Federal Districts (*okrug*). These reforms allowed the Federal government to exert more centralized influence over the subjects of the Federation.

BACKGROUND AND HISTORY OF RUSSIAN POLICE

The Ministry of the Interior (MOI) was first established under the rule of Czar Alexander I in 1802, and has been Russia’s guarantor for internal security, order, and stability since that time. The MOI has authority over the majority of government agencies that address internal affairs, including police forces, criminal investigations, immigration and migration, and internal troops, often likened to a gendarmerie.

After primarily little substantial change during the postwar period, the MOI went through several restructuring initiatives during the 1990s and early 21st century. Several departments moved within the Ministry, and key departments were transferred from the MOI to other ministries and vice versa. Responsibility for corrections, prisons, and jails was transferred from the MOI to the Ministry of Justice; firefighting was moved to a new Ministry for Emergency Situations; and the Federal Migration Service, responsible for passports, visas, and migration was established within the Ministry

of the Interior. In addition legal reforms, including a new Constitution, Law on the *Militsiya*, Criminal Code, and Criminal Procedure Code, changed the role of the MOI.

Currently, the Ministry of the Interior consists of:

- Criminal Police Service (*Sluzhba Kriminalnaya Militsiya*)
- Public Safety Police (*Sluzhba Obshchesvennoy Bezopasnosti*)
- Investigations Committee Attached to the Ministry of Interior (*Sledstvenniy Komitet pri MVD Rossii*)
- Federal Service for Economic and Tax Crimes (*Federalnaya Sluzhba po Ekonomicheskim i Nalogovym Prestupleniyam*)
- Federal Migration Service (*Federalnaya Migratsionnaya Sluzhba*)
- Internal Military Forces (*Vnyutrenniye Voiska*)

These remaining departments now address the protection of citizens' rights and freedoms, law enforcement, crime control, and public security and are supported by, inter alia, a logistics service, a human resources department, a legal department, a communications department, an information and statistics department, educational and research institutions of the MOI, as well as social and health care services for MOI employees.

Of these multiple departments, two services, the Criminal Police Service and the Public Safety Police, taken together, form what is today called the *Militsiya*. Established in 1917, the Soviet *Militsiya* was a standardized police organization, whose influence extended from East Germany to the Pacific Ocean. The *Militsiya* was the primary law enforcement body responsible for social and economic order during 74 years of Soviet rule. Its structure was developed in Moscow and exported throughout socialist countries.

The *Militsiya* saw itself as a punitive organ of the state rather than as the protector of citizen rights and freedoms. Moreover, the relationship between the *Militsiya* and the political structure in the United Soviet Socialist Republic (USSR) remained much closer than in democratic societies, allowing the Communist Party to direct the *Militsiya* to

suppress political opposition. These two factors harmed the *Militsiya* deeply, particularly during the beginning of the transitional period. By the end of the Soviet Union, the organization had lost credibility among the public, and some of the best personnel left the organization at the end of the 1980s, leaving the police without a full force of qualified, experienced officers needed to fulfill increasingly difficult duties. Despite efforts to democratize during the perestroika years, the Soviet *Militsiya* remained an authoritarian police force.

In April 1991, a new Law on the *Militsiya* was adopted. This new legislation outlined the roles and responsibilities of the *Militsiya*, including preventing and investigating crimes, apprehending criminals, supervising the internal registration system, maintaining public order, combating public intoxication, supervising those released from prison, managing prisons and places of detention, and controlling traffic. The law was amended several times during the 1990s, and more recently it was revised in response to changes in criminal procedure and other areas. The effect has been the institution of new limits on the *Militsiya's* ability to act arbitrarily.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION OF THE MILITSIYA

The 1993 Constitution of the Russian Federation defined the roles of the Federation and the subjects of the Federation in managing law enforcement activities of the State. (Subjects of the Federation include republics, krais, oblasts, and Moscow and Saint Petersburg.) The Constitution states that the Federal Government (Federation) is responsible for the protection of citizen rights and freedoms, the establishment of federal agencies, and the structure and organization of agency activities (Article 71). The Federation and Subjects of the Federation have joint authority over the maintenance of public order and safety, as well as the management of human resources of law enforcement agencies (Article 72). Local self-governing bodies are responsible for maintenance of public order in towns and rural villages (Articles 131 and 132). Accordingly, the

Criminal Police Service is financed and under the command of the Minister of the Interior, while authority over and finance of the Public Safety Police are shared by the Minister of the Interior and the executive power of the appropriate subject of the Federation.

There are Militsiya agencies at the federal and subject levels, as well as at the city, town, and district levels. Separate Militsiya departments provide law enforcement services for the rail, marine, and air transport systems. In addition to functional services and departments, the Militsiya is broken down geographically into seven federal districts. Each district has a Federal District Police Department, which analyzes, coordinates, monitors, and audits the activities of both local and regional police department and transportation police located within the Federal districts. Federal district departments also coordinate cooperation between the presidential representatives' offices in each district and the police, and they carry out functions related to combating organized crime of an interregional character.

At the federal level, the Militsiya is headed by the Minister of the Interior. At the level of subjects of the Federation, Militsiya forces are led by Republican Ministers of the Interior or by regional (oblast) police chiefs, who are appointed by the President of the Russian Federation at the recommendation of the Minister of the Interior. At the level of inner-city districts, cities, and other municipalities, the Militsiya is led by local police chiefs, who are appointed by Republican Ministers of the Interior or by regional police chiefs. Transport police departments, police departments in closed areas, and police departments for secured facilities are managed by police chiefs of these departments or directly by the Minister of the Interior.

At the subject level, the heads of the Militsiya are appointed and dismissed by the President of the Russian Federation upon nomination by the Minister of Internal Affairs and taking into account the opinion of the executive authority of the Subject of the Federation.

The Minister of the Interior is appointed and dismissed by the President of the Russian Federation

as proposed by the Chairman of the Government. The Minister of the Interior bears personal responsibility for the fulfillment of the tasks to be performed by the Ministry, subordinate services, divisions, sections, and departments of internal affairs (police forces) and Internal Troops (gendarmierie). The Minister:

- Organizes the work of the Ministry
- Guides the activities of the Militsiya and Internal Troop activities
- Defines the management jurisdiction of individual MOI officials
- Approves staff and the structure of the central administration and subordinate departments
- Issues orders and other normative acts, including those binding on authorities, organizations, and citizens
- Submits draft decrees for the President's and the Government's consideration
- Appoints and dismisses MOI officials
- Provides promotions to middle- and top-ranking officers up to the level of general
- Recommends MOI officers for decorations and awards

The Minister may delegate some of these responsibilities to his deputies.

It should be noted that the seemingly independent services of the Militsiya, that is, the Criminal Police Service and the Public Safety Police, cooperate closely and assist one another in the fulfillment of their respective law enforcement responsibilities.

ROLE OF THE MILITSIYA IN LAW ENFORCEMENT AND THE JUSTICE SYSTEM

Traditional police functions in the Russian Federation are carried out by the Militsiya, which is part of the Ministry of Internal Affairs and is considered the largest and most multifunctional of the law enforcement agencies of Russia. The Militsiya currently operates on the basis of the Law on the Militsiya of April 18, 1991 (with subsequent amendments), in accordance with which the Militsiya protects the life, health, rights, and freedoms, as well as the property and interests of individuals, legal

entities, society, and the government. The Militsiya has the authority to conduct inquests, conduct investigations, and detain individuals.

The Militsiya's mission includes protecting the safety of citizens; fighting crime and minor violations of the law; detecting and solving crimes; maintaining public order; defending private, government, municipal, and other forms of property; and assisting individuals and legal entities in protecting their rights and legal interests.

In July 2002, the new Criminal Procedure Code came into force and substantially changed the rights and responsibilities of the police. The shift from an inquisitorial to an adversarial process has paved the way for further reforms. Under the new Code, detainees must be brought before the court and arrests must be sanctioned by a judge, and detainees have the right to an attorney from the moment that they are apprehended. The Public Prosecutor's Office must officially open cases, and citizens may make complaints against police and prosecutors for malfeasance and error in the course of pretrial investigation and detention. According to the law, citizens may even receive compensation for damages for unlawful arrest or detention. Investigation and evidentiary rules have also been strengthened to better define the scope of discovery and prevent introduction of illegally obtained evidence.

Supervision of the legality of police activities is carried out by the General Prosecutor of the Russian Federation and its Public Prosecutor's Offices in the subjects of the Federation. Any citizen who believes that an action or failure to act on the part of a police officer has led to damage to his or her rights, freedoms, or legal interests may make a complaint to the appropriate supervisory police department, Public Prosecutor's Office, or court.

LEGAL LIMITATIONS ON POLICE ACTIVITIES

Members of the Militsiya may not participate in any form of entrepreneurship or business and may not work as part-time employees for other organizations with the exception of artistic, scholarly, or teaching activities. However, police may provide security services to private concerns through

contracts between private companies and police agencies.

The Militsiya may not establish or conduct activities of political parties or their organizations, and Militsiya employees may not be limited in any way by decisions of political parties in pursuit of political aims.

Members of the police may unionize to protect their socioeconomic interests in accordance with the law; however, the police are prohibited from striking.

POLICE FUNCTIONS

The Criminal Police Service

The Criminal Police Service was established in 2001 in an effort to consolidate and increase cooperation among units covering overlapping areas of responsibility. The Central Command of the Criminal Police Service includes an Investigations Unit, an Organized Crime Unit, an Investigative Information Unit, and the National Central Bureau of Interpol of the Russian Ministry of the Interior. The main functions of the Criminal Police Service are to detect, stop, and solve crimes, for which preliminary investigation is required; search for suspects, those avoiding arrest or punishment, and missing persons.

The Investigations Department (*Upravleniye Ugolovnogo Rozyska*) conducts investigations and other strategic activities related to the solving of serious crimes of public importance, the study and analysis of crime in Russia, and the factors supporting crime. Additionally, the unit forecasts crime; develops comprehensive programs to combat crime; ensures compliance of regional departments of the criminal Militsiya with laws, regulations, and procedures; and analyzes and distributes information about best practices in Russia and abroad in fighting and solving crime.

The main thrust of the department's work is the solving of serious crimes including violent crimes of public importance; crimes involving explosives and firearms; serial thefts and violent crimes, including crimes in the commercial sector; theft, fraud, and destruction of property; crimes related to

automobile transport; interregional missing persons and fugitive cases; theft of objects of art and culture; and cases involving foreign citizens in the case of international public interest.

The Strategic-Investigative Information Unit (*Upravlenie Operativno-Rozysknoy Informatsii*) provides strategic analysis in order to improve the effectiveness of investigations and investigative activities of the Criminal Militsiya. The department collects and analyzes crime data and other information, and provides police stations and departments with new information and intelligence to improve crime clearance. The department also serves as a liaison for information between the Criminal Police Service and the Public Safety Police, other MOI units, other law enforcement agencies, and the press.

The Organized Crime Department (*Upravlenie po Bor'be s Organizovannoy Prestupnost'yu*) was founded in 1988 in reaction to a sharp increase in organized crime. The Organized Crime Unit works on issues related to organized crime, including terrorism, illegal drug and arms trade, corruption, and investigation of the most serious and grave crimes.

The National Central Bureau of Interpol facilitates international exchange of crime information; provides assistance in fulfilling requests from international and foreign law enforcement bodies for information and extradition; and ensures Russian Federation compliance with international agreements relating to combating crime.

Public Safety Police (Militsiya Obshchestvennoy Bezopasnosti)

The Public Safety Police is the largest force among all of the services of the Ministry of the Interior, and it is the primary interface not only between the police and citizens but also between citizens and government. When citizens report crimes, seek assistance with domestic disputes or local disturbances, obtain driver's licenses, or get stopped by the traffic police, their first point of contact is likely to be with an officer from the Public Safety Police. The mission of the Public Safety Police is to maintain public safety and order. The primary responsibilities of the Public Safety Police are:

- To protect the safety of citizens
- To maintain public order and safety
- To protect property
- To detect, prevent, and stop crime and low-level violations of the law
- To investigate and solve crimes for which only *inquest* rather than preliminary investigation is required by law
- To search for specific categories of people, who fall under the jurisdiction of the Public Safety Police
- To assist the Criminal Police where appropriate

The Public Order Department is managed by the Main Office of the Public Order Department. The Main Office studies, analyzes, and evaluates the current strategic and operational situation for the Public Safety Police. On the basis of this review, the department provides policy recommendations on pressing matters to MOI leadership; creates action plans; and suggests methods for coordinating MOI services, divisions, and departments to address public safety and order issues.

Public Order departments and services at all levels coordinate:

- Maintenance of public order on streets, in parks, and in other public places
- Foot patrols
- Conducting of inquests
- Solving crimes under the jurisdiction of the Public Safety Police and not requiring preliminary investigation
- Youth crime prevention activities
- Supervision of parolees and those serving alternative sentences
- Activities of temporary detention facilities and detention reception centers
- Prevention of violations in the consumer sector
- Management of detoxification facilities
- Units charged with determining the identity of individuals
- Gun licenses
- Licensing of private detectives and security firms
- Provision of support to Public Prosecutors in magistrates courts (*miroviye sudy*)
- Protection of diplomatic missions
- Fulfillment of international extradition agreements

The Public Order Department has several sections that carry out the various functions of the department. These are described in the following paragraphs.

The *Patrol and Guard Service (Patrolno-Postovaya Sluzhba)* is a large force that ensures public safety and order, prevents crime, and participates in investigations and detaining suspects in specific administrative districts (patrol zones) and on public transportation. Patrol and guard services are carried out both on foot and with State Road Inspection patrol cars, Interdepartmental Security and special patrol car units, and Internal Troop installments.

The *Zonal Authority Police (Uchastkovy Upolnomochniye Militsiyi)* are the primary representatives of the police and self-governance organizations in neighborhoods or administrative zones. The mission of Zonal Authority Police is to protect citizens and their public safety, maintain public order, assist the Criminal Police in carrying out their investigations and other responsibilities, prevent and stop crime, protect private and public property, and provide general assistance to residents and organizations. Proponents of Zonal Authority Police believe that constant contact between citizens and the Zonal Authority police officers serves as a vital link with local citizens and facilitates crime prevention, crime investigation, and maintenance of citizen safety and public order. Therefore, Zonal Authority police officers serve as central figures in Militsiya efforts to maintain public safety and security. Officers, who are chosen from mid- and senior-level officers, are provided with offices in the neighborhood where they work.

The *Inquest Department (Otdel Doznaniya)* conducts investigations of less serious crimes that can be investigated and processed in a simplified manner (*doznanie*) under the Criminal Procedure Code and assists with preliminary investigation of more serious crimes at the request of the Investigations Committee. Activities include search and surveillance; gathering of evidence; interviewing of witnesses, victims, and suspects; and preparing pretrial documents.

The *Special Police Forces (OMON)* were originally established at the end of the 1980s to handle mass disturbances and riots and react to extreme

situations. The Special Police Forces have been deployed in conflict regions in the Northern Caucasus and participate in antiterrorism operations and other high-risk operations.

The *Security-Transport Service* manages temporary detainment cells, transport of suspects and the accused to and from court, investigation procedures, pretrial detention facilities, and transfer points for suspects wanted for crimes committed in other regions. The Security-Transport Service also manages overnight detoxification facilities.

The *State Road Safety Inspection Department (Gosudarstvennoe Inspektsiya Bezopasnosti Dorozhnogo Dvizheniya)* regulates traffic to prevent automobile accidents and reduce injuries and damages caused by accidents; conducts automobile inspections and registers vehicles; issues driver's licenses and fines for traffic violations; detects, investigates, and solves crimes committed on thoroughfares, including car thefts; builds and repairs roads; and provides policy advice on automobile safety, road construction, and other areas linked to road safety and reduction of crime.

The *Department for Combating Consumer Market Crimes and Enforcement of Administrative Law* operates in all areas of the Federation, and there are more than 7,000 police employees working in subject-level units around the country (2002). The sections focus on preventing and solving economic crimes in consumer markets and protecting commercial markets from infringements in the areas of trade, intellectual property, and finance.

The *Office of the Interior for Restricted Facilities (Upravleniye Vnutrennykh del na Rezhimnykh Ob'ektakh)* provides security to strategically important military and other sites such as electric grids.

The *Interdepartmental Security Guard Service (Upravleniye Vnevedomstvennoj Okhrany)* provides paid security and other services for individuals and legal entities, including guard services for important government buildings and transportation of documents and valuables.

POLICE RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

Police officers must be citizens of the Russian Federation between the ages of 18 and 35 years.

Additionally, police officers must have at least a secondary-level education and must be capable—through physical and professional qualities, physical fitness and health—to carry out the responsibilities of a police officer. Persons convicted at any time of a crime are not eligible for service in the Militsiya.

Recruitment and other personnel issues are the joint responsibility of the Federation and the subjects of the Federation. The Federal government determines the recruitment needs and levels for those forces financed by the Federation, and subjects of the Federation determine recruitment for positions paid by them. However, municipal government or subjects of the Federation may choose to add additional positions to the force at their own discretion and cost.

Commissioned police personnel are educated and trained by professional, vocational, and specialized vocational education institutions of the Ministry of the Interior. There are 22 higher education institutions and 11 specialized vocational schools in the Ministry of the Interior system, and there are branches of these institutions in virtually all major regional cities. (In 2005, the specialized vocational schools are scheduled to be moved from the Ministry of the Interior to the authority of an agency of the Federal Educational System.) These institutions provide secondary and higher education diplomas in two primary areas of specialization—jurisprudence and law enforcement. Additionally, these institutions provide opportunities for continuing education. A full higher education typically requires 5 to 6 years of study, and specialized vocational training generally requires 2 to 3 years of study depending on the type of program (full-time or part-time). Each year, approximately 100,000 cadets, students, and other personnel attend these institutions to either prepare for service or improve their professional qualifications. During their studies, cadets are considered active police personnel and have the same rights and responsibilities as all other police personnel.

Upon completion of a secondary or higher education diploma, graduates receive commissions as junior lieutenants or lieutenants and are assigned to police departments in accordance with their area of specialization.

Police officers may also be educated at non-MOI institutions of higher and secondary education but must undergo specialized training or retraining in order to enter the Militsiya.

Upon assignment to their first post, police officers serve as interns and are on probation for the first 3 to 6 months of service.

There are approximately 700,000 police officers in Russia (a ratio of approximately 1 for every 200 inhabitants), augmented by 50,000 OMON troops and 400,000 internal troops. In 1994, the Russian Federation reported a total number of police personnel of 1,812,000, of whom 20% were women. Recent statements suggest that the police force will be reduced in accordance with current administrative reform occurring throughout government.

POLICE PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

The Russian Militsiya has always used comprehensive tools for performance evaluation in order to measure the performance of stations, subject-level departments, and now federal districts. Russian evaluation criteria are distinctive because of their purely objective nature with little subjective input from supervisory staff. Recently, the Militsiya has put greater emphasis on citizen satisfaction and the quality of data collection. The MOI is also experimenting with new performance criteria that reduce dependence on crime rates and crime clearance for evaluation purposes.

PRIVATE POLICING ACTIVITIES

In addition to the Ministry of the Interior, private detective and security firms have taken on the functions of protecting citizens' rights and freedoms, as well as maintaining public safety and order. These organizations operate on the basis of licenses issued by the MOI and may conduct the following activities:

- Collection of information for commercial negotiations
- Establishment of circumstances related to unfair trade practices and leaking of commercial secrets
- Searches for missing persons

- Searches for lost and stolen property
- Collection of information for criminal cases at the request of a party to the case and with notice to the official investigator

Additionally, private firms may provide personal security services, guard services, security consulting services, and security for public events.

There are approximately 14,600 private security firms operating in Russia, employing more than 313,000 people, and providing services at more than 24,000 locations, of which approximately one third are small businesses (2002).

MINISTRY OF THE INTERIOR RESEARCH AND INNOVATION

The primary MOI institution responsible for research is the All-Russian Scientific and Research Institute of the Ministry of the Interior, originally founded as the Scientific and Research Institute of Crime Detection. The Institute is charged with conducting and coordinating research in the areas of search and surveillance, criminal law, criminal procedure, administrative law, criminology, and other areas relevant to the Ministry of the Interior and its departments. The Institute carries out its own research and coordinates the research of other MOI institutes in the study of critical issues in combating crime, ensuring public safety and order, and improving the legal, organizational, tactical, and methodological foundations of police activity. Additionally, the Institute offers graduate-level education in a variety of concentrations related to policing, publishes research, and participates in international projects and conferences.

A handful of other large and elite institutions, such as the MVD Academy of Management, also support research and education and provide continuing education opportunities for officers in leadership roles.

The Ministry of the Interior regularly conducts experimental and pilot projects. In recent years projects have included inter alia, a municipal and community policing pilot project in several regions, as well as testing of new police performance evaluation criteria and efforts to improve crime detection and recording. Additionally, several regional and

local police departments have collaborated on an informal basis with nongovernmental organizations to provide victim services, improve handling of domestic violence cases, reduce pretrial investigation periods, and offer human rights training to police officers.

CURRENT REFORMS AND TRENDS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Over the past 15 years, major legislative reforms have affected the role of the police in the criminal justice system and police procedures. First, the 1993 Constitution substantially increased citizens' human and civil rights and placed the responsibility for defense of these rights on the government. Police behavior was further limited by the introduction of a new Criminal Code (1997) and a new Criminal Procedure Code (July 2001) and subsequent amendments.

The Russian Federation remains in a transitional and reformative period in which crimes (organized crime, terrorism, corruption, and drug-related crimes) are increasing. Enforcement of new limitations and the increased demands of an adversarial justice system require a different kind of police force and new skills among police officers to reverse these trends. Therefore, the Russian government continues to seek out new ways to improve the effectiveness of law enforcement agencies, including the police, within the parameters of the rule of law. Over the past 2 years, the Presidential Administration and the State Duma have reviewed a variety of draft legislation and other measures to reform Russian law enforcement and the MOI, and a new draft law "On Agencies for the Maintenance of Public Order in the Russian Federation" was presented in 2004 for review. This draft law proposes the division of the police into a federal police force and municipal police forces, as well as differentiation of the roles and responsibilities of these new structures. Under this draft law, the leadership of the federal police would be carried out by a Federal Police Department as a center for combating crime in the country, and the municipal police force would manage public safety and order at the local level. This law also proposes the reformation of the Internal Troops

into a National Guard. The primary responsibility of the National Guard would be maintenance of the security of important strategic locations such as power plants, prevention of public disorder such as at stadiums during football matches, and handling of internal conflicts such as the situation in Chechnya.

Another major reform under discussion is the unification of pretrial investigations into a federal investigations service, which may or may not become an entity independent of the MOI. In 2004, investigations were handled by a variety of organizations, including investigation organs of the MOI that are not part of the Militsiya, investigative departments of the Federal Security Service (formerly the KGB), investigative departments of the Federal Service for Control of Illegal Drug Trade, and investigators of the Russian Federation Procuracy (Public Prosecutor).

Of all the law enforcement agencies, the Militsiya faces the least drastic reform in the immediate future and is likely to maintain its primary function of combating crime both through investigations and maintenance of public order.

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RWANDA

Rwanda is a landlocked nation situated in central Africa bordering the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Burundi, Tanzania, and Uganda. Occupying



an area of 26,338 square kilometers, Rwanda has a population of 7.8 million people (2003 estimate). The official languages are English, French, and Kinyarwanda. The capital is Kigali. A former Belgian colony, Rwanda gained independence in 1959. Since that time the country has been ravaged by interethnic conflict between the majority Hutu Tribe and the minority Tutsi Tribe. In 1990, former exiled members of the Tutsi formed the Rwandan Patriotic Front and began a civil war that culminated in 1994 in the genocide of almost one million Tutsis and moderate Hutus. Following international intervention, peace was restored and refugee Rwandans repatriated. A democratic government was elected in 1999.

Although the state institutions and legal system of Rwanda are based on the European Continental Belgian model, the new Rwandese Republic has chosen to adopt some British traditions used in neighboring British Commonwealth countries.

RWANDA NATIONAL POLICE

In 2000, the Government of Rwanda replaced the existing Gendarmerie, Communal Police, and Judiciary Police with the new Rwanda National Police (RNP). This modern, national, and unified civilian police organization was established on the British policing model. A Commissioner General, responsible to the Minister of Internal Affairs,

heads the RNP. Current force strength is 4,000 sworn personnel, a ratio of 1 police officer per 1,950 citizens.

The current Commissioner General is committed to community policing, to improving the public image of the force, and to building effective relationships and communications with the citizenry.

The stated RNP mission, incorporated in the country's laws, promotes the safeguarding of the fundamental rights of citizens, the need for cooperation between the police and the community, and police accountability to the community.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The Rwanda National Police is divided into five operational geographical regions (central, northern, southern, eastern, and western), with two centralized executive departments (Administration and Personnel and Operations), each under the command of a Deputy Commissioner General. The Administration and Personnel Department includes administration, personnel and records, recruitment and training, finance, planning, and logistics. The Operations Department includes the Judicial Police, Intelligence Section, Public Order and Security, Criminal Investigation, Scientific Support, Narcotics and Vice Squad, Community Policing, and the Human Rights Unit. Other specialist units include guard protection, airport security, fire fighting services, and border security. The naval branch of the RNP patrols inland lakes and waterways.

Although homicide and other serious crimes are comparatively low, in common with many post-conflict societies in the third world, expanding urbanization has resulted in an increase in property crime, traffic, urban congestion, and youth crime.

POLICE RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

Recruits to the RNP must be Rwandan citizens between the age of 18 and 25 years with a minimum of 3 years of high school education. All recruits, including those with higher education and university

degree qualifications, join the force and serve at the basic rank of constable. There are 13 ranks:

Commissioner General
Deputy Commissioner General
Commissioner
Assistant Commissioner
Chief Superintendent
Superintendent
Chief Inspector
Inspector
Assistant Inspector
Chief Sergeant
Sergeant
Corporal
Constable

All recruiting and in-service training is delivered at the Rwanda National Police Academy at Ruhengeri, which has been operational since February 2002. The RNP is committed to substantially increasing the numbers of females within the workforce. The highest rank currently held by a female officer is that of Deputy Commissioner.

Since 1999, substantial donor aid for training and technical support has been provided by Kenya, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. Senior officers are sent to the United Kingdom and the United States for management and other specialist training.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

The second main law enforcement organization in Rwanda is the Local Defense Force (LDF). Members of the LDF are armed civilians who are recruited, organized, and deployed by local government authorities to provide a second tier of public security and a uniform patrol presence in villages and rural areas.

Rwanda has two separate uniformed Customs and Immigration Agencies that are responsible to the Minister of Internal Affairs.

An important component of the Rwandan law enforcement and criminal justice process is the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, which was established by a United Nations Security Council Resolution in 1994. This Tribunal prosecutes Rwandan citizens who organized and led the genocide in Rwanda and neighboring states during 1994. The Tribunal, sitting in Arusha, Tanzania, is comprised of international judges currently hearing ongoing prosecutions against 66 former political and religious leaders accused of genocide and other inhuman violations of international law.

Rwanda is a member state of the United Nations and Interpol.

Stuart Cullen

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SAINT KITTS AND NEVIS

The Federation of Saint Kitts and Nevis is located in the northeast Caribbean Sea. Its 38,700 people (July 2003 estimate) reside on the islands of St. Kitts (a.k.a. St. Christopher) and Nevis, which have a combined land area of 261 square kilometers (168 and 93 square kilometers, respectively). Their contentious 100-year association with the island of Anguilla ended when Anguilla seceded before the Federation's independence from Britain in 1983. The Federation is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations with the British monarch as titular head of state and a Westminster-style parliamentary government.

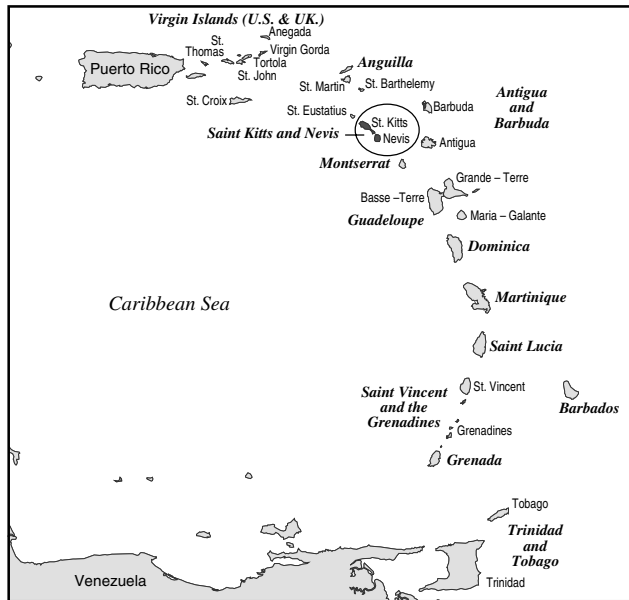
ROYAL ST. CHRISTOPHER AND NEVIS POLICE FORCE

The St. Christopher and Nevis Police Force was established in 1960. The title "Royal" was conferred by the Queen in 1966. St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla was previously the "B" Division of the Leeward Islands Police Force (LIPF) headquartered in Antigua. The LIPF was responsible for law enforcement in the British colonies of Antigua and Barbuda, Montserrat, Dominica, the British Virgin

Islands, and St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla. When LIPF was disbanded, it was replaced by national police forces.

The Royal St. Christopher and Nevis Police Force (RSCNPF) is a paramilitary organization with an authorized strength of 400 officers, a ratio of 1 per 96 residents. Current strength is 370 officers plus 28 auxiliaries or Special Constables. Women constitute 28% of the force (2003). The Commissioner, who reports to the Minister of National Security, Deputy Commissioner, and Assistant Commissioner comprise the High Command. Each geographic division (i.e., Nevis and two districts on St. Kitts) is commanded by a Superintendent.

The Police Service Commission, established by the Constitution, is responsible for recruitment, promotion, and discipline. It delegates these functions, up to the rank of sergeant, to the Commissioner. Entrance and promotion examinations are administered by the Personnel Department. Recruits undergo 6 months of initial training at the Police Training School. Selection for further local and overseas training is based on interviews. Promotions are based on qualifying examinations and interviews with the Promotion Board. There is also a system of continuous appraisal of all ranks. Civilian complaints are investigated internally and may lead to disciplinary or criminal proceedings.



The RSCNPF's sections are Criminal Investigation, Immigration, Special Services, Antinarcotics, Special Branch, Court and Process, Criminal Records, Traffic and Licensing, Stores and Armory, Personnel, Finance, Telecommunications, and Local Intelligence. The current organization reflects late 1990s restructuring, which removed the Fire and Rescue Services and the Coast Guard from RSCNPF jurisdiction, and the 2002 Police Act, which was designed to increase the force's independence and professionalism and civilianize personnel, telecommunications, and finance functions.

The Federation's strategic location astride international drug trafficking corridors is reflected in the Financial Investigation Unit's focus on money laundering and terrorist financing; the increased law enforcement activities of the Defense Force, some of whose members are deputized as Special Constables; and the Coast Guard. Other agencies with law enforcement responsibilities include the Customs and Inland Revenue Departments, Port Authority, and Solid Waste Management Corporation.

There is no forensic capability in the Federation. Assistance is sought from agencies in the United States, Barbados, and Jamaica. The RSCNPF is a member of the Association of Caribbean Commissioners of Police and Interpol.

Jannette O. Domingo

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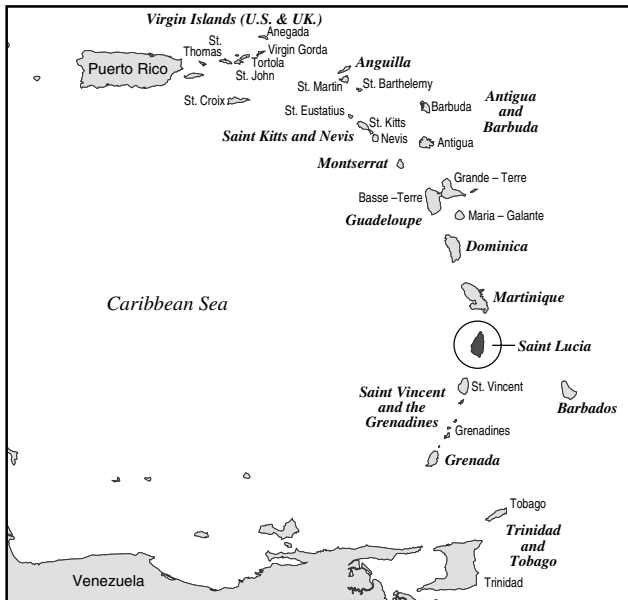
<http://www.stkittsnevis.net>

SAINT LUCIA

St. Lucia is an island nation in the eastern Caribbean between Martinique and St. Vincent and to the north of Barbados. The island, formerly a British colony, was granted independence in 1979. A population of 162,157 people occupies an area of 238 square miles. The government is a Westminster (British) style democracy, and the legal system is based on English common law. The judicial branch is associated with the Eastern Caribbean Supreme Court, which is comprised of nine island countries.

Increasing rates of crime have caused an expansion of the criminal justice system. The government has embarked on a program to review judicial, legal, penal, policing, and legislative reform. The island is a transit point on the international drug trade. Drugs from South America are first brought to St. Lucia for later shipment to the United States and Europe. Local drug use and drug gangs have increased the number of homicides on the island. Firearms are widely available and are used by many local criminals. Sixty criminals deported from the United States of America to their native St. Lucia have also exacerbated the crime problem.

The Royal Saint Lucian Police Force (RSLPF) has adopted a community policing approach and has begun a reform program to increase the effectiveness of the police, who have had a reputation for corruption and failure to respond to calls for assistance. Fearing that crime will reduce tourist revenues, which provide 50% of the island's foreign exchange and employs 20% of the labor force, the RSLPF has expanded to more than 816 members. New members to the force are trained at a local police academy. Britain and Canada have provided assistance in training senior police managers in



modern police management skills. An automated fingerprint identification system has recently been purchased to assist in criminal investigations. Most police stations have been refurbished or rebuilt. To develop a long-term program to improve the RSLPF, the government has invited the Washington-based Police Executive Research Forum (PERF) to conceptualize, develop, and make operational a crime control strategy for the island.

Two specialized units have been created within the RSLPF. The Rapid Response Unit is responsible for reducing crime in the tourism sector. The armed Special Services Unit patrols areas with especially high levels of criminal activity. The RSLPF also has a marine unit that acts as a coast guard. Several hundred special constables patrol the downtown areas and enforce traffic regulations.

Legislation has increased penalties for a variety of crimes. The use of a firearm in the commission of a designated felony will bring a minimum sentence of no less than 20 years. Capital punishment is authorized, and approximately 17 persons are on death row. However, no execution has been carried out for many years. The prison population as of 2002 was 670 inmates, and the number has been increasing in recent years. St. Lucia recently built a new prison and a new juvenile correctional facility.

Hugh E. O'Rourke

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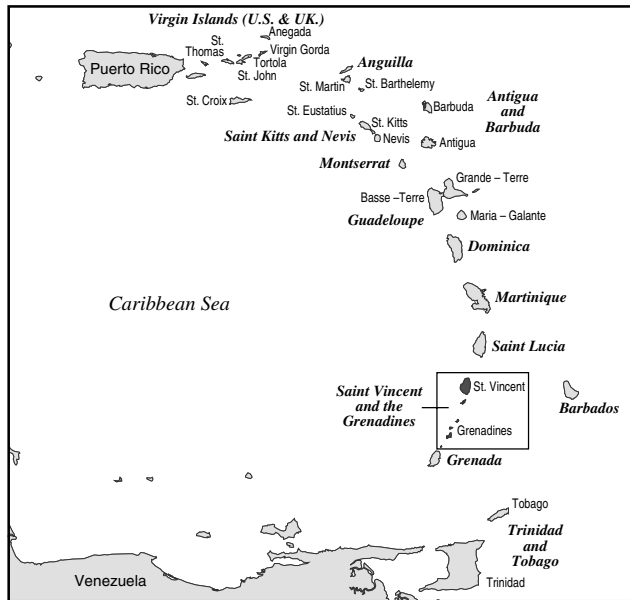
SAINT VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES

With an area of 150 square miles consisting of 33 islands and cays, and a population of 108,000 people (2002 Census), the nation of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines is a multiparty democracy located in the lower eastern Caribbean.

Adopted with independence from Britain in 1979, the Saint Vincent and the Grenadines's Constitution provides for free and fair elections; civil liberties such as freedom of religion, freedom of speech, and freedom of the press; and prohibition of arbitrary search and seizures and other governmental intrusions into the private lives of citizens. The Constitution also guarantees public trials under a British-based common law system of jurisprudence and allows for an independent and impartial judiciary with intermediary appeals going to the Eastern Caribbean Court of Appeal, while the Privy Council of the United Kingdom is the court of last resort.

Established in 1834 and headed by an appointed Commissioner of Police, the Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force, the nation's only law enforcement agency, is within the Ministry of National Security and is thus directly responsible and accountable to the government. As an unarmed, quasi-military organization with 686 officers, of whom 11% are women (2002), the Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force is made up of 22 units deployed in 5 geographical divisions (Central, Western, South Central, Eastern, and Grenadines). Police headquarters (Central) is located in Kingstown, the capital.

While basic police training is conducted locally by the Police Training Academy, training for special units and senior police officials is provided by regional and international police organizations.



is primarily service oriented. In addition to policing and maintaining public order, the Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force is responsible for such diverse tasks as immigration, fire-fighting, and Coast Guard services. Other units include:

- Administration
- Band
- Court Prosecution
- Criminal Investigation
- Criminal Records
- Narcotics
- Public Relations
- Rapid Response
- Security and Intelligence
- Tourist Police
- Traffic and Transport

The year 2002 saw a decrease in common crimes with 20 homicides and no police officers being killed in the line of duty. The Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force lacks an independent review board to monitor and investigate police conduct. Allegations of excessive force, police brutality, or corruption are handled within the organization by the Public Relations unit.

The operational ranks maintained by the Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force are found in Table 1.

The Royal Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Police Force is a member of the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol).

Brian A. Maule

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Table 1 Operational Ranks

Rank	Numbers
Commissioner	1
Deputy Commissioner	1
Assistant Commissioner	1
Superintendent	7
Assistant Superintendent	10
Inspector	17
Station Sergeant	19
Sergeant	52
Corporal	82
Constable	496

Although the Special Services Unit is a paramilitary unit designed to handle security, organized threats, and major crime, with a comparably low crime rate by regional standards, law enforcement

☞ SAN MARINO

The Republic of San Marino is the third smallest state in Europe and also holds claim to be the world’s oldest republic. The country has an estimated population of 28,199 people (2003) and its principal economic activities consist of banking, farming, light manufacturing, and tourism.

San Marino is a democratic, multiparty republic, whose social and political trends and foreign policy closely align with that of its larger neighbor, Italy. The popularly elected parliament (Grand and General Council) selects two of its members to serve as the Captain Regents (Co-Heads of State) for a 6-month period. The Captain Regents preside over meetings of the Great and General Council and its cabinet (Congress of State), which consists of



10 other members (Secretaries of State), who also are selected by the Grand and General Council. The Secretary of Foreign Affairs is elected also by the Grand and General Council for a term of 5 years and assumes functions similar to those of a prime minister.

San Marino's legal system is based on a civil law system with Italian law influences and has an independent judiciary. Criminal activity is very low in San Marino, with most petty offenses (i.e., thefts) being perpetrated upon unsuspecting tourists. Elected officials control the law enforcement/military bodies consisting of the Civil Police, Gendarmerie, the Guardie di Rocca, and La Guardia del Consiglio Grande e Generale. Military service is not compulsory; however, any citizen between the ages of 16 and 65 years who is physically willing and able may choose to enlist.

The Civil Police are responsible for internal security and civil defense. They are primarily responsible for public safety and emergency relief of the population and of the territory. The Civil Police are also responsible for matters concerning drug prevention, commercial trade, industrial activity, taxes, traffic, and so forth.

The Gendarmerie is a voluntary national military body that is also responsible for internal security and has, to a lesser degree, responsibilities similar to those of the Civil Police. In addition, the Guardie

di Rocca, the other voluntary national military body, is responsible for external defense and the security of parliament, the public palace, and the Captain Reagents. Occasionally, the Guardie di Rocca assists the Gendarmerie in criminal investigations. Both the Gendarmerie and the Guardie di Rocca also have limited ceremonial duties. Like the Gendarmerie and the Guardie di Rocca, La Guardia del Consiglio Grande e Generale, commonly known as the *Noble Guard*, also participates in ceremonial functions. However, they are primarily responsible for the defense of the Grand and General Council and as the insurers of the personal safety of the Captain Reagents.

Enrico DeMaio

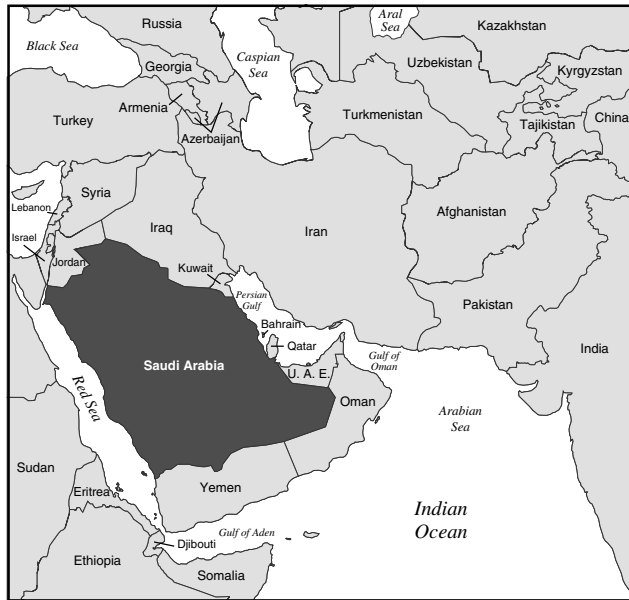
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SAUDI ARABIA

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was founded in 1932 by King Abdul Al-Aziz ibn Saud. The country remains a monarchy ruled by a king chosen from, and by, members of the Al-Saud family. Since King Abdul Aziz's death in 1953, he has been succeeded by various sons. King Fahd is Saudi Arabia's present head of state; however, since he had a series of strokes in 1995 his half brother, Crown Prince Abdullah, has effectively been in control.

Bordering the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, Saudi Arabia is a large country of 1,960,582 square kilometers. It shares borders with Yemen, Oman, the United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Kuwait, Iraq, and Jordan. The Kingdom has a harsh climate with extreme temperatures and mostly consists of



uninhabited desert, with less than 3% of its land being arable. It has a population of 24 million people (July 2003 estimate), and the workforce is mainly employed in the oil industry. This dependence on the oil industry—oil revenue comprises 75% of the national income—is the Saudi Arabian government's most urgent problem as it faces dwindling oil reserves and fluctuating oil prices. Unemployment is another major problem and is currently between 15% and 20% of the workforce.

NATIONAL SECURITY

The National Guard is primarily concerned with internal security. The police and security forces are controlled by the central government through the Ministry of the Interior. However, the National Guard is the most prominent internal security force and is under the direct control of the king. It is seen as a counterbalance to the regular army, and units of the Guard were involved in the earliest and heaviest of the fighting in the Gulf War of 1990. There are other security forces: Investigation, the Coast Guard, the Special Security Force, the Public Security Directorates, the Frontier Force, and the nationwide police force, all of which are controlled by the Ministry of the Interior. The National Guard, the Coast Guard, the Frontier Force, and the Special Security Force are viewed as paramilitary forces.

JUDICIAL SYSTEM

King Abdul Aziz unified the judicial system of Saudi Arabia before he had taken full control of the country. In 1927 a Royal Decree was issued that classified the judicial institutions into three hierarchical categories: expeditious courts, Shari'ah courts, and the Commission on Judicial Supervision. These classifications remain basically the same today.

Islam pervades all areas of life in Saudi Arabia, and state and religion are inseparable; the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is a model of an Islamic state governed by the Holy Qu'ran. Consequently, the Ulama (religious leaders) have had a great influence on the country's government since its foundation. In fact, without the support of the Ulama, King Abdul Aziz may have found it impossible to gain control of all of what is now modern-day Saudi Arabia. Religious leaders play a key role in the judicial system—in the implementation of the rules of the Shari'ah, in Islamic legal education, and in religious jurisprudence.

LAW ENFORCEMENT

Despite the modern organs of government mentioned in the previous section, the king still allows tribal leaders considerable autonomy in return for their loyalty. Under this system, offenses are punished by the tribal leader, who can call on the National Guard for support if necessary. The same can be said for the provincial governors, who also exercise considerable authority over the Public Security Police, though the latter are nominally under the control of the Ministry of the Interior.

The police forces have been extensively modernized since the early 1970s and boast the latest communications equipment, sophisticated mobile units, and helicopters. The Ministry of the Interior also has a centralized computer system at the National Information Centre in Riyadh, the country's capital city.

POLICE FORCES

The main policing organizations are:

- The police forces are divided into the regular police force and the special investigative police of

the General Directorate of Investigation (GDI), commonly known as the secret police. The GDI conducts criminal investigations and performs the domestic security and counterintelligence functions of the Ministry of the Interior.

- The Directorate of Intelligence is responsible for all of the nation's intelligence collection and is directly responsible to the king. Officials of this department are authorized to carry out wiretaps and mail surveillance.
- The Special Security Force is the Saudi Arabian equivalent of a special weapons and assault team.
- The Coast Guard's primary responsibility is the prevention of smuggling; it operates from ports in the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea.
- The Frontier Force patrols the borders and carries out customs inspections.

The *muttawa* are the religious police, an autonomous body responsible for upholding standards of public behavior, such as the public observance of dress codes for women, the five daily prayers, and fasting during Ramadan. Sheik Ibrahim al-Ghaith, chief of the 5,000-man *muttawa*, told the Associated Press, in a rare interview with the Western media, that making the agency more professional was a priority. However, political analyst Dawood al-Shirian has noted that in addition to such changes of style, the broadened mandate of the *muttawa* needed to also be reviewed. Sheik Al-Ghaith said that since 2002, senior judges and university professors have been teaching the *muttawa* how to deal with violators and that they are now "dealing more pleasantly with others" and have received "plenty of praise from citizens." He also added that the force "does not condone excesses" and emphasized that the "Royal decree to discipline civil servants" also applied to the *muttawa*.

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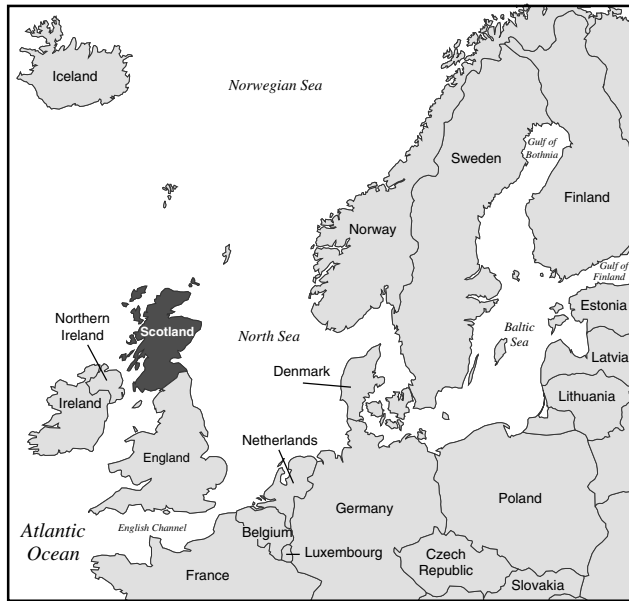
SCOTLAND

Scotland is the most northerly country of the United Kingdom, which also consists of England, Wales, and Northern Ireland. Scotland became part of the United Kingdom after an Act of Union with England in 1707. The name *Scotland* was derived from a tribe of Irish settlers. The country is bounded by England in the south and by the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea on the other three sides.

The mostly hilly Scottish terrain is divided into three geographic regions—the Highlands, the Central Lowlands, and the Southern Uplands. The Industrial Revolution began to take effect in Scotland in the 1820s, and the textile industry was soon replaced by iron and steel production, coal mining, and shipbuilding. In the 1970s and early 1980s, the growth of the North Sea oil industry created many jobs, but this industry went into recession in the late 1980s, and many jobs were lost as a result. The once-strong steel and shipbuilding industries have similarly declined quite significantly in recent years. Nowadays the service sector accounts for more than 50% of total employment and economic output.

POLITICAL AND CONSTITUTIONAL REFORM

The Conservative Government introduced the Local Government (Scotland) Act in 1994, which replaced the regional and district system with single-tier local authorities. This resulted in 32 single-tier authorities being introduced. In practical terms this meant that many services, such as police and fire, run by smaller councils, were now made jointly



available on the grounds of cost and efficiency savings. In terms of police governance, instead of six regional police boards and two joint boards, there were now six joint boards and two unitary ones.

The political process of devolution has witnessed the creation of new parliaments and assemblies in Scotland, as well as in other parts of the United Kingdom such as Wales and Northern Ireland. The Scotland Act 1998 created a devolved Scottish Parliament and the Scottish Executive, which effectively meant that more control could be exerted from politicians in Edinburgh rather than those in Westminster. Scottish policing effectively became a matter for the devolved Scottish Parliament.

TRIPARTITE POLICING

Creation and Amalgamation

Under the Police (Scotland) Act 1857, Scottish burghs and counties had a statutory obligation to maintain their own forces. The Burgh Police (Scotland) Act of 1892 put policing in the towns under the control of local town councils, and the Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1929 extended this to county councils. Despite this appearance and to some extent practice of localized policing, an Inspectorate of Constabulary came into being in

1857. This body created certain centralized regulatory procedures. In 1900 there were some 64 forces, but this number has been reduced by amalgamations that have occurred throughout the century. As a result of the Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1973, just 2 years later there were 8 forces in Scotland. The forces are:

- Northern
- Grampian
- Tayside
- Central
- Fife
- Strathclyde
- Lothian and Borders
- Dumfries and Galloway

Accountability

The chief officer, joint police boards, and the Justice Department of the Scottish Executive share the responsibility for the delivery of policing within force areas. Chief officers are referred to as Chief Constables and are nonpolitical in that their main responsibility is the independent management of police operations. Members of joint police boards are locally elected counselors who have responsibility for making decisions on the budget and resources of a force. The ministers that make up the Scottish Executive have overall responsibility for the direction of policing policy. Since the more recent political and constitutional reforms, however, the Scottish Executive can direct chief officers to address in their annual reports specific policing issues that the Executive considers important. The Executive includes a Justice Minister, who has a number of responsibilities including policing. By means of the Justice Minister, the Scottish Executive sets performance targets for chief officers and police authorities. The national targets set for 2003-2004 were based around house breaking, drugs, road traffic casualties, racial incidents, serious violent crime, and vehicle crime. Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary for Scotland has the power to direct police boards to take certain "remedial" measures on the grounds of "inefficiency."

Crime

During the year 2002-2003, recorded crime in Scotland fell by 2%, with a total of 418,384 crimes being recorded. Detections of crimes were at a record high level of 46%. In terms of major operational demands, in the wake of September 11, 2001, counterterrorist measures have taken precedence. An antipedophile computer crime investigative action called *Operation Ore* was also initiated during this time.

Community Safety

As with England, there is an overriding philosophy that community safety is a social problem and not just a policing problem. This means that in practice, partnership working is encouraged. The Local Government in Scotland Act 2003 aims to promote more effective cooperation and collaboration between criminal justice agencies, including policing. In addition to this, the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act of 2003 places a new duty on both the police and local authorities to plan and publish a joint antisocial behavior strategy.

Diversity

Under the Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000, public authorities, including the police, have a legal duty to eliminate unlawful racial discrimination. In addition to this, by the end of 2002, individual police forces had to publish race equality schemes setting out how they would consult the community and deliver quality of service in terms of promoting race relations.

Personnel

In March 2003, there were 15,517 police officers (including 145 officers from minority ethnic communities), 6,238 support staff, and 1,136 special constables. During 2002-2003, 535 new officers joined the service and 58 were recruited by means of transferring from other forces or being reappointed.

CONCLUSIONS

According to Donnelly and Scott (2002), it is highly likely that more recent constitutional changes and policies from central government have increased the centralization rather than the devolution of policing in Scotland. In addition to the Inspectorate, there is the Accounts Commission and Audit Scotland (established in April 2000), which attempt to ensure that the centralized standards of the *Best Value* regime are met by forces. In operational terms, the creation of the Scottish Drug Enforcement Agency is a new centralized service, for example. The prospect of there being a single national force remains a distinct possibility not least because of the relatively small size of the country.

Matt Long

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✎ SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO

Serbia and Montenegro is a federation of approximately 10.5 million people situated in the heart of the Balkan region, and is bordered by Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Albania, and the Former Yugoslavian Republic of Macedonia (FYROM). It changed its name from the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia in 2003 and is a federation of two republics (Serbia and Montenegro) and two autonomous provinces (Kosovo and Vojvodina). The executive branch of the government consists of the President as head of state and the Prime Minister as the head of government in conjunction with a cabinet drawn from a unicameral parliament. The legal system is based on the continental (civil law) model. Kosovo



province has been administered by international peacekeepers since 1999.

Serbia and Montenegro is a successor state to the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, whose dissolve was violently fought by Serbia and its president Slobodan Milosević. Milosević's goal was for all Serbs to live in a single state. His murderous attempts to achieve this goal in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Kosovo resulted in his trial on charges of war crimes and crimes against humanity at an ad hoc International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia in The Hague, the Netherlands.

THE STRUCTURE OF LAW ENFORCEMENT IN SERBIA AND MONTENEGRO

At the end of World War II, the police force was established in Yugoslavia as a state security force under the direct control of the Socialist Party, with officers recruited primarily on the basis of their commitment to the new regime and their wartime service record, as opposed to professional law enforcement or policing experience. Initially this new police force was divided into two main sections: uniformed and nonuniformed. The uniformed police existed largely to assist in the maintenance of public order and to serve as a visible deterrent

for criminals. The nonuniformed police, who were typically better educated and more politically connected, were responsible for investigating crime and, more importantly, repressing political dissent. In addition to the uniformed and nonuniformed branches, the police force in Yugoslavia also consisted of members of the state security service. Although not formally responsible for domestic law enforcement, state agents were typically assigned to local police stations, where they dealt with matters relating to state security and worked to ensure that local officers remained loyal to the objectives of the ruling socialist party.

As of 2002, there were federal- and republic-level police forces in Yugoslavia: under the Federal Ministry of Internal Affairs (FMIA), the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Serbia (MIARS), and the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Montenegro (MIARM). In principle, the FMIA is responsible, according to the 1994 Federal Ordinance on the Formation of Federal Ministries, for protecting the security of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, while the MIARS and the MIARM are charged with the task of upholding and protecting the laws established under each Republic's respective Constitution. In practice, this means that the federal police oversee all matters relating to VIP protection, diplomatic security, issues of transnational policing, and border control. In contrast, police under the authority of the MIARS work within one of the 11 main directorates, and are responsible for matters ranging from crime investigation and the registration of aliens to traffic control and local uniformed policing. Similar divisions of responsibility exist within the MIARM. While all three ministries operate independently of one another and maintain separate commands, in practice, this division of responsibility is not always strictly observed, and the ministries continue to share responsibility for such things as passport and immigration control, identity cards, border policing, and the movement of weapons and dangerous goods throughout the republics.

According to figures released by the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE), in October 2001 in Serbia, the Ministry of

Internal Affairs had approximately 35,000 staff members: 21,000 were uniformed officers and 6,000 were either plainclothes officers or engaged in scientific support; this was a ratio of 1 per 275 of Serbia's approximately 7.5 million inhabitants (excluding Kosovo). In contrast, in Montenegro the Ministry of the Interior consisted of 10,000 members: 3,800 serving as uniformed officers and a further 427 in plainclothes units; this meant a ratio of 1 for every 150 of Montenegro's approximately 650,000 inhabitants.

EFFORTS TO REFORM POLICING AND LAW ENFORCEMENT IN YUGOSLAVIA

It can be argued that in the past, policing in Yugoslavia was characterized by a blurring of the boundaries between military and state law enforcement. Before October 2000, it was not uncommon for police officers to also hold military ranks and to serve in local militias. In addition, during the period presided over by the Milosević regime there were strong formal and informal links between the police and the state security services, with state agents often working in police stations and having unrestricted access to police records and files. The activities of the police were nominally regulated. For example, in Serbia the Law on Internal Affairs (1991) stated that the function of the police is to protect the security of the Republic as well as exercise rights provided to citizens under the Constitution and the law. In practice the police were highly politicized and functioned primarily as servants of the regime, often actively working to suppress opposition groups and political parties. As a consequence, the police were seen by many members of the public as a part of the state's extensive and repressive security network, and they were regarded with a mixture of fear and mistrust.

As of 2004, the structure of policing and law enforcement in the former Yugoslavia was going through a process of considerable change and reform, primarily in an effort to restore public confidence in the police and to address specific problems, such as the absence of adequate due-process constraints and sufficient controls over police

powers, the lack of contact with international policing organizations, and difficulties associated with inadequate police resources. Although reform has been slow, some progress has been made. In February 2001, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Serbia took the unprecedented step of issuing an order reminding its officers of the need to comply with the legal constraints placed upon their powers and to execute their duties in full accordance with the law, which may have contributed to the reported decline in instances of police violence and misconduct. Further, there is evidence to suggest that inroads have been made into the persistent problem of police corruption, with recent opinion polls showing that the public has come to regard the police as being less corrupt than during the Milosević period. The OSCE is assisting both Republics' police forces in the transition to democracy through cooperative efforts in police education and development, accountability and internal control, organized crime, forensics, border policing, and community policing. The OSCE has also sponsored multiethnic police training, advanced police training, and prison staff training.

In Kosovo province, international forces have overseen the development of a police force to replace the Serbian police officers who implemented martial law from 1989 to 1999. This force was recruited and trained from scratch by the OSCE.

Benjamin Goold

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SEYCHELLES

The Seychelles are a group of small islands in the Indian Ocean northeast of Madagascar spread across an area of 1.4 million square kilometers. Most of its population of 82,000 people lives on three of the nation's 115 islands. Uninhabited when colonized by the French in 1742, it changed hands several times until being won by the United Kingdom in 1812. The Seychelles became independent from the United Kingdom in 1976. The economy of the Seychelles is dependent primarily on tourism, although tuna fishing is also an important sector. Its population is primarily the descendents of early French settlers or East African slaves freed by the British in the 19th century.

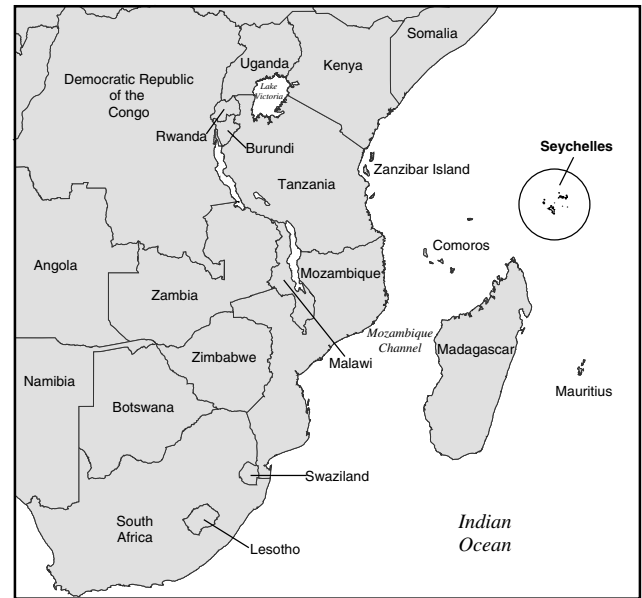
THE NATIONAL POLICE

The police force has 783 sworn officers, a ratio of 1 to every 105 inhabitants, including the Special Support Unit, the Fire Brigade, and Transport Security. One third of the regular police are women. The Special Support Unit, a paramilitary unit of 127 officers within the police, is a special weapons and tactical group that supports the Army for matters of internal security.

Structure and Organization

The National Police reports to the Police Commissioner in the Department of Internal Affairs, part of the president's office. Regular members are unarmed. Structurally, in addition to headquarters, the police organization includes a Criminal Investigation Unit (CIU), the Special Support Unit, Scientific Support and Crime Records Bureau, the Special Branch (responsible for intelligence), and the Fire Brigade.

The force is centralized throughout the three main islands and subdivided into districts with 17 police stations. This structure, modified in early 2004 from a hierarchical command system, allows for fewer administrative and operational command layers, prioritizing community response and relationships.



Ranks of the police are Commissioner, Chief Superintendent, Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Inspector, Subinspector, Sergeant, Corporal, Lance Corporal, Senior Constable, Constable, and Trainee Constable.

The police also oversees a control communication center, a traffic section, a police transport section, a family support squad (which is responsible for matters related to child abuse), and a police dog section (under rehabilitation, for drug control).

Training

Police recruits must be Seychellois citizens between the ages of 18 and 30 years, educated, motivated, and possessing good communications skills. The force provides pay incentives for O and A level certificates and diploma and degree holders. The police training academy, built in 1997, provides 15-week courses for recruits, in-service refresher training, 2-week supervisory officers' courses, 2-week promotion courses, and 4-week basic courses.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT UNITS

The Coast Guard carries out search and rescue of vessels and enforces environmental protection regulations.

In 2002, Seychelles had a defense force (Seychelles People's Defence Forces) of approximately 800 army personnel, including 300 in the presidential protection unit. The Army has one infantry battalion and two artillery elements. Paramilitary forces include a National Guard, consisting of 1,000 people, and a Coast Guard, which has an estimated 250 people and is divided into two divisions, the naval wing and security or infantry division.

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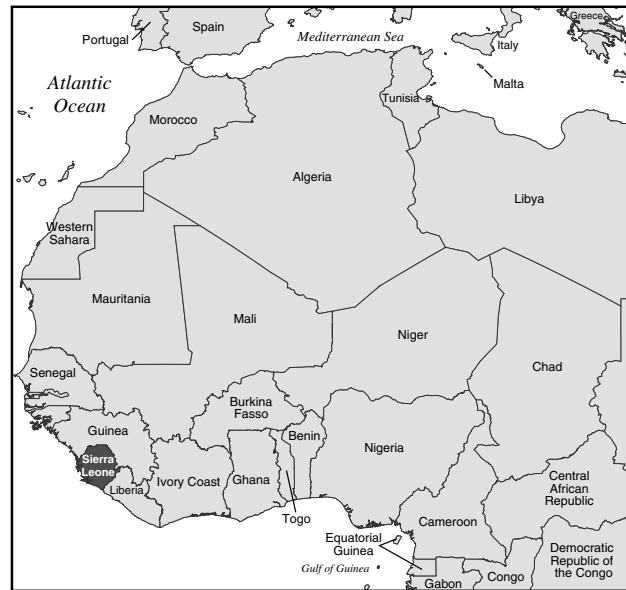
SIERRA LEONE

The Republic of Sierra Leone, with an estimated population of 5,600,000 people (2002), occupies 71,740 square kilometers on the west coast of Africa. The former British Protectorate gained independence in 1961, but remains one of the world's poorest and least developed countries despite vast deposits of diamonds and other natural resources. Sierra Leone is a member of the British Commonwealth and its capital, Freetown, is home to a strategic British naval base.

SIERRA LEONE POLICE

The original Sierra Leone Police (SLP), created in 1964, was a national, armed, civilian force, modeled on the British West Africa Frontier Force. The current SLP follows the British police model in organization and rank structure.

Sierra Leone's violent civil war between 1991 and January of 2001 caused tens of thousands of deaths, countless atrocities, and the displacement of



more than two million refugees to neighboring countries. During the crisis, civil society, the rule of law, and the criminal justice system were largely abandoned, until the United Nations established a fragile peace in 1998. The SLP, operating under the direction of the Sierra Leone military forces, remained loyal to the government. More than 800 officers were killed or murdered in the line of duty.

With restoration of an elective government and general political stability, Sierra Leone, assisted by Great Britain, has initiated a major reorganization of the SLP. Since 1998, a senior British police officer has served at the request of the President of Sierra Leone as Inspector General of Police (IGP), head of the SLP. The IGP and his senior SLP management team have developed a strategic 5-year "From Crises to Confidence" reorganization plan, which is designed to transform the force into a modern, civilian, service-oriented police organization. Implementation is well underway.

The initiative emphasizes community policing, decentralization of police services, the eradication of corruption, the promotion of ethical standards of behavior, and the introduction of modern police management practices. The new SLP has been deployed throughout the country. It has replaced all military and civil defense forces previously allocated to public safety and law enforcement duties.

STRENGTH AND STRUCTURE

All members of the SLP enter at constable level, and promotions come from within the force. Basic training is provided at the SLP Police Academy. Substantial recruiting and training improvements are in progress. Senior officers receive management development and specialized training in Great Britain.

Currently the SLP has 6,965 officers (2002), a ratio of 1 police officer per 806 citizens, and maintains 9 operational ranks (see Table 1):

Table 1 Operational Ranks of the SLP

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Number</i>
Deputy Inspector General	1
Senior Assistant Commissioner	4
Assistant Commissioner	11
Chief Superintendent	18
Superintendent	33
Assistant Superintendent	198
Inspector	417
Sergeant	1838
Constable	4251

The organization remains highly centralized. Most major support units operate from Force Headquarters in Freetown. They include:

- Criminal Investigation Department (CID)
- Complaints, Discipline, and Internal Investigations Department
- Special Branch
- Operations Support Division (public order)
- Media and Public Relations Department
- Estates Department
- Marine Department
- Equal Opportunities Department
- Research and Planning
- Police Training School
- Transport
- Communications
- Family Support Unit
- Community Relations Department
- Inspectorate
- Change Management

The SLP maintains four major operational divisions: Western Province, Northern Province,

Southern Province, and Eastern Province. Vigorous organizational reform has moved the force toward decentralization of resources and greater operational authority for local territorial commanders.

Serious crime is relatively low with an annual national homicide rate of less than 1 per 100,000 (2002). An influx of citizens from rural areas to cities, widespread poverty, and the repatriation of large numbers of refugees and combatants has led to some increases in robbery and auto crime, as well as problems with urban traffic congestion and road safety.

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY AGENCIES

Separate governmental organizations exist for the enforcement of customs and immigrations regulations.

A large, unregulated private security sector has developed since 1998. The SLP and the national government have moved to gain control of the regulation and licensing of private security companies and personnel.

Sierra Leone is a member of Interpol.

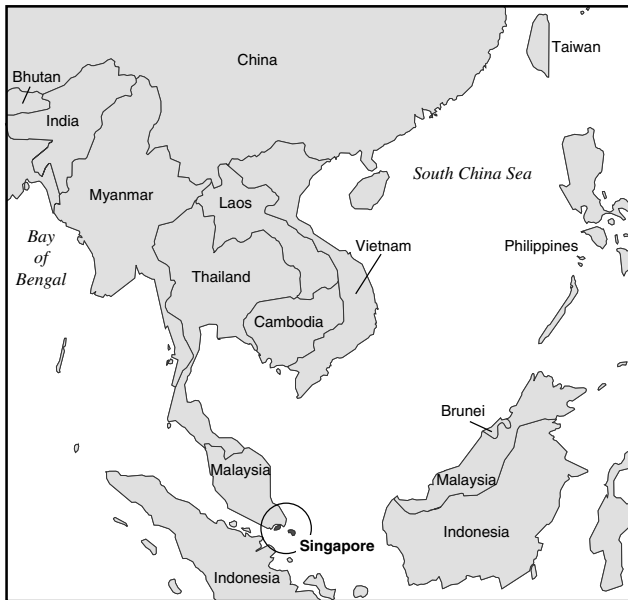
Stuart Cullen and William H. McDonald

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SINGAPORE

Singapore is a small island city–state, occupying 693 square kilometers on islands between Malaysia and Indonesia. Its population is 4.6 million people (July 2003 estimate). It was a British colony that briefly joined with Malaysia and then became independent in 1965. Singapore is one of the most prosperous countries in Asia, with a GNP that rivals



many western European countries. Foreign investment is aided by its largely corruption-free government, skilled work force, and highly developed infrastructure. Manufacturing (mostly electronics, but also biomedical and chemical industries) and financial services drive the economy.

Singapore also boasts a low crime rate; in 2001, the overall crime rate was 693 per 100,000 inhabitants. That year, there were 32 murders and 116 rapes. Financial fraud and crime were major crime concerns, but as a financial and Western-oriented powerhouse in Asia, police were increasingly vigilant for the possibility that Singapore would be targeted for terrorist acts.

SINGAPORE POLICE FORCE

The Singapore Police was founded in 1819. As of March 2002, the Singapore Police Force had 11,530 full-time officers (a ratio of 1 officer for every 400 inhabitants). This number consisted of 7,769 regular officers, 1,131 civilian officers, and 2,630 officers serving their national service full-time in the police. In addition, a total of 21,080 other Police National Servicemen and 1,267 Volunteer Special Constabulary (VSC) officers performed some policing duties. In 1997, 23% of the force was female.

Structure and Organization

The police is headed by a Police Commissioner, who has a Deputy and a Director for Special Duties. Six regional police divisions report directly to the Police Commissioner, as do specialized units. The staff department coordinates administrative functions such as manpower, planning, public affairs, organizing technology, as well as encompassing the criminal investigation department, the police national service department, the operations department, and VIP protection services (Security Command).

Police officer ranks are:

- Corporal
- Sergeant
- Staff Sergeant
- Senior Staff Sergeant
- Station Inspector
- Senior Station Inspector
- Senior Station Inspector (2)

Senior police officer ranks are:

- Inspector
- Assistant Superintendent
- Deputy Superintendent
- Superintendent
- Deputy Assistant Commissioner
- Assistant Commissioner
- Senior Assistant Commissioner

Police officers enter the force at the rank of corporal or sergeant, depending on educational qualifications, which must include passing at least five secondary school exams. A senior police officer's initial rank also depends on education, which must consist of a college degree.

The six land units are each headed by a divisional headquarters. Each is served by a number of neighborhood police centers, which are centers established to coordinate police work under one roof. Land divisions' responsibilities vary depending on the particularities of the territory they cover, but typically involve patrols, spot checks/road blocks, and house visits to ensure communication and connection to the community. Some divisions

continue to maintain decentralized Neighborhood Police Posts.

The Criminal Investigation Department consists of some 450 officers (including civilian officers) that investigate major crimes, special organized crimes (such as secret societies, gambling, a vice squad, and intellectual property rights), and cyber crime. There are also divisions within the CID for operations and investigation, policy development, research, and planning. An investigation support division not only provides forensic support services but also maintains the criminal records office, a specialized interview branch, and a corporate service branch. The CID also has a school of criminal investigation for law enforcement officers engaged in investigations.

In Singapore, able-bodied male citizens must serve 12 months of national service. Some 20,000 of these are deployed in the police, where since 1994 they have been deployed into five functional groups:

1. Key Installations
2. Patrol and Neighborhood Police Post
3. Light Strike Force (LSF)
4. Headquarter staff
5. Service and Support Reinforcement Troops

Police national servicemen can also be deployed into leadership positions.

Community Focus

Singapore's police is strongly oriented toward community service. In 2001, more than 50% of resolved crimes were solved with the assistance of the public. While community policing was high on its agenda even before a 1993 restructuring, in recent years the emphasis has become drawn more toward ensuring and clarifying public expectations of the police. Part of this was achieved by introducing a system of neighborhood police centers, centralized stations where citizens are able to have their needs addressed under a single roof. As of the 2002, there were 31 neighborhood police centers throughout Singapore, frequently co-located with other

community centers or services. One strategic initiative to enhance the police's partnership with the community is the Community Safety and Security Program (CSSP). Projects that are part of this program include care and support programs for crime victims, youth at risk, and foreign domestic workers, as well as initiatives such as safe drive zones and neighborhood watch zones.

In 2002, a museum of the police, the Police Heritage Center, was opened in Singapore to create an awareness of the genesis, development, and milestones of the police and foster a sense of awareness between the police and community. It also maintains the archives and records of the police.

Specialized Units

There are six specialized units of the police reporting directly to the Police Commissioner:

1. Airport Police
2. Coast Guard
3. Special Operations Command
4. Traffic Police
5. Volunteer Special Constabulary
6. Training Command

The *Airport Police* ensures safe passage for arriving and departing passengers and a secure environment for all airport operations.

The *Coast Guard*, known as the Marine Police until 1993, is responsible for law enforcement duties at sea including joint operations with the Republic of Singapore Navy (RSN), anti-illegal migrant operations, handling foreign government vessel intrusions, and guarding Horsburgh Lighthouse in the Singapore Straits. It operates out of four regional bases.

All elite tactical units in Singapore are concentrated under a single *Special Operations Command*, reporting directly to the Police Commissioner. These include the Police Task Force (PTF), the Special Tactics and Rescue (STAR) Unit (which replaced the Police Tactical Team [PTT] in 1993), the Police Dog Unit, the National Servicemen Key

Installation Unit Training, and the Police National Service Full-time Light Strike Force. It also provides secretariat support for Singapore's contributions to the United Nations Peacekeeping Forces and the Crisis Negotiation Unit. The Police Task Force, originally an anti-riot squad, is responsible for restoring public order during times of national disaster or public disturbance. The STAR Unit intervenes in cases requiring tactical expertise, such as hostage rescues and apprehension of particularly dangerous criminals.

The *Traffic Police* maintains law and order on the roads of Singapore and promotes road traffic safety by influencing the behavior and skills of road users.

The *Volunteer Special Constabulary* is an auxiliary force of approximately 1,200 officers up to the age of 50 years (55 for senior officers), who serve for a minimum of 16 hours per month (24 for senior officers). They augment the regular police force in the regular land divisions, Airport Police, Police Coast Guard, Traffic Police, Central Narcotics Bureau, and Training Command. Volunteers undergo a part-time training course (evenings, twice weekly, for 6 months) that teaches basic police skills, basic legal knowledge, street craft, firearms training, physical training, drills, and unarmed combat.

Recruitment and Training

Candidates for the force must meet requirements for height, weight, eyesight, and education, and be Singapore citizens or permanent residents at least 18 years old.

New recruits are trained in a 6-month Police Officer Basic Course at a residential academy. Recruits undergo physical training, as well as training in weapons use, unarmed combat fighting and basic foot drill. They are also taught police procedures and regulations, criminal law, and the basics of investigation. Upon completing the academy, depending on their qualifications as well as vacancies, officers are assigned to posts in a Land Division headquarters, Neighborhood Police Center, or a Specialized Police Unit.

A continuing education program allows police officers to take courses part-time to improve their

skills and eligibility for promotion. Eligible officers can be sponsored, and their registration fees, course fees, and examination fees are paid subject to a service bond upon the completion of their sponsored courses.

Accountability

Police review is conducted through the Police Service and Inspectorate Division, which investigates offenses and recommends corrective action. External review is also available to address complaints through the Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau. This body, which is part of the Prime Minister's Office, investigates corruption in both the public and private sectors.

Johanna Bjorken

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SLOVAKIA

Situated in Central Europe, with an area of 49,036 square kilometers, the Slovak Republic has a population of almost 5.5 million people. After agreeing to separate peacefully from the Czech Republic, the country became independent on January 1, 1993. The capital is Bratislava. The primary police agency is a national Police Force under the supervision of the Ministry of the Interior, an armed security corps that deals with all matters of internal order and security. Although an accurate estimate of the number of current Police Force personnel is unavailable, there were 20,208 in 2000, representing 1 officer for every 374 citizens; 10% of the officers at that time were women, and the number was increasing.

Crime in general in the Slovak Republic has gradually decreased since peaking in the mid-1990s, but violent crime increased almost 20%



during this same period. The homicide rate for the country is 2.54 per 100,000 people and is slightly higher (3.49) in Bratislava. Drug trafficking has increased dramatically since 2000 and has become of particular interest to the police in recent years, with moderate success in dealing with it.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The Police Force consists of seven departments or services:

1. Service of the criminal police
2. Service of the financial police
3. Service of the public order police
4. Service of the traffic police
5. Service for the protection of premises
6. Service of the border police
7. Special police services

It is the Ministry of the Interior that establishes and abolishes these departments and defines their specific roles and duties under the Constitution and constitutional law.

Financial police deal with money laundering and other white-collar crimes. Police officials have said

that there has been an increase in the incidence of economic and financial crime over the last few years, in part as a result of a growing awareness and expertise among businessmen in how to commit these crimes. Officers in the special police services are used in terrorist, hijacking, or kidnapping situations, as well as natural disasters and rescue operations.

Organized crime, especially by gangs from Ukraine, increased markedly during the 1990s, and Slovakian police have begun new cooperative efforts with other police forces in other countries. The country has also joined OCTOPUS, a joint European Commission and Council of Europe project to combat organized crime and corruption.

To be a member of the Police Force, one must be a citizen at least 18 years of age and have passed the exit examination at a secondary school or have been graduated from a technical college or university. To be appointed as an investigator, a police officer must be 24 years of age, have a law degree or a degree in security services (master's level), have completed a period of probation of 1 year, and successfully passed the final investigator's exam. The Minister of the Interior can also appoint a police officer as an investigator who has a degree other than law or security services but who meets all the other requirements.

Article 70 of the National Council of the Slovak Republic Act No.171 (1993) states that the government can subordinate members of the military on active duty to the command of the Police Force if necessary to safeguard protection of the state border, guarded premises, or public peace. They retain their military uniform with the addition of a police badge or patch.

Volunteer peace officers are also authorized to assist the border and traffic police services, by supervising the security and efficient operation of automobile traffic on the roads and by patrolling the state borders. The peace officer should be 21 years of age and "enjoy the confidence and respect among citizens" (Act No. 71, 1993).

Slovakian police are armed and there are strict guidelines for the use of a weapon (specified in Article 61 of Act No. 171, 1993), but a great deal of

discretion is left to the individual officer. Incidences of excessive use of force by the police are rare, with the exception of certain ethnic minorities, especially the Roma.

CORRUPTION AND HUMAN RIGHTS

The Roma present a difficult and persistent problem for the Slovakian police and are often the targets, as are other minority groups, of racially motivated violence by citizens as well as authorities. The rate of crime among the Roma is much higher than among the general population, primarily because of their unfavorable economic situation and high unemployment. Amnesty International and other similar groups have also reported numerous instances of forced sterilization of Romany women, physical and verbal abuse by police, racially disparate standards of health care, and other examples of overt discrimination. There were other reports of violent police raids on entire Romany communities, ostensibly in order to arrest criminal suspects.

In February 2002, Minister of the Interior Ivan Šimko, in an attempt to curb corruption, formulated the Code of Ethics of the Police Force Members, which guides officers, both practically and philosophically, in the performance of their duties. A 2002 survey published by the Slovak Statistics Office showed that three out of four Slovaks have little or no confidence in the police, and public support was at one of the lowest levels in the country's short history. Increasing levels of violence by skinheads and other racist groups led the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination to recommend that Slovakia strengthen procedures for timely and thorough investigations and effective prosecutions against these organizations.

Charles B. Fields

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☞ SLOVENIA

Slovenia is a Central European country, which declared its independence on June 25, 1991. The next day, the Yugoslav Army attacked the newly formed state. A truce was called after a 10-day war. The European Union (EU) recognized Slovenia in the middle of January 1992, and the United Nations (UN) accepted it as a member in May 1992. In 2004, Slovenia entered the EU as a member state. The country has 20,273 square kilometers of land and a population of 1,965,986 people, of which 87.9% are Slovenes. The official language is Slovene. The majority of Slovenes are Roman Catholics, the capital city is Ljubljana, and in 1999 the per capita annual income was \$10,078.

In 2001, the police recorded 74,795 criminal offenses, which is 10.6% more than a year before. Statistical data indicate that residents of Slovenia are still relatively safe from crime. However, the predictions of experts concerning the strengthening of organized and transnational crime; an increase in crime with elements of psychological and physical violence; and the exploitation of new crime techniques, especially communication technologies and devices for the commission of criminal offenses, have come true.

In the 1990s, Slovenia faced big migration waves because of the war in a part of the former Yugoslavia. To a considerable extent, this was illegal migration, with the police facing serious problems related to the uncovering of smuggling people from the East across the Slovenian border. The highest number of illegal migration attempts (35,892) was noted in the year 2000, but it decreased significantly in the next year (to 20,871) and is currently still decreasing. The great majority



of illegal immigrants were, at first, citizens of Romania, Iraq, Turkey, and Yugoslavia, while more recently, the number of those from Bangladesh, Moldova, and Iran is ever more increasing. In this period, a lot of attention has been directed toward returning these illegal immigrants to their home countries in accordance with relevant bilateral agreements on return, and a new system of border control was set in place. At the moment, Slovenia is adopting the proceedings according to Schengen standards, which the police have gradually begun to introduce and apply in their protection of the borders of the EU.

As to the ways and means of policing, community policing has been accepted as a policing approach from the early 1990s. Since then, special police officers (community policing officers [CPOs]) have been responsible for policing in and with the community. Each CPO is responsible for one policing area. The area of a police station is divided into a few security areas, and CPOs coordinate police activities in it. In 2003, community policing was adopted as an official policing philosophy of the Slovenian police and made part of appropriately scheduled and relevant 5-year strategic plans. The process of implementation of community policing in everyday policing, including organizational reorganization, is still under way.

POLICE PROFILE

The police perform their tasks at three levels: state, regional, local. The organization consists of:

- A General Police Directorate
- Regional Police Directorates
- Police Stations

Within the General Police Directorate, there are:

- The Uniformed Police Directorate (with sectors for public order, traffic, state borders and foreigners, the organization and development of uniformed police, as well as the Flight Police Unit, the Center for Foreigners, and the Police Orchestra)
- The Criminal Investigation Police Directorate (with sectors for general, white-collar, and organized crimes; special tasks; computer crime; criminal analysis; and the Forensic and Research Center)
- The Operations and Communications Center
- The Security and Protection Bureau
- The Special Unit
- The Common Services
- The Informatics and Telecommunications Service
- The Personnel Department and the Police Academy

On the regional level, there are 11 Police Directorates located in major cities across Slovenia. Regional Police Directorates supervise the work of police stations on the local level. There are 98 police stations in Slovenia.

All together, there were 6,882 police officers and 716 detectives employed by the Slovenian Police in 2001, which gave the ratio of 274 police officers and 36 detectives per 100,000 inhabitants (or 1 officer per approximately 323 people). Their average age was 31 years; the average length of service was 13.5 years. The vast majority (70%) had a high school education, while some 20% had education above the high school level. Eighty percent of them were males. To become a police officer, a candidate must have a high school degree (12 years of schooling) and possess appropriate mental and physical abilities. He or she has to be a citizen of Slovenia with a permanent address in Slovenia, not older than 30 years, and free of criminal charges or convictions. After being employed, each police officer

has to complete an 18-month basic training program at the Police Academy. At the Police Academy police officers can also obtain an associate degree. The only institution for university-level education and research for the police is the College of Police and Security Studies. Currently, the college is offering a 3-year program in police and security studies, and in 2003, the College will be transformed into the Faculty of Criminal Justice.

The Slovenian police have been very active in the field of international cooperation. Slovenia has been a member of Interpol from the early 1990s, and, recently, of Europol, and is involved in strong bilateral operational cooperation with the police forces of the neighboring countries. In addition, Slovenia is a member of MEPA (Middle European Police Academy) and regularly participates in its training programs. Lately, it has been involved in strengthening participation in the programs organized by AEPC (Association of European Police Colleges) and CEPOL (European Police College).

POLICE TASKS

Pursuant to the law, the police service performs the following tasks:

- Protecting life, personal safety, and property of people
- Preventing, discovering, and inspecting penal acts and minor offenses; discovering and arresting those committing penal acts and minor offenses; apprehending other wanted persons and facilitating their extradition to the authorized bodies
- Maintaining public order
- Control and regulation of traffic on public roads and noncategorized roads used for public traffic
- Protecting the state border and performing border control
- Performing tasks defined in the regulations about foreigners
- Protecting certain persons, bodies, buildings, and districts
- Protecting certain working places and the secrecy of information of state bodies, if not otherwise defined by law
- Performing tasks defined in the Law on Police and other laws and secondary legislation documents

Police powers are defined in Article 33 of the Police Act, which states:

In performing their tasks, police officers can issue warnings and orders, establish identity and perform identification procedures, examine persons for security reasons, invite, perform security controls, prohibit movement, perform antiterrorist inspection of premises, devices and areas, arrest and detain persons, order stricter police control, confiscate objects, enter premises, use transport and communication means, use secret police measures, coercive means and use other authorities defined by law.

ACCOUNTABILITY MECHANISMS

Because of past experience (in the former Communist Yugoslavia), there are different mechanisms of accountability; within the police force, there is a special Department of Internal Control, which is responsible for controlling and maintaining proper police work, along with each local police station's Chief of Police. In 2001, 256 criminal offenses that police officers were alleged to have committed were addressed. The Inspector of the Internal Control Department devoted special attention to detection and investigation of the criminal offenses against human rights and freedoms and those against official duty and public authorizations. As the police are partially autonomous within the scope of the Ministry of the Interior, there is a special directorate responsible for supervision of police work, setting strategic goals for the police force, and for providing adequate instruction to the police management staff in areas they supervise.

In the field of solving complaints, a new approach has been in use since 2000 that involves the public. The board dealing with such complaints includes representatives of the public as well as members of the police trade union; this structure helps ensure there will be impartial decisions in these matters. In 2001, 865 complaints were solved, 13.5% of which were justified. There are, however, other important accountability mechanisms outside the police and the Ministry of the Interior—a parliamentary investigation committee, the parliamentary bodies responsible for police organization

supervision, and, in recent years, the Slovenian Ombudsman. They all have had considerable powers relating to daily supervision of the police, with the Ombudsman, in particular, having participated very actively in these procedures.

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SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa is located at the southern tip of Africa. It has an area of 1.2 million square kilometers and a population of approximately 45.5 million people (2002 estimates). European settlement of the lands began in the 17th century, when the Dutch East India Company established a station. Further inroads of French Huguenot, Dutch, and German settlers settled in coastal areas and began inroads inland, fighting the local Xhosa and other populations. The British established control of the cape and other areas in the 19th century, although the previous white “Afrikaner” settlers had strained relations with them and established independent republics. White rule continued even after the British and Afrikaner colonies united under British rule in 1910 as the Union of South Africa, a self-governing dominion of the British Empire. Despite the rise of a nationalist movement—eventually to become known as the African National Congress—that sought to remove racial distinctions from authority, white rule continued through most of the 20th century. The National Party which came to power in 1948 created—and vociferously enforced—the official policy of *apartheid* (i.e., the political, economic, and social domination of the nonwhite majority by the white minority). During

apartheid, blacks could not privately own land, mixed race marriages were prohibited, and non-whites were excluded from meaningful employment. Political leaders opposing apartheid, notably Nelson Mandela, the leader of the African National Congress, were imprisoned. After decades of struggle, often violent, apartheid began to crumble in the late 1980s, and free elections were held in 1994, electing Nelson Mandela as president.

SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Background and History: Legacy of Apartheid

Historically the police in South Africa were just one of the many government institutions used to support the succession of regimes committed to white domination. Though true decades before, this would be especially true when the National Party ruled the country (1948–1994). Up until 1994, when South Africa began its transformation from an authoritarian state to a democracy, for many the police in South Africa were synonymous with terror and brutality. The use of physical force—including deadly force—by police was not uncommon when attempting crowd control, and officers were highly effective at obtaining suspect confessions through violence.

During apartheid, especially during the 1980s when states of emergency were declared in

response to severe civil disorder and political violence, an estimated tens of thousands were detained by the country's security forces. A number of these detainees were subsequently tortured and/or died while in police custody. In addition there were specialized death squads of ordinary police officers (e.g., *Vlakplass*) targeting opponents of the regime for murder. Many of these police activities were later investigated by human rights groups (e.g., Amnesty International and Human Rights Watch), independent judicial inquiries (the Goldstone Commission), or, during South Africa's transition to democracy, by the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission. Some of those involved in these activities were eventually prosecuted, convicted, and punished, including by imprisonment.

Police had very close ties to the military. For example, although certainly not restricted to this period, during the mid-1980s black and "colored" townships were policed by both the police and the military. The organizational structure of the police was nearly identical to that of the military, in rank, uniform, and training.

Police were generally poorly educated and poorly trained, inadequately paid, worked under very stressful and dangerous conditions, and had few opportunities for advancement (especially non-white officers). Because of these factors, there was little emphasis on crime prevention. Instead, most police resources were directed at enforcing the rules of apartheid, for example, making sure nonwhites had the permits necessary for travel or work in white areas.

In the 10 "self-governing territories" or *homelands* (i.e., Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda, Ciskei, Kangwane, KwaNdebele, QwaQwa, Gazankulu, Lebowa, KwaZulu), policing was different. Populated mostly by black South Africans forcibly removed from their lands by the government, each homeland had its own government and police force but relied heavily upon the national government for support. South African police and military generals were at the top levels of many of the homelands' security forces. Some of these police forces (e.g., the KwaZulu Police) were notorious for their brutality and were

later implicated in gross atrocities. In the mid-1990s, all of these police forces—in addition to the force responsible for policing South Africa proper—were incorporated into a single agency, the South African Police Service (SAPS). Because the personnel—including senior police officials—from these 11 separate police forces retained their jobs within the new SAPS, changing the existing police culture has been a major challenge.

Police in South Africa Today: A New Mission

Excluding private security forces, policing in South Africa today occurs at two levels: at the federal/national level—by the SAPS—and, to a lesser extent, at the municipal level. Today's police in South Africa strive to meet democratic standards; in addition to defending the State from internal threats, the stated mission of the SAPS includes crime prevention, investigating criminal activity, and apprehending and assisting in the prosecution of suspects.

Significant hurdles confront the SAPS, both those stemming from society's structure and history and organization-specific challenges. Globally there is a need to address the concerns of two vastly different groups—white South Africans who need reassurance that their country will remain socially, politically, and economically stable; and nonwhites who, because of their experience of neglect and/or outright abuse by police during apartheid, came to distrust and fear the police. This dual concern is especially pertinent considering the crime increases since the mid-1980s. Organization-specific challenges include corruption (primarily at the lower levels), officers who engage in serious criminal behavior (e.g., robbery or murder), officers with HIV or AIDS, officer recruitment/retention, a significant rate of illiteracy among its officers, and a residual institutional tendency toward using physical force, including deadly force, when confronting and/or interrogating suspects.

Positive developments during the postapartheid era include a decreasing number of suspects escaping police custody and an improved information coordination—through electronic systems—with

prosecutors and judges. Technological sophistication is growing, particularly in preventing and responding to crime and coordinating anticrime efforts at both inter- and intra-agency levels. For example, DNA analysis has become more efficient, fingerprint analysis has become automated, and tools such as baggage and body scanners at entry points like airports are increasingly being used. Transformation and reorganization are continuing processes, and early 2004 initiatives included consolidating specialized detective units and providing local areas with specialized services in an effort to better target its resources. Finally, with the assistance of the international community, the SAPS has been working to improve the training of its officers and increasing a respect for human rights through a variety of educational and policy efforts.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS OF THE SAPS

The SAPS National Commissioner reports to the Minister of Safety and Security. Assisting top police and government officials in creating effective criminal justice policies and practices are advisory groups such as the Executive Coordinating Committee, the Management Forum of the South African Police Service, and a Ministerial Committee of the Department of Safety and Security.

Civilian oversight of the SAPS is the responsibility of the Ministry of Safety and Security, with assistance provided by the Secretariat of Safety and Security and the Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD). Independent of the SAPS, the ICD ensures that officers perform their duties in a professional and legal manner. It investigates allegations of illegal/improper behavior by officers; when suitable, cases are referred for criminal prosecution.

There are more than 101,000 police officers (a ratio of 1 officer for every 450 inhabitants), including commissioned and noncommissioned officers. Distribution varies, however, across the country's nine provinces; the ratio ranges from just 1 officer for every 746 citizens in Limpopo province to 1 officer for every 326 citizens in the Northern Cape. Females make up roughly 15% of the overall police

force (not including civilian personnel), whites approximately 25%, and blacks 62%.

In the 2002-2003 fiscal year, the SAPS budget was nearly 20 billion Rand (approximately U.S. \$3 billion), with approximately 43% of these funds directed at crime prevention efforts (South African Police Service, 2003).

Direct policing duties are primarily conducted by noncommissioned officers.

Noncommissioned officers include the ranks of constables, sergeants, and inspectors; commissioned officers range from captain to the national commissioner. The police force is top-heavy; for the 2002-2003 fiscal year the ratio of noncommissioned officers to commissioned officers was 5.8 to 1. More specifically, for every captain or superintendent, there was one constable (equivalent to a patrolman in an American police department). The reasons for this situation are complex but include affirmative action programs for commissioned officers, inadequate recruitment of new noncommissioned officers, and the lateral transfers of a large number of military personnel into the SAPS. In addition to being top-heavy, SAPS management is also disproportionately white; while roughly 12% of constables are white, approximately one in four inspectors are white, and almost half of all commissioned officers are white.

The SAPS organizational and command structure is very hierarchical. In terms of the organizational/command structure, the office of the National Commissioner—located in Pretoria, the country's administrative capital—is at the top, followed by five service groups and nine provincial offices. Headed by a Deputy National Commissioner—also located in Pretoria—each of the five service groups is comprised of two to four divisions headed by a Divisional Commissioner. In many instances there are provincial- and area-level counterparts to these divisions.

Three service groups provide support services:

1. The National Evaluation Service and Logistics Divisions use resources of the Logistical, Evaluation, Security, and Protection Services Group to provide quality services to the organization and

ensure that institutional resources are used efficiently and in the intended manner. The Protection and Security Services Division provides specialized crime prevention services such as providing officers as bodyguards for members of the government and foreign officials.

2. Human Resource Management and Legal Services Group is generally responsible for providing the organization with legal expertise (through its Legal Services Division), officer training (through the Training Division), and management of SAPS personnel through its Personnel Services and Career Management Divisions.
3. Through its Finance and Administration and Corporate Services Divisions, the Management, Financial, and Administration Services Group provides liaison services between it and outside organizations (e.g., media), strategic planning, information technology services, and management of the agency's budget.

The two remaining service groups can be characterized as crime fighters. Both the Operational Services Group (comprised of the Crime Prevention, Operational Coordination, and Operational Response Services Divisions) and the Crime Intelligence and Crime Detection Group (comprised of the Detective Services and the Crime Intelligence Divisions) work to both prevent and react to crime. For example, some of the specialized services provided by Operational Response Services are crowd and riot control, the policing of South Africa's borders, and air patrols. The Crime Prevention Division engages in an assortment of policing functions, including traditional street patrols, working with victims of domestic violence, hostage negotiation, and other crime-prevention efforts. The Detective Services operates in a reactive fashion by solving crimes committed by criminal syndicates, along with serious crimes impacting both businesses and individuals. Last, the Criminal Intelligence Division collects and analyzes crime-related intelligence, and one task of the Operational Coordination Division is to coordinate law enforcement efforts at the national level.

Commanded by a Provincial Commissioner, each provincial office is located within its respective

provincial capital. This provincial commissioner in turn oversees anywhere from three to eight police areas—each headed by an Area Commissioner—which is then in command of a number of police stations (each headed by a Station Commissioner). Finally, each Station Commissioner oversees smaller patrol areas. There are just over 1,100 SAPS police stations nationwide. Some stations have further divisions (or sectors) that reflect the SAPS attempts to institute community policing in some urban areas of the country.

THE MUNICIPAL POLICE

Other law enforcement entities, like the newly created municipal police, operate in some urban areas of the country (e.g., Cape Town, Johannesburg, and Durban). During apartheid, local police forces were used mostly within the black and colored townships and were often poorly trained, ill equipped, and brutal. Eventually many of these same officers became part of the larger SAPS. An exception was the local police in Durban (Durban City Police), a police force historically viewed favorably by city inhabitants.

Funding and control comes from local government. The municipal police are considered separate from their national counterpart and exist primarily to supplement larger federal law enforcement efforts. Thus, they frequently operate in conjunction with and with the tacit approval of the SAPS. Two examples are illustrative. First, when a municipal police officer makes an arrest, the suspect is not detained in a jail operated by the municipality but instead one operated by the national police. Second, before a municipality is given permission to operate its own police force, the nation's top SAPS official must be consulted.

In addition to assisting the SAPS in its crime control efforts, municipal police forces are also expected to enforce motor vehicle laws and regulations and local laws and ordinances.

South Africa is a member of Interpol and the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization, an organization made up of top police officials from more than 10 southern

African countries, as well as other international bodies.

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SPAIN

Spain is comprised of 17 autonomous communities within 192,584 square miles, with a population of 41,300,000 people (2003 estimate). Castilian is the primary official language, and there are four additional recognized languages: Basque, Catalan, Galecian, and Valenciano. As of January 2002, Spain joined 16 other European nations to adopt the euro as its official currency.

Spain is bordered by France to the northeast and Portugal to the southwest with large coastal areas bordering the Mediterranean and the North Atlantic. Notable landforms include the Meseta Plateau, surrounded by mountains (the Pyrenees, Cordillera Cantabrica, and Sierra Morenos), which covers the country's center. Major rivers include the Douro, Ebro, Guadalquivir, and Tagus. The capital is Madrid.

THE POLICE SYSTEM

The principal forces of public order and security as of 1988 were the Civil Guard and the National Police Corps (*Cuerpo Nacional de Policía*). The Civil Guard, fortified by nearly a century and a half of tradition, was a highly disciplined paramilitary body with close links to the army. As it evolved, it served mainly as a rural police to protect property and order and to reinforce the authority of the central government. Under Franco, a tripartite system of police was formalized:

1. The Civil Guard in rural areas
2. The Armed and Traffic Police (renamed the National Police in 1979), which fulfilled normal



police functions in communities with a population of more than 20,000

3. The Higher Police Corps of plainclothes police with responsibility for investigating crimes and political offenses

Separate municipal police forces under the control of local mayors were concerned mainly with traffic control and with enforcement of local ordinances.

During the Franco era, the police were regarded as a reactionary element, associated in the public mind with internal surveillance and political repression. The Civil Guard and the Armed and Traffic Police were legally part of the armed forces, and their senior officers were drawn from the army. The 1978 Constitution effects the separation of the police from the military, and it emphasizes that one of the functions of the police is to safeguard personal liberties. Article 104 of the 1978 Constitution states:

The Security Corps and Forces, responsible to the Government, shall have as their mission the protection of the free exercise of rights and liberties and the guaranteeing of the safety of citizens.

Although considerably delayed, a subsequent statute, the Organic Law on the Security Corps and

Forces, was enacted in March 1986 to incorporate the mandate of the Constitution to redefine the functions and the operating principles of the police forces. With its passage, the final legal steps had been taken to make the police system conform to the requirements of the democratic regime, although most observers concluded that it would be years before the reforms were fully in effect.

The new organic law provided a common ethical code for police practices, affirmed trade union rights, recast the role of the judicial police serving under the courts and the public prosecutors, combined the uniformed and the nonuniformed police into the single National Police Corps, and redefined the missions and the chains of command of the various police elements. The Civil Guard remained a separate paramilitary force, although in operational matters it was under the direction of the Ministry of the Interior rather than the Ministry of Defense. In time of war or emergency, it would revert to the authority of the Minister of Defense. In 1986, a new post of Secretary of State for Security was created in the Ministry of the Interior to coordinate the activities of the National Police Corps and the Civil Guard. The National Police Corps functioned under the directives of the director general of the National Police Corps, but local supervision was exercised by civil governors of the provinces where police forces served.

The Civil Guard is structured with three subbureaus: Operations, Personnel, and Support Services. The operational patrol units are Areas, Commands, Companies, and Positions.

Integrated to support the Police Mission are Armament and Equipment Services, Mobile Material Services, Computer Services, and Communications.

THE NATIONAL POLICE CORPS

The 1986 organic law unifying the separate uniformed and plainclothes branches of the national police was a major reform that required a considerable period of time to be brought into full effect. The former plainclothes service, known as the Higher Police Corps, but often referred to as the "secret police," consisted of some 9,000 officers.

Prior to 1986, it had a supervisory and coordinating role in police operations, conducted domestic surveillance, collected intelligence, investigated major crimes, issued identity documents, and carried out liaison with foreign police forces.

The uniformed service was a completely separate organization with a complement of approximately 50,000 officers, including a small number of female recruits who were first accepted for training in 1984. The Director General of the National Police Corps, a senior official of the Ministry of the Interior, commanded 13 regional headquarters, 50 provincial offices, and approximately 190 municipal police stations. In the nine largest cities, several district police stations served separate sections of the city. The Chief of Police of each station was in command of both the uniformed and the plainclothes officers attached to the station. A centrally controlled Special Operations Group (*Grupo Especial de Operaciones* [GEO]) was an elite fighting unit trained to deal with terrorist and hostage situations.

The principal weapons regularly used by the uniformed police were 9mm pistols, 9 mm submachine guns, CETME (*Centro de Estudios Tecnicos de Materiales Especiales*) and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) 7.62mm rifles, and various forms of riot equipment. The uniform consisted of light brown trousers and dark brown jackets.

TRAINING AND RECRUITMENT

The initial training phase for recruits to the National Police Corps was 9 months, followed by a year of practical training. Promotions to corporal, sergeant, and sergeant major were based on seniority, additional training, and performance. In the Franco era, most police officers were seconded from the army. Under a 1978 law, future police officers were to receive separate training, and army officers detailed to the police were to be permanently transferred. By 1986 only 170 army officers remained in the National Police Corps. Under the 1986 organic law, military-type training for police was to be terminated, and all candidate officers were to attend the

Higher Police School at Avila, which previously had served as the 3-year training center for the Higher Police Corps.

The ranks of the plainclothes corps—commissioners; subcommissioners; and inspectors of first, second, and third class—were to be assimilated into the ranking system of the uniformed police—colonel, lieutenant colonel, major, captain, and lieutenant. Two lower categories, subinspection and basic, would include all nonofficer uniformed personnel. The newly unified National Police Corps was to be responsible for issuing identity cards and passports, as well as for immigration and deportation controls, refugees, extradition, deportation, gambling controls, drugs, and supervision of private security forces.

To enter the Civil Guard today, there are two methods. Half of the positions are reserved for candidates with 3 years of specialized military service; the other half are for students of the School of Young Guards. Candidates must be 19 to 29 years of age, active military personnel, not older than 30 years of age, high school graduates, with no criminal history. Candidates must complete 1 academic year and 1 year of practical study in various specialties. Candidates can expect to conclude their service by age 58 years.

Promotions are strictly from within the ranks and all are eligible after 2 years of service in the ranks. A maximum of three recommendations are required with an age limit of 49 years. As an officer ascends through the ranks, additional training is necessary and maximum retirement age increases gradually. The general of a division must retire at 65 years of age.

POLICE FORCES

There are three separate police organizations, which can be confusing at first. The Guardia Civil wear green uniforms and are less reactionary today than they were during Franco's control. They are responsible for national security, customs, and for crowd control at large events. Their Traffic Department patrols the main highways with cars and motorbikes and organize radar speeding checks.

The National Police normally wear a black uniform and white shirts. Some wear a blue military-style uniform and can be heavily armed as their duties include guarding public buildings, the Royal Family, and government figures. They deal with most crime investigations. A victim of a bag-snatching crime, for example, would make a statement (*denuncia*) at a police station. The victim will receive a copy of the statement from the station for the insurance company (and banks if a credit card is taken and misused).

The Municipal Police are essentially local police and wear blue and white uniforms. They are responsible to the mayor and town hall in each municipality, and devote much time to local traffic control and parking violations. As ambassadors for their town, they are most likely to help tourists.

All three branches of the police are armed and should be treated with due respect. There are frequent traffic checks during the summer months, particularly on the Costa del Sol; drivers and passengers should always carry some form of identification; the driver must have a valid driving license and valid car insurance.

OTHER POLICE FORCES

Although their powers were quite limited, in most cases, the local police services of individual towns and cities supplemented the work of the National Police Corps, dealing with such matters as traffic, parking, monitoring public demonstrations, guarding municipal buildings, and enforcing local ordinances. They also collaborated with the National Police Corps by providing personnel to assist in crowd control. Numbering approximately 37,000 individuals in 1986, the local police were generally armed only with pistols.

Under the Statutes of Autonomy of 1979, the Basque Country and Catalonia were granted authority to form their own regional police forces. Subsequently, 10 of the 17 autonomous regions were extended the right to create their own forces, but, as of 1988, only three areas—the Basque Country, Catalonia, and Navarre—had developed regional police units. The 1986 organic law defined

the limits of competence for regional police forces, although the restrictions imposed did not apply to the existing forces in the Basque Country and Navarre, and applied only in part to those in Catalonia. Under the law, regional police could enforce regional legislation, protect regional offices, and, in cooperation with national forces, could police public places, control demonstrations and crowds, and perform duties in support of the judiciary. A Security Policy Council was established at the national level to ensure proper coordination with the new regional forces.

SPECIALIZED UNITS

In 1995 Spain adopted strong concerns for the crimes affecting women and children. They became a special concern for the Guardia Civil. The increase in criminal cases, and the number of victims and criminals involved in crimes against women and children, created a problem too large to be overlooked. They considered the basic moral axes of their society and created protections for this special class of people. The citizenry demanded action against criminals who demeaned their dignity, affected the physical and social well-being of their people, and left their women and children socially destitute.

A high priority of attention was given to a small Women Specialist Group called EMUNE. It created a department within the Guardia Civil that assured integral, personalized, and special attention from the moment the police were made aware of the facts. Domestic abuse, sexual assault, incest, trafficking in human beings, sexual exploitation/child pornography, and similar crimes were identified as detrimental to a civilized society. There are 108 officers assigned to the EMUNE Unit who work throughout the 50 providences.

A variety of services are provided for women who have been victimized by these opportunistic criminals. A 24-hour hotline is available to report crimes, seek assistance for employment, and obtain information about other social resources. The Women's Institute introduced Equalities of Opportunities through the development of Plans of Positive Action.

This is designed to promote women in the workplace and institute promotions as a habitual practice. By using these services, women can become less financially dependent on an abusive spouse or use desperate measures to support their family.

In 2001, Spain realized that a specialized unit was necessary to detect, track, and investigate international criminals. The breakup of the Soviet Union, the rising number of immigrants arriving from North Africa and South America and people fleeing armed conflicts brought new criminals. To accommodate their criminal activity, criminals formed violent organized syndicates. They used sophisticated forms of communication including the Internet, mobile phones, and specialized vehicles to facilitate their enterprise.

The Guardia Civil created an Operative Central Unit, similar to the FBI, to fight these criminal agents. Members are chosen from a variety of specialties: crimes against people, crimes against property, economic crimes, international crimes, arson, and terrorism. Upon selection, unit members must demonstrate their ability to collaborate and avoid any desire to be a protagonist.

Police officers are required to undergo severe hardships during undercover operations. Because of the complex nature of the investigations, investigators must have great mobility and live without family contact for extended periods of time. Perspective members endure a rigorous selection phase, are advised of the personal hardships, and require a sworn loyalty and commitment for several years. The Operative Central Unit has been recognized as an outstanding body of police by national organizations, the FBI, and New Scotland Yard.

In 2000, the Brigade of Technology Investigations (*La Brigada de Investigación Tecnológica*) was formed to carry out investigations of crimes committed with new technology and communications.

The Guardia Civil, which had 70,000 members in 2003 for a population of 41,300,000, has developed several specialized units to secure the borders, rural areas, national security, and coastal areas. They are stationed throughout the 50 provinces of Spain and rural areas and include:

- Helicopter Unit
- Marine Unit
- Special Intervention Unit (Emergency Services)
- Quick Action Unit
- Rural Antiterrorist Units
- Secret Service
- Crowd Control/Riot Control Unit
- K-9 Unit
- Bomb Squad
- Mountain Patrol Unit

On February 19, 2003, the Guardia Civil's Canine Unit reportedly detected more than 48 tons of drugs in 2002. Their Customs Service confiscated more than 100,000 ecstasy pills and detained more than 400 people for illicit drug trafficking. The Canine Unit also located 54 people, rescued 23, and recovered 31 (deceased) in rural mountain terrain.

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<http://www.worldatlas.com/webimage/countrys/europe/es.htm>

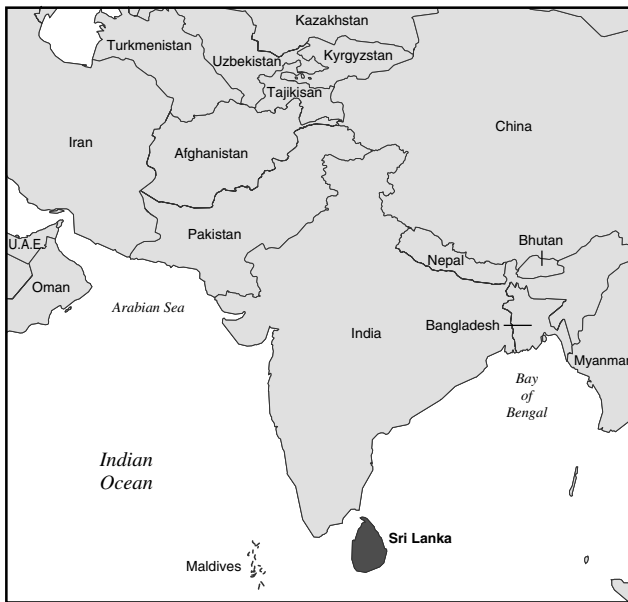
<http://www.worldpop.org/datafinder.htm>

☉ SRI LANKA

Known as Ceylon until 1972, Sri Lanka is a tropical island nation in the Indian Ocean with a population of 19,742,439 people and an area of 65,610 square kilometers (December 2003).

SRI LANKA NATIONAL POLICE

The nation's police force is a branch of its military, which includes Army, Navy, Air Force, and Police Force. The vision of Sri Lanka police is "towards a peaceful environment to live with confidence, without fear of crime and violence" and its mission is "Sri Lanka Police is committed and confident to uphold and enforce the law of the land, to preserve the public order, prevent crime and terrorism with prejudice to none – equity to all" (Sri Lanka Police Web site).



The Sri Lanka police originated from the Dutch ruling period when the Dutch ruled the military with the responsibility of policing the City of Colombo. The Dutch initially set three police stations in Sri Lanka. After the occupation of the city by the British in 1796, law and order were maintained by the military. During the colonial period, Sri Lanka police functions extended from protection of the safety of the people to prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of law and order. On September 1, 1858, the unified police was created. The police force became a national rather than a local force in 1866. In 1947, the police force was transformed from one with colonial characteristics to a National Police because of the independence of Sri Lanka in 1948. The police department, which was formerly under the control of the Home Ministry, became under the control of the Defense Ministry. Some police innovations were made to embrace the independence of Sri Lanka. Those innovations include the investigation, prevention, and detection of crime, the women police, crime prevention societies, rural volunteers, public relations, new methods of training and recruitment, welfare of man, and so forth. The role of the police gradually changed from the maintenance of law to both law maintenance and service oriented.

It is worth noting that the primary threat to the nation's security was its internal Tamil insurgency, which involved a number of armed terrorist groups that carried out attacks on military and civilian targets throughout the country. The Sri Lanka National Police was also responsible for dealing with the insurgency of Tamil in the 1980s.

Organization and Operations

The organizational structure of the National Police force includes mainly two parts, known as commands, which are under the purview of the Inspector General of Police. One is the functional command, which includes administration (traffic, buildings, recruitment, discipline, conduct, etc.), research and planning, inspection and review, information technology, and statistics. The other is the territorial command, which is divided into three territorial ranges covering the northern, central, and southern sectors of Sri Lanka. The three ranges are subdivided into 15 divisions.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

The Police Recruitment Division functions to hire the required human resources. It is responsible for recruiting the policemen who have to meet certain physical and educational requirements. As for different ranks, different standards are set to check applicants' physical, educational, medical, and personal backgrounds to meet the requirements of the different departments.

Direct recruitments may be made for five ranks:

1. Probationary Assistant Superintendent of Police
2. Probationary Subinspector of Police
3. Police Constable
4. Police Women Constable
5. Police Constable Drivers

Normally, an applicant should be a citizen of Sri Lanka. The age limit differs for the five ranks, but is normally older than 18 and younger than 30. Applicants' height for Probationary Assistant

Superintendent and Probationary Subinspector must be 5 feet 6 inches or higher. Vision also has to be measured. With regard to education, the applicants should at least pass the General Qualifications Certificate of Education Examination, which is said to be ordinary level. There are higher standards set for recruitment of Probationary Assistant Superintendent, including being unmarried and holding a bachelor's degree.

In addition to basic police training, officers' training includes:

- Crime investigation
- Traffic
- Narcotics
- Information technology
- Medical services
- Marine services
- Fighting terrorists

The Sri Lanka Police has 16 operational ranks, including:

- Inspector General of Police
- Senior Deputy Inspector General of Police
- Deputy Inspector General of Police
- Senior Superintendent of Police
- Superintendent of Police
- Assistant Superintendent of Police
- Chief Inspector of Police
- Inspector of Police
- Subinspector of Police
- Sergeant Major
- Police Sergeant (two classes)
- Police Constable (four classes)

A Government Gazette Notification is published when vacancies occur.

Based on a police officer's achievement and merits in his fields, every police officer has chance to earn a promotion. There are some opportunities for qualified policemen to study abroad in various fields.

Hongwei Zhang

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☞ **SUICIDE BY COP: INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE (POLICE-INVOLVED, VICTIM- PROVOKED SHOOTING)**

The professional and academic literature that deals in any satisfactory, rigorous, and scientific way with the phenomenon known variously as suicide by cop, victim-provoked shooting, victim-precipitated shooting, victim-precipitated homicide, or, as will be established below, as police-involved, victim-provoked shooting, is excessively limited. The majority of literature is local in nature and examines only a small sample of cases in any given jurisdiction. This article attempts to draw together a number of diverse sources and to put them into a framework in which the phenomenon becomes explicable; however, it is clear that much research remains to be done.

The drawing together of a range, albeit of limited size, of literature examining the phenomenon leads one to conclude that:

- The phenomenon may well be more frequent than has been previously indicated.
- To a significant extent, behavioral and psychological indicators may well be present in a given situation such that the prediction of an attempt to seek death at the hands of police may be possible.

There are, of course, embedded within these elements important, even critical issues that might be addressed by way of adequate training for police officers authorized to use deadly force in such circumstances.

The expression *suicide by cop* carries with it unfortunate connotations that should really be avoided in the context of an analysis of a police-involved shooting. Although, undoubtedly, situations occur in which a subject places himself or

herself deliberately in the line of fire and provokes the police into shooting *because he or she wishes to die*, it does not follow that in every case, *the desire to die* is present. Therefore, adequate post hoc analysis in the form of a psychological autopsy or similar intervention is essential. Situations may arise in which a police-involved, victim-provoked shooting may be the consequence of a deliberate desire on the part of the subject to bring about his or her death, but it may also be the result of confusion, inadequate police management of the situation, or indifference. These outcomes must be distinguished.

TERMINOLOGY

Suicide by cop is commonly used in both academic literature and in the American police environment. It is synonymous with expressions such as *victim-precipitated homicide* or *police officer-assisted suicide*. These are all terms that describe incidents in which individuals are shot by police as a direct consequence of that individual's behavior and in circumstances in which the subject actively seeks his or her own death.

These labels are inexact. Although empirical data are rare, some victims in such events are not killed. These nonlethal events, in which the subject is shot by police but not killed, might easily be considered as *attempted suicides*. However, even in jurisdictions where attempted suicide is a crime, the circumstances of the incident, as well as the practical and legal problems of pursuing prosecutions for suicide, make the identification of this subcategory almost impossible. Furthermore, the distinction between cases in which the subject is killed and those in which he or she is merely shot (or even shot at, but not hit) is not often made in post hoc analysis of events.

A preferred expression for these types of incidents is, therefore, *police-involved, victim-provoked shooting*. Such phrasing, which follows the practice of early academic analysis of such events, addresses the fact that not all those who engage in life-threatening and criminal behavior in order to force the police to kill them will, in fact, be killed. The term also avoids unnecessary vernacular phraseology. In

jurisdictions where private possession of firearms is commonplace, the addition of the term *police involved* distinguishes the phenomenon from circumstances when an armed citizen is provoked in actual or apparent self-defense into shooting another person, for example, if the person is apparently unjustifiably attacking them or may be committing a crime against them. For that reason, and for the specific purposes of this document, "police-involved" is added to the label, which becomes *police-involved, victim-provoked shooting*.

DEFINITIONS

One definition of victim-precipitated *fatal* shooting is "those *killings* in which the victim is a direct, positive precipitator of the incident. [It] is, therefore, an act of suicide and the term refers to those incidents in which an individual, determined on self-destruction, engages in a *calculated* life-threatening criminal incident in order to *force* a police officer or another individual to kill him or her . . ." (Parent, 1996; emphasis added).

Other authors have suggested that such incidents are events in which individuals, who are intent on bringing about their own destruction, engage in life-threatening and criminal behavior in order to force the police to *kill* them.

To take into account incidents where people are not killed, but where police officers are involved, the following definition is offered:

A police-involved, victim-provoked shooting is an incident involving police officers, in which the subject deliberately and, with the intention of becoming the victim of a police-involved shooting, and through life-threatening behavior in which others are targeted, provokes officers into opening fire on him or her.

Such a definition is designed to allow incidents in which police officers open fire on a subject, but in which the subject is not killed, to fall within its ambit. It allows liability issues to be discussed (and possibly defended) under the auspices of a definition that does not anticipate fatality.

There is little doubt that many cases in which the police open fire on a person involve a degree of

conscious intentionality. Nevertheless sometimes the manipulative behavior of the potential victim is unconscious or at least is so subject to emotional confusion that any notion of calculation, deliberation, or intentionality, in the sense of ante-hoc, rational planning, is meaningless. Where that is the case, the notion of suicide becomes problematic.

MOTIVATION

It has been suggested that there is a distinction between those eventually shot or killed by the police and who preplan the entire confrontation and those who find themselves in circumstances in which suicide becomes the ultimate option only after they have become involved with the police. There is a wide range of possible motivations in the literature.

FREQUENCY

Estimates of the frequency of incidents involving police officers in victim-provoked shootings vary wildly, in part because of the distinction between shootings and fatalities discussed previously. According to a recent assessment, the frequency ranges from approximately 10% to approximately 25% of all deaths following police-involved shooting incidents. An examination of all shootings in the Los Angeles County Sheriff's Department between 1987 and 1997 showed that some 10.5% met strictly defined criteria that amounted to police-involved, victim-precipitated fatal shootings. By 1977, the definition accounted for 25% of fatal shootings.

By contrast, other data sources, drawing on research gathered in Canada, produced very different results. These were two reviews of police-involved shootings undertaken under the auspices of the Police Complaints Authority in the United Kingdom and a review of reported incidents conducted in Canada in 1998. Drawing on material from 22 newspapers published from January 1980 through June 1995 in 18 metropolitan areas in Canada and using the keywords *police*, *shoot*, and *citizen*, researchers identified 887 articles. A process was adopted through which duplicates and reports that did not specifically describe a police

shooting incident were rejected. This resulted in a total of 240 incidents. The researchers assigned these incidents to one of five motivational categories: probable suicide, possible suicide, uncertain, suicide improbable, and no suicidal evidence. The raw data showed that suicidal motivation appeared to exist in 16% to 46% of cases. In what they later described as a cross-validation study, the same research group, using a similar methodology to that noted above, but with a far smaller sample, found that 27% to 47% of all cases, fatal or not, showed evidence of possible suicidal motivation.

In British Columbia, Canada, 48% (28) of a sample of 58 police-involved shootings (involving potential lethal threats) fell into the same category, while in the United Kingdom the two collections of data, examining separate data sets of police-shooting incidents (some nonfatal), showed a 39% and a 45% frequency of incidents involving suicidal motivation.

DEMOGRAPHICS AND INCIDENT-ASSOCIATED DYNAMICS

General Demographic Information

Unfortunately, as elsewhere, there is a dearth of information regarding the demographic profile of individuals who seek death at the hands of the police. Typically in the United States and Canada, the civilian involved was a male (97%) between the ages of 16 and 35 years (68%). Five percent of the subjects seem to be homeless or suffering from mental illness. British research indicates that individuals involved in such incidents were male, with a mean age of 33.8 years (range: 18 to 62 years).

The Role of Mental Illness

In an examination of shooting incidents in England and Wales, it was established that alcohol, drugs, and mental health issues were important variables in the outcome of such incidents. In one study in the United Kingdom, 9 out of 23 cases involved drug or alcohol issues, and 10 out of 23 involved "disturbed" individuals. Unfortunately, the extent of the overlap in these cases is unclear.

In a similar vein, several of the 28 cases examined in Canada involved a perpetrator of a lethal threat who had a documented history of mental illness and/or suicidal tendencies. In addition, documentation in several of the cases indicated that the victim had a high blood-alcohol reading at the time of his or her death. In some instances, alcohol, substance abuse, and mental illness were added to the complex picture of suicidal tendencies (Parent, 1996). A second study in the United Kingdom showed that 11 of 24 individuals for whom information was available were described as intoxicated at the time of the incident—10 with alcohol and 1 with a combination of alcohol and illicit drugs. Ten were known to have a history of addiction problems, although this generally only became known to the police officers present, during or after the incident. Eleven subjects were described as having mental health problems, although this is likely to be an underestimate, as such a classification generally required contact with treatment services. The range of mental health problems included a history of self-harm, depression, anger management problems, and psychosis. In only 5 of the 24 cases in the review was there no indication of either mental health or substance misuse problems.

WHEN IS A SUICIDE NOT A SUICIDE?

The Problem of "Indifference"

An interesting point has been raised with regard to the state of mind of some participants in shooting incidents that appear to be victim-provoked suicides, but may not be. It is presented here, to ensure completeness.

Sometimes a situation arises when a person does not intend to die or to seek death at the hands of the police, but because of other factors (e.g., alcohol, drugs, or mental illness) is completely indifferent to the outcome associated with his or her behavior. In such cases, it is argued that the person is probably not a victim. Such a person does not actively seek to bring about his or her own death. Such a person, sometimes after hours of negotiation, throws caution to the winds and behaves in such a manner that

officers are forced to intervene with deadly force. However, the behavior is not intended to provoke police into action. It is merely that they take such action without regard for the possibility that they may die. Subsequent examination of the incident should recognize this possibility.

THE CHECKLIST

There may be utility in developing a predictive tool for a police-involved, victim-provoked shooting, and/or tools for post-hoc analysis. Van Zandt (1993) proposes the following behaviors as indicating potential for a situation that may lead to incidents:

- The individual is a subject of a self-initiated hostage or barricade situation and refuses to negotiate with the authorities.
- The subject has just killed a significant other in his or her life (particularly important if the victim was a child or the subject's mother).
- The subject demands that the police kill her or him.
- The subject sets a deadline for the authorities to kill him or her.
- The subject has recently learned that he or she is suffering from a life-threatening illness or disease.
- The subject indicates an elaborate plan for his or her own death; one that has taken both prior thoughts and preparation.
- The subject indicates that he or she will only "surrender" (in person) to the officer in charge.
- The subject indicates that he or she intends to "go out in a big way."
- The subject makes no demands that include those allowing his or her escape or subsequent freedom.
- The subject comes from a low socioeconomic background.
- The subject provides the authorities with a verbal "last will and testament."
- The subject uses language that tends to indicate that he or she may be looking for a manly or macho way to die.
- The subject has recently given away money or personal possessions.
- The subject has a criminal record, which includes evidence of assaults upon other people.

- The subject has recently experienced one or more traumatic events that affected him or her, or subject's family or career.
- The subject expresses feelings of hopelessness and helplessness.

Ian K. McKenzie

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SWAZILAND

Swaziland is a landlocked country of 17,363 square kilometers bordered by South Africa and Mozambique. Its population is 1.16 million people (July, 2003 estimated).

Autonomy for the Swazis of southern Africa was guaranteed by the British in the late 19th century; independence was granted September 6, 1968. The legal system is based on South African Roman-Dutch law in statutory courts and Swazi traditional law and custom in traditional courts. The king is the head of government and appoints the prime minister and cabinet. The monarchy is hereditary. Swaziland has a bicameral parliament, whose members are partially appointed by the monarch.

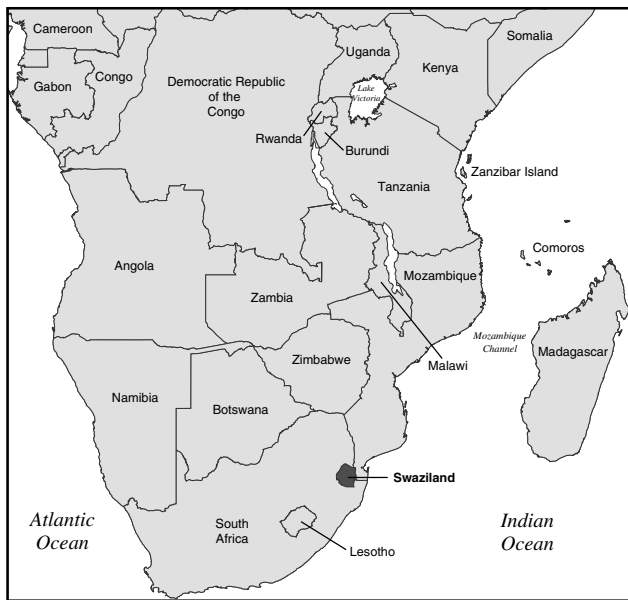
THE ROYAL SWAZILAND POLICE SERVICE

Before Swaziland obtained independence from South Africa, its local police officers were transferred from the South Africa force. After independence, King Sobhuza II changed the name of the police to the Royal Swaziland Police Service (RSPS) and assumed the position of Supreme Commissioner of the force.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND STRUCTURE

Located in the capital city, Mbabane, the national police headquarters includes the Commissioner of the Royal Swaziland Police Service, his Deputy, and five main departments:

1. Planning and Administration
2. Operations
3. Crime
4. Intelligence
5. Personnel and Training



Directly subordinate to the national police headquarters are four regional police forces located in Hhohho, Manzini, Lubombo, and Shiselweni. Seventy-four police stations, posts, and border posts are subordinate to the regional police headquarters.

The police are responsible for preservation of internal peace and security, protection of life and property, maintenance of law and order, prevention and detection of criminal offenses, apprehension of offenders, and bringing them to justice.

As of 2002, the total strength of the RSPS was 2,997 policemen and 223 civilians, a ratio of 1 officer per 387 inhabitants. Among these 2,997 policemen 219 were in commissioned police officers' ranks and 426 were sergeants and cadets.

The ranks of the RSPS are Commissioner of Police, Deputy Commissioner of Police, Assistant Commissioner of Police, Senior Superintendent, Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Inspectors, Sergeants, and Constables.

TRAINING

The Police Training School was established in 1927 in the capital city. In 1965 a Police College was founded in Matsapa; it was expanded in 1989. This College provides basic training for newly enlisted constables and refresher, advanced, and promotion

courses. The latter trains junior commissioned officers for the police.

Swaziland is a member of Interpol.

Michael Sadykiewicz

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SWEDEN

The Kingdom of Sweden is situated on the Scandinavian peninsula in the northern part of Europe. With its 8.9 million inhabitants and area of 449,964 square kilometers (slightly larger than the U.S. state of California), Sweden has a low population density (55.9 people per square mile). Since 1996, Sweden has been a member of the European Union. Sweden is a member of Interpol and partakes in the Schengen agreement.

THE SWEDISH POLICE

Sweden has a national police service, which is responsible to the Ministry of Justice. The total force consists of 16,100 police officers (18% females) and 6,600 civil staff (72% females). The ratio of police officers is approximately 1 police officer per 552 citizens. (All figures are from 2001.)

Until 1965, when the state took over the total responsibility for the police function, Sweden had a municipal police with a large number of local police forces (554 in 1964). The number of police authorities was reduced to 119, a reduction that has continued during the years. In a major reform in 1998, the number was reduced to 21.

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION

As part of the reform in 1965, the National Police Board (NPB) was set up with central administrative



and supervisory responsibility for the police service, as well as of the National Laboratory of Forensic Science. The NPB is headed by the National Police Commissioner, who is appointed by the government. Among other things, the NPB is responsible for the development of new methods and technological support. It is also, through the National Police Academy, responsible for the training of police officers. The National Security Service and the National Criminal Investigation Department (NCID) are units within the NPB. The NCID provides investigation and criminal intelligence support in cases involving criminality with nationwide or international ramifications. The NCID is in charge of the Police Helicopter Service, the National Counter Terrorist Unit, Swedish Police Peace Support Operations, and the National Communications Center. NCID also operates at the local level, providing reinforcement for police authorities as required.

LOCAL LEVEL

The Swedish police service is organized in 21 independent police authorities, which serve within the same jurisdictions as the 21 counties in Sweden. The size of the police authorities varies. The largest authority is Stockholm with 5,900 employees, of

whom 4,500 are police officers. The smallest is Gotland with 120 personnel, of whom 80 are police officers. Besides the authorities responsible for Sweden's largest cities (Stockholm, Göteborg, and Malmö), the average authority consists of approximately 500 employees, of whom 370 are police officers.

The police authorities are responsible for policing at the local level, such as responses to emergency calls, crime investigations, and crime prevention. Their responsibilities also include issuing passports and various kinds of permits and licenses. Besides the ordinary administrative laws for public services, the Police Act (1984:387) is the most important piece of legislation for the police. The mission of the police is described in the Police Act as follows:

As a contribution to society's activities to promote justice and security, the object of the police activity shall be to uphold public order and security, and otherwise to safeguard the public protection and other help.

The Police Act is supplemented with the Police Ordinance and the letter of regulation for the police organization. The last is an annual recurring decision by the state powers about supply of resources and priorities of police activities.

Each police authority has a police board consisting of politicians who represent the political parties. The government, according to the local results of the election to the parliament, appoints the members of the boards. The board decides about local organization, annual budget, and the general objective of police activity. Since the boards were first created in the 1970s, their importance and influence have increased.

A County Police Commissioner is responsible for the daily operational activities. Each police authority consists of a staff, a county Criminal Investigation Department (CID), and a uniformed division. The CID is divided into squads; usually a general investigation squad, a drug squad, an economic crime squad, and a forensic squad. The Swedish police do not have the power to prosecute; that function is provided by the Public Prosecution Service. A public prosecutor decides how the legal provisions pertaining to crime investigations are to

be applied during an investigation, such as whether a suspect is to be detained and whether and when charges should be brought against a suspect.

The uniformed division may be divided into several police areas or smaller proximity police areas that have their own police stations and personnel. Traffic police and, where applicable, border police, are organized within the uniformed division.

ARMAMENT

Since 1965, Swedish police officers have been routinely armed with a pistol (presently Sig Sauer 9 mm) and a nightstick. Between 1985 and 1998, shots were fired in the line of service on the average of 30 incidents per year, with an annual average of 7 injured and 1 killed suspect. The levels of incidents, injuries, and cases of death have been stable during the whole period with no evident upward or downward trend.

POLICE TRAINING

Police officer applicants must pass a selection process consisting of several stages. The formal requirements that must be met are Swedish citizenship, driver's license, and completion of level of education to be accepted at institutions of higher education. Physical and other various aptitude tests must also be passed. Last, the suitability of the applicant is checked in an interview with a group made up of employers and staff union representatives. The final decision rests with an Admission Committee. In 2001, of the approximately 5,000 who applied for police officer positions, 528 were accepted (33% were females).

Basic training takes place at the National Police Academy (NPA) in Solna (just outside Stockholm), or in Umeå and Växjö, where the local universities arrange the training. The studies take 2 years at the training institutions. After graduation, the students are eligible to apply for 6 months of paid field training at a county police authority. After successful completion, they may apply for a post as a police officer in the Swedish police service.

In cooperation with the other Scandinavian countries (Norway, Denmark, and Finland) a

Nordic Baltic Police Academy was set up, to support the Baltic States (Estonia, Lithuania, and Latvia) in their effort to train and educate their police forces.

Currently there is no organized research on police and policing with connection to the police organization, even though the NPA in Solna had a research unit for some years during the 1990s.

ACCOUNTABILITY

The National Police Board performs inspections, checking that the work of the police is carried out efficiently in accordance with the directives issued by the government, parliament, and with due observance of the legal rights of the individual.

The Office of the Parliamentary Ombudsmen is a parliamentary supervisory body responsible for checking that public services and public servants adhere to legislation and regulations and treat the citizens fairly. A complaint may be filed directly to the Ombudsman, who carries out the investigation or passes it on to a local internal investigative unit.

In cases where a police officer is suspected of having committed a crime or having acted inappropriately, an internal investigation unit investigates the case. A Chief Prosecutor is in charge of the investigation.

MEASURES OF EFFICIENCY

On a yearly basis approximately one million crimes against the Penal Code are reported to the police. Levels of reported crimes are notoriously hard to compare between countries, except for a few categories including murder and manslaughter. In Sweden the murder rate is approximately 1 per 100,000 inhabitants.

As in many other countries, the clearance rate is used as an indicator of police efficiency, even though it is a dubious measure. In a sense, Sweden is an interesting case, because the clearance rate has decreased rather drastically. The explanation is a fall in cleared crimes from nearly 250,000 in the beginning of the 1990s to approximately 200,000 in the late 1990s. Because the level of reported crimes

remained more or less stable, these numbers reflect a decreased total clearance rate from 5% to 20%. The fall likely stems from police reform in the mid-1990s that decreased the resources for criminal investigations. A number of experienced officers retired, and others were assigned to proximity policing. The reform thus had negative consequences for one of the primary tasks of the police.

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SWITZERLAND

Switzerland is a relatively small country (15,940 square miles), about twice the size of New Jersey, with a current population of approximately 7.3 million people. It has been a federation since the mid-19th century. Branches of government include:

- Executive (a group of seven *Bundesräte*, or Federal Council, presided over by one member)
- Legislative or bicameral Federal Assembly (*Bundesversammlung*: *Ständerat* and *Nationalrat*, the Senate and House of Representatives, respectively)
- Judiciary (Supreme Court)

The country has four official languages—German, French, Italian, and Romansch—and is bordered by five countries (Germany, Austria, France, Italy, and the Fürstentum Liechtenstein). Switzerland is also divided into 26 autonomous cantons. Switzerland is known for its neutrality and commitment to humanitarian efforts, especially through international organizations, many of which are headquartered in Geneva. Due to its wealth, standard of living, geographic location, and immigrant policies over the past 30 years, approximately one



million inhabitants are considered “foreigners” (*Ausländer* and *Ausländerinnen*) or immigrants (first or second generation).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF DECENTRALIZED POLICE AGENCIES

Historically, Switzerland has enjoyed very low levels of crime because of a high standard of living and low levels of urbanization, among other factors. The largest city, Zürich, only had 360,000 inhabitants in 2001. As a result, there has been no pressing need for the development and maintenance of complex law enforcement structures, either nationally or in cantons. In many Swiss towns or municipalities (*Gemeinden*), law enforcement is nonexistent.

After the alliance of 1291 between the three regions in central Switzerland, police matters were left to regions or areas equivalent to the cantons of today. This policy reflects a deeply seated national desire to maintain autonomy and independence from the central authorities, something that prompted the original alliance of 1291 and something that is still clearly manifested in politics of today (e.g., Switzerland did not join the United Nations until 2002). The original alliance document (*Bundesbrief*) not only included agreements of mutual cooperation and support vis-à-vis attacks

from “abroad,” but also included wording that set forth punishments for theft, robbery, arson, and murder. It also included provisions where the three regions committed to not harbor fugitives and to bring such individuals before a judge.

This changed during the short-lived *République Helvétique* (1798-1803), when a national police force was developed as part of a central government. Subsequently, in an effort to return to the effective alliance model pre-*République Helvétique*, early forms of law enforcement again became decentralized, a canton-level or regional issue, and during this time, 19 precursors of modern-day *Kantonspolizei* (state police agencies) evolved, though at that time, the terminology used to describe law enforcement included *Landjäger* and *Gendarmen*.

Some key features included a clear separation of law enforcement and the military, a professionalism of law enforcement that included regular pay, and a process by which law enforcement was no longer tied to politics or state interests. Most of these precursors were developed in areas with the greatest need for law enforcement, namely in Swiss cities (e.g., Zürich). A number of largely rural regions also trace development of the initial *Polizeikorps* (or police agency) to the beginning of the 19th century (around 1803/1804), such as cantons Solothurn, Uri, and Thurgau.

In 1808, the first conference of these 19 police agencies took place and placed into force a manifesto that established mutual cooperation and collaboration in matters related to law enforcement. The following year, in 1809, a publisher in Bern commenced publishing the *Allgemeine Signalement-Buch für die Schweizerische Eidgenossenschaft*, later renamed *Allgemeiner Polizeianzeiger der Schweizerischen Eidgenossenschaft* (published by the police agency of Bern in 1865). This publication introduced a quasi-standardization of norms as well as archiving and continuity across the 19 police agencies. In the latter part of the 19th century, some select law enforcement agencies that specialized in forensics and used the technical advances in law enforcement were developed (*Kriminalpolizei*) to aid in the clearance of crimes.

SOVEREIGNTY OF THE CANTONS

Although it was recognized that there was a need for agencies located in the cantons to collaborate, police agencies remained completely autonomous. Nevertheless, some developments at the federal level aided law enforcement efforts in Switzerland during the 20th century. For example, in 1903, a Swiss Central Police Bureau was created that compiled data from cantons about crimes and convictions. Later, in 1986, the same office also coordinated efforts to place online the first Swiss computerized database (RIPOL), which would allow more efficient prosecution of wanted criminals. In 1935, a federal police force was decreed by the government to protect Swiss citizens both within Switzerland, but also from threats abroad. A key feature of the decree included language that this force was not a special unit with special privileges, but rather that it was a federal law enforcement agency that would collaborate with police agencies from the cantons as well as communities.

LAW ENFORCEMENT TODAY: AUTONOMOUS CANTONS

Switzerland has changed little in succeeding decades. Crime remains a comparatively manageable problem, and the cantons are sovereign in matters related to law enforcement. Thus, there is no central or coordinating police agency at the federal level, and respective canton or city police agencies are the only law enforcement agencies with executive powers. Related to this, there are also no additional specialized law enforcement agencies, such as transport, harbor, airport, or college campus police, although there is a specialized border police. However, modern-day demands on law enforcement have given rise to coalitions or regional coordination of different canton police agencies (*Konkordate*).

For example, the OSTPOL (*Ostschweizer Polizeikonkordat*) is a collaboration of both city and canton police agencies in eastern Switzerland. (The cantons are Appenzell-Innerrhoden, Appenzell-Ausserrhoden, Glarus, Graubünden, St. Gallen,

Thurgau, and Schaffhausen; city police agencies of St. Gallen and Chur. The police agency from the Fürstentum Liechtenstein is also included). The OSTPOL collaborates on specialized law enforcement tasks (e.g., dive recoveries or security for national or international events), coordinates on issues related to training of law enforcement officers, and provides logistic and information support. Close collaborations result in the ability to conduct joint exercises and training, purchase specialized equipment for shared use, and, in 2001, this also resulted in the purchase of common uniforms. Until 2001 each canton police agency had its own uniforms, ranks, pay scales, along with its own regulations.

Today Switzerland maintains a Federal Office of Police (formerly Federal Office for Police Matters or *Bundesamt für Polizeiwesen*), part of the Federal Department of Justice and Police; however, its functions remain consistent with the principal mission of the 1903 Swiss Central Police Bureau. Its mission statement includes “preventive measures in the field of national security and the protection of people and sites considered to be at risk.” However, since 2002, under the direction of the Attorney General of Switzerland, this office also directly investigates a number of serious crimes, such as organized crime, money laundering, and corruption. It also continues to serve as a coordinating entity and clearinghouse of information for the canton and city police agencies of Switzerland.

CRIME STATISTICS IN SWITZERLAND: CHILD AND YOUTH CRIMES

Because of the comparatively low levels of crime in Switzerland, there has not been a pressing need to nationally document levels of crime both among children and youth as well as adults, though there exist regional efforts to collect such information dating back to the early part of the 19th century (e.g., Zürich) and earlier. The Swiss government began to systematically collect sentencing data in 1946. These data also included sentencing of youth (ages 15 to 17 years) for serious crimes. This meant

rather infrequent reporting of youth crimes in these data, and thus, since 1981 (some sources indicate as early as 1975), they only include adult convictions. Between 1988 and 1998, youth crime was only monitored in aggregate form based on data from the juvenile justice system. Finally, since 1999, data on child (7 to 14 years) and juvenile (15 to 17 years) convictions have been collected (*Jugendstrafurteilstatistik* or JUSUS) by the *Rechtspflege* department, which is part of the Swiss Federal Statistics Office.

Only recently have the first press releases by *Rechtspflege* based on these data been published. The majority of crimes committed by mostly male youth (82%) were related to drug use, theft, or vandalism (more than 70%). Not surprisingly, approximately 78% of all 12,319 convictions in 2001 were juveniles as opposed to children. Perhaps one of the most interesting and also troubling findings from this report was the apparent differential conviction likelihood between Swiss natives and resident “foreign” youth (i.e., youth of immigrant parents with permanent residency or youth who themselves immigrated to Switzerland with their families with permanent residency status). In most cantons (exceptions are Appenzell-Ausserrhoden, Glarus, and Obwalden), the data indicate that the likelihood of foreign youth convictions greatly exceeds the likelihood of Swiss national convictions. In the most extreme cases (e.g., Luzern, Freiburg, St. Gallen, or Thurgau), foreign youth are three or more times more likely to be convicted than Swiss nationals. It will be interesting to follow whether this new feedback mechanism, provided by the JUSUS data, has any impact on the apparent observed discrepancies in conviction rates of Swiss nationals versus immigrants across cantons.

Alexander T. Vazsonyi

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SYRIA

The nation of Syria, officially known as the Syrian Arab Republic, came into existence after World War I with the fall of the Ottoman Empire. Syria was under French rule until 1946, when it gained independence. As a result of the 1967 Arab-Israeli War, Syria lost the Golan Heights region to Israel. Counting the territory occupied by Israel, Syria has a total area of 185,180 square kilometers and is bordered by Israel, Iraq, Turkey, Jordan, and Lebanon. Currently, the estimated population is roughly 17.6 million people (July 2003 estimate). Syria is administratively divided into 13 provinces.

Syria is governed by a republic-style government under the control of a military dictatorship. After the death of President Hafiz al-Asad in 2000, his son Bashar al-Asad took over the reins of the presidency. Some of the major political parties are the National Progressive Front, which includes the ruling Ba'ath Party, Socialist Unionist Democratic Party, Syrian Communist Party, and Syrian Social National Party. There is also a unicameral legislature known as the People's Council in which there is a total of 250 seats and the members are elected by popular vote. However, the Syrian Constitution mandates that one half of all seats must automatically go to the ruling Ba'ath Party at election time. The seat of government is the capital city of Damascus.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

Syria has a centralized police force under the auspices of the Ministry of the Interior, which is known as



the Syrian Public Security Police. The person responsible for running the day-to-day operations of the Syrian Public Security Police is a Director General. In addition, the Director General oversees a special metropolitan police in Damascus. The headquarters division has four main branches, which are Administration, Criminal Investigation, Public Order, and Traffic.

In addition to the basic police forces, there are also paramilitary units that supplement the police. Specifically, these are the Gendarmerie and the Desert Guard. The former unit was formed during French rule to act as a police force for the rural areas. The latter unit acts as a border guard, especially because Syria borders Iraq, which until recently was hostile toward Syria. These agencies are more militaristically oriented and politically charged than the police forces, but they have made inroads and taken over some of the police functions. Therefore, the importance of the police is minimized and is relegated to mostly riot and crowd control.

The Syrian Public Security Police are largely for show these days, because they are not really in charge of national security. This is because of the emergence of an internal security apparatus separate from the police. These agencies are all distinct

entities and do not share intelligence. The largest and most prominent of these agencies is the National Security Directorate, which answers directly to the president.

Jeffrey Podell

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TAIWAN

Located in eastern Asia, Taiwan is a country of islands off the southeastern coast of China with an area of 35,980 square kilometers. It has a population of 22.6 million people (July 2003 estimate).

In 1895, military defeat forced China to cede Taiwan to Japan, and it remained under Japanese occupation until 1945, under the name Formosa. Following the Communist victory on mainland China in 1949, two million Chinese nationalists fled to Taiwan and established a government using the 1947 Constitution drawn up for all of China. Over the next five decades, the ruling authorities gradually democratized and incorporated the native population within the governing structure. Throughout this period, the island prospered and became one of East Asia's economic tigers. In 1971, Taiwan lost its United Nations (UN) membership because of the pressure of the Peoples Republic of China. For this same reason Taiwan is also not a member of Interpol or ASEANPOL.

Taiwan's legal system is based on a civil law system; it accepts compulsory International Court of Justice (ICJ) jurisdiction, with reservations. Its head of state is the President, who is elected by popular vote for a 4-year term. The president appoints the premier and cabinet. Taiwan has a unicameral legislative Yuan (parliament), elected by popular vote.

NATIONAL POLICE AGENCY

In 1949, after the Taiwan Province of China was proclaimed, the local police (formerly the Taiwan Provincial Police), became the National Police. In 1990, the force had 75,517 sworn police officers (more recent figures are unavailable).

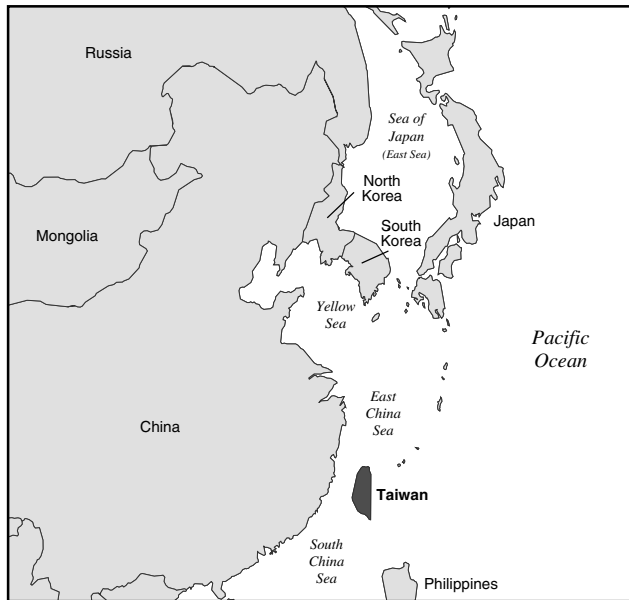
The Police Act of 1999 defines the police tasks:

1. To maintain public order
2. To protect social security
3. To prevent all dangers
4. To promote welfare of all people

The police is responsible for enforcing the law and maintaining public order but is also responsible for crime prevention and protection of the lives and property of others. In addition, the Taiwan National Police manage entry to and exit from Taiwan, civil defense and disaster rescue, fire prevention and firefighting, maintaining order and riot control, and assistance in other governmental affairs when necessary.

Structure and Organization

The police force in Taiwan is divided into national and local levels. Both fall under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior through the country's central headquarters. The supreme chief of the National



Police Agency (NPA) is the Director General. The NPA is a huge organization and consists of Divisions, Offices, Bureaus, and other subunits. The NPA Divisions are Administrative, Training, Census, Peace Preservation, Inspection, Foreign Affairs, Traffic Control, Economic Affairs, Civil Defense, and Logistics. The NPA Offices include the Secretariat, Inspectors, Security, Legal and Regulation Research, Public Relations, Information, Operational Command and Control Center, Personnel, Accounting, Statistics, Anticorruption, and Foreign Affairs. The NPA Bureaus are Criminal Investigation, Harbor Police, Immigration, and Police Aviation. Within the structure of the NPA, there is also a Police Administration Planning Committee. Below the NPA, directly subordinate to the Supreme Director General through the respective NPA Divisions and Bureaus, are police specialized units of central subordination (they are described further) and Commands of the Regional Police Districts as well as the Central Taiwan Police University, Police Broadcasting Network, and the Civil Defense Control Center.

The Administrative Police, known also as the uniformed police, is the main force within the Taiwan national police. This force carries out administrative assignments, such as maintaining duty officers, guarding, patrolling, making household visits and interventions, removing administrative perils, and maintaining safety. The Criminal Investigation

and Prevention Police, also known as plainclothes police or detectives, primarily enforce the social order, maintain law, prevent crime, assist the public procurators to investigate crime, and execute searches, arrests, and detentions in accordance with law. Crime prevention aims to prevent the occurrence of crimes by carrying out precautionary measures, coordinating relevant agencies to cooperate with each other, and propagating crime prevention strategy, with the police and community working together to fight crime.

Other Specialized Units

Specialized units of the Taiwanese police include Traffic Police, Border Police, Harbor Police, Railway Police, and National Park Police Corps.

The Foreign Affairs Police force controls immigration. The Airborne Police force is responsible for observing and reporting the traffic, assisting in air surveys, pursuing and capturing criminals, and providing rescue and backup in disasters. Currently, this police branch has a total of 12 AS-365 medium helicopters.

Another specific specialized unit is the Peace Preservation Police (PPP), which consists of six corps. Its mission is to protect the central government, establishing contingency plans for national security and assisting local police in keeping social order and tranquility. Its duties are similar to that of the French National Gendarmerie.

Training and Recruitment

The National Police Agency (NPA) maintains training sites and personnel; gives special assignments, and designates the curriculum for each police agency to promote the police quality and work ability. The police education is divided in two grades, undergraduate and advanced, implemented by the National Central Police University, which in 1996 became a full-fledged university. There are currently 13 departments of study. After graduation students are obligated to perform government work, according to their specific fields of study, for at least 7 years. In-service training is carried out by each police agency.

CRIME

Unfortunately, despite the continuing modernization of the Taiwan National Police, the overall crime volume in this country has been on the rise. Offenses grew from 304,141 to 503,389 between 1991 and 2002. During this same period, the clearance rate fell from 62.96% (1991) to 59.16% (2002). Also the offender rate per 100,000 inhabitants grew from 1,486 (1991) to 2,240 (2002), a more than 50% increase.

Michael Sadykiewicz

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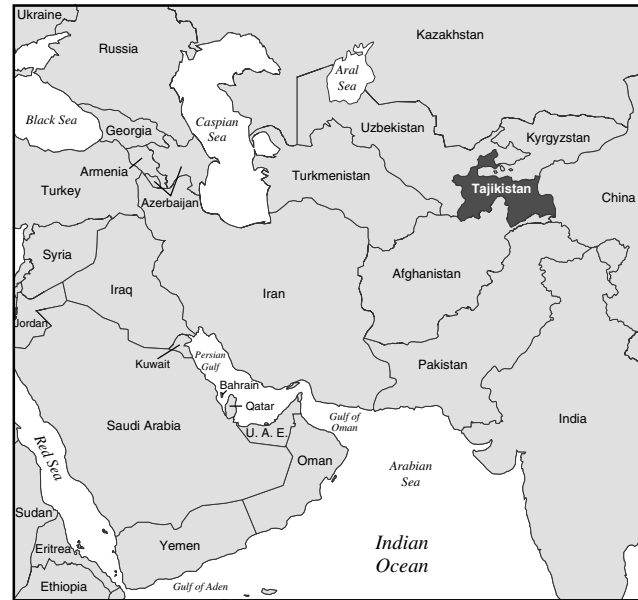
TAJIKISTAN

The Constitution of Tajikistan, adopted on November 6, 1994, defines this central Asian state of 6.9 million people located north of Afghanistan on 143,000 square kilometers as a sovereign, democratic, unitarian, and secular state governed by the rule of law. Since declaring its independence in 1991, Tajikistan has experienced three changes in government and a 5-year civil war. A peace agreement among rival factions was signed in 1997 and implemented in 2000.

Law enforcement is incomprehensive, because the central government does not control some areas of the country. The judiciary, with nominal independence, has no actual power to enforce the rule of law. The Constitution gives the president the power to remove judges from office.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION

The police force evolved from the institutional framework established in the Soviet era. It is centrally



organized within the system of the Ministry of Internal Affairs with departments in Tajikistan's administrative units. National police forces consist of approximately 4,000 officers. The Minister of Internal Affairs is the national head of police appointed by the President. In addition to the Ministry's control, local Departments of the Interior are subordinated to territorial executive authorities. Police departments are uniformly divided into sections:

- Regular patrolling service, which includes service of precinct inspectors
- Criminal investigation service
- Service for the struggle against economic and drug-related crimes
- Passport section
- Motor vehicle section
- Section for prosecution and preliminary investigations
- State protection section
- Section for the affairs of minors

Duties of the police concern the maintenance of public order and the fight against crime. Among the public-order duties are traffic control, measures against public drunkenness, implementation of the internal passport system, control of arms, provision of assistance to other government agencies, and aid

to the population and the authorities in the case of a natural disaster. The crime-fighting function includes measures to prevent crime, arrest suspects, investigate crimes, escort prisoners and detainees, oversee various practical activities in execution of criminal punishments, supervise released prisoners, and enforce court rulings. In addition to regular police, the Ministry has 1,500 troops used mainly to conduct special operations, maintain order during public events, and guard prisoners.

Since 1992, some of the police functions related to national security, investigation of politically motivated offenses, terrorism-related crimes, crimes with involvement of foreigners, and the suppression of opposition are included in the jurisdiction of the Committee of National Security, based on the Soviet-era, Tajikistan Committee for State Security (KGB), which received full cabinet status in 1995 after being transformed into the Ministry of Security.

Tajik police are characterized by their ignoring due process of law in dealing with individuals and their excessive use of violence. Extrajudicial killings, disappearances, searches without warrants, the probable planting of incriminating evidence, arrests for conduct that was not illegal, and physical abuse of prisoners have been reported.

POLICE RECRUITING, TRAINING, AND PROMOTION

When Tajikistan was part of the Soviet Union, the republic's law enforcement authorities were an integral part of the Soviet-wide administrative system. Neither the management nor the majority of middle- and senior-level officers were Tajik. Tajik law enforcement authorities remain understaffed since Tajikistan became independent. Recruitment for the police force is conducted mostly on a contract basis among Tajik citizens 18 years of age and older and is based on political reliability and clan loyalty of candidates. Police maintain five operational ranks for lower-level policemen and seven ranks for the officers. Most of the promotions come within the system; however, executive appointments include a political element. There is a tradition of recruiting high-level police appointees among senior officers of the Ministry of Security.

Recruitment from the graduates of civilian universities is not widely accepted; however, it is not excluded. The law does not prohibit women from serving in the police force; however, their participation is minimal. Lower-level police personnel are trained in 3 to 6 months with courses organized by the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Because of the lack of national police training facilities, most of the officers are trained in Russia and neighboring countries. The High School of the Tajik Ministry of Security prepares the personnel for service within the Ministry; however, rotation of personnel between the two agencies occurs often.

Peter Roudik

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TANZANIA

Tanzania, is located in East Africa on the Indian Ocean and bordered by Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Zambia, and Mozambique. It is among the poorest countries in Africa. There is uncertainty about the exact population because of the ravages of HIV and AIDS; however, it hovers around 36 million people. It has an area of approximately 945,087 square kilometers. The capital is Dar es Salaam on the coast almost opposite the semiautonomous island of Zanzibar, which is part of the Republic of Tanzania.

The country is rich in natural beauty with a paucity of arable land. Its extraordinary attractions include Mt. Kilimanjaro, the highest mountain in Africa at some 19,000 feet; Lake Victoria, the second largest fresh water lake in the world; Lake Tanganyika, one of the longest lakes; and Lake Nyasa, the second deepest lake in the world. All three lakes form part of the national boundaries.



Abundant wildlife, especially in the Ngorogoro Crater National Park, exceptional paleontological discoveries, and a large nomadic population of cattle herders who are mostly Masai are among the unique features of the country and its 130 tribes.

The majority of the population on the mainland is African Bantu with a small number of Arabs and Europeans. The official language of the country is Ki-swahili. The capital of the nation is being moved inland to Dodoma from the coast city of Dar es Salaam.

HISTORY

Tanzania began its colonized life as Tanganyika under the aegis of Germany. Early attention was drawn to its uniqueness from the American journalist Henry Morton Stanley's search for Dr. Livingstone, which he published in two volumes with maps, becoming a best seller called *Through the Dark Continent*.

Tanganyika was a battleground between England and Germany during World War I, in a war of attrition and exhaustion that Germany lost. Subsequently Tanganyika became a British Trust Territory under the League of Nations, and its boundaries were altered, artificially, permitting all of Mt. Kilimanjaro to be in Tanganyika. This also proved problematic

for the nomadic Masai who herd their cattle on lands that respect no European-delineated borders. After the mandate for Tanganyika was placed under control of the British Colonial Office, it became part of British East Africa as a United Nations (UN) Trusteeship. Tanganyika became an independent country in December 1961, and Zanzibar did in 1963. The two joined together as Tanzania in 1964.

POLICING IN TANZANIA

Policing during the German administration was both minimal and largely done by the military. After the British took over the mandate, the policing model of Kenya was applied to Tanganyika, based on the London Metropolitan Police model then in effect. This model of policing remained in place until independence took its final form in 1964 and the functions were turned over to the African members of the police service. Its law enforcement functions are based in English common law and tribal law. The nation has not yet accepted full membership in the International Court of Justice.

Further, policing is now divided between the mainland's common law courts and the islands' courts, which follow Shari'a, or The Law of the Koran on Pemba, Mafia, and Zanzibar and which are almost entirely Muslim in population. The islands are among the world's largest producers of cloves.

Currently police functions are carried out by the Police Field Force, which includes the maritime and aviation departments. The Police Field Forces has approximately 1,300 to 1,500 people. Much of the policing is carried out by the Tanzanian People's Defense Force, numbering only a few thousand, and some local militia. Police training is offered at the Police Training School at Moslin and the Police College at Dar es Salaam.

To be accepted for training, a youth must be fluent in both Swahili and English, which signifies a successful Standard/Grade 8 education. Membership in the Revolutionary Party (*Chama Cha Mapinduzi* [CCM]) or the Youth League, signifying good citizenship, is required. Training may be problematic in that it is often given by experienced officers who have less education than the cadets they are instructing.

POLICING CHALLENGES

Tanzania has had to deal with a serious influx of refugees along its western border from Rwanda and Burundi. Drugs, particularly marijuana and heroin, are serious problems as the seacoast is porous and land routes to the south through Mozambique are hard to control. Because of the rural nature of the society and its dependence on tourism, a significant amount of attention is paid to public safety.

In rural areas, offenses such as cattle raiding, tribal strife, and alcohol/drug abuse are common. They are often managed by the tribal elders and tribal councils. Urban crime in Dar es Salaam is usually street robbery and assault. Because of the endemic nature of HIV and AIDS, public service programs for the population have had some impact on sex crimes, but the breakdown of sexual mores away from the tribal region has exacerbated the crime problem. Dar es Salaam was the scene of the bombing of the U.S. Embassy in 1998. While the crime was not of the scope and magnitude of the bombing in Kenya, it put the authorities on notice that they would need to improve their intelligence services. These services are largely a function of the military.

Crime statistics are unreliable as the reporting is inconsistent. Police misconduct in the form of arbitrary arrest, torture, and excessive force were reported during the elections in 2000. Much of the misconduct occurs in a political context. Corruption has extended to refugees and the abuse of women.

THE FUTURE OF POLICING

There is a serious need for human rights training in the police curriculum. The new Commission on Human Rights and Good Governance must remain both independent and funded to pursue allegations of misconduct. The terrorist attack in Dar es Salaam put the focus on the need to improve domestic intelligence. Cell phones are becoming more available in Tanzania and would be an important tool in police communications. The country does not as yet have the equivalent of a 911 or hot-line system for reporting crime. Air transport is a major way to travel. There are more than 100 air fields, most of

which are grass strips. While there is a narrow gauge rail line from Dar es Salaam to Lake Victoria, built in the 1950s and 1960s, and one east-west transnational road, there is a pressing need for greater mobility to reach emergency locations such as those caused by the refugees crossing from Rwanda and Burundi—the scenes of massive genocide in the 1990s. Tanzania has not yet ratified the UN Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment and incorporated its tenets into modern police best practice.

The instability of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, on Tanzania's western border, points to the need to focus more of its policing resources to this western frontier. The eastern coast, on the Indian Ocean, offers challenges of a different nature. Drug smuggling, some kidnapping, and trafficking in human slavery to the Arabian peninsula continue. The reality that Tanzania is two countries under one rule, with great cultural, religious, and legal disparities complicates the nature of policing.

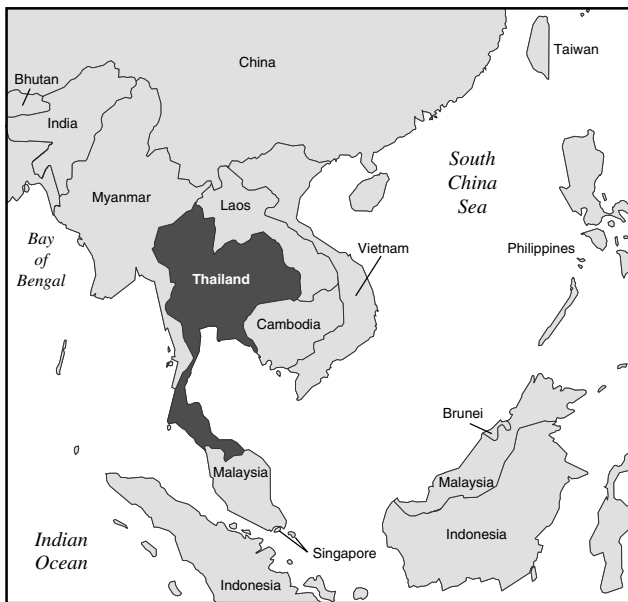
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THAILAND

Established in the mid-14th century, the kingdom of Thailand is the only country in Southeast Asia that



has never been taken over by a European power. It has a total area of 514,000 square kilometers, with a population of 64,265,276 people (July 2003). Thailand is composed of 76 provinces and has a bicameral National Assembly that consists of the Senate and the House of Representatives.

THE ROYAL THAI POLICE

A centralized police system, the Royal Thai Police (RTP) is the primary law enforcement agency in the country, with a long history going back to the time this country was established. The main revolution of the RTP was in 1932, which formed the current structure of the organization.

The RTP is a militaristic-style, service-oriented police organization with personnel of 240,000 people, a ratio of 1 police official for every 260 citizens. All of the personnel in the RTP are uniformed police officers. The agency is headed by the Director General, the highest position in the department answerable to the Prime Minister.

Organization and Operations

The RTP operates in 10 geographical regions:

- Metropolitan Police Bureau
- Provincial Police Region 1 for the central region
- Provincial Police Region 2 for the eastern region

- Provincial Police Region 3 for the lower northeastern region
- Provincial Police Region 4 for the upper northeastern region
- Provincial Police Region 5 for the upper northern region
- Provincial Police Region 6 for the lower northern region
- Provincial Police Region 7 for the western region
- Provincial Police Region 8 for the upper southern region
- Provincial Police Region 9 for the lower southern region

While both headquarters of the Metropolitan Police Bureau and the Provincial Police Region 1 are in Bangkok, the headquarters of the Provincial Police Regions 2 to 9 are located in Chon Buri, Nakhonratchasima, Khon Kaen, Chiang Mai, Phitsanulok, Nakhon Pathom, Surat Thani, and Songkhla, respectively. Provincial Police Regions are subdivided into operational divisions, each of which covers one province. The Metropolitan Police Bureau and the Provincial Police Regions 1 to 9 are responsible for crime prevention and suppression, criminal investigation, as well as traffic control in its jurisdictions.

The Border Patrol Police is in charge of the maintenance of the public peace and security along the border areas. It also gives support to improve quality of life of the people along the border and designated areas throughout the country.

The Central Investigation Bureau is responsible for major criminal cases, especially offenses committed in breach of national security and integrity, with jurisdiction covering the entire country.

The Immigration Bureau is responsible for immigration proceedings of all country checkpoints, alien registration control, prevention and suppression of trafficking of women and children, and guest performances according to the laws.

The Narcotic Suppression Bureau is in charge of drug prevention and suppression in the country. It coordinates in terms of policy and operation with the Office of Narcotics Control Board (ONCB), a national antidrug law enforcement agency.

The Office of the Royal Court Security Police has the duty of providing security for His Majesty

the King and the Queen, the heir, and His Majesty's representatives.

The Special Branch is a police intelligence unit, responsible for acquiring and managing intelligence concerning national security. It conducts the investigation on personal behavior, specifically on individuals with records, as well as provides a protection service for VIPs and high-risk locations.

Other functions of RTP include:

- Discipline Investigation
- Foreign Affair Services
- Forensic Science Operation
- Internal Audit
- Legal Affair Services
- Logistics Management
- Medical Services
- Personnel Management
- Planning and Budgeting
- Public Relations
- Tourist Services
- Training

Common crime has slightly increased in the period from 1998 to 2002. The homicide rate is approximately 7.29 per 100,000 people, according to the official reported cases (2002). The official 2002 serious crime index, including homicide, robbery, kidnapping, and arson, reported 12.74 incidents per 100,000 citizens. The rates are calculated based on police-submitted reports.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

The Office of Human Resources is the agency that is responsible for personnel management within the RTP, including human resource planning, recruitment, promotion, and rotation. It sets standards and qualifications, correspondent to the regulations set by the Office of the Civil Service Commission, for admission to police service as well as for promotion to higher rank.

There are two levels of entry to the police service: a rank-and-file level and a subinspector level. The successful applicants with a high school education receive training provided by the Police Education Bureau and become rank-and-file police officers, whereas those with a college

degree receive training provided by the Police Cadet Academy and become subinspectors. The cadets in the Police Academy are students who finished grade 10 and studied in the Pre-Cadet school for 2 years with the Army, Navy, and Air Force cadets, followed by a 4-year course in the academy. After graduation, the cadets receive a bachelor's degree and start their career at the subinspector level.

No entry is allowed beyond the subinspector ranks from outside of the agency; thus, promotions to the inspector rank and higher come from within the agency.

The requirements of candidates for police service are Thai citizenship, a male 14 to 18 years of age for a high school applicant, a male or female 18 to 35 years of age for a college graduate applicant, being of good character, achieving the required educational level, and passing various aptitude tests and a medical examination.

Basic training in the Police Cadet Academy and police school provided by the Police Education Bureau emphasizes both physical and academic programs. The police schools are located in nine regions correspondent to the Provincial Police Regions 1 to 9.

The RTP uses a militaristic style with operational ranks including:

- Commissioner General
- Deputy Commissioner General
- Assistant Commissioner General
- Commissioner
- Deputy Commissioner
- Assistant Commissioner
- Commander
- Deputy Commander
- Superintendent
- Deputy Superintendent
- Inspector
- Subinspector
- Rank-and-File Officer

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

The Anti Money Laundering Office (AMLO) is a financial intelligence unit for law enforcement

agencies in Thailand. Its primary functions are to collect and analyze reports submitted to AMLO by financial institutes and other sources in order to identify subjects for investigation and to conduct investigations leading to the seizure and forfeiture of assets which came from money-laundering processes.

The National Counter Corruption Commission (NCCC) is an agency created to prevent and suppress corruption problems in the country through many measurements, including inspection of assets and liabilities of persons holding political positions and state officials. It promotes accountability and transparency among the politicians, officials, and employees of a government agency to ensure their integrity.

The Special Investigation Department (SID) is a newly established law enforcement agency in Thailand, with duties to investigate special cases related to computer crime, terrorism, tax offenses, white-collar crime, and violation of the environment.

Prapon Sahapattana and Ruohui Zhao

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TOGO

Togo is a small country in West Africa bounded by the Gulf of Benin and the countries of Ghana, Burkina Faso, and Benin. The climate is tropical, especially in the south, and semi-arid in the north. French is the official language. The country has a population of 5.1 million people, including approximately 40 ethnic groups, the largest of which is the Ewe (20% to 25% of the population). Fifty-one percent of the people practice indigenous religious



beliefs, while 29% are Christian and 20% Muslim. The Togoese primarily engage in subsistence agriculture. The country is the world's fourth largest producer of phosphate and also mines such minerals as bauxite and marble. A commercial sector in the capital city, Lomé, exists but there is little fiscal discipline. The government, a republic in name, has been dominated since 1967 by President Gnassingbe Eyadema, who came to power in a military coup. The government is highly centralized and the president and his political party, Rally of the Togolese People (RPT), dominate all institutions of government. In a 1992 election apparently marred by significant fraud, the RPT won 72 of 81 seats in the National Assembly. The Assembly then proceeded to modify the 1992 constitution, which had limited the president to two terms, to allow the president to run again. In 1993, the opposition party boycotted the presidential election after its candidate was arrested. The new constitution also consolidated presidential power. The president and his political party have firm control over the government and strong influence over the judiciary.

The police force consists of the *Sûreté Nationale* and the *Gendarmerie*. Both agencies perform domestic intelligence functions. The Minister of the Interior is nominally in charge of the national police, and the Defense Minister heads most other security forces. Most of the police and other law enforcement

agencies are comprised of the Kabye ethnic minority. In practice, the president controls all security forces. According to the U.S. Department of State, these security forces commit serious human rights violations. Prison conditions are harsh, arbitrary arrest and detention and the beating of detainees frequently occurs; and privacy rights and freedoms of speech, the press, academics, assembly, association, and movement are severely restricted by the government and its police.

Given the police's heavy role in carrying out the political will of the government, there is only selective enforcement of either violent or property crimes. Pick-pocketing and theft, residential burglary, and carjackings are all common. Violence against women, female genital mutilation, discrimination against ethnic minorities, child labor, and trafficking in women and children are, at worst, accepted and, at best, ignored. For instance, the law does not specifically prohibit bonded labor or trafficking in persons, and in rural areas parents occasionally place their children into domestic labor for one-time fees as low as \$25.

Internet business fraud (Advance Fee Business Scams), usually associated with Nigeria, is now widely practiced in a number of West African countries, including Togo. Usually, these schemes involve requesting U.S. citizens for help in transferring large sums of money out of Togo. Other variations include asking for an advance of cash for what seems to be a legitimate business deal.

The government allots little funding to the investigation of crimes and record keeping is almost nonexistent.

Larry E. Sullivan

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TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO POLICE COMPLAINTS AUTHORITY

THE ORIGINS

The Police Complaints Authority Act No. 17 of 1993, which was proclaimed on October 16, 1995, established the Trinidad and Tobago Police Complaints Authority (PCA) as an impartial civilian body to address civilian complaints of police misconduct. The PCA opened formally on May 1, 1996 (PCA Amendment Act, 2000; PCA Annual Report, 2001).

The PCA was created to attend to the public's concern regarding discipline in the police services, provide a mechanism to address civilian complaints of police misconduct, and improve the image of the police services in the twin-island state (PCA Annual Report, 2000). Act No. 17 also created the Police Complaints Division (PCD), a unit in the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service, to investigate and resolve the complaints referred by the PCA (PCA Act, 1993).

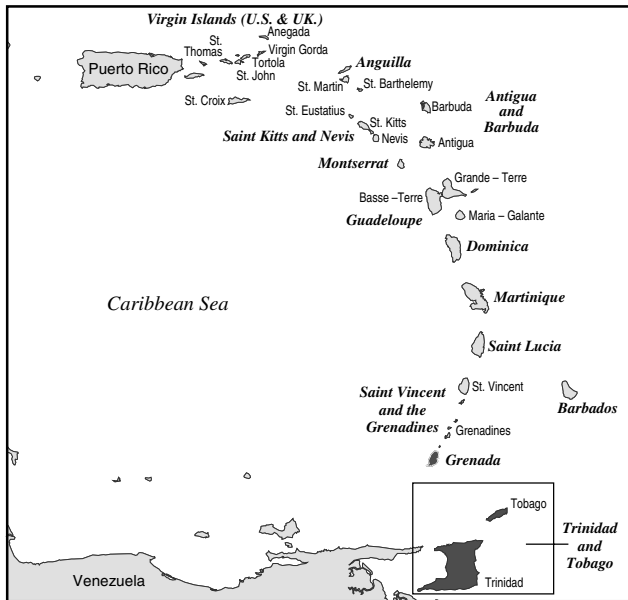
THE WORK OF THE AUTHORITY

The PCA performs the following functions:

- Receives and records complaints of police misconduct from aggrieved citizens
- Monitors the investigation of those complaints by the PCD
- Reviews reports submitted by the PCD
- Investigates complaints of unwarranted entries onto premises by police officers during domestic violence incidents
- Reports to the Minister of National Security from time to time, or at his request

STAFFING

The PCA's board consists of five members who are appointed by the President of the Republic of Trinidad and Tobago for a period not exceeding 3 years; the members may be reappointed. Staff



members, including administrative, clerical, and investigators, are appointed by the PCA.

FILING A COMPLAINT

Citizens may file complaints at:

- The PCA where a complaint form may be filled out
- Any police station in the twin-island state
- Any government agency, including the Office of the Prime Minister, the Office of the Attorney General, Ministry of National Security, and the Office of the Ombudsman.

INVESTIGATION

The PCA classifies complaints as formal (filed on the prescribed form) and informal (filed verbally). The formal complaints are forwarded to the PCD for investigation. The PCA's investigators resolve the informal complaints. Complainants whose complaints have been classified as informal may request a full investigation. Exhibit 1 illustrates the complaint investigation process.

The PCD classifies some complaints as frivolous. These frivolous complaints may not be investigated or, if an investigation has begun, it may be discontinued. The PCA, however, may order a full investigation if the agency's officials believe

the decision was reached as a "result of a misunderstanding, threat or other improper pressure" (PCA Act, 1993, p. 207). After a complaint has been investigated, the head of the PCD submits a full report to both the PCA and the Police Commissioner for review. The Police Commissioner then informs the PCA, complainant, and subject officer of his decision.

REVIEW OF COMPLAINTS

Complainants dissatisfied with their complaints' dispositions may request a review by the PCA. This request must be made in writing within 30 days after receiving the disposition. If the agency agrees to review the complaint, the relevant information concerning the complaint is requested from the PCD. On the completion of the review, if the PCA is satisfied with the PCD's disposition, the relevant parties are informed. Conversely, if the agency is dissatisfied with the disposition, it may submit a written report to the Minister of National Security setting out its findings and recommendations with respect to the complaint's disposition, request further investigation, or institute a hearing.

When the PCA decides to convene a hearing, a notice of the hearing is sent to the parties involved. The complainant is required to attend the hearing; if he or she does not, the complaint may be dismissed. Persons who receive a notice of hearing and refuse, neglect to attend, or leave the hearing without permission may be guilty of an offense and liable on conviction to a fine of \$1,000 and 2 years imprisonment. After the hearing is completed, the PCA informs the Police Commissioner, Minister of National Security, complainant, and the subject officer of its findings.

CONCLUSION

The PCA has been plagued by several problems since opening its doors. For example, from 1996 to 2001, the agency's work was hindered by staff turnover. Occasionally, the Board had difficulty mustering a quorum to conduct the agency's business. Problems emanating from the PCD's operations have hampered the PCA's work. Two problems are mentioned briefly. First, the monthly

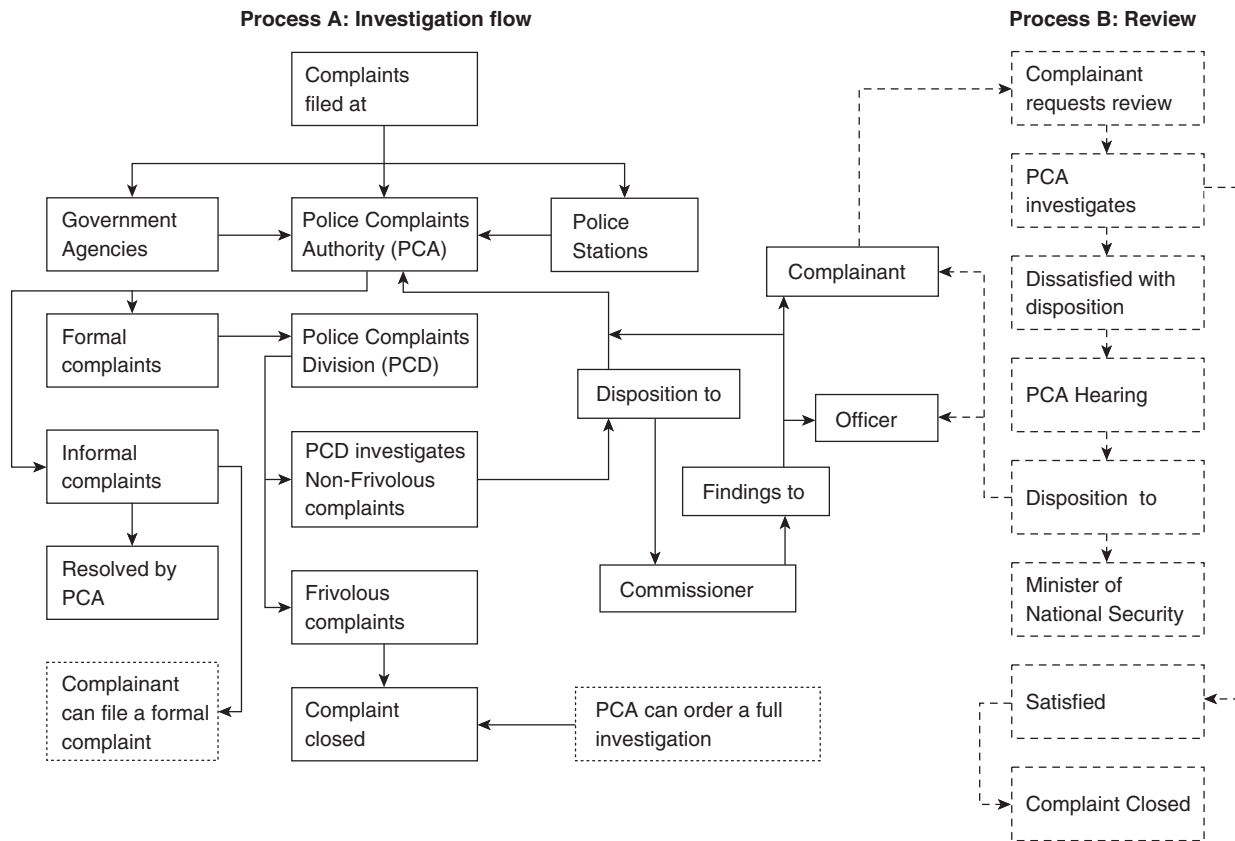


Exhibit 1 Police Complaints Authority Investigation Process

progress reports on the complaints submitted by the PCD have been untimely and inadequate. Second, the PCD’s slow complaint resolution rate continues to erode the public’s confidence in the PCA. For example, during the year from May 1, 2000 to April 31, 2001, 1,141 complaints were filed. By the end of the year, the PCD had only reported on 27 of these complaints (2.4%).

During the past 5 years, PCA officials have suggested several amendments to the legislation to help the agency fulfill its mandate; some were introduced in the PCA Amendment Act of 2000. In 2000, the PCA recommended the removal of the PCD from the process, thereby allowing the PCA to take full responsibility for investigating and resolving the complaints. In response, the government drafted legislation to make the PCA a completely independent entity. The bill (No. 16 of 2003) is awaiting approval in Parliament.

Keith Carrington

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TUNISIA

Tunisia, a country of 163,610 square kilometers, is located in North Africa on the Mediterranean Sea between Algeria and Libya. It has a population of 9.9 million people (July 2003 estimates). It was a French protectorate from 1881 until 1956, and much of Tunisia's civil infrastructure was inherited from French systems. A moderate Islamic state that has prioritized improving the status of women, Tunisia's liberal economic policies have contributed to relative social stability despite the perpetuation of a government dominated by single-party rule and an imperfect record of respecting the rights and freedoms of its citizens.

NATIONAL POLICE FORCE

Tunisia's national police force (*Sûreté Nationale*) operates primarily in urban areas; the National Guard (*Garde Nationale*) is responsible for policing in rural and outlying areas. Both the *Sûreté Nationale* and the *Garde Nationale* are responsible for maintaining law and order, and in some areas they share responsibility. Both services fall within the authority of the Ministry of the Interior and the President.

The *Sûreté Nationale* is responsible for security of the state. It is deployed throughout the country and consists of central organs; operational units; and national, regional, local, and externally active members. It also performs border control and diplomatic protection. The *Garde Nationale* also protects borders, including maritime borders. The mission of both is complementary; in case of dispute, the Ministry of the Interior decides.

The Ministry of the Interior also controls some members of the Judicial Police (*Police Judiciaire*), a force auxiliary to the procuracy and responsible



primarily for criminal investigations. Police chiefs, senior police officers, and chiefs of police stations as well as the officers, warrant officers, and chiefs of the national guard have come from the ranks of the Judicial Police.

POLICE RECRUITMENT

Candidates for the *Sûreté Nationale* must be Tunisian nationals of good character between the ages of 20 and 30 years; candidates for the rank of officer of the peace (lieutenants) must be between the ages of 18 and 23 years (at October 1 in the year of application). Other criteria include ability to work any shift, willingness to be deployed throughout the country, uncorrected eyesight of no worse than 15/20, and height requirements (at least 1.70 meters for men, 1.65 meters for women). Candidates for police chief must have a law degree or other relevant degree, officers must have a bachelor's degree, and other candidates must meet education requirements for their particular rank; all must pass an entry exam and physical examination.

SPECIALIZED UNITS

At least two special operations units in Tunisia have a counterterrorist mandate. The National Guard Special Unit (*Unité Spéciale Garde Nationale*)

[USGN]) is a small force of approximately 50, responsible for counterterrorism operations at government and diplomatic buildings, as well as aircraft hijackings and maritime situations. They are based in Hammamet.

The National Guard's Commando Company (*Groupement de Commando Garde Nationale* [GCGN]) has 150 members and provides perimeter security in the case of a serious incident. They provide support to the USGN in case of major operations. They also respond to serious criminal threats and operate from the National Guard headquarters near Tunis Airport.

Tunisia is a member of Interpol.

Johanna Bjorken

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☉ TURKEY

The Republic of Turkey is situated on a peninsula called Anatolia, or Asia Minor, between the continents of Asia and Europe. It has an area of 780,580 square kilometers; 740,200 square kilometers of this land, which is also called Anatolia, is in Asia, and the remaining 24,373 square kilometers, which is also called Tripoli, is in Europe.



With a population of 68.1 million people (July 2003 estimate), Turkey is a predominantly Muslim country (98% of the population). The other two main religious groups are Christians and Jews. As the definition of ethnic minority is based on religion only, the religious groups such as Christians (Armenians and Arabs) and Jews are defined as ethnic minorities. Other groups such as Abkhazians, Albanians, Bosnians, Caucasians, Chechens, Georgians, Kurds, and Laz (people of the Black Sea region) have always been regarded as integral parts of the mainstream Turkish identity. The word *Turk* is more of a national umbrella identity rather than being purely ethnic. Seeking independence or at least autonomy in favor of Kurds since the 1980s, the so-called Kurdish Workers Party (PKK) has been involved in terrorist activities since 1984 and has caused the deaths of more than 30,000 people, including Kurdish civilians, members of the security forces, and terrorists (Bal, 1999).

Following the Ottoman State, the Republic of Turkey was established under the leadership of Mustafa Kemal Atatürk in 1923. The Turkish constitution dictates that the Republic of Turkey is a democratic, secular, and social state, governed by the rule of law and respecting fundamental human rights and freedoms. However, modern Turkey can be defined as a parliamentary democracy. Legislative power is vested in the 550-member Turkish Grand

National Assembly (TBMM), whose members are elected for 5-year terms by the votes of Turkish citizens over the age of 18.

The President and the Prime Minister divide the functions and executive power. The Turkish president is the head of state and has important governmental powers. The Grand National Assembly elects him for a nonrenewable period of 7 years.

The judiciary is independent and includes a system of lower courts, the National Court of Appeals, and the Constitutional Court. Ankara, with a population of 4 million, is Turkey's capital. Istanbul is the largest city, with a population of more than 10 million, and is seen as the country's commercial and cultural capital. Major economic activities include agriculture, textiles, mining, trading, building construction, and manufacturing. Tourism has become an important economic activity during the last decade.

TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE (TNP)

The nation's primary police agency is the Turkish National Police (TNP), which dates back to the Ottoman State era. It was originally founded in 1845 in Istanbul. After the establishment of modern Turkey, it was organized as the General Directorate of Security and moved to Ankara. It has gradually become a highly centralized paramilitary police force. However, the TNP is not the only organization that provides law enforcement services. The Gendarmerie, as a part of the Turkish Army, is responsible for the policing of rural areas. The combined force strength of the Turkish National Police, Gendarmerie, and Special Police is 418,015, a ratio of 1 per 163 inhabitants.

Organization and Operations of the Turkish National Police

With approximately 190,000 sworn and non-sworn personnel, the TNP is partially a service-oriented police organization. With a ratio of 1 police officer for every 265 citizens, approximately 170,000 sworn personnel provide security services for more than 45 million inhabitants in urban areas. The number of female police officers is

approximately 8,000 (5% of the total force). Although female officers can be promoted up to the rank of commissioner/chief of police, only 5% of them are ranked officers. The rest hold the rank of police officer.

The agency is headed by the Director General of the Police, usually a civilian governor who has previously served as a government-appointed governor of a province. The Director General is appointed by the President of the Republic upon the request of the Minister of Interior and the Prime Minister and is accountable to the Minister of the Interior.

Despite its 7 geographic regions and 81 administrative provinces, Turkey has a highly centralized administrative system. Every institution is organized nationally and has its own headquarters (HQ) in Ankara. Every organization, including the police, has a sub-HQ in each of the provinces. The head of police in a province is called Director of Security/Police Chief and is appointed by the Interior Minister as the representative of the central government. The Chief of Police is accountable to the Interior Minister through its local representative, the Governor.

General Directorate of Security

The General Directorate of Security has several departments and subunits, which are directly controlled by the General Director. These are:

- Cabinet of General Directorate
- Inspection Board
- Division of Press
- Protocol and Public Relations
- Police Academy
- Department of Intelligence
- Expert Chiefs of Police for Research-Planning and Coordination
- Department of Special Operations
- Department of Legal Counselor
- Civil Defense Experts Office

The General Director is the only police chief holding a five-star badge in the country. Five deputies, who have the second highest position and who are four-star police chiefs, assist the General Director in operating 24 departments—Research-Planning and Coordination, Administrative and Financial Affairs,

Maintenance and Supply, Construction and Real Estate, Archive and Documentation, Communications, Aviation, Counter Smuggling and Organized Crime, Public Order, Road Traffic, Information Technologies, Central Command and Control, Foreigners, Border and Immigration, Training, Security, Health Services, Personnel Affairs, Counter Terrorism and Operation, Criminal Police Laboratories, Interpol, Safeguard, Foreign Relations, and Social Services.

A four-star police chief also heads each department. They are responsible for administering the services within their departments and coordinating the services for the provinces in their fields of interest.

Policing style is mainly traditional and based on reactive policing methods. Projects involving the concept of community policing are almost nonexistent. Only in recent years have some mid-management level police officers become interested in the idea of community policing, following academic studies undertaken by members of the Police Academy. However, a highly centralized organizational structure and a lack of appropriate mechanisms do not allow community policing practices at ground-level policing.

The Department of Public Order collects statistics about crimes such as those crimes against humans and property. In general, there was a significant increase in almost all crime categories between 1990 and 2002. Particularly between the years of 1990 and 1995, there was a sharp increase in crimes against life and property, followed by a more gradual rise between 1995 and 1999. Dramatic changes in crimes between the years of 1990 and 1996 are mainly because of the domestic migration from the east to the west part of the country.

As a transit country of illegal smuggling and bidirectional drug trafficking, Turkey has always been subject to massive money-laundering schemes. Traditional organized crime patterns, in recent years, have become more white-collar in nature. A new Organized Crime Law was enacted in 1999 to neutralize criminal organizations and their threatening links among politicians and government officials. However, these strong connections made

the law inefficient and not applicable to those white-collar criminals.

Inspectors of the ministry and police inspectors who are members of the Inspection Board investigate disciplinary cases and complaints against police officers. The decisions are given by the provincial or central disciplinary boards, which are comprised of police chiefs and other civilian officials including the deputy governors. The administrative functions of the police are monitored by the governors, whereas the judicial functions are controlled and monitored by the public prosecutors. Police officials can be dismissed from their organizations owing to disciplinary, corruption, or criminal cases by the decisions of the disciplinary boards. Appeals can be made to the administrative courts.

Provincial Police Forces

Each province has its own provincial police HQ. However, all positions, from chief down to line officers, are appointed by the central government. The National HQ in Ankara determines all issues such as personnel, pay, training, appointments, inspection, and promotion. Local governments have no say or control over policing policies or practices. The mayor of a city or a town does not have any authority or formal involvement with police services. Hence, the highly centralized Turkish administrative system does not allow any formal local participation or involvement in policing.

The provincial forces have copied the departmental structure of the National Police Headquarters. However, the status of the departments in the provinces has been reduced into branches. For instance, the Department of Personnel is called the Branch of Personnel. Each branch of the provincial police force functions in coordination with its counterpart or corresponding department within the National HQ.

Recruiting, Training, and Promotion

As a highly centralized national police force, the TNP also has a centralized police training system.

Training was revised and major changes were introduced at the end of 2001. Currently, there are four different levels of pre-service police training institutions in Turkey. In addition, some departments offer in-service courses to their staff as well as officers from neighboring or overseas countries.

Each institution has slightly different application procedures. However, the basic and common criterion is that police applicants must be Turkish citizens. Police training institutions in Turkey are:

- Police College (1) (high school level)
- Police Schools (20) (2-year university level)
- Faculty of Security Sciences (1) (4-year university level)
- Institute for Security Sciences (1) (graduate school level)

All these institutions, with the exception of the Police College, operate under the National Police Academy. Because the Police College is not a university-level educational institution, it operates under the National HQ. The Police Academy is a university-level umbrella institution. A Police Chief with at least a master's degree or a civilian faculty professor can be appointed as the President of the Academy.

Police College (High School Level)

The Police College is a 4-year training institution at the high school level. The only existing Police College is in Ankara. Entrance is by a national entry exam. Students of the College are between the ages of 13 and 17 years. It is a boarding school, and the curriculum is the same as that of the public schools and does not include any material related to police studies. Police-related training is limited to so-called occupational spirit and marching conducted by staff officers. During their education, students wear a student uniform and obey strict rules. Students are familiarized with the hierarchical structure of policing, as they are required to respect their civilian teachers and senior students. Concurrently the Police High School provides a very early occupational socialization. Students graduating from the Police High School are directly

admitted to the Faculty of Security Science. Graduates accepted for study at a civilian university are sponsored by the TNP if the course of study is in the interest of the police.

Police Schools (2-Year College Level)

The second level of police training institutions is Police School (PS). Only civilian high school graduates are admitted to follow the program offered by the Police Schools. The 20 Police Schools in Turkey are located regionally. Recruits are admitted depending on the grades they receive from a general university entry exam. Once accepted, the cadets receive a 2-year, mostly classroom-based, theoretical education in a boarding school environment. This initial education and training period is also an essential part of police occupational socialization and police subculture. Cadets undertake 1 month of supervised field experience during the summer training camp period. Students who successfully complete their studies at a PS serve as rank-and-file officers throughout their careers unless they pass promotional examinations.

Faculty of Security Sciences (University Level)

Faculty of Security Sciences operates under the administration of the Police Academy. There are two different sources for the Faculty. One is the Police College and the other is civilian high schools. Cadets with a Police College background are automatically admitted, whereas cadets with a civilian high school background need to achieve a very high grade in the National University Entry Exam to be accepted.

Like the Police College and Police Schools, the Faculty of Security Sciences is a boarding training institution. Cadets, both from the Police College and civilian (public) high schools, attend the Faculty of Security Sciences and receive a 4-year, full-time university education. Cadets, who complete their studies at the Faculty, are to follow 2 months of supervised field training during the summer training camp period. After graduation, they are appointed to

the rank of sergeant. They have the opportunity of promotion through all the ranks up to police chief.

Institute for Security Sciences (Graduate School Level)

The Institute for Security Sciences is a graduate school where M.A. and Ph.D. programs are offered in policing, as well as associated fields such as criminology, international policing, police management, comparative policing, and criminal justice administration. Students with either background mentioned previously may be enrolled in postgraduate studies. The minimum educational requirement for admittance is a 4-year university degree from the Faculty of Security Sciences or any other civilian university in Turkey. Civilian applicants who have studied in social sciences, such as law, politics, and sociology, have a better chance than those from other disciplines. Those students, if they hold M.A. and Ph.D. degrees, are likely to become eminent senior police officers.

These national training institutions offer pre-service training for the TNP, whereas the Department of Training of the National Headquarters offers in-service training courses for the whole organization. Some of the departments have their own in-service training centers. For instance, the Department of Counter Smuggling and Organized Crime serves the Turkish International Academy against Drugs and Organized Crime (TADOC), and the Department of Public Order serves the Training Center for Crime Research and Investigation.

The TNP maintains nine operational ranks, which can be categorized as high-management ranks, mid-management ranks, and line supervision ranks (see Table 1).

Police personnel, within a category, earn automatic promotion once the rank of sergeant is achieved. Promotional Examinations are conducted before promotion to the ranks of superintendent and three-star police chief. The examinations are paper-based written exams and are not assessment center oriented. After successfully passing the exams, officers attend 2-week promotional courses designed by the Institute for Security Sciences.

Table 1 Operational Ranks of the Turkish National Police

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Numbers (July, 2003)</i>
<i>High-Management Ranks:</i>	
Four-Star Police Chief (Commissioner)	21
Four-Star Police Chief	711
Three-Star Police Chief	612
<i>Mid-Management Ranks:</i>	
Two-Star Police Chief	582
One-Star Police Chief	532
Superintendent (Major)	1,415
<i>Line Supervision Ranks:</i>	
Chief Inspector (Captain)	3,988
Inspector (Lieutenant)	3,370
Sergeant	3,527
Police/Line Officers:	154,181
Total:	168,939

OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AND SECURITY ORGANIZATIONS

Gendarmerie

The Turkish administration system is copied from the French model; therefore, the Gendarmerie has a role in policing services in Turkey. The Gendarmerie was established in 1849 and is a part of the Turkish armed forces. It has some symbolic operational ties with the Interior Ministry. It is supposed to undertake internal security services only in rural areas. The current armed force of the Gendarmerie is more than 170,000, of whom 125,000 are privates and the remaining 45,000 are ranking officers.

The Turkish Police, with its highly centralized structure, is arguably a paramilitary police force rather than a service. What is more, the Gendarmerie, which is a military force, is trying to undertake general policing services. This is considered as a major issue and concern for the Turkish democracy. The Gendarmerie's legal jurisdiction covers 92% of the land. The only geographical area policed by the so-called civil police, the TNP, is the city centers and surrounding municipal borders.

The use of the Gendarmerie for policing functions raises some questions. First, it is a part of the army and enjoys military immunity. In other words, the Gendarmerie undertakes police functions in rural areas but without having any accountability to the national and local political administration.

Secondly, Gendarmerie personnel are not professionally trained police officers. Although the Gendarmerie has a number of full-time professionally trained officers, line officers (corporal) are simply soldiers serving their compulsory military service. This means that the Gendarmerie undertakes policing functions with inadequately trained soldiers.

Thirdly, the legal jurisdiction of the Gendarmerie has, in the past, been restricted to patrolling within the national borders and policing the rural areas such as villages and hamlets. However, currently the Gendarmerie is attempting to extend its jurisdiction. For example, the Gendarmerie has HQs and substations in every city and town. They have gradually undertaken a number of policing functions, such as patrolling the cities with marked army vehicles, offering traffic services on highways, and policing some universities located in cities.

Coast Guard

The Coast Guard, like the Gendarmerie, is not a professional law enforcement agency. It functions under the Navy. Its jurisdiction includes the sea borders only. Similar to that of the Gendarmerie, line officers working as members of Coast Guard are not professionally trained law enforcement officers. It does have full-time professionally trained military officers, but the line officers are simply soldiers serving their compulsory military service. The numbers of Coast Guard personnel, including soldiers and officers, is approximately 1,600.

Special Police

Apart from the traditional police, the Gendarmerie, and the Coast Guard, some government departments provide their own security services by deploying special police forces. Also, some private institutions such as the department stores and public and private banks also hire and train their own special

police personnel. The current number of special police personnel is 58,015. These personnel are only allowed to carry firearms during their work hours and in the premises where they work.

Private Security Companies

Finally, during the late 1990s a number of private security companies were established to offer private security services for the private sector. They are not authorized to carry firearms. As it is a new industry, there is no legislation covering their services and the exact number of private security personnel is not known. According to the data of the Department of Safeguard (TNP), their number is approximately 95,000 throughout the country.

Ibrahim Cerrah

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TURKMENISTAN

Turkmenistan, independent from the Soviet Union since 1991, is a nation of 4.8 million people equal in size to California.



The 1992 Constitution provides for the rule of law with power concentrated in the Office of the President. The judiciary is charged with upholding the Constitution and the Supreme Law, which is the name given the national code of civil and criminal laws based on the continental legal system. The Ministry of Justice oversees the judicial system, while the Office of the Procurator General, directly subordinated to the President of Turkmenistan, is responsible for ensuring that investigative agencies and court proceedings are in compliance with the Constitution and the Supreme Law. The President appoints the Procurator General and the procurators in each province.

The national police force is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. The Minister of Internal Affairs is the nation's Police Chief. He, his deputies, and the police chiefs in the provinces, administrative units, and localities are appointed by the President of Turkmenistan. Police departments do not have an investigative function; that role is filled by the procurator's offices. The police role is confined to routine maintenance of public order and to certain administrative tasks, such as controlling the internal passport regime, issuing visas for foreign travel, registering foreign visitors, licensing possession of weapons, and monitoring traffic safety. The Ministry of Internal Affairs and its subordinated departments are divided into following sections:

- Regular patrolling service
- Service for fighting against economic and drug-related crimes
- Passport section
- Motor vehicle section
- Section for prosecution and preliminary investigations
- State protection section
- Section for the affairs of minors

The Law secures the right of the police to violate an individual's rights and freedoms when necessary. Police may enter any premises regardless of time and ownership. Police officers are allowed to apply physical force, special means, and weapons to prevent resistance or offenses.

The Committee for National Security (formerly the Soviet KGB) has its own investigative branch, national security troops, special operation forces, and educational and research institutions. This system can be involved in the investigation and prosecution of all crimes.

Police personnel are trained in police courses, and most police officers are recruited while serving their active military duty. Commanding officers are prepared by the Training School of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which is an institution of higher education. Graduates of this school receive an officer's rank and a law degree. Law enforcement personnel are also recruited from the graduates of civilian universities and law schools. Agreements on retraining of police officers are concluded with Turkey and Russia. The minimum age for service in law enforcement is 18 years. Professional organizations of law enforcement personnel are not allowed. Turkmenistan is not a member of Interpol. It concluded a number of bilateral agreements on police cooperation with neighboring and former Soviet countries.

Peter Roudik

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TUVALU

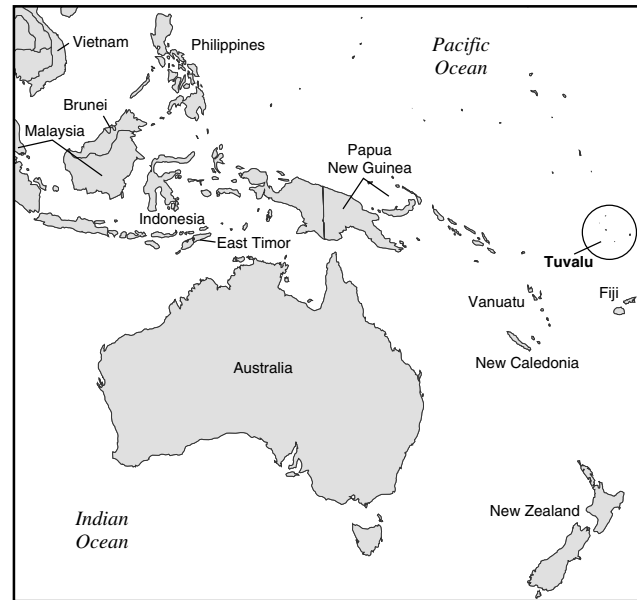
Tuvalu is located in the Oceania island group and consists of nine coral atolls in the South Pacific Ocean, about halfway between Hawaii and Australia. The name Tuvalu means “group of eight,” referring to the country’s eight traditionally inhabited islands. Tuvalu has a population of approximately 10,000 citizens, primarily of Polynesian descent (96% Polynesian and 4% Micronesian) and occupies a land area of little more than 10 square miles. The official languages are Tuvaluan, English, Samoan, and Kiribati. The primarily subsistence economy relies mainly on coconuts, taro, and fishing.

Tuvalu gained its independence in 1978, and the government is operating based on a Constitution that provides for a Westminster-style (British) parliamentary democracy. The unicameral Parliament (*Fale i Fono*), also called House of Assembly, is composed of 15 seats, and the members are elected by popular vote to serve 4-year terms. The head of state is the British monarch, who is represented in the country by the Governor General, who must be a Tuvaluan citizen. The judiciary system is independent. The Judicial Branch is composed of:

- The High Court (A Chief Justice visits twice a year to preside over its sessions, and its ruling can be appealed to the Court of Appeal in Fiji.)
- Eight Island Courts with limited jurisdiction

There are no regular military forces. A 32-member police constabulary, the only security force, is responsible to and effectively controlled by civilian authority. The Police Force includes a Maritime Surveillance Unit, whose purpose is to provide search and rescue missions and surveillance operations. The Constitution prohibits arbitrary arrest, detention, or exile, and the government observes these prohibitions.

The society is generally egalitarian; however, social behavior, as determined by custom and



tradition, is considered as important as the law. It is ensured by village elders and leads to some discrimination. Local hereditary elders exercise considerable traditional authority, including a seldom-invoked right to inflict corporal punishment for infringing customary rules, which can be at odds with the national law. Overall, Tuvalu has a low crime rate. The prison facilities consist of several holding cells at the back of the police station. The most common violation appears to be drunkenness.

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U

UGANDA

Uganda is a landlocked country divided into northern and southern regions—the North is more arid and the population is predominantly Muslim; the South is lush and the population is predominantly Bantu. It is a country the size of Oregon with a population of approximately 25 million people. Most of Lake Victoria is within Uganda; it, with Lake Albert, is where the headwaters of the Nile originate. Lake Albert forms a long border with the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo.) Early western relations began with missionary settlements in the 19th century followed by British colonization. The highlands of southern Uganda are home to extensive coffee, tea, and banana plantations. After 1895 Uganda became part of British East Africa and remained so until its independence in 1962. Ravaged by tribal disturbances and a breakdown of civil services, the country fell under the dictatorial rule of Idi Amin (1971-1979) and then Milton Obote (1980-1985). The current President, Yoweri Museveni, has been President and Head of State since a military coup in 1986. He was elected to 5-year terms in 1996 and 2001.

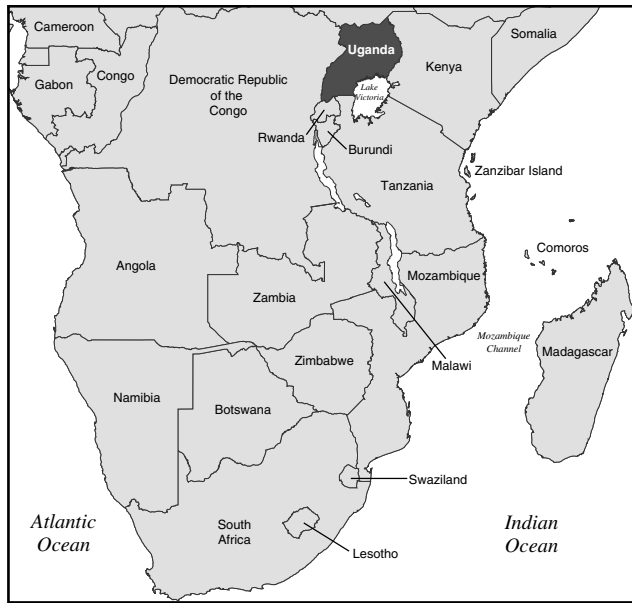
The country is among those most severely hit by HIV and AIDS and has become a pioneer for recognition of the problem and treatment of victims. Uganda has suffered from the wars in the Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo.) to the west, the genocide in Rwanda to the south, and the incursions from the north

by a rebel movement called the Lord's Resistance Army, who abducts children and massacres entire villages. The country attained some international notoriety because of an aircraft hijacking that led to the Israeli raid on Entebbe airport, suggesting that Uganda's own resources to deal with terrorist events are limited. The World Bank for Development has shown interest in helping Uganda stabilize its currency and improve its exports with the help of research done at the University College Dublin, Ireland.

POLICING IN UFGANDA

Uganda has struggled to protect its borders from incursions from the Congo (Democratic Republic of Congo.) and to assist in the movement of refugees from there and Rwanda/Burundi. These have largely been functions of the small Army (force strength is estimated at less than 6,000 people). The police force is the successor to the Armed Constabulary formed in 1900 with 1,450 Africans under the command of British officers. It now has between 10,000 and 12,000 officers, at best estimates, a ratio of 1 for every 2,000-2,500 inhabitants. It is modeled after the British Police service. English is the principal language of the country.

Ankola, Bunyoro, and Toro, now part of Uganda, all had separate police, but these small forces became subject to the Inspector General of Police after the Constitution was put in place in 1962. However, the Inspector General had minimal control over these



provincial forces after 1967. The British common law system serves as the basis of enforcement.

The Inspector General of Police, who is appointed by the President on the advice of the Public Service Commission, has considerable independence from judicial review. Four Regional Commanders of Police assist the Inspector General. There is a Police Council, which includes the Inspector General, the permanent secretary of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, and four other members to oversee recruitment. The force is divided into the following units:

- Uniform Branch, which is mainly assigned to urban duties
- Special Branch
- Criminal Investigation Dept (CID)
- Railway Police

There is a small air wing, consisting of a General Services Unit (GSU) and some helicopters. This dimension of the air wing is essential as the roadway infrastructure is poor and rainy seasons make some tracks impassable. There is a Police College in Kampala, near Lake Victoria, and a training school at Naguru where noncommissioned officers (NCOs) are sent for promotion and refresher training. A police tracker force specializes in pursuing cattle raiders. Specialized units also include a Detective Branch and a Special Forces Unit, which is trained by Israel Communications.

Police objectives for crime fighting in the 1990s included:

- Reduction in street crime and improved police skills
- Public awareness programs
- Reducing traffic accidents
- Crime prevention
- Needs analysis

The key issues are training, resources, and support. Some leadership training is provided through the British Commonwealth and the National Police College's international leadership program at CENTREX (Central Police Training and Development Authority). Officers are sent abroad to study when possible in Australia, the United States, France, and Israel.

The male population is relatively young because of the high AIDS death rate, reducing the number of young persons eligible for both the Army and the Police. The Army is overextended in the management of three of its borders to control raiders from the north and assist refugees in the west and south. The police function is mainly focused on the cities of Entebbe, Kampala, Jinja, and Port Bell, which are all transportation hubs. Tribal authorities and the councils of elders manage rural disputes.

THE FUTURE OF POLICING

The future of policing is uncertain as the government's main focus is on the Army and military operations needed to control its borders. Only the border with Kenya is relatively stable. The infrastructure needs better telecommunications. While there is telephone service, it is limited, as is cell phone use. Tribal stresses within the service and poor pay open the door for corruption. Analysts have identified needs for training in human rights protection, dispute resolution, and equal rights. The refugee population has placed enormous strains on the nation's resources, already burdened by heavy debt. The United Nations High Commission on Refugees (UNHCR) as well as other relief and support agencies are often criticized for not doing enough to help Uganda develop mechanisms for policing refugee camps and promoting solutions to the refugee crisis.

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UKRAINE

Located in Eastern Europe, with an area of 233,000 square miles, Ukraine's estimated population is 50 million people (May 2000).

POLICE AND THE MINISTRY OF INTERNAL AFFAIRS

Ukraine has a nationalized and centralized police force operating within the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which also consists of a nationalized fire department, prison administration, and inner troops (consisting of 42,300 service people, comparable to National Guard units in the United States). In addition, in 2002, Ukraine established the Military Law Enforcement Service (MLES), a separate entity for the investigation of crimes within the military; however, it is not to be fully mobilized until 2005.

Since the break-up of the Soviet Union, the nation has been a sovereign and free state. Ukraine gained independence on August 24, 1991. It is considered the *breadbasket* of the former Soviet republics because of its agricultural resources. However, the Soviet Union depleted Ukraine of many of its natural resources, and it is dependent on Russia for its energy. Since independence Ukraine has struggled with economic and political instability.

The first post-Soviet Constitution was adopted on June 28, 1996. The post-Soviet structure of the Ministry of Internal Affairs reflects the autocratic, centralized command structure that operated in Soviet times. Soviet Ukraine had a neoinquisitorial system that emphasized criminal investigations over trials. The investigators' reports were almost exclusively relied upon at trial, giving the state an



overwhelming advantage; acquittals in the 1980s averaged less than one-half of one percent.

Observers have suggested that the key issues for Ukraine since independence have been sovereignty and survival, leaving little room for criminal justice reform that would replace an orientation toward the needs of the State with one that protects citizens and respects the rights of the individual. As such, police reform has been slow, although a number of legislative debates have addressed it. For example, in February 2003, members of parliament discussed the potential creation of an independent, pretrial investigative committee that would act to balance the partiality and political bias of the Ministry.

According to a sociological survey conducted by the Ukrainian Center for Economic and Political Studies (UCEPS) in June 2000, 47.4% of Ukrainian citizens indicated that crime was their greatest concern among national issues. Indeed, Ukraine has suffered a dramatic increase in property crime, organized crime, and drug trafficking since independence. In general, reported crime increased two-and-a-half-fold between 1988 and 1997. Observers have attributed the change to the collapse of the Soviet economy in 1989 and 1990, which led to hyperinflation and mass impoverishment. Simultaneously, a class of rich entrepreneurs emerged, many involved in crime in order to avoid excessive taxation. As a result, the shadow economy

represented approximately 45% of the economic activity during the first years of independence. Subsequently, protection rackets emerged as whole sectors of commerce fell into the control of criminal organizations.

In 1999, the police counted 857 organized crime groups operating in the country, up from 260 in 1991. According to Interior Minister Yuriy Smrnov, 722 criminal groups were shut down in 2001 and 30 organized crime contact killings were solved. That year reportedly saw a small reduction in overall recorded crime over the year before. According to the UCEPS, the crime rate was 1,110 for every 100,000 people (compared to Poland and Russia with 2,900 and 2,050 criminal offenses per 100,000 citizens, respectively).

Regarding drug trafficking, Ukraine is a mid-point in the flow of poppy and hemp from Asia to Western Europe. In 1997 and 1998, approximately 35,000 cases involving narcotics were brought each year to the courts. An additional 26,000 people, mostly from rural districts, were fined for illegally planting poppies. Approximately 65,000 individuals were registered as drug abusers in 1997, up from 8,000 in 1992. The actual number of abusers is estimated to be as high as 500,000. Ukraine's 1996-2000 anticrime program established drug squads at all administrative levels of the police force.

Illegal migration has also been targeted as a significant problem in Ukraine. The country is a transit route for people migrating from Asia to Western Europe. In 1999, 14,646 illegal immigrants were detained on either the western border or the Ukrainian-Russian border.

In addition, corruption is considered widespread by observers of the Ukrainian police. Between January and August 2002, 58 criminal cases were brought against police officers and there were 334 cases involving former police officers. Of the aforementioned, 124 were for exceeding powers, 43 for bribery, and 41 for abuse of office. An additional 828 Ministry of Internal Affairs employees were dismissed during the same time period for malfeasance. Solomon and Foglesong (2001) refer to the corrupt phenomenon of entrepreneurial policing in which officers, and even whole police units,

succumb to providing services to organized crime in exchange for money.

In December of 2002, Operation Clean Hands was initiated in order to investigate misdeeds at all levels of the ministry. It includes studies of the ethics and performance of officers from the perspective of their colleagues, family members, and the public. The operation also established increased investigation into the backgrounds of potential recruits.

Moreover, the community-oriented model of policing has been imported to Ukraine. In 1995, the Community Policing Training Initiative (CPTI), established by the U.S. State Department and Project Harmony, organized community policing exchange programs in Ukraine. The American model of community policing encourages cooperative partnerships between the police and local communities and emphasizes a decentralized approach to crime fighting. Proponents of this model viewed it as a means of addressing the difficult transformation of the country from Soviet-style communism to democracy. Numerous police personnel exchanges occurred between Ukraine and the United States in the 1990s aimed at nurturing the community policing initiative.

Critics have pointed out, however, that the centralized, hierarchical command structure of Ukrainian policing is antithetical to a community-oriented policing style. Moreover, insufficient resources for the police in general have reportedly thwarted the effort. One research poll conducted in Kharkiv indicated that only one third of the public believes the Ukrainian police do "a good job" in terms of maintaining order and solving crime. Ninety percent reported that they had not encountered a beat officer in more than 12 months. Information in Kharkiv from the police themselves reflected that their heavy workload did not make reaching out to the public a priority.

POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The Ukrainian Police Force is an armed, civilian agency with an authorized strength of 226,800 police officers (2002). Interior Minister Yuriy Smrnov has estimated that there is 1 officer for

approximately every 400 citizens. In contrast, European Union (EU) countries average 1 officer for every 238 citizens (2002). In 1997, there were 11,745 female police personnel, representing nearly 20% of the Ministry's personnel.

Interior Minister Yuriy Smyrnov is accountable to the President through his cabinet. Authority emanates from the Ministry of Internal Affairs through police stations located in the 25 geographic oblasts (states). A high-ranking general heads the police in each oblast, which is further subdivided into various districts. Some larger cities have several such districts. For example, the city of Lviv has five subdistricts within its borders. Each district is commanded by a colonel, lieutenant colonel, or major. The lower ranks parallel that of the Ukrainian military. There are nine levels below the rank of general.

The specialized units within the Ministry that are responsible for police functions are:

- Headquarters—Provides systematic analyses of criminal trends and plans strategically. It also supervises the activities of all the subordinate units.
- Personnel Department—Coordinates recruitment, training, and strategic planning.
- Secretariat—Maintains secret law enforcement intelligence and monitors and distributes printed information throughout the Ministry.
- Department for Combating Organized Crime—Responsible for the neutralization of organized crime, with a particular focus on money laundering.
- Criminal Investigations Department—Drawing on interregional and international intelligence, combats personal crimes, such as serial murders, and conducts investigations into missing persons.
- State Department for Combating Economic Crimes—Involved in the protection of property rights and the detection of financial crimes such as bank fraud, bribery, and illegal trade.
- Drug Enforcement Department—Operates in all regions of the country and counters the sale and consumption of illegal drugs, working in partnership with the Ministry for Healthcare.
- Criminal Militia Department for Combating Juvenile Delinquency—Focusing on young offenders, acts in cooperation with social welfare agencies to prevent and uncover delinquency.
- Investigations Department—Provides organizational and methodological support for specialized units combating the most serious crimes.
- Preliminary Investigations Department—Investigates minor offenses.
- Expertise and Forensic Department—Using high-tech equipment and laboratory analysis, registers, processes, and evaluates evidence, including firearms and ammunitions, tire tracks, and fingerprints. A Special Explosives Service handles cases involving explosives and bomb-making equipment.
- Transport Militia Service—Policing the railroad lines.
- Interpol National Central Bureau—This office is a liaison to the General Secretariat of Interpol.
- Foreign Relations Department—This division acts as a liaison to the law enforcement agencies of other countries.
- Center for Public Relations—Provides information to the mass media, with the intent to keep the public informed about policing activities and criminal trends. It also conducts victimization surveys.
- State Traffic Inspection—Provides enforcement of traffic laws, regulates passenger and cargo transportation, and oversees drivers licensing functions.
- Department of Administrative Militia—Encompasses the largest law enforcement division, including patrol service, residential inspection, passports and migration, and firearms licensing. It includes the rapid response unit *Berkut*, whose highly trained officers handle extreme situations such as rioting.
- Security and Protection Service—Provides protection for the transport of valuable cargo.
- Information Bureau—Focuses on statistics and archival work and also coordinates electronic information technology for the agency.
- Logistics Support—Coordinates equipment and supplies for the Ministry such as radios, firearms and ammunition, and vehicles.

In recent years, the police have been plagued by officer resignations in response to low and inconsistent remuneration. In 1997, police officers in the Lviv region were not paid for several months because of budgetary problems related to the country's economic collapse after independence. Leaving for the private sector, 28,000 officers resigned in 1999, in response to low salary provisions in a recent government budget. In 2000, the

police reportedly received only 30% of their pay. According to the Interior Minister, 20% of officers in 2002 earned an income below the subsistence minimum. In the fall of 2002, there were 3,000 resignations in 2 months.

A lack of resources has also led to insufficient amounts of supplies and equipment. Shortages of radios, computers, vehicles, and fuel have been reported. In the early 1990s, police were known to commandeered private vehicles in order to respond to crime.

Traditionally, those leaving military service and who have high school educations have filled the ranks of entry-level police officers. Training of officers occurs at the main police academy in Kiev or at one of the smaller academies in the major cities. After several months of training, officers earn associate's degrees. There is no on-the-job training; thus, new officers begin police work directly after attending the training academies. The officer-level curriculum focuses heavily on legal training, similar to the style of training in Poland and the Czech Republic. Critics have called for a curriculum with increased attention to communication skills, arbitration and negotiation, and the use of initiative and discretion. Specialized training takes up to 2 years to complete, with officers earning a bachelor's degree. Master's and doctoral level police training are also available.

The U.S. Department of State's Office of International Criminal Justice has provided additional training to Ukrainian officers as part of its Anti-Crime Training and Technical Assistance Program (ACTTA). Since 1994, American law enforcement practitioners have traveled to Ukraine to provide instruction in combating financial crimes, drug trafficking, organized crime, domestic violence, and the trafficking of women, among other subjects.

Ukraine is a member of Interpol.

Staci Strobl

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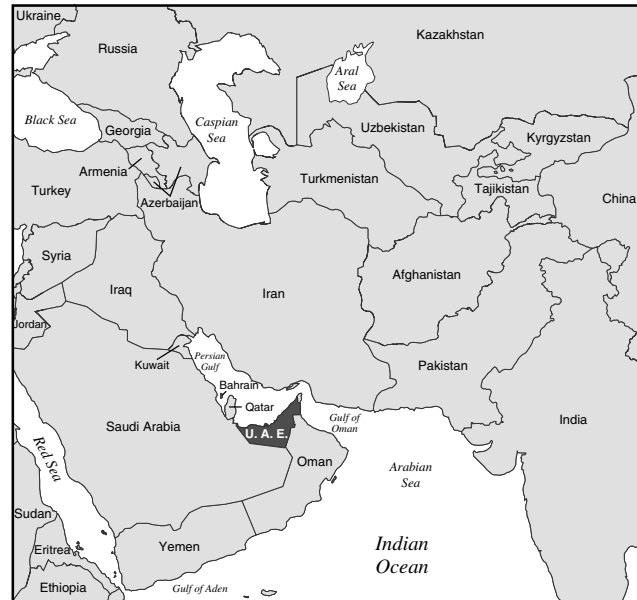
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UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

Located on the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman, the United Arab Emirates is bordered by Saudi Arabia and Oman. It has an area of 82,880 square kilometers and a population of 4 million people, of whom almost 75% are non-native. The population is concentrated along the coast, in two emirates—1.5 million people live in Abu Dhabi, the center for oil production, and 1.2 million live in Dubai, the center for commerce. From the 17th to the 19th centuries, the region was known as the “pirate coast” because of the frequent raids conducted on shipments through this important transit area. From 1852, the British formed a truce with the local sheikhs and became responsible for defense. After the United Kingdom ended the truce, the United Arab Emirates were founded from six Arab sheikdoms that united in 1971 (and was joined by a seventh in 1972).

The federal government has authority over foreign affairs, defense, education and health, money and currency, issues over nationality and citizenship, and other administrative issues such as post, telecommunications, and roads. The seven emirates have a large degree of autonomy, including over law enforcement and natural resources and revenues. A Federal Supreme Council (FSC), composed of the seven emirate rulers, establishes general policies and sanctions federal legislation; it is the highest constitutional authority in the country. The ruler of Abu Dhabi is the president, and the ruler of Dubai is the vice president and prime minister; these two figures have considerable authority, including veto power over the FSC.

The United Arab Emirates is rich in oil, and petroleum processing is a major source of wealth. While in the mid-20th century the country had no paved roads and ranked low on scales of development, the country’s GDP and standard of living is now close to that of Western Europe. Abu Dhabi, as the source of more than 80% of the United Arab



Emirates’ oil and gas wealth, is the wealthier of the two emirates and dominates policy development.

Federal police forces are subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior; security guard forces are also under federal authority within the Ministry of the Interior. Until independence, individual sheikhs had their own police forces. In 1976, police forces were unified under the Ministry of the Interior, but the organization, structure, and operations of each emirate force remain individual and unique.

Emirate police forces are large and well financed. In Dubai, for example, the police claim 15,000 personnel, 1 for every 80 inhabitants. Dubai and Abu Dhabi have independent resources for forensics and training.

The federal government and the emirate of Dubai have independent internal security organizations.

Johanna Bjorken

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UNITED KINGDOM

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (UK) consists of a group of islands situated off the western coast of Europe. The UK is a union of England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland, with English being the official language and the pound sterling (£) being the currency. In this entry, the analysis of policing in England and Wales is done together. Both Scotland and Northern Ireland are described in separate sections within this entry—Scotland because the Scottish legal system differs in important respects; Northern Ireland because of its unique history of terrorist or freedom-fighting activities, depending on one’s political viewpoint.

The population of the UK is in excess of 60 million people, and the capital city is London, in the south (which, alongside New York in the United States and Tokyo in Japan, is considered to be one of the three main financial capitals of the world). More than 90% of the inhabitants are of European ethnic origin, with the other main minority ethnic groups being Afro-Caribbean, African, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, and Chinese. In religious terms, the UK is predominantly Christian, but there are also large communities of Muslims, Hindus, Jews, and Sikhs.

LEGAL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Unlike many other countries, the UK has no written constitution. From the 10th century onward England has had a single crown, with H.M. Queen Elizabeth II as current Head of State. Parliament has been in existence since the 13th century, and since the 18th century legal power has rested with parliament rather than the monarchy. Parliament today consists of:

- An upper chamber, the House of Lords (with both hereditary and life peers)
- A lower chamber, the House of Commons (with elected members)

The executive is led by the Prime Minister and Cabinet, with Parliamentary elections being held at least every 5 years.



The derivation of English law is a combination of common law and statute. Whereas the former has developed over time from the decisions made by judges (which set legal precedents), the latter is where Parliament passes legislation.

POLICING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

Early forms of policing in England were localized and unsystematic rather than centralized or systematic. In Saxon England, for instance, family groups belonged to a tithing, who policed their local kinships. The Norman invasion of 1066 led to a little more central control. The offices of constables were created, and these were seen as local representatives of central government. In contrast to modern times, these early constables were part-time and often unpaid.

In 1285, the Statute of Winchester rationalized the system of law by introducing the system of “watch and ward” in towns. The Justices of the Peace Act of 1361 made new magistrates responsible to the crown for local law enforcement. This localized and unsystematic policing was seen to be inadequate, however, in dealing with new problems, such as rioting—an indirect consequence of a more industrial and urbanized 17th-century society. During this period, *self-policing* was common in that local people tended to hire their own street

patrols and prosecuted those who had offended against them. In addition to this, private policing was common, in the sense that large companies had their own police.

The Fielding brothers (Henry and John) were key advocates of reform in terms of their establishment of an early police force, the Bow Street Runners. In 1829, Home Secretary Robert Peel introduced the Metropolitan Police Act. The force would be uniformed because of its emphasis on preventive patrolling. The belief that officers should have only minimal powers was underpinned by the philosophy of “policing by consent.” The idea was that the Metropolitan Police would serve as a prototype for other developing forces throughout the country. In 1835 Parliament passed the Municipal Corporations Act, which allowed large boroughs to establish their own paid police forces under the guidance of watch committees. This legislation was consolidated by the 1839 County Police Act, which allowed counties to establish their own forces. The County and Borough Police Act of 1856 made paid police forces compulsory with the Home Office funding 25% of their cost. (This increased to 50% in 1974.) By the latter part of the 19th century, there was concern over the massive number of forces in existence, and, consequently, the Local Government Act of 1888 resulted in the number of forces being cut down from 231 in 1880 to 183 in 1889. As a result of these reforms, going into the 20th century, there were fundamentally three types of police forces:

1. The Metropolitan Police, in London
2. County forces
3. Smaller borough forces

In modern times, smaller borough forces have ceased to exist. The policing function in England and Wales is currently divided among 43 individual county police forces. This structure is unlike many other, more centralized policing systems in the world, such as France and Finland within Europe. In other words, the UK has no national police force, only a network of individual forces, which may be coordinated more centrally in times of crisis through

what are known as *mutual aid* procedures. There are, additionally, a number of national organizations that provide specific policing functions such as the Central Police Training and Development Authority (Centrex) and the National Criminal Intelligence Service.

Police Accountability

The Police Act of 1964 established what is referred to as the tripartite structure of policing. As a mode of governance, this structure consists of a power-sharing arrangement between the following three different bodies:

1. The Home Secretary (central government)
2. Chief Constables of individual forces
3. Police authorities

Under the 1964 legislation, the Home Secretary could exercise certain powers in order to promote the efficiency of the police service; these powers ordinarily took the form of government circulars and regulations. More specifically, the Home Secretary could make regulations governing pay and conditions of service, could approve certain equipment for police use, and could approve the appointment of Chief Officers selected by police authorities. Under this legislation, policing was funded by both central and local government (51% central versus 49% local).

The 1964 Act meant that each police force in England and Wales had a police authority, whose members consisted of two-thirds elected counselors and one-third appointed magistrates. The main role of police authorities was to secure the maintenance of an adequate and efficient police force for its area. The two main specific duties of police authorities were to appoint senior officers and to receive an annual report in writing from the Chief Constable with regard to the performance of the relevant force. Chief Constables, under the Act, were made responsible for the “direction and control” of forces in terms of operational matters. What has become known as the “doctrine of constabulary independence” basically means that the Home Secretary cannot get too heavily involved in operational

matters because it would be detrimental to the impartiality and professional judgment of Chief Officers.

When the Conservative government swept to power in 1979 under the leadership of Mrs. Margaret Thatcher, the government began to express concerns about economy, efficiency, and effectiveness across the public sector. In 1983, Home Office Circular 114 was introduced, which put the onus on the police to begin to demonstrate that they were providing “value for money.” This focus on police accountability, through the demonstration of delivering performance, continued into the 1990s. As well as both consolidating and amending the 1964 Police Act, the Police and Magistrates Courts Act of 1994 introduced fixed-term appointments for Chief Officers and consolidated the “management by objectives” approach to policing.

The Local Government Act of 1999 heralded the introduction of the “Best Value” regime, which represented a shift away from exhorting forces to perform toward making it a statutory responsibility for them to do so. Forces now have to:

- Challenge—what do services provide and why and how do they provide them.
- Compare—benchmark their respective performance against other forces.
- Compete—open up the services they provide to outside competition from the private sector.
- Consult—demonstrate that they are actively trying to engage with all sections of the community in terms of service provision.

The Local Government Act effectively means that local policing areas, which are referred to as Basic Command Units, can be ranked as league tables according to local as well as countywide performance results. There exists the very real possibility that forces that are judged to be failing in terms of not meeting performance targets will suffer consequences in terms of the Home Secretary sending in what are popularly referred to as *hit teams*. These hit teams have already been sent in to replace inefficient and ineffective managers in other public sector areas, such as health and education, and there is no reason to suggest that police managers will be spared the rod in this respect.

What the Police Do

The National Policing Plan for England and Wales, 2003-2006, outlines the following strategic priorities of the government:

- Tackling antisocial behavior and disorder
- Reducing the volume of crimes involving violence, which may be drugs or gun related
- Combating both serious and organized crime, which may cut across traditional geographic force boundaries
- Increasing the number of offenders who are brought to justice

Debates have long existed as to whether the police have a core business in terms of a narrow focus on crime control. In reality, the police in the UK perform a whole range of functions, some of which involve the use of legitimate force and some of which would be better characterized as providing a service.

POLICING IN SCOTLAND

Background

Scotland is the most northerly country of the United Kingdom and became part of the UK after an Act of Union with England in 1707. The country is bounded by England in the south and by the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea on the other three sides.

The hilly Scottish terrain is divided into three geographic regions—the Highlands, the Central Lowlands, and the Southern Uplands. The Industrial Revolution began to take effect in Scotland in the 1820s, and the textile industry was soon replaced by iron and steel production, coal mining, and shipbuilding. In the 1970s and early 1980s, the growth of the North Sea oil industry created many jobs, but this industry went into recession in the late 1980s and many jobs were lost as a result. The once-strong steel and shipbuilding industries have similarly declined quite significantly in recent years. Nowadays the service sector accounts for more than 50% of total employment and economic output.

Constables were appointed in Scotland as far back as the early 17th century, under the reign of

James VI. It was not until the mid-19th century, however, that public policing began to blossom in order to control vagrancy and to preserve the rule of law, particularly within the more heavily populated urban centers. Under the Police (Scotland) Act 1857, Scottish burghs and counties had a statutory obligation to provide policing in terms of maintaining their own forces. The Burgh Police (Scotland) Act of 1892 put policing in the towns under the control of local town councils, and the Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1929 extended this to county councils. Despite this appearance and to some extent practice of localized policing, an Inspectorate of Constabulary came into being in 1857. This body created certain centralized regulatory procedures and had the power to censure forces as “inefficient” and to withhold the government grant. In 1900 there were some 64 forces, but this number has been reduced by amalgamations that have occurred throughout the century. As a result of the Local Government (Scotland) Act of 1973, just 2 years later there were 8 forces in Scotland. The forces: (1) Northern, (2) Grampian, (3) Tayside, (4) Central, (5) Fife, (6) Strathclyde, (7) Lothian and Borders and (8) Dumfries and Galloway. As with the experience of England, armed policing was rejected on the grounds that the ethos of policing by consent would be undermined.

Accountability

In terms of tripartism, as with the experience of England, the Chief Officer, joint police board, and the Justice Department of the Scottish Executive share the responsibility for the delivery of policing within respective force areas. As with England, Chief Officers are nonpolitical in that their main responsibility is the independent management of police operations. Members of joint police boards are locally elected councilors who have responsibility for making decisions on the budget and resources of a force. While not interfering with the operational commitments of Chief Officers, the Ministers that make up the Scottish Executive have overall responsibility for the direction of policing policy. Because of the more recent political and constitutional reforms, however, the Scottish

Executive has been able to direct Chief Officers to address specific policing issues that they consider important in their annual reports. The Executive includes a Justice Minister who has a number of responsibilities including policing. By means of the Justice Minister, the Scottish Executive sets performance targets for Chief Officers and police authorities. The national targets set for 2003-2004 were based on:

- Housebreaking
- Drugs
- Road traffic casualties
- Racial incidents
- Serious violent crime
- Vehicle crime

Political and Constitutional Reform

In 1994, the Conservative Government introduced the Local Government (Scotland) Act, which replaced the regional and district system with single-tier local authorities. This resulted in 32 single-tier authorities being introduced. In practical terms this meant that many services, such as police and fire, run by smaller councils were now made jointly available on the grounds of cost and efficiency savings. In terms of police governance, instead of there being six regional police boards and two joint boards, there were now six joint boards and two unitary ones.

The political process of devolution has witnessed the creation of new parliaments and assemblies in Scotland, as well as in other parts of the United Kingdom such as Wales and Northern Ireland. More specifically, The Scotland Act of 1998 created a devolved Scottish Parliament and the Scottish Executive, which effectively meant that more control could be exerted from politicians in Scotland’s capital city, Edinburgh, rather than Westminster. In simple terms, Scottish policing effectively became a matter for the devolved Scottish Parliament rather than being controlled by England.

Future Prospects

Despite the devolution of power toward the Scottish Parliament and Executive, Donnelly and

Scott (2002a) argue that it is highly likely that more recent constitutional changes and policies from central government have increased the centralization rather than the devolution of policing in Scotland. In addition to the Inspectorate, for example, they cite the existence of the Accounts Commission and Audit Scotland (established in April 2000), which attempt to ensure that the centralized standards of the “Best Value” regime are met by forces. In the context of these developments, according to Donnelly, Scott, and Wilkie (2002), the prospect of there being the creation of a single national force remains a distinct possibility not least because of the relatively small size of the country.

THE SPECIAL CASE OF NORTHERN IRELAND

Political Context

Most Protestants in Northern Ireland are Unionists in that they see their identity as British rather than Irish. On the other hand, the majority of Catholics in Northern Ireland maintain that Britain effectively colonized their country without their consent, and they are Nationalists or Republicans and wish the North to unite with Eire, in the South. In the 20th century, the struggle for Irish independence saw an upsurge of violence between the 1970s and 1990s. The UK and Ireland signed what became known as the Downing Street Declaration in 1993, which was basically an agreement that Northern Ireland’s future should be dependent on the wishes of the majority of the people. In 1994, the paramilitary group known as the Irish Republican Army (IRA), who represented the view that British rule should end and Ireland be united, announced a cease-fire. Despite this, both Republican and Unionist paramilitary activities continued in the latter half of the 1990s. After extensive negotiations, the UK and Irish governments signed a multiparty peace agreement on 10th April 1998. This became known as The Good Friday Agreement. As well as creating a power-sharing executive, which included all major political parties, provision was made for the release of paramilitary prisoners and a commitment made to decommissioning of weapons. It was largely because of this issue of decommissioning of

weapons that the establishment of the executive was in crisis by summer 1999. In an effort to overcome the stalemate, former U.S. Senator George Mitchell was appointed in September 1999 to undertake a major review of the entire peace process. After much consultation and negotiation, the new executive for the province was appointed in November 1999.

Police Reformation

According to the Good Friday Agreement, the task of the Independent Commission on Policing was to strive for a new beginning to policing in Northern Ireland with a police service capable of attracting and sustaining support from the community as a whole. The Independent Commission was to be restorative rather than retributive in the sense that past injustices would not be investigated. It was felt that reform of the Royal Ulster Constabulary was needed because the consent required right across the community in any liberal democracy for effective policing was absent. Since the establishment of the Royal Ulster Constabulary in 1922, it was felt by the Commission that the composition of the police had been disproportionately Protestant and Unionist. The Commission was chaired by the Right Honourable Christopher Patten, formerly Governor of Hong Kong.

The Commission made 175 recommendations in all, which were published as the *Patten Report* in September 1999. In terms of accountability, a new policing board was established to replace the existing police authority in order to try to better represent both Protestant and Catholic sections of the community. Most controversially, in terms of composition and recruitment, an equal number of Protestants and Catholics were to be drawn from a pool of qualified candidates (with the goal of reaching 30% Catholic representation in the force over the next 10-year period). In terms of culture, ethos, and symbols, the Royal Ulster Constabulary was renamed the Police Service of Northern Ireland. The police service was to have a new badge and symbols free from association with either Britain or Ireland, the Union flag was no longer flown from police buildings, and officers had a different uniform. The Policing (Northern Ireland) Bill 2000 received Royal Assent on 23rd November 2000.

RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, PROMOTION, SPECIALIST DEPARTMENTS, AND CIVILIAN POLICE

Recruitment Standards

The minimum age for a constable is 18½ years. There is no upper age limit for applying to the police service; normal retirement age is 55 years, however. There are at present, no minimum or maximum height requirements to join the police force. While there are no formal educational requirements for recruitment to the police, applicants have to pass two written tests, which are designed to ensure that they have a good standard of English. In addition to this, there is a requirement to pass a math test. These math and literacy tests, plus observation tests, form what is known as the Police Initial Recruitment Test. After passing this phase of the selection process, candidates have to pass a physical fitness test, involving both strength and stamina. The third phase ordinarily involves an assessment center where candidates are tested by means of a series of role-playing scenarios. The final stage is a panel interview with more senior officers and civilian personnel officers, after which the candidate must have criminal conviction checks and receive security clearance.

Probationer Training

Following the phases of recruitment, a period of extensive training as a probationer constable commences. This ordinarily includes a residential phase at a regional training center where core policing skills are learned. In addition to this, time is spent with a tutor constable with the intention that the probationer will gain valuable practical operational experience. This phase is designed to empower the probationary constable to gradually gain enough confidence to be able to patrol independently. After further training and assessment of performance, confirmation of appointment to the office of constable is confirmed after a 2-year period.

Promotion

Once officers have completed their 2-year probationary period, they are eligible to apply to sit for

the qualifying examination for promotion to the rank of sergeant, which is basically first-level supervisor. After the rank of sergeant are the ranks of Inspector and Chief Inspector, and all of these ranks are collectively referred to as the federated ranks because they are represented by the staff association (not a union) known as the Police Federation. Promotion above the federated ranks leads to the rank of Superintendent or Chief Superintendent; these officers are represented by their own Superintendents association. Those who hold these ranks are effectively in charge of local policing areas, called Basic Command Units. Above the superintending ranks are the ranks of Assistant Chief and Chief, who lead the force in terms of formulating strategy. These high-ranking officers are represented by the Association of Chief Police Officers.

Higher Police Training

Higher police training is located at CENTREX (formerly National Police Training) in Bramshill. Police leaders from the inspecting ranks and above have historically been trained by means of the rank-based Junior, Intermediate, Special, and Senior Command courses, the latter of which is a prerequisite for progression to membership in the Association of Chief Police Officers. Recently, however, the training at CENTREX has been restructured because of a growing conviction that leadership should be a role-based rather than a rank-based activity. It was, for example, recognized that many Chief Inspectors were taking on more of the roles and responsibilities of Superintendents, who were their superior officers. There has been a gradual decline in didactic *chalk-and-talk* style of training and a corresponding rise in facilitative learning. This shift is underpinned by the theory that for effective learning to take place it should be experiential, and, therefore, case studies and simulations would be preferred classroom practice in order to generate active learning. From October 2001, individual police performance has begun to be assessed by means of a new national competency framework based on both rank- and role-based activities.

Specialist Departments

Officers tend to be either uniformed or non-uniformed; the latter is associated with the Criminal Investigation Department. As well as uniformed patrol work, there are a whole host of specialist departments that officers can move into should they wish to develop their careers laterally. Depending on the size and nature of the force concerned, these may include corporate development, media and public relations, firearms, public order, traffic management, child protection, and fraud investigation.

Civilian Police

The Special Constabulary, made up of volunteers who make a commitment to supporting the work of regular police officers, was established under the Police Act 1964. In addition to this, the police service has tended to recruit civilian staff into specialist posts since the 1980s. Non-sworn police officers are typically employed in posts such as crime and forensic analysts, training, and performance management. Civilian staff have also been recruited into the equivalent Chief Officer rankings from the 1990s, if their skills are deemed to add a strategic dimension to force policy. More recently, The Police Reform Act 2002 has further endorsed civilian policing through the creation of community support officers.

POLICING IN THE UK— CURRENT CHALLENGES

One of the most pressing challenges for UK policing at this time is the issue of diversity. Following the murder of the black London teenager, Stephen Lawrence, in 1993, and the subsequent MacPherson Inquiry in 1999, the police accepted the label that they were “institutionally racist.” This did not mean that the problem was one of overtly racist behavior being displayed by a minority of rogue officers, but rather that the problem was one of unwitting racism because of policies, procedures, and practices that served to inadvertently discriminate against blacks and other minority groups. Since 1999, the police have been encouraged to undertake reforms to

consult hard-to-reach groups within the community and to recruit, retain, and progress black and minority officers within the forces throughout the UK.

As well as the issue of diversity, since the Crime and Disorder Act of 1998, the police have been made to work in partnership with other criminal justice and social agencies so the recipients of welfare services are treated more like paying customers. This is a challenge because it requires police leaders who work as generalists to cooperate with other professional groups who may not share their view of the world. Crime is now being seen as a social problem and not just a policing problem. Police leaders of the future in the UK have to be able to meet this challenge for genuine improvements in social outcomes to be made.

Matt Long

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UNITED NATIONS AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE POLICY

The present structure of the United Nations (UN) headquarters includes important permanent

commissions and offices that deal with matters directly concerned with the police services and other law enforcement agencies of the UN member states. Some of these UN bodies plan and coordinate the numerous worldwide UN actions, which involve civilian police forces operating under the UN flag. Others are involved in preparing the UN Conventions and Resolutions, which constitute the legal basis for international cooperation in combating transnational crime.

THE UNITED NATIONS OFFICE OF DRUGS AND CRIME

The United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is one of the leading global institutions in the fight against illicit drugs and international crime. Established in 1997, UNODC has approximately 500 staff members worldwide. Its headquarters are in Vienna, Austria, and it has 21 field offices as well as a liaison office in New York. UNODC relies on voluntary contributions, primarily from governments, for 90% of its budget. UNODC is mandated to assist member states in their struggle against illicit drugs, crime, and terrorism. The three pillars of the UNODC work program are:

- Research and analysis to increase knowledge and understanding of drugs and crime issues and expand the evidence base for policy and operational decisions
- Normative work to assist member states in the ratification and implementation of international treaties; the development of domestic legislation on drugs, crime, and terrorism; and the provision of administrative and substantive services to the treaty-based and governing bodies
- Field-based technical cooperation projects to enhance the capacity of member states to counteract illicit drugs, crime, and terrorism

The UNODC's structure reflects the far-reaching and multifaceted responsibilities of this institution. It is headed by the Office of the Executive Director. Four divisions report to this office: Operations, Treaty Affairs, Policy Analysis and Public Affairs, and Management. The Division for Operations includes units on Anti-Trafficking, Anti-Organized

Crime, Anti-Corruption, Criminal Justice Reform, Anti-Money Laundering, and Global Challenges. The Treaty Affairs Division includes units on Terrorism Prevention, Secretariat of the International Narcotics Central Board, Crime Conventions, Legal Advice, and Criminal Justice Institutes. The remaining two UNODC Divisions include units on: Laboratory and Scientific Section, Research and Analysis, Advocacy, Human Resources, and Information Technology.

The UNODC is also deeply engaged in the preparation of draft United Nations programs, resolutions, and conventions on combating transnational crime. The UNODC provides statistical data through a Global Assessment Program (GAP) and helps to draft legislation and train judicial officials as a part of its Legal Advisory Program. Since 1997, UNODC was also tasked, by the United Nations, with the responsibility for crime prevention, criminal justice, and criminal law reform. The Office works with member states to strengthen the rule of law, promote stable and viable criminal justice systems, and combat the growing threat of transnational organized crime through the following programs:

- Global Program Against Corruption
- Global Program Against Organized Crime
- Global Program Against Trafficking in Human Beings
- Terrorism Prevention Branch

UNITED NATIONS COMMISSION ON CRIME PREVENTION AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE

The United Nations Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (CCPCJ) is a 40-member UN Commission established in 1992. The CCPCJ formulates international policies and recommends activities in the field of crime control. It offers nations a forum for exchanging information and coming to agreement on fighting crime on a global level. The Commission is a subsidiary body of the UN Economic and Social Council and formulates draft resolutions for action by the Council. These resolutions eventually direct the work of the UNODC. The Commission also provides substantive direction for

the periodic UN Congresses on Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. The 11th such congress will take place in 2005 in Bangkok, Thailand. In 2001, the UN General Assembly decided that each Congress should be preceded by Regional Preparatory Meetings.

The CCPCJ initiated and prepared a substantial number of UN resolutions, declarations, conventions, and programs on combating transnational crime. One of the most important of these is the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime, adopted by the UN General Assembly at its 55th Session, in November 2000. This Convention is supplemented by two documents: the *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children*; and the *Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea, and Air*.

THE UNITED NATIONS COMMISSION ON NARCOTIC DRUGS

The United Nations Commission on Narcotic Drugs (CND) was established in 1946 as a subsidiary body to the UN Economic and Social Council. It is the central policymaking body within the United Nations dealing with drug-related matters. It analyzes the global drug situation and develops proposals to strengthen the international drug control system to combat the world drug problem. In 1991, the UN General Assembly established a Fund of the UN International Drug Control Program and expanded the mandate of the Commission to enable it to function as the governing body of the Program. The Commission has 53 members: 11 from African States, 11 from Asian States, 10 from Latin America and Caribbean States, 7 from Eastern European States, and 14 from Western European and other States.

UNITED NATIONS INTERREGIONAL CRIME AND JUSTICE RESEARCH

The United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI), located in Palermo, Italy, carries out international comparative research in support of the United Nations Crime Prevention

and Criminal Justice Program. It was established in 1968 as the United Nations Social Defense Research Institute (UNSDRI), but changed its name to UNICRI in 1989.

According to its statute, approved by the UN, the principal functions of the institute are:

- A. To promote, conduct, coordinate, and support research and, in collaboration with the countries concerned, to organize and support field activities with a view to:
 - Establishing a reliable base of knowledge and information on social problems involving juvenile delinquency and adult criminality; special attention being given to the new, frequently transnational forms of the phenomenon
 - Identifying appropriate strategies, policies and instruments for the prevention and control of the phenomenon so as to contribute to socio-economic development and to promote the protection of human rights
 - Designing practical models and systems aimed at providing support for policy formulation, implementation, and evaluation
- B. To provide action-oriented research and training related to the UN program on crime prevention and criminal justice
- C. To design and carry out training activities at the interregional level and, at the request of interested countries, at the national level
- D. To promote the exchange of information by, among other things:
 - Maintaining an international documentation center on criminology and related disciplines to enable the Institute to respond to the need of the international community for the dissemination of information worldwide
 - Serving the needs of the United Nations and scholars and other experts requiring such facilities.

Michael Sadykiewicz

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URUGUAY

Uruguayans share a Spanish linguistic and cultural background. The official language is Spanish even though approximately 25% of the population is of Italian origin. Most of the people are Roman Catholic. Church and state are officially separated.

Uruguay has a population of 3.4 million people (2001) and a land mass encompassing 68,000 square miles. The currency is the Uruguayan peso (UYU) and is measured 15.4:1 against the U.S. dollar (2003).

Most of the Uruguayan landscape is characterized by gently rolling land and low hills. It is bordered on the north and east by Brazil, on the east and south by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Río de la Plata, and on the west by Argentina. It is the second smallest country in South America. The Uruguay River forms the entire western boundary. The capital city is Montevideo.

THE NATIONAL POLICE

The National Police was established in 1829, 1 year after the country gained its independence. At that time, each department was assigned a Police Chief, similar to the system in modern use. As of 2002, police forces numbered approximately 17,500, a ratio of 5 police officers to each 1,000 inhabitants. At least 20% of the total is assigned to the capital area, where approximately 50% of the country's



total population lives. In all, nearly 40% of the police force is assigned to urban areas, and the remainder is assigned to rural settlements.

POLICE ADMINISTRATION AND TRAINING

The Ministry of the Interior has responsibility for ensuring public safety throughout the nation, except for coastal areas and the shores of navigable rivers and lakes, which are the responsibility of the National Maritime Police, under the Uruguayan Navy. Police training is centralized under the administration of the Ministry, which oversees the operation of the Police Training Academy. The academy, established in 1936, has separate schools for officers and cadets and for other ranks. The course for noncommissioned officers runs for 1 year, and the course for cadets runs for 2 years. The academy also offers in-service and specialty courses of varying lengths.

Subordinate to the Ministry of the Interior, the National Police is organized into four operating agencies:

1. Montevideo Police
2. Interior Police



Figure 1

3. National Traffic Police
4. National Corps of Firemen

Each of these agencies is administratively a separate entity, handling most personnel administration, including recruitment, separately.

POLICE ORGANIZATION

The five administrative divisions of the Montevideo Police are investigation, security, support services, intelligence, and legal affairs. Operationally, it is divided into the Patrol Services, Canine Corps, Security and Traffic Bureau, Criminal Investigation Bureau, and Anti-Smuggling Brigade. The Criminal Investigation Bureau is unique in that it conducts operations nationwide, not just in the capital area. The Montevideo Police maintain 29 police stations, 1 of which is concerned solely with urban traffic. The Montevideo Police also work out of police posts in small towns and villages near the capital. Uruguay has been a member of Interpol since 1955.

Two police paramilitary organizations are assigned to the capital area. The first is the Republican Guard. This unit is organized into cavalry elements used for guard duty, parades, and ceremonial occasions. When necessary, the Republican Guard is called on for riot duty backup for the regular police.

The Metropolitan Guard is principally responsible for guarding municipal property, banks, and embassies. The Metropolitan Guard is conceived of as a paramilitary force and is equipped with machine guns and riot-control gear. The unit is also charged

with helping the police control disturbances and acting as a ready reserve for emergencies of all types.

Outside Montevideo, Uruguay has 19 Interior *Seccionales* (Police Sections)—Artigas, Canelones, Cerro Largo, Colonia, Durazno, Flores, Florida, Lavalleja, Maldonado, Montevideo, Paysandu, Rio Negro, Rivera, Rocha, Salto, San Jose, Soriano, Tacuarembó, Treinta y Tres. Each *Seccionale* reports to the Minister of the Interior and Chief of Police. *Seccionales* are divided by population density. Larger populated *Seccionales* have smaller areas. There are 24 *Seccionales* in Montevideo.

Each *Succiónale* has patrol zones called *Radios*. Each Radio has two *Succiónale* Officers and two Community Policing Officers assigned to handle security and community needs. Deployment of personnel and the size of the Radio are determined by population.

The *Caminera* are Uruguay's National Highway Traffic Police. They are stationed throughout Uruguay in 14 Outposts called *Destacamentos*. They investigate accidents, control highway traffic, and assist *Seccionales* on occasion.

There are two new programs being implemented in Uruguay, an Internal Affairs Unit (organized in the early part of 2002) and a new Community Policing Unit, called the Police of Proximity. This unit supports the regular patrols. Each Radio is assigned one Community Policing Unit. Some Radios, because of size, share a unit.

Additional information, including maps, pictures of the Outposts, Commanders, and Rank insignias can be translated from these resources.

Brian Onieal

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UZBEKISTAN

Independent since 1991, Uzbekistan, a central Asian state of almost 26 million people with an area of 447,000 square kilometers, is a republic with strong presidential rule and little power outside the executive branch. The 1993 Constitution of Uzbekistan states that the national law enforcement system consists of an independent judiciary, Office of the State Procurator (the chief prosecutor in the national judicial system), and police departments divided between the Ministry of Internal Affairs, National Security Service, State Customs Committee, and Border Defense Agency. These agencies share jurisdiction, although in practice their respective roles are often ill-defined. The Minister of Internal Affairs, a three-star general who is appointed by the President of Uzbekistan, is the nation's Police Chief.

The court system is based on territorial division of the country. There are three high courts, with authority limited to their respective jurisdictions. These are the Supreme Court for resolution of general disputes, the Highest Commercial Court for commercial dispute arbitration, and the Constitutional Court, which certifies the constitutionality of legislation and interprets the Constitution and other laws.

The Office of the State Procurator is a state body, but it is not subordinated to any state official or authority. It is charged with the duty of coordinating activities of national law enforcement agencies and controlling unified and lawful enforcement of domestic legislation, especially in the military, courts, and places of detention. The Office of the State Procurator supports state prosecution in courts, conducts investigation of most serious crimes, and reviews citizens' claims and statements. It has hierarchically built offices in all territorial units of Uzbekistan, including separate departments for the autonomous republic of Karakalpakstan and the capital city of Tashkent. The Procurator General, who



has the right of legislative initiative, and his deputies are appointed by the President of Uzbekistan.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF THE POLICE

The Uzbekistani police force (called *Militia*) is estimated to number around 35,000 individuals. Police duties include:

- Routine protection of public order
- Prevention and investigation of crimes and misdemeanors
- Search for criminals
- Work with juvenile offenders
- Control over the national firefighting system
- Safety of highway traffic
- Issuance of passports and residence control
- Functions of state protection
- Enforcement of sanitary and environment protection measures
- International cooperation on issues included in jurisdiction of internal affairs agencies

Presently, the police force is divided into six service units. The Department of Non-Administrative Protection installs and monitors systems aimed at protection of public and private property. Protection of state officials and major government buildings was transferred from the police to the National Security

Service in 1988. Public Security Police conduct routine patrolling of streets in order to prevent crimes and catch criminals. They are responsible for preservation of order in public places and during public gatherings. Patrol officers are allowed to detain individuals to check their identity documents. Precinct police officers working with the population in their places of residence are part of this service.

The Criminal Police are responsible for operational and investigative activities. This unit encompasses such departments as Fight Against Economic Crimes, Fight Against Organized Crimes, and National Services on Fight Against Illegal Turnover of Drugs.

The Special Police Force conducts special operations, such as the suppression of riots and other mass disorders, the freeing of hostages, and response to terrorist attacks.

The State Highway Safety Inspection enforces road rules. Officers of this service are responsible for the organization of traffic, securing of proper work of road signs and equipment, and technical inspection of vehicles.

Transportation Police enforce the law and preserve public order in airports and bus and train stations. The prevention of crimes and investigation of incidents occurring in the transportation sector fall within the jurisdiction of transportation police. The special police department was created to protect the metro rail system in the capital city. Each service unit is headed by its own chief who is a Deputy Minister of Internal Affairs.

Internal Troops, who provided internal security during the Soviet era, were replaced by the National Guard, which was created as an internal security force under the direct command of the President of Uzbekistan immediately after independence. The Guard includes a force of 1,500 troops, including a ceremonial guard company, a special-purpose detachment, regional units for guarding prisoners, and a motorized rifle regiment. In 1994, the National Guard forces in Tashkent moved under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Security.

Approximately 10,000 paramilitary troops are available to the National Security Service, including

almost 1,000 border troops, also known as the Frontier Guard, which are responsible for the protection of national border and public order in frontier localities. Special police formations with 1,000 members were created in 2001, jointly with the Kazakh and Kyrgyz forces in the border area, to prevent the flow of refugees. The main task given to these police formations is to establish block posts on mountain paths and cross-country roads. They may take part in filtration operations in refugee compounds.

Police Employment

Operational ranks in police and other law enforcement agencies correspond with the military rank system. Any Uzbek citizen who is 18 years of age or older may serve in the police upon providing good references. Full terms of service give officers the right to receive retirement benefits after 25 years. Recruits who apply for a lower rank are receive 6 months of training if they have concluded the obligatory military service. Otherwise, they must attend a 2-year training course. Commanding officers are prepared by the Training School of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which is an institution of higher education. Graduates of this school receive an officer's rank and a law degree. Law enforcement personnel are also recruited from the graduates of civilian universities and law schools. Women may serve in the police force; however, the number of women in the police force is minimal.

Uzbekistan is a recipient of strong foreign technical and other assistance in the field of law enforcement and police training. Uzbekistan has been a member of Interpol since 1992.

Peter Roudik

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V

☪ VANUATU

The Republic of Vanuatu (formerly New Hebrides) is made up of 80 islands with a land area of 12,200 square kilometers that is 1,300 miles northeast of Sydney, Australia. It is a parliamentary democracy that gained independence from Great Britain and France in 1980 and is a member of the British Commonwealth. Official languages are Bislama (Pidgin), French, and English, and residents speak more than 100 tribal languages. Ninety-eight percent of the 200,000 residents are Ni-Vanuatu (Melanesian), and the vast majority (80%) are either subsistence farmers or fishermen.

The overall crime rate is relatively low. The majority of the crime in Vanuatu is primarily against property, but indications are that crimes against persons are increasing. Drug trafficking and organized crime also are on the rise.

The minimum age for criminal responsibility is 10 years; however, a child under 14 years of age is presumed incapable of committing a crime unless it can be shown that he or she could distinguish between right and wrong.

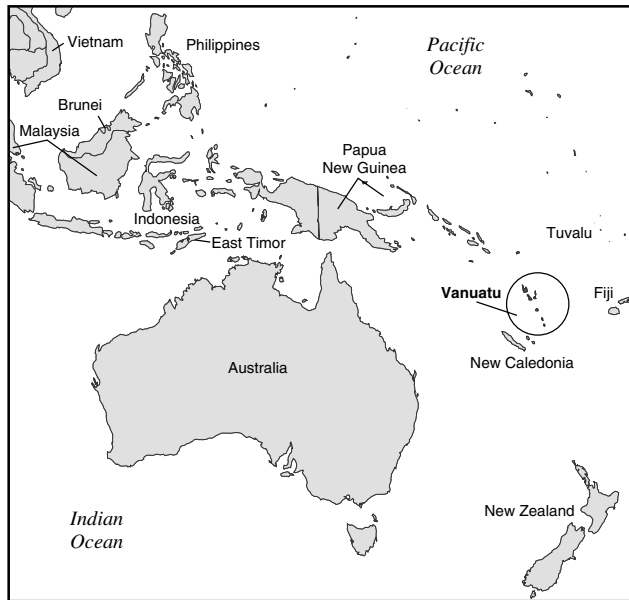
POLICE ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The nation has no military. Civilian authorities control both the small Vanuatu Police Force (VPF) and

the paramilitary Vanuatu Mobile Force (VMF). The National Police Commissioner is in command of both forces. An accurate number of police officers in the country is unavailable, but force strength typically is approximately 750 to 800 officers (a ratio of 1 for every 250 inhabitants), with approximately 300 in the VMF. The majority of officers are men, with women comprising less than 8% of the force; however, there are indications that more women are being recruited and promoted, as well as selected for overseas training and service. Relations between the police and the government have been strained at times. In 2002, there was an armed confrontation over the appointment of a police commissioner; the Deputy Police Commissioner and 26 other police officers were subsequently arrested on charges of mutiny.

To be eligible for the VPF and VMF, applicants must be 18 to 35 years of age, have at least 10 years of schooling, be mentally and physically fit, have a minimum height of 1.7 meters, and have no criminal convictions. Even with the large number of indigenous languages and dialects, there are no language requirements for membership in the police forces. Both forces recruit from all areas of the country to avoid one particular island or cultural/language group from becoming dominant. Most of the training is “on-the-job.”

Police Act No. 12 (1994) provides that members of the Police Forces can be engaged in peacekeeping duties outside the country with the approval of



the Council of Ministers. Officers of the VPF and VMF have served in United Nations peacekeeping missions in Bosnia and East Timor and in the Regional Assistance Mission (RAMSI) in the Solomon Islands. Australia has an active Defense Cooperation Program with Vanuatu and, in 2004-2005, is scheduled to contribute A\$1.64 million in assistance.

The government generally respects the human rights of its citizens, but violence against women is common. While trafficking in persons is not illegal, there are no reports of this occurring. There has been some level of cultural resistance to the introduction of Western policing philosophies, and some communities do not recognize the police as having a role in dispute resolution or maintaining order. Customary law enforced by tribal chiefs or elders dominates, and there is resistance to any outside interference by the government.

Charles B. Fields

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✎ VATICAN

The Holy See (Vatican) has a very long tradition of law enforcement. In the period of 1500-1870, the Vatican was the Supreme Ruler of the Papal States—essentially most of the area north, east, and south of Rome. While there were some interruptions in that rule (i.e., occupation by Charles V, occupation by Napoleon, the revolution of 1848) overall a complex law enforcement system was in place for that entire period.

Vatican law enforcement before 1870 was widely studied in Europe and seen as a model for all types of policing. The French and the Austro-Hungarian police were particularly adept students, impressed by the skill of Papal police. Living in the Papal States was grim: The death penalty was applied frequently, and the heavy hand of the law can only be compared to some of the worst excesses of dictatorship. Law enforcement during this lengthy historical period consisted of numerous tasks:

- General policing, which was done by village magistrates and gendarmes.
- Customs, which had an exhaustive system of customs controls to replenish the always empty coffers of the Holy Father.
- Intelligence gathering in which the Papal Police routinely intercepted letters and read them, copied those of interest and, often, changed them. Their main objective was power politics—reducing dissent in the Papal States and eliminating the growing influence of Austria-Hungary, Spain, France, and, for most of the 19th Century, the Kingdom of Savoy (which would unify Italy in 1870 and reduce the Papal States to the current, tiny Vatican compound). The ability to break codes was seen as a particular skill.
- Religious law enforcement, which was very different from the power politics issue. This was evolved from the Office of the Holy Inquisition, and Papal investigators spared no effort in tracking down religious dissenters.

AFTER 1870

After the collapse of the Papal States, the Holy Father withdrew inside the walls of the Vatican and

would not leave again until the Concordat with Mussolini in 1923. The Vatican did, however, retain much of the structure of its police forces that continued with religious law enforcement as well as with aggressive intelligence gathering, always probing for ways to weaken the new Italian state. Virtually all of these functions were essentially illegal yet tolerated by Italy.

After the 1923 Concordat and then again in the Papacy of John XIII, the Vatican disarmed, getting rid of most of its various police forces as well as armed forces. Intelligence gathering, however, did expand and to this day the Holy See is considered to be one of the most effective intelligence services on earth, with skills roughly on a par with Britain and Israel. While intelligence gathering is not a policing function per se, it was always tightly integrated into the internal police structure.

Currently, the Vatican retains two real police forces whose duties often overlap:

1. The Vatican Gendarmes (formally named thus on January 31, 2002) is a group of about 100 Italian men, charged with the maintenance of security and order inside Vatican territory.
2. The Swiss Guard is responsible for the personal security of the Pope and for the security of the apostolic palaces.

The 2002 name change for the police force reflects a linguistic nuance. The old name, the *vigilanza*, is commonly used in Italy to denote private security guards. The administration of the Vatican determined that the term *gendarmes* (police) would be more suitable. The Vatican police force as it is currently constituted was established by Pope Paul VI in 1970. However, the force can trace back its ultimate origins to 1816, when Pope Pius VII established a pontifical force “for the maintenance of order inside the Vatican City and the villa at Castel Gandolfo.” This police force consists of veteran Italian police officers who draw on that training. The Vatican has no formal training program in place.

The Papal Swiss Guard (*Cohors pedestris Helvetiorum a sacra custodia Pontificis*) was founded in 1506. It is today largely ceremonial, but like the Household Regiments in London, they are

a fully operational modern military force. When in ceremonial 16th-century uniform, they keep their firearms in guard boxes nearby. The Papal Guard are the only mercenary unit permitted under Swiss law since 1859, and are the last of a long tradition of a million mercenaries in the world’s armies. The Guard today consists of 5 officers, 25 noncommissioned officers (NCOs), and 70 halberdiers. To the annoyance of the Italians, the Swiss Guards retain their special role. This is because of exceptional sacrifice in the past. On May 6, 1527, during one of the many sacks of Rome, the 200-strong Guard defended Pope Clement VII against a Spanish-German army of 22,000; 147 were killed.

Duties today include serving as bodyguards for the pontiff; watching the entrances to the city; ceremonial honor guard; security at many religious and diplomatic functions; as well as information, surveillance, and similar services. The Guards operate somewhat like the U.S. Secret Service and have extensive policing powers inside the Vatican.

The Swiss Guards all have full Swiss military training, a condition for being accepted into the force. Additional Vatican-specific training is done inside the Vatican.

One of the most complicated parts of policing the Vatican today is the exceptionally absurd relationship with the five principal Italian police forces. By treaty, no Italian police officers may enter the Vatican unless invited in. They are invited in frequently to provide assistance with financial crimes (frequent), the occasional homicides, and fraud.

Agostino Von Hassell

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VENEZUELA

Venezuela is a federal democratic republic of 24 million inhabitants (July 2003 estimate) located on the Caribbean coast of South America. It is an urban country, with abundant oil reserves, that has experienced considerable change during the last 50 years. Crime rates have risen rapidly since the early 1990s; by 2001 the homicide rate was 34 per 100,000, while the rate for the 10 most serious crimes was 753 per 100,000. The ratio of state police officers to citizens is 1 officer per 600 inhabitants, but these numbers do not include the judicial police, political police, National Guard, traffic police, or military police, all of whom also perform law enforcement functions. Since 1998, there has been a veritable deluge of criminal justice legislation, in which a new criminal procedural code, replacing inquisitorial with adversarial justice, figures prominently.

THE ORGANIZATION OF POLICING

Police organization is characterized by substantial overlap. At the national level there are five police agencies, each with a main office in the capital city (Caracas) and subsidiary offices in each state. The judicial police (*Cuerpo de Investigaciones Científicas, Penales y Criminalísticas* [CICPC]), founded in 1959, is the primary criminal investigation agency, with approximately 6,000 detectives, who are charged with receiving crime reports, investigating crimes, gathering evidence, and arresting suspects. The CICPC is administratively attached to the Ministry of the Interior and Justice and operationally subordinate to the Public Prosecutor's office. The political police (*Dirección de Servicios de Inteligencia y Prevención* [DISIP]), founded in 1969, is primarily a national security force dealing with crimes against the state, kidnappings, and some drug offenses. The DISIP is



administratively and operationally attached to the Ministry of the Interior and Justice.

The National Guard, founded in 1937, is attached to the Ministry of Defense. Apart from its military duties, it is responsible for policing frontiers, checkpoints, and ports; providing perimeter security at prisons; policing environmental crimes; and providing auxiliary service to the judicial police, or in the restoration of public order. These responsibilities are largely overseen by the Ministry of the Interior and Justice and the Public Prosecutor. The traffic police (*Cuerpo Técnico de Vigilancia del Tránsito y Transporte Terrestre*), with approximately 4,000 officers, is administratively attached to the Ministry of Infrastructure and responsible for surveillance, preliminary investigation, and occasionally arresting suspects when traffic offenses involve violations of the criminal law. The military police (*Dirección de Inteligencia Militar*), attached to the Ministry of Defense, is responsible for investigating military crimes, such as rebellion and desertion.

Each state, as well as the Capital District, has a uniformed police force, which is responsible for patrol work and public order, crime-scene investigation and arrests, and community service. The Commander in Chief is the State Governor, and each force is regulated by a state Police Code. State police are also coordinated by the Ministry of the Interior and Justice, which compiles selected

statistics and sets guidelines for internal procedures. State police forces are estimated to have approximately 40,000 personnel, of which up to 20% may be female. The largest force is the Caracas Metropolitan Police (serving the Capital District), with 11,000 employees, of whom 9,500 are involved in police work (7.4% are women). Of these, approximately 8,000 are uniformed and the rest are civilian (including 400 officers who work in intelligence). There are 650 supervisory officers, 6.2% of whom are women.

Since the early 1990s, wealthier municipalities have created their own police forces. For example, in the Capital District, municipal forces were created in Sucre (1990), Baruta (1992), Chacao (1993), Libertador (1995), and El Hatillo (1995). By July 2001, there were 77 municipal forces in the country, concentrated primarily in the states of Anzoátegui, Carabobo, and Miranda. They are attached to the mayors' offices and regulated by the state's Police Code and municipal ordinances. With so many different uniformed police forces, there have been recent proposals to create a National Police Force combining state, metropolitan, municipal, and traffic police.

High crime rates have fueled the growth of private security companies, of which there were 522 in 1997. These mainly provide security for banks, businesses, and other large organizations. In Caracas, the number of private security guards is almost equal to the number of Metropolitan Police officers. Additionally, upper and middle income residents in the major cities have organized day and night watchmen.

RECRUITMENT, TRAINING, SALARIES, AND PROMOTION

Typical entry requirements include 17 to 22 years of age, a high school diploma, and no criminal record. Training lasts 3 years for the judicial police and National Guard, 1 year for traffic police, and 6 months for state and uniformed police. Starting salaries average 350,000 *bolívares* (about U.S. \$220) per month, although national guardsmen earn less (\$130) and some municipal police officers earn more (\$340). Most police officers are drawn from,

and remain in, the lower class; and only the most senior officers earn enough (approximately \$1,000 per month) to place them in the middle class.

State, municipal, and traffic police have a two-tier entry and promotion system, with subordinate (*agentes*, corporals, sergeants) and supervisory officers (subinspectors to chief commissars). Officers can usually apply for promotion after 4 years in their current rank, and may be required to complete in-service training. Judicial and political police only have the supervisory ranks, while the National Guard and military police have military ranks. Most police agencies require 25 years service before retirement.

POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

Venezuelan police are widely perceived to be inefficient, corrupt, and violent. Caught between high crime rates and new procedural guidelines, police behavior increasingly combines minimal overt intervention and hidden abuses. Incidents involving the inappropriate use of force increased by 68% between 1999 and 2000, while death squads are now reportedly operating in several states.

Complaints against the police may be lodged with a wide variety of institutions and individuals (e.g. neighborhood associations, Prefects, Ombudsmen, the media, or human rights groups), but are only formally processed when presented, or redirected, to the police or prosecutors. Internal review is usually conducted by a Police Inspector, who recommends disciplinary measures (cautions, arrests, termination). Prosecutors evaluate criminal responsibility and file cases in court. However, accountability is seriously hindered by the lack of detailed and objective reports on police behavior.

Christopher Birkbeck

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VIETNAM

The Socialist Republic of Vietnam is located in Southeastern Asia, bordering the Gulf of Thailand, Gulf of Tonkin, and the South China Sea, alongside China, Laos, and Cambodia. It has an area of 329,560 square kilometers and a population of 81,098,416 people (July 2002 estimate). The capital of this Communist State is Hanoi.

The legal system is based on communist legal theory and French civil law. The government consists of executive, legislative, and judicial branches.

The executive is headed by the president, who is elected by the National Assembly from among its members for a 5-year term. The prime minister is appointed by the president from among the members of the National Assembly; deputy prime ministers are appointed by the prime minister.

The legislative branch consists of a unicameral National Assembly, with 498 seats. The members are elected by popular vote to serve 5-year terms.

The judicial branch is headed by the Supreme People's Court, whose Chief Justice is elected for a 5-year term by the National Assembly on the recommendation of the president.

THE SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

Constitutional Evolution

The Communist Party has ruled Vietnam as ruled under three constitutions—the first was promulgated in 1946, the second in 1959, and the third in 1980. More importantly, each was created at a milestone in the evolution of the Vietnamese Communist Party (VCP), and each bore the mark of its time.

The purpose of the 1946 constitution was essentially to provide the Communist regime with a democratic appearance. The newly established government of the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRV) was sensitive about its communist sponsorship, and it perceived democratic trappings as more appealing to noncommunist nationalists and less provocative to French negotiators.

The second constitution was explicitly communist in character. Its preamble describes the DRV as



a “people’s democratic state led by the working class,” and the document provided for a nominal separation of powers among legislative, executive, and judicial branches of government.

The 1980 Vietnamese Constitution concentrates power in a newly established Council of State, much like the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, endowing it nominally with both legislative and executive powers. The 1980 Constitution comprises 147 articles in 12 chapters dealing with numerous subjects, including the basic rights and duties of citizens. Article 67 guarantees the citizens’ rights to freedom of speech, the press, assembly, and association, and the freedom to demonstrate.

Local Government

As of in 1987, Vietnam remained divided into 36 provinces, 3 autonomous municipalities, and 1 special zone directly under the central government. Provinces are divided into districts, towns, and capitals. The autonomous municipalities directly under central authority are divided into precincts, and these are subdivided into wards. Provincial districts are divided into villages and townships; provincial towns and provincial capitals are divided into wards and villages. Each administrative level has a people’s council and a people’s committee.

Law Enforcement

Vietnamese legal thought with regard to the treatment of criminals is the result of three major influences: classic Confucianism, the Napoleonic Code, and Marxism-Leninism. The relevant Confucian concept is that society is to be governed not by law but by moral men and that crime is symptomatic of an absence of virtue that engenders conflict and disharmony. Most important, the Confucian ethic provides no principle of judicial administration. In imperial China, justice was an interpretation of the moment by the emperor and his mandarins, meaning that in every instance imperial will was superior to the law.

The spirit of the law the French brought to Vietnam was that guilt should be determined by fair and impartial means and should be assigned appropriate punishment. Nevertheless, French colonialism inculcated a view of the law as something to be manipulated and the courts as institutions to be bribed or subverted. Marxism-Leninism added to this attitude the perspective that crime is a reflection of environmental factors that victimize the individual by turning him into a criminal. The proper remedy for this condition is to eliminate the causal factors while rehabilitating the criminal.

The combination of the three legacies has produced in Vietnamese society a legal philosophy that is inquisitorial rather than adversarial, seeking reform rather than punishment. The system imposes on the individual and the State the responsibility of bringing all members of society to a condition of self-imposed moral rectitude in which behavior is defined in terms of collective, rather than individual, good. In contrast to the West, where law is the guarantee of rights that all may claim, in Vietnam, the law concerns duties that all must fulfill.

Vietnamese law seeks to give the prisoner the right to reformation. In theory, at least, there are very few incorrigibles. It also permits a relativist approach in fixing sentences, much more so than does the precedent-based system of the West. Murder by stabbing is treated more leniently than murder by poison, for example, because the latter is perceived to require a greater degree of premeditation than the former.

The personal circumstances of the accused are also a factor in determining punishment. In the administration of criminal justice in Vietnam, an effort is made to understand the criminal, his crime, and his reasons; the notion of permanent or extended incarceration is rejected in favor of an effort to determine whether or not and, if so, how the criminal can be rehabilitated and restored to society.

Political crimes are treated less liberally, however. In such cases, the administration of justice can be arbitrary and harsh. Politics clearly plays a role in the arrest, trial, and sentencing procedures. The rationale for this policy, which is openly acknowledged, is that the revolution must be protected and that the individual may be sacrificed, perhaps even unjustly, for the common cause. The courts also take a more jaundiced view of the rehabilitation of political prisoners than of common criminals.

The court system was reorganized in 1981 into four basic levels:

1. The Supreme People's Court
2. The provincial municipal courts reporting to Hanoi
3. The local courts, chiefly at the district precincts levels, reporting respectively to provincial or municipal governments
4. Military courts

Furthermore, a number of specialized courts were created. In judicial procedure the courts still owed much to the French example, particularly with respect to the role of the procurator, who had much broader responsibilities than the prosecutor or district attorney under the Anglo-Saxon system.

On January 1, 1986, a new penal code officially went into effect after nearly 5 years of preparation. It contained 280 articles divided into 12 chapters or sections. Unlike earlier laws, the new code included detailed sections on juvenile and military offenders. The first eight chapters defined jurisdiction and judicial procedures; distinguished among infractions, misdemeanors, and felonies; and outlined sentencing procedures. The last section, consisting of four chapters, defined specific crimes and fixed

penalties. The code identified seven categories of legal punishment: warning, fine, reform without detention, house arrest, imprisonment, life imprisonment, and death. There was no parole, but remission of punishment was possible and the conditions for it appeared to be lenient. In general, definitions of crime were broad, vague, and could be interpreted so that virtually any antisocial word or deed was indictable. Penalties were stern and included capital punishment for a lengthy list of crimes.

Upon arrest, an offender was taken first to a Ministry of the Interior records office to be fingerprinted and interrogated, and have records checked. He or she was then remanded to a detention cell to be held until trial. Posting bail to obtain temporary release was not practiced, even though in some instances releases on one's own recognizance were allowed.

Sentences for nonpolitical crimes, and particularly for less serious felonies, tended to fall into three categories: reform without detention, reform with detention, and detention. Perhaps half of the sentences imposed for these crimes were of the first category, and the remaining half were divided more or less equally between the other two categories. The system rested on the assumption that most criminals could be rehabilitated, but the procedure required that the individual petition the court for rehabilitation. The court might also sentence a person to social control or a work-reform camp (detention with labor).

Vietnamese prisons imposed confinement in a manner more or less like prisons anywhere in the world. Work-reform camps incarcerated prisoners as well, but were also employed to provide confinement for individuals as a result of judicial proceedings. There was also administrative detention that did not involve the courts and was usually the result of action by party officials.

Each of the 40 Vietnamese provinces has at least one prison with a capacity ranging from 2,000 to 10,000 inmates. Some provinces also have what are called model prisons, which resemble new economic zones in that, in the spirit of modern penology, they offer the prisoners financial incentives to engage in agricultural production.

Life in a Vietnamese prison, as reported by former prisoners, is harsh. There are work details for those in prisons, as well as in the work-reform camps, that chiefly involve agricultural production for prison use. Rehabilitation lectures are held daily, and prisoners spend much time describing past behavior and thoughts in detail in their dossiers. Visitors are permitted only infrequently in most prisons. Discipline is strict, and prisons in particular are well fortified, although usually there is only 1 guard for every 250 prisoners. In general, the use of torture, corporal punishment, and what might be termed police brutality still exists within the criminal justice system.

THE POLICE

Police functions, such as routine crime detection, apprehension of suspects, and enforcement of judicial orders, are vested in two elements that differ both conceptually and functionally. The Police Special Force (PSF) is a law enforcement agency in the same sense as the term is used in the West. It operated chiefly in urban rather than in rural areas and was first established in 1962. Its purpose was to execute the laws of the state, maintain public order and security, protect public property, protect the lives and property of individuals, and prevent juvenile delinquency. These functions were expanded and made more specific in 1972, and again in 1976, by National Assembly directives authorizing the PSF to:

- Arrest, temporarily detain, and temporarily release suspects
- Search people, homes, belongings, and mail

In addition the Police Special Forces also carry out such duties as temporarily holding evidence and issuing identification certificates, travel permits, and other documents.

Deputized, nonprofessional law-enforcement units are reportedly numerous, but they are only vaguely described in press reports. They include the People's Protection Squads (active in both street-patrol work and firefighting), the Enterprise

Protection Force (active in factories, government buildings, and communes), the Municipal Security Protection Force (active in major cities), the Neighborhood Protection Civil Guard Agency, the Capital Security Youth Assault Units, the Township Public Security Force, and the Civil Defense Force. Many of the personnel in these units serve concurrently with the Paramilitary Force.

The villages, which normally experience little crime, have only rudimentary law enforcement, usually in the hands of a deputized, nonprofessional working part-time and often without a regular salary. If a major crime occurs, for instance, a murder, it is investigated by an official sent from the provincial capital.

The function of the nonprofessional, deputized law-enforcement officer, indeed even his or her existence, is not formally established or codified. The position of the village deputy was conceived as a means by which local authority could organize the village to police itself. Crime prevention and security are the responsibility of all, under the guidance of a local figure backed by the local party committee.

PEOPLE'S COURTS AND PEOPLE'S ORGANS OF CONTROL

Vietnam's judicial bodies are the Supreme People's Court, the local People's Courts at the provincial, district, and city levels, the military tribunals, and the People's Organs of Control. Judges are elected for a term equivalent to that of the bodies that elected them and trials are held with the participation of people's assessors, who may also act as judges. The Constitution guarantees defendants the right to plead their cases. A procurator prosecutes cases.

The Supreme People's Court is the highest tribunal and is charged with the supervision of subordinate courts. As a court of first instance, it tries cases involving high treason or other crimes of a serious nature; as the highest court of appeals, it reviews cases originating with the lower courts. Appeals are infrequent, however, because lower courts tend to act as final arbiters.

Local people's courts function at each administrative level except at the village level, where members of the village administrative committees serve in a judicial capacity. Proceedings of local courts are presided over by the people's assessors.

The Supreme People's Organs of Control function as watchdogs of the State and work independently of all other government agencies, although they are nominally responsible to the National Assembly. They are subordinate to the People's Supreme Organ of Control, also known as the People's Supreme Procurate, which, in turn, is headed by a chief procurator or procurator general. These organs exercise extraordinary powers of surveillance over government agencies at every level, including the court system and agencies for law enforcement.

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W

WOMEN IN POLICING

Since the 1970s and 1980s, the roles of women in law enforcement in any particular country have generally mirrored the social attitudes and prevailing customs toward women in the larger society. Contrary to the United States, Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom, and, to a lesser extent European and African nations, in many parts of the world women police are assigned to typically feminine jobs supervising or assisting women and children. This is particularly so in countries where women have not been accorded full social, economic, and political equality. These differences represent a major change from the early decades of the 20th century, when all countries that employed policewomen assigned them solely to working on cases involving women and children, with the exception of a few that assigned them to uniformed traffic control in major cities.

WOMEN ENTER POLICE DEPARTMENTS

The first confirmed appointment of a woman as a regular member of a police department was in Stuttgart, Germany, in 1903. Within a decade, there were women officers, called female assistants, assigned in 19 German cities. Each worked with women and juvenile victims and criminals, setting

the tone for the work policewomen would do around the world for at least 80 years and defining the role that many still perform. In 1911, Denmark appointed a uniformed woman constable to Aalborg, a large provincial town. Women joined the police in Great Britain in 1915 after a long battle involving suffragists and those concerned with combating vice. As in many countries, World War I concerns over the morality of young women during a time of tension and changing social mores speeded up the introduction of women into policing. In Canada, similar to the United States, women joined a number of city police departments first as matrons, beginning in 1912, including Halifax, Toronto, Winnipeg, Edmonton, and Vancouver. Between 1913 and 1917, many of these cities also hired policewomen with powers of arrest. The first two women joined the South Australia police in 1915, followed 2 years later by women in Australia's Victoria.

In these countries, as in the United States and Great Britain, women were hired to provide social welfare to women and children. The impetus was the upheaval of World War I and feminist concerns about the status of women generally and issues surrounding prostitution and immorality. Although this paralleled development in the United States, a consistent difference between it and other nations was the resistance of U.S. policewomen to wearing uniforms, which resulted in American policewomen working in

plainclothes until the 1970s. Policewomen elsewhere usually worked in military-style uniforms somewhat similar to their male colleagues.

Poland had a particularly active group of policewomen beginning in 1925, when they received training at the police college in Warsaw. Led by a female Army lieutenant, who was given the title of Chief Commandant of the Women Police, the officers worked closely with groups fighting to suppress trafficking in women and children. Despite their advanced educations (most had a secondary school education and two were university graduates) and their training in subjects identical to male recruits, the first 23 women met resistance from male officers. In Europe, France and Spain were the slowest to add women to their police forces. Spain appointed 15 women to its Vigilance Department, primarily to work at the Barcelona Exhibition, in 1929. This was similar to the United States, where cities often appointed policewomen when large exhibitions were planned that would draw unattached men and local women. In Spain, more than 1,000 applicants sought the positions; preference was given to those between the ages of 30 and 40 years, but three of those selected were eliminated because they were unwilling to wear uniforms. France appointed its first woman in 1930; she worked in uniform in a seaside resort in Brittany.

In China, women entered the Nanking police force in 1923, when 40 women were recruited to form a women's bureau similar to those operating in European nations, Australia, Canada, and the United States. In 1938, the city of Kanpur, in Uttar Pradesh, India, employed women to handle women agitators during an industrial strike. The more general employment of women in policing in India did not begin until after independence from England in 1947, when police were faced with the morality and protection of women—issues that were similar to those associated with World War I and World War II. Although, as in other countries, police administrators resisted the recruitment of women, the women were employed to work in relief camps and to investigate cases of kidnapping of women, abduction, and rape. One of South Korea's policewomen, hired in 1971, was assigned to office work;

in 1999 she became the first woman chief in the country's police department. Like many women of her generation, she was the first in the country to hold virtually all supervisory ranks. Women were not visible in policing in the Middle East until after the creation of Israel, which in the early 1960s assigned women to its traffic control branches.

MODERN WOMEN IN POLICING

Beginning slowly in the 1970s and gaining momentum since the 1980s, European nations started to follow legally mandated policies of equal opportunity within their police services. In Great Britain, the Sex Discrimination Act of 1975 and the Race Relations Act of 1976, enacted over the opposition of the Police Federation (police union) and the Association of Chief Police Officers, legislated major changes in hiring and promotion and did away with separate career paths for men and women. In the European Union, countries are subject to their individual countries' policies as well as to overall directives on equal pay and equal treatment of men and women. This resulted in countries such as Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Monaco, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom greatly expanding job opportunities for women. In Canada, women joined the royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) in 1974. Many of the Caribbean nations that had been British colonies had a tradition of women police constables, which they retained as they gained their independence, and eventually the women, as they had in Great Britain, became eligible for equal deployment with male officers.

Some countries went so far as to require that a certain percentage of women be in their police forces. In Norway, if women are less than 40% of the police service, they are given preferential treatment in hiring. In Belgium, in 1998 there was a quota for a minimum of 600 female constables and 40 female officers in the Gendarmerie; by 1999, only half the goal had been met. Finland and Greece had set a goal to increase the number of women to 15% of the total. In the Netherlands, a target quota

of a minimum of 25% of women in operational duties was set for 2000. Monaco tried to increase the presence of women through a quota. Turkey resisted this method, although it sought to increase women to 5% of the total force. In 2003, women were 15% of the Kosovo Police Service in Yugoslavia; higher than many other countries, although the women have experienced difficulties exerting their authority. Estonia, where women make up almost 30% of the police force, has one of the largest percentages of female officers in the world. Generally, recruitment of police officers has been difficult in former Soviet bloc or Soviet-dominated countries, where the pay is poor and the police lack status. Thus, the high percentage of women in the Estonia police may be less a milestone for equality than a commentary on the difficulty in recruiting men to the position.

Women's roles continue to be limited in some countries. In Finland women usually work in the office, and in the Czech Republic and Monaco certain shifts are not open to women. In Turkey, where the schedules for police officers are particularly disruptive of family life, few women are on shift rotation. In several German states women are not accepted in the riot police or in special squads; in states where they are in these forces, there is often a maximum quota for them. To increase the numbers of women in higher ranks in Iceland, women are encouraged to apply when positions are advertised. The Netherlands and Sweden have special career development projects aimed at raising the number of women in higher ranks and in management.

Researchers have detected questioning in Eastern and Central European countries as to whether women are capable of performing general police patrol duties. Even in countries where this is not openly discussed, women are faced with cultural obstacles to upward mobility. But because many of the forces are national, women have strong protections on issues surrounding sexual harassment, maternity, and child care. In countries with generous maternity leave and job-sharing policies, concerns have been raised that the legal framework for treating men and women equally makes women officers an economic

liability because they make greater use of job-sharing and part-time work. On the other hand, in countries that lack these policies, there are concerns over wastage rates (attrition) because women may leave permanently when faced with job and family conflicts.

In Austria, Denmark, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and the United Kingdom, legal provisions allow for part-time work in all or in some ranks. Some countries do not permit job-sharing or part-time work at higher ranks, generally above superintendent, a situation that may affect decisions pertaining to the promotion of women. In Bulgaria, Hungary, Estonia, and Portugal, only civilian support staff are permitted to work part-time. In the Czech Republic, part-time work is rare, while Poland primarily limits part-time work to civilian staff. In Iceland, Lichtenstein, Northern Ireland, and Switzerland, officers may work part-time, but managers may not. Greece does not permit part-time work for police personnel, but alters work regulations for women with children up to the age of 4 years. Countries such as Estonia, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United Kingdom offer job-sharing and other forms of flexible work hours. In Lithuania, job-sharing between colleagues is on a voluntary basis.

In case of pregnancy there are special regulations for female police officers in several European countries, including Austria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Iceland, Latvia, Lithuania, Monaco, Poland, Portugal, and Spain. During pregnancy women have temporary easement of conditions of service and transfer to another position. In general, pregnant women cannot work night shifts and they do not have to do outdoor work. Hungary and Turkey have no special regulations, but generally women can get office jobs during pregnancy. In the Netherlands, special regulations for pregnant officers bar wearing a gun, which prevents them from working in operational units on the streets. Most work indoors at their police stations. Norway also has regulations for pregnant officers that bar them from street duty after their fourth month of pregnancy. Norway and Denmark have maternity

uniforms; in Cyprus and Turkey pregnant officers can wear civilian clothes.

Some countries, for example, Estonia, Italy, and Latvia, forbid laying off pregnant employees. In the Swiss police, an individual schedule is programmed according to the abilities of the pregnant officer and the needs of the organization. In Sweden, a pregnant officer is entitled to be transferred to other duties if she has a job that cannot be done because of pregnancy. In the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland, adjustments are made for pregnant women, who are not obliged to perform night work. Many of these countries also have policies that pertain to the amount of time women can take off following childbirth and the types of work to which they may be assigned when they return.

Although little has been written about them, women are found in the police forces of most African countries, including Botswana, South Africa, Nigeria, and Uganda. They are integrated into various types of units and are not assigned solely to work with women and children, although women in high ranks are generally in positions historically associated with women in policing or in staff positions. Many of the African forces, reversing the entry of women into policing in European countries early in the 20th century, are creating family protection units at the insistence of women officers, rather than as a vehicle to employ them. For instance, the Uganda police set up a child and family protection unit after policewomen fought for its creation; the assistant superintendent in charge in 2003 had been with the unit since its creation in 1995. Women from African nations met in 2001 in Uganda for a conference devoted solely to their efforts to increase their presence in their departments and to share knowledge to protect women and children from human rights abuses.

The aims of the African women highlight an interesting development in the work of women in policing. At the same time that women in some countries are fighting for total equality with their male colleagues, others are comfortable with the historical role of policewomen working solely on issues involving women and children. The differences reflect women's roles in society. Where

religious and societal rules require a separation of men and women, women in policing have carved out jobs that most likely would not otherwise be open to them. Just as women in the United States, Great Britain, Australia, and, to a lesser extent, Canada, used this concept of separate spheres to move into policing and to achieve some supervisory positions for women, women in other countries are doing the same thing today.

A few examples illustrate how history is repeating itself. In 1985, Brazil opened its first women's police station in São Paulo. Its creation was attributed to the women's movement and condemnation of the courts' acquittals of a number of men who had killed women. By 2003, there were more than 300 such women's police stations in Brazil and other Latin American, South Asian, and African nations. All-women units were established in 1994 by India's Tamil Nadu State Police to handle family-related disputes and to serve the full range of general police functions. The rationale for the second role was that women would be more likely to trust women officers and to speak freely to them. The idea has spread to other Indian states and also to Pakistan, when then-Prime Minister Benazir Bhutto announced in 1994 that she wanted to allocate 10% of senior police jobs to women, particularly so that women who approached the police for help would be neither ignored nor abused during interrogation. Although these stations have received praise from women's rights groups in many countries and most women officers reported high levels of satisfaction working in them, there are indications that some women officers are concerned that working in the specialized stations will hamper their prospects for promotion. These concerns are the same as those expressed in the 1960s by women in countries where integration is now the law.

Concerns with career mobility have not been voiced in countries where women's expectations are less well-developed. Thus the policewomen who had been working in Iran before the revolution in 1979 were restricted to administrative work and to searching female subjects until 2003, when 400 women were hired and trained to work on the streets of Tehran. The women, who received 3 years of training,

including using firearms and laying mines, will not wear the black *chador*, but will instead wear trousers and long coats. In early 2003, the Afghan government also announced the reintroduction of women into the Kabul police academy. Although some women had been recruited during the Soviet occupation, no women had been trained since 1992, prior to the civil war. In related announcements in 2003, Qatar reported that more than 100 women cadets had graduated from its police academy, Malaysia announced that it would work to increase women police officers from 12% to 15% of its police, and Bangladesh announced that it would deploy women army officers.

Whether these women will be integrated into their police organizations remains to be seen. In some countries, it is most likely they will continue to work in sex-segregated assignments that follow the pattern of earlier generations of policewomen. In other countries, integration will continue or will emerge as an issue for the women officers and for their police organizations. As of now, there seem to be two distinct career paths for women, one relying on sex-neutral assignments, the other on sex-specific assignments. There is also the possibility that continued male resistance to female equality and the effects of maternity and child care on women's career plans will devolve into a pattern that integrates the two paths in ways that meet the needs of women and their police forces.

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Y

☪️ YEMEN

Yemen occupies 527,970 square kilometers on the tip of the Arabian peninsula, between Saudi Arabia and Oman. It has a population of 19.3 million people (July 2003 estimate).

Yemen became united as one country in 1990; previously the North and South were separate countries. The North was formerly part of the Ottoman Empire and independent since 1918; the South was a British protectorate and became independent in 1967. The unification of the two was uncomfortable given the disparate political traditions of the two former controlling entities. Southern Yemen secessionists were thwarted in 1994, and the government has been dominated by rulers from North Yemen since that time.

Yemen opposed the use of force to oust Iraq from Kuwait in 1990; this was an unpopular move regionally, which led to Yemen's economic isolation. At the same time, expatriate workers who had long supported Yemen from abroad were subsequently sent home, and in the 1990s Yemen found aid cut off at the same time as it met growing unemployment and an accompanying rise in crime. Both domestic and foreign institutions have been targets of terrorist attacks in Yemen. The bombing of the U.S. Navy ship the USS Cole in 2000, the bombing of a French civilian oil tanker in 2002, and the assassination of foreign missionary doctors in 2002

have overshadowed attacks on Yemen's own institutions and assassinations of local political figures. As a result Yemen has increased and received international support for its counterterrorism activities.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION OF LAW ENFORCEMENT FORCES

On paper, Yemen's Constitution and laws boast adherence to modern policing norms. In practice, however, rural areas remain governed more by tribal tradition than by law. Yemen's sparsely populated desert and mountain regions remain particularly distanced from the State; some areas receive very few government services. The Police Corps Act of 2000 defines the role of Yemeni police as a civilian body whose role is to protect life and property of Yemen's citizens. The Criminal Investigative Department (CID) of the police reports to the Ministry of Interior, conducts most criminal investigations, and makes most arrests.

One frequent criticism is that the President maintains stability by staffing high-ranking members of the security forces and police with his close relatives or tribe. His son, for example, was the head of the Revolutionary Guards and now heads the Special Forces.

In addition to the regular police, Yemen has a number of other security forces that engage in law enforcement activities.



In response to the kidnapping of foreign tourists by an Islamic group, the government established Special Forces in 1998, although their numbers are not known. Their members are recruited from

the military and Republican Guards, and have reportedly received training from Jordan and the United States.

The Central Security Organization (CSO), also a part of the Ministry of Interior, maintains a paramilitary force. A Political Security office, which reports directly to the President, has been widely criticized for arresting opposition figures and journalists critical of the President and ruling party.

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Z

✎ ZAMBIA

Located in southern central Africa, Zambia has a total area of 290,585 square miles (752,614 square kilometers) and a population of 10.2 million inhabitants (April 2002).

ZAMBIA POLICE SERVICE

Policing in Zambia is delegated to a national force, the Zambia Police Service (ZPS), formerly the Zambia Police Force.

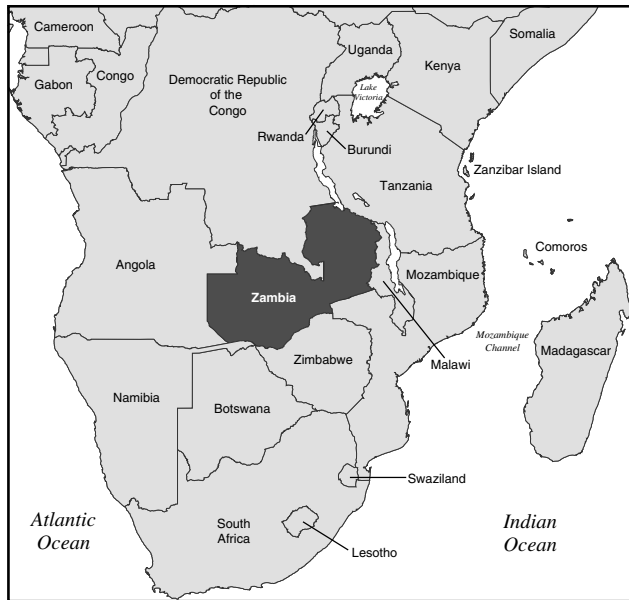
Modern policing in Zambia dates back to 1891. At that time, the British South Africa Company (BSAC) policed the territory to protect its commercial interests, primarily copper mining. The Rhodesia Constabulary (RC) was also formed to combat the slave trade. They provided military protection for the territory until 1911, when Zambia, known then as Northern Rhodesia, came under the control of the British colonial administration. The primary force then became a civil police force, divided into three entities: the Criminal Investigations Department, Fingerprint Bureau, and the Town and District Police. Despite its designation as a civilian force, the police often acted militarily to control the local indigenous population.

In the 1930s, with the rise of anti-British nationalist movements, the police assisted military forces

in suppressing political demonstrations and violence. Methods such as arbitrary arrests and detentions instilled public resentment of the police. During World War II, the civil police force was instrumental in protecting Northern Rhodesia's borders from the Germans. During the colonial period, routine policing activities were performed largely by native authorities under the supervision of the provincial administration.

After 1964, when Zambia gained its independence, the police were ordered to detain opponents of the government, reflecting a politicization of the police. In doing so, the force gained a record of human rights abuses throughout the rest of the century from watchdog nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

In 1994, police reforms were enacted by the government, including the establishment of community policing, characterized by community posts, neighborhood watch programs, victim support services, school liaison units to build partnerships with educators, and farming networks to prevent stock theft. At this time, the name of the agency was changed from the Zambia Police Force to the Zambia Police Service. A Police Service Mission Statement was drafted in 1995, promising application of the law "fairly and firmly to all." The police reforms were intended to increase public support for a force previously beleaguered by human rights abuses and corruption. However, some critics have indicated that



the changes have been merely cosmetic. Occurrences of human rights abuses and corruption continue to be reported by the local and international press and NGOs.

Community policing may also have been implemented because of financial constraints facing the government. Budgetary spending has reportedly been constricted in recent years by economic liberalization and creditor pressure. Community policing was considered an inexpensive way to meet community needs.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATIONS

The ZPS is an armed, civilian police force. It consists of headquarters, nine provincial units, two training schools, one training college, a railways unit, an airport unit, a protective unit, and a road traffic commission. The force operates under the authority of Inspector General Francis Musonda (2003) who was appointed by the president. He is also accountable to the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA). There is no civilian review board. Rather, police complaints are handled through the MHA. The chain of command within each region reflects the British model: commissioners, superintendents, inspectors, sergeants, corporals, and constables.

There are 12,800 officers in the ZPS, with an estimated 1 police officer for every 800 citizens (2003). In the capital and largest city, Lusaka, the ratio is 1 officer per 538 citizens (2002). Women occupy positions on the force; exact numbers are not available from the ZPS. According to press reports, police officials believe the target strength for maximum efficiency and outcome is 27,000 officers, but efforts to increase the force have been thwarted by the government's budget constraints.

For the same reason, substandard and insufficient supply of equipment for daily policing activities has been reported. For example, in 2000, in the police station in Chilanga there were no working radios, leaving officers on the beat out of communication with those at the station. There were also insufficient documentation materials for basic record keeping. The station relied on public donations to subsidize its operations.

Police officer recruits are required to have at least 12 years of schooling. Once recruited, they are trained at one of two training schools or one training college in the country. The curriculum includes human rights, contemporary policing, communication skills, and human relations.

Zambia is a member of Interpol.

Staci Strobl

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ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country located in Southern Africa, bordered by South Africa, Mozambique, Botswana, and Zambia. It has an area of 390,580 square kilometers and an estimated population of 12.7 million people (July 2003 estimate). The United Kingdom acquired the territory in 1923. It became independent in 1965, although because of a constitution that concentrated power in the hands of a white majority, it was not internationally recognized. In 1979, after a guerilla uprising, free elections were held and the country was renamed Zimbabwe (the colonial name was Rhodesia). President Robert Mugabe, who has ruled the country since 1987, introduced controversial land redistribution reforms in 2000, ostensibly to reverse the results of colonization that had led to whites dominating land ownership. In addition to causing a white exodus from the country, his reforms led to economic crisis, suppression of dissent by violence, popular uprisings, and international marginalization.

When the British South African Company settled in and eventually annexed Mashonaland, it organized a private police force, the British South Africa Company Police. In 1896 it became independent of the company as the British South African Police (BSAP), which was both an unarmed constabulary and a standing army. When an army was finally created in 1939, at the outbreak of World War II, the BSAP gave up its military duties but retained its paramilitary functions until the creation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1953. At the time the federation was dissolved in 1963 and Sir Roy Welensky took leadership of Rhodesia, the BSAP had a strength of approximately 8,000. There was a reserve of some 35,000 partially trained policemen of whom 75% were white. The BSAP was divided into rural and urban units. Most of the African recruits were from the



minority Mdebele people who had strong military traditions.

On independence day in 1980, with the end of the regime of Ian Smith, the BSAP became the Zimbabwe Police Force. Zimbabwe reportedly spends approximately \$12,500 U.S. dollars per 1,000 population on policing. The ratio of police to population is approximately 1 officer for every 750 people.

POLICE STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The Zimbabwe National Police (ZNP) Central Headquarters is at Harare, where the Criminal Investigation Department (CID) and the Traffic Branch are based. There are three Provincial Headquarters: Harare North, Harare South, and Mashonaland South, as well as three districts in Harare. There is also a Police Forensics Laboratory. Bulawayo, the capital of Matabeleland, houses the Provincial Headquarters, as well as the CID branch, provincial training, and reserve headquarters. Other District Headquarters are at Gweu, Kwekwe, and Umtali. The Police Reserve Headquarters is at Morris Depot, Harare.

Internal security duties are provided by two Harare-based units composed of ZANU (Zimbabwe African National Union) party representatives. The security service is provided by the CID.

The main training units are at the Willowvale Police Training Center, the Morris Police Training Depot, and the Tomlinson Police Training Depot. Police camps exist at Harare and Umtali.

CONTEMPORARY POLICE ISSUES AND OUTLOOK

Key issues in policing for Zimbabwe will be how it deals with the consequences of HIV and AIDS. There is a significant problem with drugs. The police are seen as an arm of the government's policies and in the expropriation of settler land.

There is a long history of tension between the white farming community and the extant government. Increasing isolation from the community of nations has not fostered better understanding of its policing.

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