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Editorial

There is no doubt that drugs are a global problem for both national and international security in the world. Production, trafficking and the use of illicit drugs do not stop at the borders. Also the close linkage between terrorism and trafficking of drug – in other saying narco-terrorism- become difficult to be prevented day by day. Tackling the drugs problem is a shared responsibility of countries worldwide to protect what is at the heart of the international community: The people. Cooperation between the regional countries bilaterally and multilaterally has a significant role to play in struggle with this important security threat.

International Association of Police Academies (INTERPA), a worldwide association for cooperation in police training among police academies or equivalent institutions, has been founded in Istanbul on the July 2nd, 2011 with the participation of 24 Police Academies and equivalent institutions from 22 various countries and under the initiative of Turkish National Police Academy. The idea of establishing the INTERPA has arisen from the requirements of setting up a communication and collaboration platform for police training institutions to boost up the efficiency and effectiveness of police education and training on a global level. In this manner, the Association ultimately aims to enhance the capacity of trainings in policing and increase the policing standards in line with international law and human rights requirements throughout the world.

Through this purpose, 6th Annual INTERPA Conference was held on 28-30 March of 2017 hosted by Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) Police Scholl in Merit Royal Hotel in Girne / TRNC with participation of 70 representatives of 26 member institutions from 23 different countries and international organizations as Association of European Police Colleges (AEPC) and The ASEAN National Police (ASEANA-POL). Main theme of the Conference was “Drug Issue and New Approaches in Police Training in Combating Drugs”. Totally, 18 academic papers were presented within five different sessions during the Conference.

This Special Edition of Turkish Journal of Security Studies presents chosen academic papers to you, honorable readers. You will find eight articles from seven different INTERPA Member State experience in this volume.

Firstly, Mr. El Tahir, from Sudan Police, mentions Sudan’s efforts in international cooperation on tackling with illicit drugs and trafficking. He focuses on the importance of regional cooperation in fighting cross-border

and international organized crime including illicit drug trafficking in Africa and shares Sudan's best practices. Sudan's efforts on drug combat leads Sudan to become Regional Centre of Excellence for Forensic Sciences. Secondly, Mr. Gulyiza, from Kazakhstan Police focuses on the importance of drug use of teenagers and the role of civil society and social media in their prevention and interaction between the police and civil society. He states that in the Republic of Kazakhstan, prevention of drug abuse is a complex of social, educational, medical and psychological measures aimed at preventing the spread and use of psychoactive substances, but the cooperation between the police and the society has the key role in struggle with this problem.

Thirdly in a collaborated study of Anti-Narcotics Department, Training Department and Palestine College for Police Sciences in Palestine presents a current research on the efficiency of training of the police and the citizens in terms of cooperation on struggle with drug problem. They demonstrate that the amount of seized drug increased in Palestine during last three years and the Palestinian society has played a major role in cooperating with drugs department and other security departments himself or a relative or a friend, this shows the confidence between the administrations and citizens. All these activities have played an important role in enlightening the awareness in the societies about the importance of citizens' as initiatives in combating drugs and are in real touch with the administration, and cooperation in this field is a must to bring peace and stability to the societies.

Fourthly, Mr. Vukoja and Mr. Elvic from Bosnia and Herzegovina elaborate in their paper the criminalistics, intelligence operations, informants and undercover police investigators acting from the aspect of criminal law in their country. They concludes their study as acting in a planned and systematic manner of the police and other security services fighting organized crime is the key of success. According to them criminal intelligence operations in terms of identifying a problem, collecting enough data for making intelligence packages as a basis for undertaking other special investigative actions require a great commitment and huge experience of law enforcement officers working on these tasks.

Fifthly Mr. Anh, from Vietnam, presents the results of his research based on six semi-structured interviews and his article examines the nexus between drug trafficking and human insecurity in the context of Vietnam. He reveals that in Vietnam drug trafficking has mounted to an considerable multifaceted threat to human security particularly on the dimensions of economic, health, personal, community and security. So in his study Mr. Anh puts forward the importance of the police training could be under-

taken by both police and security academies. With regard to the training curriculum, it should pay more attention on powering its potential victims to develop their resilience and capacity to escape from the victimization.

Sixtly, Mr. Çakıcı and his colleagues, from Near East University of Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus share the conclusion of the research conducted by them. The aim of their research is to investigate prevalence of psychoactive substance use; such as cigarettes, alcohol and others, and to see the change in ratios compared to previous years since 1999 to 2015. The results show that, the percentage of smoking at least once was 8.9%, alcohol use percentage was 36.3%, use of other psychoactive drugs (OPD) was 5.5% and the use of illegal substances was 3.9%. Research findings indicate that there is an increase in the use of different kinds of psychoactive substances in TRNC.

Another study from Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, Mr. Kayabaşı from TRNC Police Organization, shows Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate police officers' perceptions about police ethics in TRNC, by using the second version of international police integrity questionnaire developed by Klockars and colleagues. According to the results of his research it is found that, most of the respondents believed that other officers in their directorate would be much more likely to protect all these behaviors -except unjustifiable use of deadly force, verbal abuse, cover-up of police driving under the influence accident, and sergeant fails to halt beating of child abuser - in the code of silence than they themselves would.

Finally Mr. Tekiner and Mr. Kayabaşı from Turkey, emphasizes narco terrorist organizations operating in Turkey, Middle East and Europe, such as Kurdistan Workers' Party, Kurdistan Communities Union and the Fethullahist Terrorist Organization / Parallel State Constitution. They also evaluated the current situation of narco terrorism in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus in their paper. We are grateful for all contributors that having labor and studies to publish this issue and hopeful to continue similar international cooperation efforts ending with this kind of academic studies on security.

Best Regards,

Assistant Prof. Seda ÖZ YILDIZ
Editor of Turkish Journal of Security Studies

SUDAN'S INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION ASPECTS RELATED TO CAPACITY BUILDING AND DRUG COMBAT

EIHadi Magzoub EL TAHIR*

Abstract

Drugs abuse and trafficking pose serious threats to safety, security and productivity of societies. Many social and economic factors raise market demands for drugs abuse that is escalated more by the cheap available means of transportation. Equally important, the Internet and other means of communications could widen global drugs demand' and trafficking. It is also connected to other international organized crimes that need to be campaigned against, not only by us as police leaders but also as governments, regional and international organizations, as well as civil society sectors. Such integrated regional and international co-operation and support is very essential for combating this serious crime. In some particular regions, this crime destabilizes governments due to its association to rebel's activities, money laundering and corruption.

This paper aims to highlight part of the international cooperation in combating drugs abuse and trafficking. Focus has been put on the Eastern African region cooperation in fighting cross-border and international organized crimes like drug trafficking. More emphasis would be extended to Sudan for Narcotics and Drugs combating program, as one of the areas which Sudan is focusing and closely collaborating with foreign counterparts. In the first place, the joint work of the United Nation Office for Drug and Crime (UNODC) with Sudan to become a Regional Drug Centre is illustrated. Furthermore, Sudan also has-been chosen as a Regional Centre of Excellence for Forensic Sciences including drug detection, as well as being adopted by the INTERPOL as a Training Centre for Drugs K9 at the region. In addition, capacity building which forms an important component and an integral part in cooperation efforts will be presented briefly.

Keywords: Drug Abuse, Drug Trafficking, Institutional Capacity Building, International Cooperation, Sudan

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International and Regional Actors

As crime cannot be combated by national isolated standalone efforts, the world of today recognizes the value of collaboration and cooperation. Many national, regional and international agencies worked collaboratively against crime including drugs trafficking. For instance, they joined and formed networks between their countries and then extended their collaboration to form entity comprising member networks. The UNODC and the INTERPOL have particular importance of international cooperation in combating crime and drugs abuse and trafficking and could be considered as leading organizations in this domain. Chiefs of Police (ASEANAPOL), the European Union's law enforcement agency (EUROPOL) are additional examples for cooperation activities over continents. Regionally, and complementary in drugs detection, analysis and classification countries have joined and formed networks and then extended their cooperative to form entity comprising member networks. An example of such cooperation is the International Forensic Strategic Alliance (IFSA) which is a multilateral partnership between the regional networks of operational forensic laboratories including:

- The American Society of Crime Laboratory Directors (ASCLD),
- The European Network of Forensic Science Institutes (ENFSI),
- The Senior Managers of Australian and New Zealand Forensic Laboratories (SMANZFL),
- The Asian Forensic Sciences Network (AFSN),
- The Southern Africa Regional Forensic Science Network (SARFS).

INTERPOL provides a diverse range of analytical products such as: analytical reports, threat assessments for regions or specific crimes, risk assessments for a particular event and intelligence publications (bulletins, monthly reports ... *etc.*). Cooperation includes involvement in the international related organizations that provide both operational and strategic analytical support to crime-related investigations, operations, consultancy services and training for police in member countries.

UNODC tasked to identify, analyze and monitor global drugs and transnational organized crime threats, knowing that this information enables the international community to understand trends of drugs, define appropriate drug and crime control priorities. The Quality Assurance Program (IQAP), International Collaborative Exercise (ICE) initiated by the Laboratory and Scientific Section (LSS) of the UNODC, is an example of other technical support coordinated globally by the UNODC.

Similarly, Arab region as well has its own regional cooperation through the Council of Arab Interior Ministers which works toward strengthening the cooperation in different fields of combating crime and maintaining security and justice. Too many initiations have been launched by the council, as well as, by the council of Arab Ministers of Justice aimed to combat terror, drugs crime, illicit trafficking of arms, narcotics ... *etc.*

Regarding the African regional co-operation, Eastern Africa Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (EAPCCO) was formed in 1998 as a platform for police cooperation to fight cross-border and international organized crimes like drug trafficking. Other bodies are also there, like the African Center for the Study and Research on Terrorism (ACSRT), the Nouakchott and Djibouti Processes, the Liaison and Fusion Centers, the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organization (SARPCCO).

In February 2014, Police Directors and Inspectors General from all over the African Continent, made the Algiers Declaration that led to the establishment of the AFRIPOL that was endorsed by the Executive Council of the AU in June 2014. It is a body against transnational crime contributing to enhance cooperation among member states including existing continental structures and institutions.

SUDAN's National and Regional Cooperation

Sudan is an INTERPOL member and is party to the 1961 Single Convention on Narcotic Drugs, the 1971 Convention on Psychotropic Substances, and the 1988 Convention. Sudan is also one of thirteen EAPCCO member countries.

Sudan is taking serious interest in narcotics matters, and in addressing eradication, prosecution, and treatment. The central government unit responsible for liaison and coordination of national drug control policy is the Drug Combat Administration.

Sudan has signed many cooperation protocols with different counterparts over the world. Most of the signed protocols emphasized the importance of training and information sharing.

Table 1: Some countries that Sudan has offered them training courses during 2016

Country	Description	Officers	NCOs
Chad	Training courses	6	-
	Training convoy	82	214
	Finger-print	2	-
	Crime Investigation	2	-
	Forgery & Counterfeiting	2	-
Gambia	Questioned Documents	5	-
	Forgery & Counterfeiting	3	-
Somalia	Training courses	15	-
	Police College	15	-
	Crime Scene Training	10	-
	Leadership & Management	5	-
	Planning & Police Management	5	-
Yemen	Police College	9	-
Palestine	Police College	20	-
Jordan	Police College	72	-
	Police High Academy	5	-
Djibouti	Police College	1	-
Morocco	K9 Training	-	4
	Digital Forensic Evidence	4	-
Total		263	218
Over all		481	

Furthermore, some regional conferences and meetings had been held in Sudan including the 5th INTERPA Conference (Refugees Crisis). However, 2016 also witnessed many visits from Police Chiefs and Directors.

Table 2: Sudan's participations abroad during 2016

Country	Conferences & Contributions	Training	Country	Conferences & Contributions	Training
Egypt	40	147	Ivory Coast	1	-
Ethiopia	23	11	Indonesia	2	22
Kenya	17	27	Jordan	12	87
Rwanda	6	8	Gambia	2	-
South Africa	4	6	Germany	4	13
Tunisia	24	22	Comoros	2	-
Saudi	5	9	Congo	1	-
UAE	8	30	Kyrgyzstan	2	2
Austria	3	-	Mozambique	2	-
UK	4	2	Norway	1	-
Turkey	8	2	Belorussia	1	1
Russia	3	47	Djibouti	1	-
Holland	3	1	Canada	1	-
Belgium	9	-	Chad	1	-
USA	2	4	Japan	1	5
Somalia	2	-	Korea	1	11
Kuwait	2	-	Morocco	2	89
France	12	20	Spain	1	1
Italy	3	-	Zimbabwe	2	-
Swazi-	5	-	Tanzania	1	2
Qatar	6	-	Bangladesh	1	-
Thailand	1	-	Algeria	2	-
Zambia	4	-	Uganda	4	1
India	-	5	Oman	-	1
Malaysia	-	22	Singapore	-	2
Lebanon	-	41	Seychelles	-	1
Nigeria	-	1	Brazil	-	2
Total Training Programs			645		
Total Conferences & Contributions			266		
Total			911		

UNODC Work with Sudan to be a Regional Centre for Drugs Analysis

In November 2003, Government of Sudan through the Ministry of Interior submitted a proposal regarding the establishment of a Regional Drug Analysis Laboratory to serve as a regional training centre. A comprehensive assessment of the laboratory as a capacity to the proposed Drug Regional Centre, by the UNODC, was indispensable to consider current development and progress as well as to investigate what might be required for the near future and strategic plans, at that time. One year after, Dr. Howard Stead, Chief of the Laboratory and Scientific Section, representative for the head of the UNODC visited Sudan to assess the proposed plan. However, Mr. Stead stated in his report that, Sudan Forensic Administration provided satisfactory training programs and technical support to crime investigations in Sudan. He also stated that, Sudan had an adequate space and facilities for training of the staff and for its current needs and have the capability to do so for his neighbor countries and to the region.

Since that time, Sudan moved a considerable distance and worked efficiently and effectively to host the centre. The goals of the Centre are:

- Improve the national forensic capacity and capabilities of member state to meet international accepted standards,
- Ensure the worldwide availability and accessibility of internationally accepted standards,
- Increase the use of forensic science services, data and information for evidence- based operational purposes, strategic interventions and policy and decision-making,
- More importantly, to collaborate closely with other governmental institutes/agencies in handling, monitoring and evaluating cases on narcotics and drugs in the country.

Following the recommendations of the head of UNODC, Sudan reiterated its goal of establishing Regional Forensic Laboratory for Narcotics and Drugs. Tremendous efforts for establishing a state of art Forensic Laboratory, including advanced narcotic and drug analysis departments, were exerted and a considerable development and progress had been achieved.

The following table illustrates the improvements been carried to meet the requirements of the technical indicators as to the report's recommendations:

Table 3: Current Status of Sudan Forensic Directorate and UNODC Recommendations

UNODC Recommendations	Sudan Forensic Directorate current status
Provide the necessary equipment for drug analysis in the Chemistry Department	- At the present the laboratory acquired advanced new GC-MS's, HPLC's, LC-MS, XRD, XRF, SEM/EDXRF ... <i>etc.</i>
Basic/advanced training for drug analysts and specialists	- Local and foreign training was conducted, on drug analysis in cooperation together with the UNPOL-UNMIS Forensic Chemist.
Regular visits of experts to assist in the sustainability of the ongoing development	-UNPOL-UNMIS Forensic Expert (Chemist) deployed and was assigned at the lab. for more than six months, Experts from UK visited Sudan from DFID Program Experts from Forensic Service of Turkey visited Sudan according to a bilateral agreement between Governments of Sudan and Turkey.
Continuous supply of reference, periodical and related materials	Reference materials are available in the library coming from UNODC, Reference books on drugs and other forensic specialties became available at the Training Centre library. Availability of cross references with another library within the National Ribat University library system <i>i.e.</i> Department of Medicine, Department of Pharmacology, Department of Biochemistry.
Supply of reference samples for analysis, as required	- Requested from UNODC, however, secondary references were being used especially those from prescribe drugs.
Ensure firm chain of custody	Some protocols <i>e.g.</i> Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) and Work Instructions (WIs) were already set and currently being reviewed and/or revised, Other new protocols for forensic services are set and presently working for ISO-17025.
Develop syllabuses and training programs for the personnel	- Numerous training programs (basic - advanced) were proposed.

Organize courses in drug analysis to the new forensic scientists, judges, prosecutors... <i>etc.</i> , at national and regional levels	Training was conducted, locally and outside Sudan <i>e.g.</i> Japan, Turkey, Jordan ... <i>etc.</i> Other programs were proposed, from basic to advanced training.
Build a case management system	Actually, there is a case management system existing, but needs to be improved. Further, close coordination discussing and finalizing an advanced case management system is on the ground.
Ensuring the continuity of Phase (2)	- Sustainable plans will be finalized 2017-2018
Starting training at the regional level	Establishment of other forensic laboratories and/or mobile laboratories in other states specifically in Port-Sudan, El Obaid and Kadugli. Some training courses to Ethiopian and EAPCCO forensic scientists were conducted at Khartoum Next November, Forensic Awareness and Crime Scene specialized course for the same EAPCCO countries would be organized in Khartoum and supervised by the INTERPOL Regional Office in Nairobi, Kenya. Other proposed training (Annex 3)
Cooperation prospective: establishing central database at the Regional Laboratory to be linked to national similar laboratories to ensure maximum cooperation	Laboratory Information Management System (LIMS) was currently discussed; if UNODC database is available, the lab is very willing to be linked for the purpose.

Moreover, the area of administrative aspects had also been improved. The Vision and Mission had been set. Strategy and Organizational Structure had been approved. New scientists possessing the required qualifications had been recruited and trained as mentioned in the above table. The Directorate now has well-constructed physical facilities that can accommodate any future expansion of services offered *e.g.* instrumentation rooms, research facilities among others which must be within the acceptable scientific spatial arrangement and design. Security procedures, safety for the

personnel were observed. Policies were formulated and are now available for all serving as reference at all levels as appropriate. However, some procedures as well as detailed work instructions need to be developed, implemented and standardized.

Sudan participates regularly in the (IQAP), ICE, and currently under processing ICE 2017/1. The LSS prepares and sends participating laboratories seized materials (SM) and biological specimens (BS) test samples. The list includes, Amphetamine type, Stimulants, Cannabinoids, Cocaine, Hallucinogenic drugs, Opiates, Adulterants/Diluents.

After the submission of analytical results, the forensic laboratory receives its individual evaluation report. This annual participation enables the Sudan Forensic Department to follow the comprehensive information on the drug illicit situation.

Based on the considerable advances and recognition of the whole region and some international related organizations, the Centre is quite ready to be assisted and endorsed as an accredited UNODC centre for drugs and narcotics analysis for the region.

EAPCCO's Context

The EAPCCO Chiefs of Police had developed several strategies and mechanisms to support operations, consultancy services and training for the region. One of such strategies is the interregional operation called *Operation Uslama*, which is conducted at Eastern and Southern Africa annually since 2013 and ultimately, posted very impressive results.

These coordinated mechanisms, provided technical support to drug-related crime in all member countries. As a result, the region witnessed increased seizures of major drugs hauls at Sudan, Kenya and Tanzania as an example. At Sudan, traffickers have used various concealed methods to move drugs overland to the market or to their stores for repackaging and reshipping. Hauls have been recorded by Sudan Drug Combating Administration and many Interceptions have also been made at airports, sea ports and land ports.

There are other regional drugs related bodies, which provide a platform for discussion, development of strategies and plans of action in combating drugs trafficking, e.g. the Heads of Narcotics Law Enforcement Agencies (HONLEA).

However, The INTERPOL regional bureau reports indicated that, the Inter-agency Cooperation has worked well in some EAPCCO countries leading to major seizures.

One other powerful tool in solving such crimes, is sharing the available advanced national capabilities. It is worth note, that not all EAPCCO countries have such satisfactory institutions that might be due to lack of qualified personnel and required facilities. However, they determined to get benefit from the available technologies suitable with their actual needs and to share experiences from each other. EAPCCO, particularly, during its meeting on 27 – 30 of September 2009 - Djibouti, recommended the improving of the region forensic capabilities. In the same resolution, they noticed the advancement made by Sudan in the forensic field. Sudan was encouraged to share its experiences with other EAPCCO members. At that conference, Sudan agreed, presented and made available its forensic and related training capabilities.

During the 15th annual EAPCCO general meeting, it was decided to urge its members to establish Centres of excellence for the region. Such Centres make possible sharing experiences and best practices at regional and international levels and making the country able to contribute to the global efforts towards eradication of dangerous drugs and other crimes. The EAPCCO recognized the following Centres of Excellence:

- Forensic and cyber forensics Centre by Sudan,
- Regional counter-terrorism Centre by Kenya,
- Peace Support Operations (PSO) and cybercrime centre by Rwanda,
- Community policing model in Uganda.

The Purpose of the Centre of Excellence is:

- To assist Police in each EAPCCO country to improve forensic services within its capacity through specialized and well equipped forensic laboratories.
- This regional laboratory was planned to be designed as a forensic service that will ensure an over-all shared purposes and directions of police for all EAPCCO members.
- All forensic examinations particularly serious and regional crimes (Drugs, post blast investigation and Disaster Victim Identification), become available.
- The laboratory also is to work as a reference laboratory for all EAPCCO members.
- It also works as a Training Centre for the region.

Achieving Excellency in Forensic Services came in line with the Forensic Administration strategy. The Administration focused and carried out intensive development and training programs closely collaborating with local and foreign counterparts, *e.g.* United Nations Police, United Missions in Sudan (UNPOL-UNMIS), Safety and Access to Justice Programme (SAJP).

However, there are other local centres, focusing on a specific aspect each. They could share their capability with other members:

- a. General Criminal Intelligence, Counter Terrorism and Investigations, Police Aviation; Kenya,
- b. Disaster Management; Burundi,
- c. Traffic Management, Gender Based Violence and Child Protection, Police Institutions of Higher Learning, Peace Support Operations and Logistics; Rwanda,
- d. Regional Centre for Community Policing and Social Media; Uganda,
- e. Public Order Management, General Junior Command Courses and Maritime Policing/Piracy; Tanzania.

Training and Capacity Building

Training programs aimed to reinforce efficiency, using proper assessment and awarding licenses to officials working on examination. Because most officers working at combating institutions lack the required professional skills and equipment to handle cases competently, training has to include all the elements necessary for reinforcing efficiency and assessment and necessarily for the assigned tasks. Accordingly, other law enforcement agencies like immigration, customs, forestry, airport security and the sea ports were also accommodated in the training programs. Training included: first crime-scene respondents specialized in handling crime-scenes, drugs detection and investigative skills, concealing methods and transportation means among others. Police should be well equipped to detect and carry out necessary tests on suspected drugs. These programs also included the syllabus, continuous assessment, regional training and cooperation with similar laboratories.

To support these training efforts, Sudan Forensic Administration had developed a training arm specialized in forensic science. That was in the year 1995. Now the Institute is affiliated to the University of National Rabat and has many programs including awarding MSc. and PhD. degrees in forensic sciences.

To harmonize and enhance the training programs in the region to fight against transnational crimes, the resolution (RES/EAPCCO/2015/CPC/17/7) of the Council of EAPCCO police Chiefs held on 16 – 17 November 2015, Naivasha – Kenya called for a meeting of commandants of police Colleges/Academies and Schools and to establish a framework that would ensure the fast tracking of the suggested police training harmonization process in the region.

Accordingly, the meeting convened on 25 – 26 January 2016, Kigali – Rwanda resolved the following:

- Establishing the ‘Eastern Africa Association of Police Training Institution’ (EAAPTI).
- To harmonize and to standardize training programs.

Working with SAJP

SAJP was a 4 years program that worked on capacity building and increasing coverage, accessibility and effectiveness of the police and justice systems of the Sudan. SAJP assisted in contributing training programs in the following areas:

- All crime-scene technical work including: handling of major crime-scenes, developing and implementation of Disaster Victim Identification.
- Scientific forensic visits to UK for some of the working forensic staff.
- Formulation of a strategy to the forensic work in Sudan and drawing a plan of actions in response to the implementation of that strategy.
- Organizing a capacity building project and workshop activities.

Working with UNMIS/ UNAMID

Making use of the presence of UNMIS and then UNAMID (UN Mission in Sudan and then with African Union in Darfur), cooperation was carried out at all forensic aspects. A UN liaison office within the Sudan Forensic Administration for UNPOL experts was established. That office facilitated continuous contact with UN related experts to be consulted and for the delivery of training courses and sometimes, new methodologies were introduced.

Conclusion

Sudan possesses a very good long history in policing and in international cooperation, particularly in training and forensic science. Sudan has a distinguished fingerprint on his African neighbour countries and the Arabic region as well. The history of the long co-operation with regional and international partners, knowhow and all these developments could make Sudan a suitable candidate to host focal centres and crime related networks for Africa and Middle East region. Taking into account the recent developing co-operation between Sudan Police Administration and leading international agencies including Turkish Police, FBI and EU which is planning to install a specialized centre to tackle migrants smuggling and human trafficking, Sudan is gaining more momentum as an optimum Focal Point in achieving the goal of the international cooperation in maintaining safety, security and justice including that related to drugs and drugs trafficking.

Meanwhile, and in all cases for international community and Sudan to meet these challenges and opportunities, Sudan must have technical assistance urgently in:

- Development of necessary Information Technology infrastructure, including the acquisition of some necessary equipments,
- Use of Information Technology to replace manual work with electronic processing of materials,
- Development of human capacity to manage Information Technology.

THE ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY AND SOCIAL MEDIA IN PREVENTION OF DRUG ABUSE AND DRUG DEALING

Gulziya YESKATOVA*

Abstract

This paper is concerning the issues of drug use especially by adolescents in Kazakhstan, the role of civil society and social media in their prevention and interaction of police with such social agencies. The aim of this paper is to analyze the problem of the role of civil society and social media in prevention of drug abuse and drug dealing. Prevention is a system of measures aimed at preventing the emergence of reasons, stopping the growth and a reduction in illegal drug use. In the Republic of Kazakhstan prevention of drug abuse is a complex of social, educational, medical and psychological measures aimed at preventing the spread and use of psychoactive substances, as well as preventing the development and the elimination of negative personal, social and health consequences of substance abuse (neglect, crime, growth related addiction diseases).

Keywords: Civil Society, Social Media, Drug Abuse, Drug Dealing, Kazakhstan.

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Introduction

One of the most vital tasks for the state, civil society and law enforcement bodies of the country is the prevention of drug abuse and drug dealing. Thus, the given paper deals with the issues of drug use especially by adolescents in Kazakhstan, the role of civil society and social media in their prevention and interaction of police with such social agencies.

The problem of the use of drugs by teenagers remains the most serious concern of the modern Kazakhstani society. According to the Committee on Legal Statistics and Special Records of the General Prosecutor of Republic of Kazakhstan *“the number of juveniles accused on the facts of illegal circulation of narcotic drugs, psychotropic substances and precursors without the purpose of sale and non-medical consumption has increased to 23,1% and 5,3 %, respectively.”* (1). Therefore, the activities aimed at the prevention of drug abuse and drug dealing in Kazakhstan include the preventive work among juveniles.

Young People and Drug Abuse: Current Situation

In general, young people are especially vulnerable to drug abuse. Their physical and psychological states of development cause them to be highly susceptible to the ill effects of drug use not only at the moment of use, but for years to come as well. Moreover, the behavior patterns that result from teen and preteen drug use often result in tragic consequences.

The self-degradation, loss of control, and disruptive, antisocial attitudes that young people develop because of drug use cause untold harm to themselves and their families. Youth alcohol use strongly correlates with later adult drug use. For example, adults who started drinking as children are nearly eight times more likely to use drugs than are adults who did not drink as children. Moreover, alcoholism has profound social and economic costs.

Underage Use of Tobacco

The younger a person is when he begins smoking, the greater the risk for smoking-attributable disease. Researchers have also noted a correlation between underage use of tobacco and later use in life cocaine and heroin.

Many scientists find a close link between youth drug use and their antisocial behavior and crime committing. Some studies held in Kazakhstan show, that today not only teenagers and young adults from asocial environment use drugs, but also students from affluent families have some drug-related problems because of their psychological immaturity, insecurity, incompetence.

Solution of The Problem

Only interconnected work of all social agencies involved in the prevention of drug abuse and drug dealing can yield positive results. Those agencies include the commission on juvenile affairs and protection of their rights, governments for social protection of the population; educational authorities; guardianship authorities; youth affairs offices; healthcare authorities and employment agencies. Moreover, the implementation of drug prevention programs among adolescents is the first responsibility of the law-enforcement bodies, and in particular, of the *local police service*. In general, the local police service was introduced firstly with the goal of crime prevention. Thus the preventing of drug use among juveniles is an important area among the preventive activities of local police, as infringing behavior of adolescents, does not only affect the common crime at the moment, but also determines the future of crime. In this connection, local police officers give special attention to the proper selection of the organization of drug preventive activities.

According to data presented by the juvenile police officers of the Kostanai Regional Internal Affairs Department in Kostanai region there are currently 32 teenagers who suffer from drug and alcohol addiction. Moreover, this statistic does not account for the teenagers using tobacco, and spice mixture. At the same time, according to psychologist Helena Maslennikova of the Regional Drug Dependency Clinic, "*Smoking blends, including spice, are more dangerous than traditional drugs*".

In order to prevent the spread of tobacco, and spice mixture use among adolescents of Kostanai city and other towns and villages of Kostanai region, the staff of the local police force have been trained at seminars, conducted by experienced psychologists of the Regional Drug Dependency Clinic in the headquarters of Kostanai regional police. During the seminars, juvenile officers learned how to work with a new category of drug addicts and about the main types of drug and alcohol addiction, and how to recognize whether adolescents have used them. A large proportion of

spice addicts are teenagers and youth, who suffer heavy brittle from psychological, and then physical attachment to the use of smoking mixtures.

Therefore, the easiest way to determine the presence of drug dependence in youngsters is to observe their behavior. People who are close to a child, parents, and relatives of a teenager can notice some changes. If the academic performance of a child at school has fallen sharply, he is secretive, starts to demand more pocket money and communicates with new suspicious friends, and then you should seek qualified physicians and psychologists. Only they can help in the situation, if the child uses a mixture of tobacco and synthetic drugs, which include so many chemical elements, that it is very difficult to determine the drug type and degree of drug addiction and therefore save the adolescents life.

The head of the department of juvenile police of the local police service of DIA of Kostanai region Gulmira Lezhnina is sure that for adolescents' drug use prevention, law enforcement officers should be in close contact with teenager's family members, teachers and psychologists at school.

In general, drug use prevention in Kazakhstan is made on different level. Firstly, there is *primary prevention*, carried out by an individual and a family. That is the individual level or family level. On a family level, parents offer their children emotional support that protects against using drugs. To my mind in each family, there should be some good traditions of celebrating definite events, making some small gifts or something like that. In one word, it should be a "happy family", united by common goals and ideas, where there is love and understanding. I think, that it is necessary to members of the family to show that you are interested in what youngster is doing, his or her hobby, that YOU NEED THAT PERSON then it will be a kind of guarantee that no one of your relatives will think of taking drugs. On an individual level, a youngster should try to avoid stress situations, go in for sport, have some hobby, not to spend too much time playing computers etc.

Teachers or coaches at schools and sport clubs make *secondary drug use prevention*. It is quite usual that most of time children spend at school. In addition, teachers can prevent some conflict or even risk drug-problem situations just watching the behavior of a youngster at lessons, during breaks, out of class activities. If a teenager becomes aggressive, or unsociable a teacher should try to learn the reason of such conduct.

Analysis of a drug-related crime, made after a certain drug-related crime has completed can be treated as *tertiary drug use prevention*. It is very

important to learn the cause of crime committing, as it will help in future to prevent new tragedies happening.

Moreover, the social mass media plays important role in drug use prevention. One of the effective forms of prevention of drug use by young people is to organize the placement of high-quality anti-drug materials on the Internet. Teenagers spend a lot of time visiting various Internet sites. In addition to the placement of anti-drug information materials these online resources contain some “tips” for youngsters how to behave in problem situations. Those recommendations can be treated as a kind distance education for drug prevention.

Conclusion

Summarizing everything that have been mentioned in that paper concerning the problem of the role of civil society and social media in prevention of drug abuse and drug dealing we can write the following. Prevention is a system of measures aimed at preventing the emergence of reasons, stopping the growth and a reduction in illegal drug use. In the Republic of Kazakhstan prevention of drug abuse is a complex of social, educational, medical and psychological measures aimed at preventing the spread and use of psychoactive substances, as well as preventing the development and the elimination of negative personal, social and health consequences of substance abuse (neglect, crime, growth related addiction diseases).

Here is an example of such recommendations, made by professional psychologists.

1. Do not be afraid to say NO. Sometimes, our fear of negative reaction from our friends, or others we do not even know, keeps us from doing what we know is right. If someone offers you drugs, remember you should not agree to take it.
2. Connect with Your Friends and Avoid Negative Peer Pressure: Pay attention to with whom you are contacting. You may have some alcohol and drug problems, if you continue to contact with those who routinely drink alcohol or use drugs.
3. Make Connections with Your Parents or Other Adults: You should have people you can rely on, whom you can talk to about life, alcohol, and drugs.

4. Enjoy Life and Do What You Love. Do not Add Alcohol and Drugs. Learn how to enjoy life and the people in your life, without adding alcohol or drugs.
5. Follow the Family Rules about Alcohol and Drugs: Do not let alcohol and drugs come between you and your parents. Talking with mom and dad about alcohol and drugs can be very helpful.
6. Get Educated about Alcohol and Drugs: You cannot rely on the myths and misconceptions that are out there among your friends and on the internet.

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POLICE TRAINING ROLE IN RESPONDING TO MINIMIZE DEMAND ON ILLICIT DRUGS

Collaborated Study*

Abstract

Drug problem is the problem of the whole world, it is spread in societies up to each circumstances and the police. This research has adopted the annalistic descriptive methodology by answering the questions of “How effective the trainings in lightening and increasing community awareness regarding the hazards of drugs?” and “Is the quality of the offered trainings able to meet the needs of the workers in the anti-narcotic department?”.

Seized drugs cases in the last three years has been increased, knowing that by the increasing numbers of arrested users of drugs and the size of the seized substance. The Palestinian citizen has played a major role in cooperating with drugs department and other security departments by informing about drug dealers, also networking with other institutions has decreased the demand on drugs. There were many registered cases where the citizen himself comes to drugs department asking for help for himself or a relative or a friend, this shows the confidence between the administrations and citizens. The administration has used modern scientific basis in training its staff enabling them to deliver information to civilians and dealing with them as real partners in combating drugs. A specialized department was established to aware and guide people of the hazards of drugs, this department been supplied with a special well-trained team on the skills of awareness and guiding based on scientific methods. The statistics of the administration show the activates either the field ones related to searching, seizing, arresting and other procedures, or preventive sides related to guidance and awareness activities. All these activities have played an important role in enlightening the awareness in the societies about the importance of citizens’ as initiatives in combating drugs and are in real touch with the administration, and cooperation in this field is a must to bring peace and stability to the societies.

Keywords: Police Training, Drug Abuse, Palestine.

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Introduction

Drugs have been known by man since ever and been fought by old societies culturally, socially and by religion. Drugs are considered a hazard and a challenge for a sustainable development, by the development and progress of technology and communications, this illicit trade has grown globally and has been controlled and run by organized crimes, where gathering money and profits are their main goal without caring about the hazards of drugs upon the nations specially by aiming youths and manipulating and changing their productive positive energies into negative ones, that means, destroying economically and progressively any society, Where young people become strangers in their homelands and pushing their countries away from civilization, progress and development.

The annual reports issued by anti-narcotics committee in the UN pointed out to the international community worries from the increasing of this illicit trade by the increasing in the number of consumers to all kinds of drugs and addiction cases, where the number of drugs users is between 200-250 million in the world. Also the emergence of new drugs (chemically manufactured) and the great psychological, health and behavior they affect. Addiction to drugs is enhancing the chances of having diseases such as AIDS and HII and this is extra challenge for human society, the new consuming patterns, production and smuggling drugs all represent a powerful threat to the international society. The revenues of drugs trade comes second after weapons trade in the world with more than 600 billion dollars per year. This indication shows that drugs have become forming an international problem and needs international efforts to combat the challenges caused by it.

Drugs are considered as an ambiguous social phenomenon in construction, reasons and results, specially it is aiming the youth and changing their social, educational and value directions, also having and using drugs has become easy and quickly to acquire because of media and technology.

In searching in immediate prevention strategies we find out that it deals with the problem on the basis of isolating and neutralizing the reasons, that is why we explain that youth addiction caused by either the need to use drugs in this variable speedy world or the desire and oppression in using drugs, also it could be explained as fleeing the social, economic and civil challenges reality.

All these problems have reflected upon the growing generations that have found themselves in a poison requires adaption with civil changing, when youth don't find means of their need satisfactory they become skeptics to the known institutions that could lead to their withdrawal from society by adapting the opposing ideas and following pervert behaviors by using drugs and other things.

Looking at drugs crimes, it attritions the countries capabilities through combating drugs and remedy addicted, also it has become one of the organized crimes that use techniques, plans and technological capabilities to cope with economical and technology progress. That is why international community has to continue its efforts in combating drugs.

Palestine has been affected by drugs the same as the other countries, where living under the Israeli occupation affects all aspects of the Palestinian lives, this ugly occupation has affected severely all aspects of life, economically, psychologically, economically, socially and politically that the Palestinian generations live, therefor, the Palestinian police have a national, ethical and human duty in combating and fighting this disease. Since its establishment in the year 1994 and setting its responsibilities, the importance of combating drugs by enforcing the laws related to drugs has been a priority.

The Drugs Law No. 18 for the year 2015 identifies the role of drugs department in combating drugs crimes and with the help of other security forces and juridical sections.

The drugs administration's operational, executional and strategic plans have been established to parallel work on decreasing demand on drugs, supporting the preventive programs warning the hazards of drugs have always been present in the methodologies of anti-narcotic department since the establishment of the Palestinian police, also has formed partnerships with national and local institutions by enhancing and strengthening them, the administration also responded to the Palestinian political declaration and the international working plan for the year 1998 to combat the international drugs problems as follow:

- 1- The commitment to set a complete comprehensive plane to combat drugs.
- 2- Building needing capabilities to identify the size, time, place and problem components and evaluate its risks and hazards.
- 3- Building the capability of confrontation through researches, knowledge, training and education.
- 4- To insert the minimum of drugs programs in developing plans.

- 5- Improving accountability and identifying the roles in relating to the preventive plans.
- 6- Enhancing partnership with all institutions.

The Palestinian police has been working by using all means available by encouraging people and warning them of the hazards of drugs and encouraging plans of caring and addiction remedy and rehabilitating addicted in the society in partnership with national and civil institutions.

All comes from our awareness as police that the addicted are sick persons and are victims of tough hard circumstances and are in need to be cured, that is what has been set and approved in drugs code NO.18 for the year 2015 in article 17 (Not suing drug user for the first time, curative remedy for addicted should be offered according to procedures pointed out by law).

Study Problem

Drugs have their own hazards and many problems that cost humanity a big economical and human fortune; the economical, social, physical, and psychological problems are a product of drugs and using it. Those problems in fact are the most dangerous psychological, health and social phenomenon most countries face recently. That's why the police training in combating drugs shouldn't keep using old traditional trainings that enable police officers to do their basic duties by enforcing law and preserving security.

Combating crimes and security have become the responsibility of all, for crime must be preceded by conditions and circumstances causing it. The security awareness has become a basic condition in preventing crimes. Police work has been directed towards community work based upon partnerships, so as to solve problems till enhancing social security. Social security is the work of all especially after the success of other countries such as Finland in preventing crimes by inserting its teaching programs in the schools, universities and educational institutions that made Finland the lowest in crime.

From this point comes the study problem in finding a modern trainings and methods capable on supporting police trainings with skills, research and knowledge and the needy attitudes to enable them to forget their roles as law enforcers only, but they must be first responders to minimize illicit drugs demand, taking into consideration that this role is to be done by using creative ways and professional styles which enhance the community

awareness and smartness towards the hazards of drugs by having fruitful partnership and enhancing commitments with partners, attracting and activating new partners, increasing investments by decreasing confusions resulted by using and addicting to drugs. Security has been found to respond and offer services in a professional way, pushing towards sustainability development in society, especially when we talk about development and security syndrome, no security without development, no development without security.

Study Importance

The importance of this study comes out of the risks facing the world due to drugs, which has become a dangerous phenomenon upon the individuals, family and community. Ways and methods must be found to stop this phenomenon that could push towards minimizing hazards resulted by drugs.

It's known that preparing political and strategic plans to combat the challenges require training plans. Training is considered a basic step towards success to confront any phenomenon facing societies. This study is important in showing the training relation and role in adopting modern training polices capable of best investment to human resources and with future vision working on achieving partnerships, completing efforts, multiple tasks, identifying and sharing roles and identifying required interventions.

Cooperation and partnerships between the police and the public is a necessity, the formation of cooperation to be horizontal in distributing social liabilities, building strategies for investment and confrontations and enhancing the social legal support.

Modern training doesn't depend on traditional methods, but is built upon learned, planned and scientific basis coping with training needs.

We should mention the police training and its effectiveness and impact in finding solutions represented in a creative training ways capable in steering training compass towards strategies responding to the improper behavior and enhancing strategies recognizing the proper behavior.

Vocational development has been a core of comprehensive development and its main component that train the human cadre so as to achieve efficiency and professionalism, achieving developmental outputs either by quantity or quality for working human recourses in different aspects on the

basis that human recourses are the sustainable human capital, therefore, police training is one of the most important of comprehensive development and developing human recourses at policing and security scale that shows a strategically need and looking towards the brighten future under the global changes regionally and locally in combating crimes and enhancing the chances for drugs addicted to benefit the availability of curative, health, preventive and social services and enabling police respond through supporting and helping could enhance closeness towards criminal equity.

Study Goals

- a. Giving a summary about police training methodology, methods and training techniques available in Palestine.
- b. Acknowledging the police structure and its historical development.
- c. To recognize the police training principles at Palestine civil police.
- d. To know training philosophy.
- e. To know the effectiveness of training in lightning community awareness about the hazards of drugs.
- f. To know how successful the trainings are in building partnership relations with local governmental institutions.
- g. To know the preventive ways of drugs.
- h. To know the role of schools and universities in preventing drugs.
- i. To know the role of media in preventing drugs.

Study Questions

Training has become one of the most features of modern life, it has also become forming a mutual element in our life affairs either privately or publicly, therefore, training should be well planned to fit and achieve its goals.

For that, the Palestinian police have been working and since the beginning on training methodology among plans and practical scientific frames coping with the accelerated development that community witnesses and the challenges resulted from the exceptional conditions in Palestine “a state under occupation”.

In this field, the police have offered its administrations with the required trainings to do their work perfectly, in order to achieve this strategic goal

represented in improving the quality of services offered to citizens, because drugs department is one of the specialized administrations inside the police, its trainings have been a priority for being a main force in supporting security and stability, that after taking into consideration the importance of drugs combat for its extreme hazards that threatening the structure of the society and breaking its components and stability.

Doubtless, the methodology of the training requires setting plans with strategic dimensions depending on strong basis fitting training needs.

As a result, we could ask some questions that could steer training compass at drugs department.

1. How effective the training in lightning the community awareness about drugs hazards?
2. Is the quality of the offered trainings capable in achieving the requirements of works at drugs department?
3. Do the trainings give the workers at the department the role of the other face relating to pre-cautious?
4. How successful are the trainings in building a partnership with civil and governmental institutions?

Message, vision and values that govern the Palestinian civil police work and training system:

The message: persistence to achieve and to acquire a secured peaceful society through offering a distinguished police services and committed to laws and values, supporting building, development and international, regional and local partnerships and maintaining liberties and freedoms.

The vision: A distinguished police for a secured country.

The values: honesty, equity and quality

- Maintaining rights and liberties
- Cooperation and partnership
- Quality and excellence
- Transparency and accountability.

Types of training programs adopted by Palestine civil police

- 1- The basic training program for the new recruits for the police.
- 2- Training program during test.
- 3- Ongoing training {on service}
- 4- Specialized trainings and sub specialized training programs.
- 5- The administrative level training.

The Aimed Category Of The Training

The public aimed category that the training system aims includes all its affiliations including principles during the period they are appointed to certain jobs, what distinguishes this training system is that it focuses on the nature of works at police institutions, meaning, each occupation and the needs of the appointed employees in it.

A summary about the methodology means and styles of training in the administration:

The drugs department has started its trainings since its establishment in the year 1994, by police training about enforcing the law, providing the workers with physical and procedures trainings related to self-defense skills and doing ambushes, searching houses, people and vehicles.

It was noticed that all those trainings were held in general in Palestine, but part of them were held abroad as exchanging of experiences and strengthening external relations, but by the time and the need to implement the strategy of decreasing the demand and the awareness of the administration and community to the preventive side cynic with the field side related to enforce the law, the drugs department and with the coordination with the training department at the police established a specialized department among its structure, working on training methodology through scientific and practical basis, taking into account training life cycle by fixing and identifying training needs, planning implementing, evaluating and following training up.

Therefore, the training department has started heading towards modern training by setting plans fitting community needs in security and stabilization and following up social development either through the need development to security or stability or the development of drugs crime itself, the

crime and criminals are next to each other, no crime without criminal and no criminal without crime. The crime develops as well as the criminal does.

The training department has been holding specialized courses taking into account the necessity to fulfill the needs and goals courses hold for, in addition to verifying the training methods and techniques that could succeed training goals on both community and personal levels.

Training Principles At Palestine Civil Police

- 1- The scientific principle: focusing and leaning on scientific basis by benefiting from the experiences, specific specializations and the developing scientific usage when setting training plans.
- 2- Flexibility principle: where training plans have inside them many alternatives to face changes that could happen.
- 3- The realistic principle: where training methods and techniques fit reality and be implementable and achieving the goals.
- 4- Sustainability principle: the training plans have the merit of continuity build upon continuous development and evaluation to follow up later.

Training Philosophy

Training at Palestinian police aims not only to provide trainees with the required necessary information to their work, and acquiring them technical experiences and behavior needed for their performance, but also achieving an important deep goals by elevating their performance, also achieving the goals of the workers in security and increasing their self-confidence and their work.

The training philosophy is based on a clean logic assuming that the numbers and required varieties of human proficiencies to practice particular works require a higher level of capability and efficiency, the same for required specializations.

As a result, the training department works to find out organized means of training either locally or externally so as to exchange experiences and having a number of trainees in different police aspects to benefit and train others, Palestine college for police sciences is the main sponsor for all police trainings, all trainings are offered through its highly qualifies and well

trained officers in all police specializations, they are holding train of trainers certificates given to them by international experts in training and administration science.

Research Methodology And Study Questions

This research has adopted the annalistic descriptive methodology by answering the previous mentioned study questions, the following analyzing been assured in answering the questions:

First question: how effective the trainings in lightening and increasing community awareness regarding the hazards of drugs?

Seized drugs cases in the last three years has been increased, knowing that by the increasing numbers of arrested users of drugs and the size of the seized substance. The Palestinian citizen has played a major role in cooperating with drugs department and other security departments by informing about drug dealers, also networking with other institutions has decreased the demand on drugs. There were many registered cases where the citizen himself comes to drugs department asking for help for himself or a relative or a friend, this shows the confidence between the administrations and citizens.

The administration has used modern scientific basis in training its staff enabling them to deliver information to civilians and dealing with them as real partners in combating drugs.

A specialized department was established to aware and guide people of the hazards of drugs, this department been supplied with a special well-trained team on the skills of awareness and guiding based on scientific methods.

The statistics of the administration show the activates either the field ones related to searching, seizing, arresting and other procedures, or preventive sides related to guidance and awareness activities.

All these activities have played an important role in enlightening the awareness in the societies about the importance of citizens' as initiatives in combating drugs and are in real touch with the administration, and cooperation in this field is a must to bring peace and stability to the societies.

Second question: Is the quality of the offered trainings able to meet the needs of the workers in the anti-narcotic department?

Training administration is constantly seeking to provide the trainees with the skills required for their work and duties in a professional manner. Because of the importance of the quality of the training, training department has taken into account that in the training plans, where it is noted that the training programs have the quality and efficiency that qualify the trainee to have the ability to qualify carrying out his duties and dealing with the challenges he faces in his work; also, these training are working on creating a simulating environment for the trainees themselves, where it grows inside theme the spirit of competition, and taking into account that the training has to be in accordance with the trainees capabilities and in accordance with the needs of the trainees themselves and the needs of their departments, through the mechanism of determining the annual training need for any administration of police departments, including the anti-narcotic department, also the training department to review the training material approved at Palestine College for police Sciences annually and add any developments related to drugs course which is a main course for the new recruits enrolled in police wire, as well as it is a main course for officers qualification course given by trainers with high capabilities and knowledge about drugs.

The training offered to employees in the administration granted a number of rights, including:

1. The right of freedom of dialogue: by creating a favorable environment for achieving quality goals.
2. The right to obtain support and assistance: during training process in order to raise the efficiency of the training by enhancing the positives and developing weak point.
3. Confidentiality: maintaining complete confidentiality while working with the trainer because the goal is developing not defaming.
4. Right of codification and transferring of notes.

The third question: Do these exercises give workers in the administration the other face, which is concerned with pre-caution?

Pre-caution is considered as a golden goal which the training offer to the employees in the anti-narcotic department and seeking to achieve, where many courses have been held to support this behavior and because of the importance of the trainee role in this field while he deals with citizens to implement the other face related to the pre-caution.

The role of the other face, which is given by the training emphasizes the moral commitment of the trainees to their compatriots, where it establishes a common sense among workers in the anti-narcotic department that shows the importance of pre-caution aspect in the fight against drugs.

Anti-narcotic department statistics shows hundreds of annual activities done by it all over home land in order to aware the citizens of the drugs hazards, where the Anti-narcotic department proceeded to insert the newest styles and means in order to ensure the success of this role.

Fourth question: how successfully were those trainings in building a partnership with the governmental and civil society institutions?

Anti-narcotic department believes in the importance and the role of social responsibility and in building partnership relationships with many institutions, surpassing the traditional role of the police in law enforcement, anti-narcotic department has been working to strengthening partnership with various civil and governmental institutions due to its belief in the importance of the role of these institutions as a real partner in the fight against drugs.

The idea of partnership responsibility leans on the effective cooperation between the main two parties, society institutions and Anti-narcotic department, that cooperation characterized by planning and good management, it also characterized by the existence of a real-desire come from a real faith of the importance of the partnership and its ability to go beyond the traditional roles in combating drugs which lead to achieve a public benefits for society as a whole, taking into consideration that this partnership does not contradict with police work in enforcing law and it is not a substitute of it.

There are many society institutions national and governmental organizations that have an important role, where it worked with Anti-narcotic department side by side in implementing many events and programs that have a clear positive impact which effectively reflected on the Palestinian society, and we list a number of those institutions and programs that have been working in Palestine:

- 1- Higher National Committee for the Prevention of Drugs and Psychotropic Substances.
- 2- Quds Higher Committee to follow up the drugs file in Jerusalem.
- 3- Opiates alternatives therapy center (methadone).
- 4- Ministry of Health.

- 5- The Ministry of Education and the National Education curriculum.
- 6- Supreme Council for Youth and Sports.
- 7- Ministry of Social Development.
- 8- Civil institutions such as Jerusalem Caritas, Mqdisi institution, Al-Huda wa An-Nour Committee, Life Friends Committee, Burj Al-Laqlaq Committee, Sawa Center and others.
- 9- Higher National Committee for Summer Camps.

Table 1: Statistics for the years (2015, 2014, 2013) about the total number of the awareness and guiding activities carried out by the Anti-narcotic department, which included a variety of programs that targeted almost all of the Palestinian society's categories:

Year	Total number of the awareness and guiding activities
2013	408
2014	591
2015	496

Preventive Methods

Ways of prevention can be summed up as follow:

Social Prevention: based on balanced social rising up, which focuses on the softness and firmness toward the children and follow them up at home, school and the street.

Scientific – healthy Prevention: based on transmitting scientific and health awareness through strengthening the health information through all media channels (broadcasted, read and printed), specialized internet sites, publication and posters that warns of drugs hazards, in this regard we mention that there are plenty of activities and efforts in the countries which are at risk of this danger, such as, scientific conferences that discuss the drugs hazards.

Legal Prevention: through severely punishing drugs traffickers, dealers and promoters, in addition to abusers.

Civilized Prevention: by the development of civilization sense and opening prospects for success and opportunities; and to find useful alternatives to leisure time in scientific, cultural and sports activities.

National Prevention: it depends on warning of drugs hazards and it is a weapon to be used against compatriots, and it is used by the enemy for the purpose of human destruction in our homeland and undermine our values, our traditions, our religion and our wealth.

The Role Of School And The University In The Reduction Of Drug Abuse

The role of the school comes in second place after the family to educate and guide the youth in order to create a warning generation to the risk of delinquency and idleness, where the teacher comes as a second observer after father and mother, and even the school has more affect than the family does due to the teacher impact over the hearts of his students. The teacher might extend his influence on his students to their future and the school can guide the students honestly and sincerely through providing preaches and providing useful scientific summary experiments; the teacher's role in providing advices comes from the heart and the surplus of love, mercy, and kindness.

The school is a social institution created by the community in order to teach children, raise them up and provide them with education and cultural heritage. Education in the school is for the support of life theory for the nation; school can play a role in the prevention of drug abuse through the functions it carried out, through the curriculum so students can study the affects of drugs abuse and its impact on health, social, psychological and economic situations.

School can through parents committees and other communities warn of the harmful affects of drugs and how to face this dangerous phenomenon, which is spreading in the society in a frightening manner.

After that comes the role of the university in guiding and identifying the hazards of addiction and identifying prevention ways through generalizing curriculum and useful programs that influence on the motivation of young people and their attitudes regarding the use of psychotropic substances; and that requires experiences and skills in developing the skills of self-confidence and attachment to the higher values and explain the importance of

self-respect for their bodies and the importance of healthy life by developing the capacity of young people to confront through an integrated educational programs about drugs in the curriculum and following a programmed educational approaches, and following psychological and healthy programs which their primary purpose is the protection of young people and strengthening their psychological defenses and support the correct principles that minimizing their chances of getting addicted.

According to that, university is responsible for everything related to education and scientific researches carried out by its colleges and institutes for the sake of the community, giving attention to the contribution in promotion of knowledge and the progress of science and the development of positive values, and provide the country with specialists, technicians and experts in various fields, and preparing a human who is provided with assets of knowledge, advanced research methods and high values, to contribute in building and strengthening the community, as well as encouraging scientific research through the work of MA and PhD dissertations on this phenomenon to show its risks, and the Anti-narcotic department works to take the advantage of the results of these studies and recommendations that come out of each researcher. Anti-narcotic department facilitates the study procedures to the researcher and the usage of information in accordance with the ethics of scientific research and confidentiality, the use of such information or access it is only for the purpose of scientific research.

The Media's Role In The Prevention Of Drug Abuse

Media is an important element in the lives of people, and communities cannot do without it, even media has become an essential source of information, culture, education and changing attitudes and behavior in modern societies.

The seriousness of the role played by the media on the lives of people is in the enormous impact it does on the lives of people, and the big and growing confidence that is given to media by the audiences, and we can say that the risk is contradictory in two-ways, the first is the role that can be played in persuading the public to amend their behavior and changing trends and their point of views for the benefit of society, which is reflected in the use of media effectively in various development campaigns carried out by the state, such as the combat against drugs and other campaigns.

The second trend is in the negative values that are shown in the media, particularly television drama, radio and movies, whether it is intentional or unintentional, and this is reflected as a serious impact on the public, particularly teenagers and non-intellecutals who rush to emulate the heroes of the drama and imitate them.

So media has an important role in educating young people about the seriousness of this problem and the enormous harm on the society, family and individual, also it highlights the role of media in reducing the negative models in drama, which caused the spread of this phenomenon.

Media has an important educational role in warning the youth about the hazards of it and its great damages on the community, family and individual. Also the role of media is prominent minimizing negative patterns offered by drama and causes the spread of this phenomenon. Medias as an educational institutions have a high ability to attract people of all ages and sexes, which is an important tool to rising up societies.

If we accept the role of the media in shaping an individual's personality and guiding him, and its influence on the formulation of his thinking by what these media institutions have of printings, such as books, newspapers, magazines, brochures, posters, or audio-visual means: such as radio, television, cinema, theater, festivals and exhibitions, so we must recognize the role of these means and institutions in the prevention of drug abuse.

To combat drug abuse through the media we need a well-planned plan avoids not publicizing of information and facts relating to the phenomenon of drug use with complete objectivity, without exaggeration or underestimation, which would require the employment of all energies and creative competencies to address this phenomenon through various programs and dissemination of scientific awareness for all categories of the society.

Drugs and Psychotropic Substances Code No. 18 of the year 2015:

The law assure to stiffen penalties against traffickers, dealers, planters and smugglers, article 17 of the law dealt with legal status of the addict and abuser (patient) as victims and they need to be treated and law doesn't sue abuser for the first time, this article established for more conviction at anti-narcotic department to enhance prevention programs and encourage treat-

ment plans, during the drafting of the law we quoted from the three international conventions in the field of anti-drug; the convention of 1961 and its amended Protocol in 1972 and the Convention on psychotropic substances of 1971 and the Convention of illegal trafficking of drugs and psychotropic substances of 1988, as well as the Convention of the Arab of the use of illegal drugs and psychotropic substances, and the Arabic typical guidance code for the illicit use of drugs, and we have identified attached tables of law, and we are working on the executive board that interpret the law. It is a modern law that harmonies with international and Arab agreements in its texts. The Following tables illustrate the Anti-narcotic department's achievements and seizure cases during the years (2015, 2014, 2013):

Table 2: Weights of some types of narcotic substances seized during the years 2015, 2014, 2013

Seized substances					Year
Cocaine	Heroin	Hemp	Hashish	Hybrid Hemp	
135 G.M	200 G.M	5.676 K.G	5.739 K.G	18.076 K.G	2013
85 G.M	235 G.M	16.763 K.G	6.555 K.G	57.600 K.G	2014
99 G.M	618 G.M	220.088 K.G	14.889 K.G	180.289 K.G	2015

Table 3: The total number of some types of narcotic substances seized during the years (2015, 2014, 2013)

Seized substances				Year
Hemp sapling	Captagon pills	Ecstasy pills	Narcotic pills	
535	-	1652	797	2013
2702	392	898	233445	2014
13685	39	2577	507	2015

Successful Stories

The pioneer police project to create specialized trainers in awareness and guidance of hazards of drugs. The idea of this camp was formed at drugs

department administration taking into consideration the importance of deepening partnerships with community institutions in all aspects, the idea was born and was implemented at Salfit district during the year 2011, where it included participants in ages between 13 – 17 years old of both sexes.

The participants number in each course was 40, where they were given the required trainings to prepare them as young trainers supporting and helping the police in delivering lectures, warning and guiding their class mates about the hazards of drugs, enabling them to be able to deliver warning and guidance lectures and rooting the group work education inside them.

Many institutions participated in the camp {the police, represented by anti-narcotic department, summer camps committee, youth and sport directorate, social affairs, education directorate, representatives of governmental departments, partners in sustainable development, in addition to families of the participants in the camp}

The camp was held inside a specialized hall at Salfit police district, a specialized training team from police officers offered all training needs and equipment, the training program of the camp included lectures in patriotism, leadership, the principle of group work, and identifying the divisions and departments of drugs department, awareness lectures about the hazards of drugs, its types and reasons of using it, in addition, organizing, field, recreational and educational journeys for the participants in the camp, also visiting addicted curative centers and visiting police academy and police districts.

- Little policeman project
- The policeman is my friend project
- A generation without drugs project, aimed youth promising groups.
- Enhancing community-policing project inside Palestinian civil police, it's an expanding project with many field practical applications in some police stations and Palestinian districts. Plans and mechanisms are set now to implement the community policing work with local community and identifying the natures of roles and liabilities up to procedures and rules supported by law provisions so as to enhance partnerships to minimize crime rate and working on basis of security is the responsibility of all and the citizen is a partner in achieving security. This kind of work deepening the security awareness, citizenship, and enhancing national values and increasing partnership education inside the community. The goal of it is to build a supporting civil community to social and political institutions.

- Supporting youth initiatives and adopting them by the police, such as “our experts to guide our sons to prevent drugs”.
- Working with women institutions to control domestic violence and preventing drugs.
- Working with students’ councils at universities and colleges.
- Working with the psychological and social reformers at Ministry of Education.
- Working with local institutions related to curative remedy preventing of drugs such as: Friends of life society, Good friend society, al- Huda Walnur society and Maqdisi institution.
- Supporting ideas of students competitions for projects to prevent drugs, short story or drama plays, encouraging cured addicted people to talk about their painful experiences in addiction. A movie entitled ‘nour’ was produced about an addicted young man in cooperation with media, drugs department and public relation department at Palestinian police.
- Encouraging religion men Muslims and Christians to talk about the hazards of drugs at their churches and mosques.
- Supporting community social cite for drug department.
- The Palestinian government is working on establishing a national center to cure and rehabilitate addictions, this center is supposed to be operated in mid 2017.
- The police support the alternative curative center {methadol} that was operated by Ministry of Health in the year 2015 where more than 120 people benefiting from its services.
- The police support to the specialized vocational diploma that was set with the cooperation of al Quds Caritas and partnership community institution at Bethlehem university for one year and its certificate is approved by the Higher Education and Ministry of Education, the police have been participating in this program by sending officers of anti-narcotic department and correction and rehabilitation centers to attend, where 8 officers have benefited from this course so far.

Recommendations

- 1- The necessity to enhance a strong base line for researches and scientific evidences to identify the size of the problem in the society through encouraging studies and scientific researches.

- 2- Inviting the children and youth institutions to enhance their activations with community and doing field activities to increase public awareness of the hazards of drugs.
- 3- To coordinate the national efforts with civil community institutions caring of youth to prepare programs including ways of curing from this phenomenon of using drugs and warning them of the hazards of drugs.
- 4- Setting strategies in an organized frame fitting and responding to the developing project demands by identifying phrases, dimensions, values and benefits.
- 5- Supporting and encouraging finding a complete system to surveillance perverting reasons and drugs abusing as an introductory to elevate the procedural performance to prevent drugs.
- 6- To find the administrative, practical and scientific closeness and use them on training strategy from risk administration, changing administration, knowledge administration, quality administration and strategic administration.
- 7- To encourage multiple content community initiatives and enhance wide range community partnerships.
- 8- Reinforce an effective national system to prevent drugs with a complete set of polices leaning on scientific clues in multiple environments.
- 9- Encouraging the training for policies makers to build strategies aiming children and youth who are exposed to risks.
- 10- Enhancing the training that is depending on planning and evidences and police support on responding to minimize the risks at the society.

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THE ASPECTS OF CRIMINAL CODE AND CRIMINALISTICS IN USING INFORMANTS AND UNDERCOVER INVESTIGATORS RELATED TO ORGANIZED CRIMES INVOLVING DRUG ABUSE

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Abstract

According to the UNDOC (UN Office on Drugs and Crime) records, around 5% of the world's adult population, aged 15-65, are dependent on psychoactive substances. Drug abuse is a multiform problem of the modern society. As it represents an accessible source of huge amounts of money, criminals, and organized criminal groups in particular, while making use of addicted individuals and the global situation, get hold of the huge proceeds and social power too. To speak about the crimes involving drug abuse, without elaborating on organized crimes would be quite frivolous. If it was about the individual cases that involve production, resale and consumption of narcotic drugs, this would not be a significant social issue and the majority of the world's states would easily tackle it. Yet, the global situation is the opposite and 'Organized crime forces' derive the majority of their income from the production, smuggling and resale of drugs. Bearing in mind some particular characteristics of organized crime such as the rise of professionalism, specialization among delinquents, abuse of technical achievements, covert operations, aspirations to acquire political and economic power, internationalization, planned execution of activities, hierarchy and division of labour, corruption, intimidation, it is clear that material costs of prosecution authorities fighting against this type of crime are increasing at a dizzy rate. In this paper, therefore, we elaborate upon criminalistics and intelligence operations and 'live sources of information' and informants and undercover police investigators acting from the aspect of criminal law and criminalistics in Bosnia and Herzegovina, especially bearing in mind their procedural law protection and limitations to enter the so-called criminal zone. Both entities act under particular circumstances and in the specific environment for police and judicial authorities who work on special tasks, so that their physical and procedural law protection is an important segment of their training.

Keywords: Drugs, Organized crime, Police training, Aspects of criminal code and criminal procedure code, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

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Introduction

Speaking about the crimes that involve drug abuse, without elaborating on organized crimes, would be quite frivolous. If it was about the individual cases that involve production, resale and consumption of narcotic drugs, this would not be a major social issue at all, and the majority of the world's states would easily tackle it. Yet, the global situation is just the opposite and 'Organized crime forces' derive the majority of their income from the production, smuggling and resale of drugs.

A more dangerous type of crime is when a criminal offence is committed by several persons than the one committed by one person (Sržentić, Stajić, Lazarević, 1980). It is a rather frequent phenomenon that several persons participate in the commission of a criminal offence. The practice has shown that there are different types of individual participation in the perpetration of criminal offences, depending on the contribution of a particular participant to bringing about the forbidden consequence (Čepek, Modly, Posavac, Veić, 1993).

There is no unique definition of 'organized crime' in the world we live in nowadays. Many experts in this field keep attempting to define this type of crime, giving thus an important scientific contribution. Yet, a precise definition would not be of any help in fighting the organized crime. It must be admitted, however, that it would set the main starting points for further action and bringing together the international efforts to fight organized crime. One thing is obvious - the main drive of organized crime is profit, and it is present anywhere where there is a lot of money in circulation (Petrović B., Dobovšek B., 2007).

The law enforcement authorities in Bosnia and Herzegovina have to follow the laws of criminal procedure and act under the Prosecutor's supervision while undertaking efforts to detect and prove organized crime offences, as the hearing results will largely depend on how efficiently the previous procedure or investigation was led. The activities aimed at detecting and proving organized crime offences involve the so-called Special Investigative Activities such as secret monitoring, surveillance and technical recording of phone calls, undercover investigators, surveillance and technical recording of premises ...

Bearing in mind some of the particular characteristics of organized crime, such as the rise of professionalism, specialization among delinquents, abuse

of technical achievements, covert operations, aspirations to acquire political and economic power, internationalization, planned execution of activities, hierarchy and division of labour, corruption, intimidation (Petrović – Meško, *Kriminologija*, Sarajevo- 2008), it is clear that material costs of prosecution authorities fighting against this type of crime, are increasing at a dizzy rate. Some countries lack the required financial capacities to deal with this issue in a timely manner.

It is clear that organized criminal groups invest significant portions of the money earned into procurement of the latest scientific and technological achievements in order to be ahead of the police at any moment.

It is absolutely clear too that, if prosecution authorities were in possession of the latest technological devices, they would still lag behind organized crime, since the technology alone without 'live sources of information' will never produce enough results to fully 'dismantle' an organized criminal group. Therefore, we devote this paper to criminal intelligence operations and 'live sources of information' to which we will add informants and undercover police investigators.

Averting organized crime activities requires an elaborated strategy, the planned and systematic activities from the very first step to the legally binding verdict, based on science and strictly within legal frameworks (Fejš I. 2002).

For police officers to be appropriately prepared for this kind of investigation of criminal offences, and not to fall in the trap of taking activities that are not in accordance with the law, it is necessary to be provided continuing education and training.

The criminal law aspects of drug-related crime and organized crime according to the criminal legislation in Bosnia and Herzegovina

Criminal offences related to narcotic drugs in the entity-level law are classified in the group of criminal offences *against people's health* (chapter XXI CC FBiH¹), involving two articles of the Criminal Code of FBiH –

¹ Entity-level law of the Federation BiH, being one of two entities of which Bosnia and Herzegovina consists of.

01. *Unauthorized production and sale of narcotic drugs*² and – 02. *Possessing and enabling the enjoyment of narcotic drugs*³. (Korajlić, 2011)

a. *Unauthorized production and sale of narcotic drugs* is, according to our legal definition, an act that involves unauthorized production, processing, selling, or offering for sale or buying for the purpose of sale, holding, transmitting or acting as an intermediate in the sale or placing on the market in an unauthorized manner substances or medicines that have been prescribed as narcotics. (Petrović, Jovašević, 2005.)

Paragraph 2 of this Article specifies two qualified - more serious types of this offence. One involves organizing a group of people⁴ with the aim of processing, selling or offering for sale narcotics, without authorization, and the other one involves belonging to a group of people⁵ organized to produce or offer for sale drugs, without authorization. In both cases sound punishment is predicted.

b. *Possessing and enabling the enjoyment of narcotic drugs* is, according to our legal definition, an act that involves inducing another to enjoy narcotic drug, or giving to another narcotic drug for his or the use of a third person, or rendering available premises for the enjoyment of narcotic drug, or otherwise enabling another to enjoy narcotic drug. (Petrović, Jovašević, 2005).

² Article 238 of the Criminal Code of FBiH

(1) Whoever, without authorization, processes, sells or offers for sale, or purchases, keeps or transfers for sale, or acts as intermediary in a sale or purchase, or otherwise without authorization puts into circulation substances or preparations which are declared by regulations as narcotic drugs, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term between one and ten years.

(2) Whoever organizes a group of people with the aim of perpetrating the criminal offence referred to in paragraph 1 of this Article, or whoever becomes a member of such a group of people, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term not less than three years.

(3) Whoever, without authorization, manufactures, procures, possesses or gives for use the equipment, material or substances that he knows are intended for the production of narcotic drugs, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term between six months and five years.

(4) Narcotic drugs and means for their processing shall be forfeited.

³ Article 239 of the Criminal Code of FBiH

(1) Whoever induces another to enjoy narcotic drug, or gives to another narcotic drug for his or the use of a third person, or renders available premises for the enjoyment of narcotic drug, or otherwise enables another to enjoy narcotic drug, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term between three months and five years.

(2) Whoever perpetrates the criminal offence referred to in paragraph 1 of this Article against a child, juvenile or against a number of persons, or if particularly grave consequences are caused, the perpetrator shall be punished by imprisonment for a term between one and ten years.

(3) Whoever possesses narcotic drug without authorization, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year.

(4) Narcotic drugs shall be forfeited.

⁴ Organizer of criminal group

⁵ Member of criminal group.

A qualified – more serious type of the criminal offence is defined in Paragraph 2 of this Article in those cases when the criminal offence is perpetrated against a child, a minor⁶ or against several persons⁷ or if it caused very severe consequences⁸. (Petrović, 2004.)

Apart from the above incriminations laid down by the entity-level Criminal Code of FBiH, the state of Bosnia and Herzegovina decided to introduce a special incrimination of this type of crime into the state-level Criminal Code of BiH, including the Article Illicit trafficking in narcotic drugs⁹ contained in Chapter XVII – Crimes against humanity and values protected by international law. *Illicit trafficking in narcotic drugs* is considered as an act of perpetrating this criminal offence no matter whether it includes unauthorised international transport, transmission, sending, delivery, import or export of narcotic drugs. A qualified – more serious form of perpetration of this criminal offence is described in Paragraph 2 where there are 2 qualified – more serious forms of this criminal offence. The first one involves organizing a group of people¹⁰ with the aim of putting narcotic drugs into international circulation, and the second one involves belonging to a group of people¹¹ organized with the aim of putting narcotic drugs into unauthorised international circulation. In these cases sound punishment is predicted. (Petrović, 2004)

As regards the crimes in which several persons participate, it is important to establish in all stages of investigation and during the implementation of

⁶ According to our legislation, a child is a person of 14 years and under, and a minor is a person aged 14 to 18. The introduction of this incrimination as a qualified form was propelled by the UN Convention against the illicit traffic in narcotic drugs of 1988, with its preamble reading 'The Parties to this Convention are deeply concerned by the steadily increasing inroads into various social groups made by illicit traffic in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, and particularly by the fact that children are used in many parts of the world as an illicit drug consumers market.'

⁷ The perpetrator, by performing an action or several actions successively, enables many persons to enjoy narcotic drugs.

⁸ If a death occurred as a consequence of enjoyment of narcotic drugs, or person's life was brought into danger or person's health was harmed permanently... even in case that a person who used narcotic drugs committed suicide

⁹ Article 195, Criminal Code BiH

(1) Whoever without authorization performs an international sale or transfer or offers for such sale, or purchases, keeps, transports or transfers for the purpose of such sale, or intercedes in an international sale or purchase, sends, delivers, imports or exports or otherwise puts into unauthorised international circulation substances or preparations which are by regulation proclaimed narcotic drugs, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term of no less than three years.

(2) Whoever organizes a group of people with an aim of perpetrating the criminal offence referred to in paragraph 1 of this Article, or whoever becomes a member of such a group of people, shall be punished by imprisonment for a term not less than five years.

(3) Whoever without authorization makes, procures, intermediates or gives for use the equipment, material or substances, knowing that they are to be used for the manufacturing of narcotic drugs, when it concerns the international transaction, shall be punished by imprisonment **between one and ten years**.

(4) The narcotic drugs and means for their production shall be forfeited.

¹⁰ Organizer of a criminal group

¹¹ Member of a criminal group

pre-investigation activities the nature of connection among certain individuals perpetrating the criminal offence. This should be done as it is necessary to establish whether there is *complicity* in the perpetration of a criminal offence¹² or a particular criminal offence was perpetrated by *an organized crime group*¹³. When a criminal offence is perpetrated by an organized crime group, then we speak about a special type of crime and complicity representing a higher degree of social danger, which is governed by special provisions¹⁴ in the Criminal Code of Bosnia and Herzegovina. An issue that is very important for law enforcement officers, prosecutors and judges dealing with organized crime cases is a distinction between inciters and perpetrators of a criminal offence, as well as a distinction between accomplices and helpers. In the first case the question arises whether the term perpetrator may involve *indirect perpetrator* i.e. a person who perpetrates a criminal offence through another person. The second case is about making a distinction between co-perpetration, as a more serious form and accessory as a lighter form of complicity. What may be disputable is the issue of incitement and *psychological helping*, as one and the same activity may represent both forms of complicity (Tomić Z. 2008). Although the categorization of individual persons who in any way took part in the perpetration of a criminal offence will be the matter for the court to discuss, these issues are very important for law enforcement officers in order to take their actions (in the first place 'Special investigative activities') in a lawful manner, so as not to 'provoke' with their actions the criminal activities of individuals¹⁵ (Vukoja, Velić, 2015).

As regards 'Associating for the purpose of perpetrating criminal offences', it is worth noting that it is considered as a separate criminal offence in the Criminal Code of BiH, and the offence involves organising a group of people¹⁶ with the aim of perpetrating criminal offences prescribed by the Criminal Code of BiH. The perpetration of such an action involves *organizing a group*¹⁷ or *becoming a member of the group to commit criminal offences*.¹⁸ The criminal offence becomes complete by merely organizing the group or by becoming a member of the group¹⁹ (Petrović 2005).

¹² Articles 29, 30, and 31 of the Criminal Code of BiH

¹³ Article 1, Criminal Code of BiH

¹⁴ Article 249 and Article 250 of the Criminal Code of BiH

¹⁵ What is implied here is the use of informers and undercover investigators who, following the BiH positive legislation, must not incite crimes while carrying out their activities.

¹⁶ Three or more persons

¹⁷ A heavier form of this criminal offence

¹⁸ A lighter form of this criminal offence

¹⁹ Becoming a member of a group means that there is a consent of one person to become a member of the group

The Criminal Code of BiH foresees a criminal offence Organized crime²⁰ as a separate criminal offence. The criminal offence is perpetrated if any criminal offence foreseen by the CC BiH is committed by members of *an organised crime group*²¹ or by organising (directing) an organised crime group who at least attempts to perpetrate any of the criminal offences from CC BiH²² or by merely joining an organized crime group who at least attempts to perpetrate any of the criminal offences from CC BiH.²³ A member of the group who exposes the group may be released from punishment, which is stated as a stimulating measure²⁴.

Criminalistics Aspect – Division of Drug-Related Crime

Criminology, criminalistics and criminal procedure studies have shown that the consequences of drug abuse are manifold, affecting both the individuals who enjoy narcotic drugs and their immediate and extended families, colleagues, society and the entire community. We are all aware of the harmful effects of narcotic drugs. Yet, if adverse health effects caused by drug abuse were the only side effect, it would not probably be regarded as such a serious social problem. Narcotic drugs, however, do not leave consequences only on the individual enjoying them, but they have a negative effect on the entire environment and wider community.

Apart from creating psychological and physical addiction among individuals who enjoy narcotic drugs, their harmful effects are reflected in other social segments as well. A person who enjoys narcotic drugs easily becomes isolated and alienated, community useless, often posing a threat to the community by resorting to criminal activities, and becoming a part of wider social pathology picture. There are many cases of drug enjoyers losing their job because of drug addiction. Then they resort to other forms of social pathology, including criminal activities, trying to obtain funds for drug enjoyment. Very often it is the reason of marriage crashes, beggary, prostitution, gambling and other vices.

There are a few of drug enjoyers who manage on their own to get out of the drug crisis and fully get rid of this vice. They rather stay without adequate family and community support, closed in the world of vices, becoming destroyed physically and mentally. Drugs become and remain the central

²⁰ Article 250 Criminal Code of BiH

²¹ Para 1 and 2

²² Para 3

²³ Para 4

²⁴ Para 5

point and the main motive of their life and existence. They lose contact with the real world and ethical norms of the community, very often surrendering themselves to criminal activities.

There is a generally accepted division of drug-related crimes in our criminology and criminalistics theory. They are divided into following three groups²⁵ :

01. *Primary drug-related crimes*
02. *Secondary drug-related crimes*
03. *Tertiary drug-related crimes*

a. Primary drug-related crimes : This include all acts of perpetrating criminal offences that involve unauthorized production and release in free circulation of narcotic drugs, their unauthorized possession and enabling the enjoyment of narcotic drugs. According to Modly and Petrović, *unauthorized production* is the agricultural production²⁶ or industrial production²⁷ or industrial processing of natural substances²⁸, while unauthorized circulation of drugs is the sale of drugs, offering drugs for sale, buying for the purpose of sale, holding for the purpose of sale, transfer for the purpose of sale, intermediation in sale or release drugs into free circulation in any other way.²⁹ A more serious form is, according to the law, an act of organizing a group who sells narcotic drugs in an unauthorized manner, or the mere belonging to the group, while a special type involves furnishing a narcotics laboratory for production and processing of narcotic drugs. Merely possessing and enabling the enjoyment of drugs is subject to punishment according to the law. All of the above mentioned examples are the so called primary drug-related crimes.

b. Secondary drug-related crimes : Many authors concerned with these issues (Petrović, Modly, Singer, Milutinović, Aleksić and others) agree that secondary drug-related crimes involve criminal offences perpetrated with the aim of obtaining money for purchasing narcotic drugs and criminal offences perpetrated under the influence of narcotic drugs. The studies conducted in New York and Florida³⁰ show that 69% of male heroin addicts committed a burglary, 60% stole things from a shop, 47% committed a robbery, while almost 72% of female addicts engage in prostitution, 70%

²⁵ Modly D. (1986). *Droge i štetne posljedice njihove zloupotrebe*. 13 May p.76. Tako and Petrovoć B. (2004) *Narkokriminal* . Faculty of law of the University in Sarajevo p.36. Tako and Korajlić N. (2011), *Kriminalistička metodika*, Education and Cultural Centre Tešanj p.450.

²⁶ Cannabis sativa, Papaver somniferum, Coca, ...

²⁷ LSD, amphetamines, barbiturates, antiparkinson drugs...

²⁸ Hashish, Cocain, Morphiium, Heroin

²⁹ Giving as a gift, exchange, paying services with narcotic drugs...

³⁰ See more at: taken from Petrović B. (2004), Singer M. (1994) *Kriminologija*

of them in thefts... Petrović made a classification of secondary drug-related crimes into six groups as follows: *family crime*³¹, *crime at work*³², *crime against extended family members, friends and acquaintances*,³³ *classic crime*,³⁴ *direct provision of drugs*³⁵ and *indirect provision of drugs*.

c. Tertiary drug-related crimes: Tertiary drug-related crimes, in short, involve the acts of establishing criminal organizations dealing with the re-sale of drugs, i.e. international criminal organizations. Such actions are taken by the leaders of those organizations who, in most of the cases, are not in a direct contact with narcotic drugs.³⁶ (Petrović, 2004)

Evidence Taking Procedure

According to the Code of Criminal Procedure of BiH, the following evidence proving procedure is foreseen:

- 1) Search of dwellings and other premises and persons;
- 2) Seizure of objects and property;
- 3) Procedure of dealing with suspicious objects;
- 4) Questioning of the suspect;
- 5) Examination of witnesses;
- 6) Crime scene investigation and reconstruction of events;
- 7) Expert evaluation.

In this paper we are not going to elaborate in great detail on the above procedure. We will just underline that, bearing in mind the principles of the Code of Criminal Procedure of BiH, especially the *principle of legality*, *the principle of presumption of innocence and the principle of the law of evidence*, it is clear that, when taking any of these actions, law enforcement officers have to abide by the legal framework, being aware that any kind of improvisation could have a negative outcome at the court. It is also clear that the stated actions cannot by themselves give relevant results in fighting organized crime. By taking, let us call them, '*regular investigative actions*' (evidence proving actions), it is not possible to achieve good results in fighting this type of crimes. Hence, the states lay down '*special*' *investigative actions*, which largely affect human rights and fundamental freedoms

³¹ Stealing from the house, selling things and property, family violence...

³² Stealing things from colleagues at work, stealing property from the company, evasion, fraud ...

³³ Using the relationship of mutual trust they make property-related delinquent acts against family, friends, etc.

³⁴ Thefts, burglaries, robberies, violent behaviour, kidnappings

³⁵ Steel and fill out unfilled prescriptions in hospitals, forge medical prescriptions....

³⁶ To gain profit, which ends up mostly in their own pockets, they do the organisation of work, corruption, money laundering, etc.

of citizens. Given both tendencies in the criminal proceedings, with the aim of getting a court judgement for the criminal group members, police officers have to stick to the letter of the law in the real sense of the word. (Vukoja, Velić, 2015.)

Special Investigative Measures

According to the Code of Criminal Procedure of BiH, the following actions are foreseen as 'special investigative measures':

- a) Surveillance and technical recording of telecommunications,
- b) Access to computer systems and computerized data processing,
- c) Surveillance and technical recording of premises,
- d) Covert monitoring and technical recording of individuals and objects, transportation means and related object,
- e) Use of undercover investigators and informants,
- f) Simulated and controlled purchase of objects and simulated bribery,
- g) Supervised transport and delivery of objects of criminal offence

The majority of these actions, be it the evidence proving actions or special investigative actions, are conducted in combination with one another when clearing up drug-related criminal offences associated with organized crime³⁷. Carrying out special investigative actions requires an Order of the relevant Court according to the criminal legislation of BiH.

Yet, it is not enough for law enforcement officers and prosecutors just to be aware of the provisions of the Law of Criminal Procedure in fighting drug-related organized crimes. As a matter of fact, fighting this type of crimes in an efficient manner requires specific professional knowledge from the operative work and criminalistics i.e. criminalistic tactics and

³⁷ If we assume that we have learned that a group of people has been doing organised distribution of narcotic drugs, and that we have obtained a court order for carrying out special investigative actions, some of them would be carried out in combination with one another in most of the cases. E.g. *Covert following and technical recording of individuals, transportation means and objects related to them with Surveillance and technical recording of telecommunications* or *Use of undercover investigators and informers with Simulated and controlled purchase of objects and simulated bribery*, and maybe also in combination with *Supervised transport and delivery of objects of criminal offence*. Upon implementation or even in the course of special investigative actions, we would sometimes, depending on the particular criminal act, resort to other evidence proving measures such as *Search of dwellings, premises and persons, Seizure of objects and property, Procedure of dealing with suspicious objects, Questioning of the suspect, Examination of witnesses, Crime scene investigation and reconstruction of events, Expert evaluation*,

criminalistic methodology applied in clearing up some kinds of criminal offences. It is worth noting that members of organized criminal groups are very much aware of the police capacities in relation to special investigative and other evidence proving actions based on the application of technique³⁸, which makes them rather cautious. And no less important, these criminal groups are often in possession of better technical equipment than the police itself. In the second part of this paper we will elaborate on the operative work and use of informers and undercover investigators from the criminalistic aspect. These actions belong to the segment of *covert operations*, which include certain rules and procedures to comply with.

Criminal-Intelligence Operations – Selection of Informants and Undercover Investigators

The most important segment in the process of early and any detection of crimes (especially organised crimes), and their proving before the court, is *criminal intelligence*. In that regard, special departments dealing with criminal intelligence operations were established within law enforcement structures in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Generally speaking, these departments conduct the process of developing raw information and turning the pieces of information into final information about criminal activities through the basic stages of the intelligence cycle:

- a) *Planning and directing* as the first and final step of the intelligence cycle. It begins with a need to collect criminal intelligence, and continues with new intelligence-collection requests that are generated from it.
- b) *Collection* of criminal intelligence is a process of collection of information on certain criminal activity.
- c) *Information processing* is a process of turning the great amounts of collected material into a form convenient for analysis.
- d) *Analysis* is a process of turning collected and processed information into final intelligence packages.
- e) *Distribution or dissemination* is a process of submitting the intelligence package to crime investigation departments or prosecutors or other relevant beneficiaries.

Using informants is one of the ways of collecting criminal intelligence.

³⁸ E.g. Surveillance and technical recording of individuals, transportation means and objects or surveillance and technical recording of telecommunications.

Informant – selection and engagement

Informant is a person who consciously, in an organized, temporary or ongoing manner, always secretly, provides police with certain information regarding criminal activities. The police work with informants in BiH is governed by special laws and by-laws. Consequently, given their way of engagement as required by the police or investigation, and given their involvement in the criminal activity, they can appear before the court in the status of a protected witness. Nevertheless, there are so many reasons to avoid, whenever it is possible, having informants appear before the court, even in the status of a protected witness³⁹.

There are other terms for informers that are used in the common police terminology, such as operative links, collaborators, secret reporters ... It is generally known that informants providing information about certain criminal groups are the members of those criminal organizations. Yet, in theory and practice, it is possible to direct skilled informants toward certain criminal groups, although not being members of those groups at that moment, which will largely depend on the skillfulness and training of the operatives who keep the informants away from each other.

Prior to the selection of individual persons to be hired as informants, the operative worker first has to know what can be expected of an informant:

- Collecting data or information about a criminal group or criminal individuals
- Collecting evidence materials necessary for processing a criminal activity⁴⁰
- Creating conditions for the application of other special investigative actions or evidence proving actions⁴¹
- Checking out information obtained from other sources
- Spreading information or misinformation, as the case may be, launched by the police
- Preparing conditions for the involvement of undercover investigators
- Creating conditions and preparing other people, in some cases, for establishing cooperation with the police

³⁹ Regardless of the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure about informant witnesses as protected witnesses, a danger of discovering the identity of the informer still remains high.

⁴⁰ In accordance with the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure

⁴¹ Informs the police about the whereabouts of criminals and creates conditions for secretly observing them, enables the police to enter the premises where they set technical equipment for audio-visually recording the premises, informs the police about the places where narcotic drugs are hidden to make searches there.

Apart from the above stated, it is necessary to take into account some other elements that are very important for a successful cooperation with the informant:

- At any moment, prior to, during and after the cooperation of an individual with the police, the identity of the individual has to remain secret⁴².
- The cooperation should be based on a voluntary acceptance of a person to become a police informant
- Being truthful to the informer is a very important element of gaining confidence and possibly extending the cooperation including some new tasks⁴³
- Respecting the informer's dignity and professionalism of the operative worker

Hiring informants, naturally, is not done for its own purpose. Before making an access to a potential informant, it is necessary to conduct the basic planned activities such as:

- Selection of an object of interest, i.e. a criminal group, type of crime or environment where the informant is supposed to act
- Identification of candidates for establishing the cooperation with them
- Examining their capacities for cooperation
- Motivators

The capacities of the person identified for establishing cooperation with are assessed from two aspects:

- *Objective capacities* - which means whether the person, actually, can obtain the data which the police might need concerning the object of interest
- *Subjective capacities* – which involves studying the personality of the identified person⁴⁴

⁴² Operative workers too have to possess a high level of security culture, treat the contacts with consideration in terms of not exposing the informant to unnecessary risks and making the informant visible in company with police operatives, reduce to minimum the number of police officers who are aware of the cooperation and identity of the informer...

⁴³ Informers, at any moment, have to be presented the real circumstances vis-a-vis their expectations

⁴⁴ This is very important in the process of hiring, since the informer, apart from working for the police, can very easily ruin a police operation. It is necessary to study one's temper, nature, attitudes, past, origin, education ...

Undercover investigator – selection and engagement

Undercover investigator is a law enforcement officer who, in accordance with the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, with the identity changed, infiltrates into and acts within a criminal group, under the leadership of a law enforcement authority, with the aim of collecting information and evidence necessary for leading the criminal proceedings in an efficient manner⁴⁵.

As it is the most complex type of police activity, and the most stressful task for a law enforcement officer, it is quite clear that the selection of such staff should be made in the best possible way.

According to Jeff Palmer, undercover investigators can be divided into three groups:

- a) *Long-term undercover investigator working on a very secret task*
- b) *Short-term undercover investigator*
- c) *Decoy undercover investigator*

All of these modalities of hiring law enforcement officers as undercover investigators have their advantages and disadvantages. In the law enforcement practice, for instance, undercover investigators are most frequently used as *short-term undercover investigators*. It is an undercover operation in which undercover investigator uses a false identity, establishing contacts with criminals through the intermediation of a police informant and buying goods, which is followed by the arrest and end of operation. *Long-term undercover investigator* performs a secret operation that requires a lot of time and resources. It proved to be the most efficient in fighting highly professional closed criminal organizations. In some cases it will take years of work before the conditions are created for *infiltrating* an undercover investigator into a criminal group, and months, even years of their work within a group. Although we are aware of the advantage of this type of undercover operation, there are some disadvantages too – this kind of operation is expensive, long-lasting, with an increased risk of discovering the undercover investigator by members of the criminal group; the operatives performing this secret task have to cope with extreme stress, are subject to getting into family crises, and it is possible for them to gradually lose the police identity while acting within the group and going into a criminal zone. *Decoy undercover investigator* is a kind of operation in which a law

⁴⁵ It would, theoretically, be possible to hire some persons other than law enforcement officers as undercover investigators. Yet, this is a minor occurrence and, practically, hardly implementable, particularly if we have in mind the status of informants in our Code of Criminal Procedure.

enforcement officer often plays the role of a victim; it is very dangerous and requires the law enforcement officer to be in a very good physical condition (Palmer J. 2006.).

As regards the selection of law enforcement officers who are to be hired as undercover investigators, there are similar criteria followed in most of the countries. They could be classified as follows:

- Meeting general conditions and having absolutely clean police record⁴⁶
- Possessing certain personality traits⁴⁷
- Types of criminal group or task of the undercover investigator
- Process of education and training

When the selection process is over and the training is finished, the most difficult part comes up – the infiltration of the undercover investigator into a criminal group. The success of infiltration largely depends on good planning, the knowledge about the group based on the data collected, type of undercover operation, etc. One of the key points of this process in all stages of the undercover operation, especially in the initial stages and when establishing the first contact, is *constructing a legend to an undercover investigator*. There are four very important aspects in constructing a legend to a law enforcement officer:

- *Choosing a legend*
- *Developing a legend*
- *Selecting a legend*
- *Applying a legend*

The success or failure of an undercover operation depends on many factors, some of which will sometimes be out of our control. Therefore, it is necessary to prepare the exit strategies for undercover investigators as their life and health are always the priority number one.

Conclusion

Acting in a planned and systematic manner of the police and other security services fighting organised crime is the key of success. Criminal intelligence operations in terms of identifying a problem, i.e. a criminal group,

⁴⁶ Previous years of experience and types of duties performed

⁴⁷ In the sense of intelligence, resourcefulness, integrity, courage

collecting enough data for making intelligence packages as a basis for undertaking other special investigative actions require a great commitment and huge experience of law enforcement officers working on these tasks.

The efficient fight against organized crime cannot be imagined without using *live sources*. In that regard, it is very important to make a good selection and have good training of law enforcement officers who will deal with criminal intelligence and informants, including the training of undercover investigators.

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EXAMINING DRUG TRAFFICKING AS A HUMAN SECURITY THREAT IN VIETNAM

Cao Ngoc ANH*

Abstract

Largely based on secondary data analysis in combination with data acquired from 6 semi-structured interviews (Interviewees in this research consist of 2 anti-drug trafficking police officers (coded as PO1; PO2), 1 staff from Department Against Social Evil (SE), 1 staff from Hanoi MOLISA (HM), 1 researcher on drug trafficking in Vietnam (RE1) and 1 father of drug addict (FA1), this article examines the nexus between drug trafficking and human insecurity in the context of Vietnam. By adopting the worldwide well-known analytical framework of human security developed by UNDP, this paper reveals that in Vietnam drug trafficking has mounted to an considerable multifaceted threat to human security particularly on the dimensions of economic, health, personal, community and security. In relation to the training of the anti-drug trafficking police, these revelations suggest that the crime should be considered as not only a criminal problem but also an important issue of non-traditional security. This infers that the police training could be undertaken by both police and security academies. With regard to the training curriculum, it should pay more attention on powering its potential victims to develop their resilience and capacity to escape from the victimization. Concerning the methods for policing drug trafficking, since the crime is determined as a security threat, it could be reasonable to utilize some strategies of governing human security issues in order to better control the crime.

Keywords: Drugs, Drug Trafficking, Human Security, Police Training, Vietnam

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Introduction

Drug trafficking is a well-documented topic worldwide. It is estimated that in recent years the trafficking of illicit drugs has accounted for over 3% of world trade (Klein, 2008), and that the total value of the black industry mounted to 1 trillion USD annually (Jojarth, 2009). The crime's severe impacts have been also addressed across the world decades ago. The Parties to 1988 United Nations Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances, recognized: *"Deeply concerned by the magnitude of and rising trend in the illicit production of, demand for and traffic in narcotic drugs and psychotropic substances, which pose a serious threat to the health and welfare of human beings and adversely affect the economic, cultural and political foundations of society"* (UN, 1988:1). The consequences of drugs, while not confine within any countries or regions, seem to be more formidable in underdeveloped and developing countries. Irrespective of this magnitude, in Vietnam there have not been a study that examines such impacts in a systematic manner. Against this backdrop, this paper employs a broad theoretical framework of human security in order to examine the consequences of drug problems including drug crimes in Vietnam. It begins with the overview of the concept of human security for the purpose of establishing a theoretical paradigm to gauge the consequences of drug issues in a systematic fashion, followed by the provision of an overall picture of drug addiction and drug crime in Vietnam. Subsequently, diverse pitfall of drugs on seven dimensions of human security will be revealed. Finally, the paper suggests a number of implications for the training of anti-drug trafficking police.

The Concept Of Human Security

The first introduction of the concept of "human security" was in 1994 by The United Nation Development Program (UNDP, 1994). Based on a normative humanism and ethical responsibility, human security aims to "reorient security around the individual", not states, though the latter remains an indispensable means for ensuring individual rights, producing economic opportunities, and guaranteeing good governance (Dodds and Pippard, 2012:29). As with other concepts, the formulation of the concept of human security serves certain purposes; the uppermost of which is an attempt to raise robust attention to human security issues in an "insecure and globalising world" (Dodds and Pippard, 2012:35). Pragmatically, it attempts also to invest resources much more significantly in human security issues, rather than military activities (Kerr, 2007). In fact, while globally, up to \$900

billion was spent for military goals by 1985, it would cost only \$30 billion to provide water for people worldwide. At the same time, the costs for re-foresting the damaged tropical forests and combating desertification, which directly benefit human lives and the environment, would be only \$1.3 and 4.5, respectively (Nsiah-Gyabaah, 2010). Recently, USD 25 billion are spent annually for poverty reduction, which accounts for only 2% of the total military expenditure. That said, while the world spends 2 USD to save lives, it invests 98USD to produce deadly weapons (Vu, 2009).

Even though there is a long pre-establishment of, increasing policy attention to, and sizable academic investments in, human security, the methodological, definitional and conceptual debates have provided no “real consensus” on the exact meaning of human security and the application of the human security paradigm (Hampson, 2008:230). There are a number of individual efforts to provide definitions of human security. Alkire (2003:2), for example, provides a working definition of human security that “the objective of human security is to safeguard the vital core of all human lives from critical pervasive threats, in a way that is consistent with long-term human fulfilment”. However, some scholars consider human security as a “paradigm”, while others see it as a description, a concept, a doctrine, a theory and an ideology (Fukuda-Parr and Messineo, 2012). All of these considerations, however, have a highly agreed starting point that security policy and security analysis, if they are to be operative and legitimate, must revolve around the individual as the referent and primary beneficiary, and that state security is only one of the means to achieve human security (Newman, 2010). This has a further implication that the safety of the individual is the key to national and global security; thus, when the safety of individuals is threatened, so too is state and international security (Hampson, 2008).

In parallel with the convergence that the primary referent of security is not the state, but individuals, in the course of determining what specific threats should be securitised, there is an analytical divergence in which two main ramifications are offered. On the one hand, the narrow approach to human security taken prominently by the Canadian government focuses on armed conflicts and the political violence posed to civilians by repressive governments and situations of state failure (Human Security Centre, 2005, MacFarlane and Khong, 2006). This perspective reflects the negative link between human security and state security, arguing that failed states can no longer provide effective governance of, and invariably fail to obtain, human security. Even worse, at times “outwardly aggressive and inwardly repressive regimes can be major sources of human insecurity” (Lodgaard, 2000:3).

On the other hand, the broad approach to human security is concerned over not only threats from political and armed violence, but also non-armed, non-state, even non-human-induced threats to human integrity such as endemic diseases, natural disaster, starvation and severe poverty. Thus, the values to be secured in this approach cover not only “freedom from fear”, but also “freedom from want”. This approach is heavily influenced and inspired by the Human Development Reports, especially by UNDP (1994), in which human security, as summarised by Commission on Human Security (2003:4), means, first, “safety from such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression; and second, protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life - whether in homes, in jobs or in communities”. To demonstrate the concept of security, UNDP (1994:23) cites how individuals around the world regard security: *“A fourth-grade schoolgirl in Ghana: “I shall feel secure when I know that I can walk the streets at night without being raped”. A shoe-mender in Thailand: “When we have enough for the children to eat, we are happy and we feel secure”. A man in Namibia: “Robberies make me feel insecure. I sometimes feel as though even my life will be stolen...”*

As explicitly clarified in UNDP (1994), human security is constituted by seven interrelated components consisting of economic, food, health, environmental, personal, community and political security. UNDP suggests that there are substantial links and overlaps between these different elements of human security, which means “a threat to one element of human security is likely to travel - like an angry typhoon - to all forms of human security” (UNDP, 1994:33)¹. The common understanding of human security is developed and clarified in the General Assembly Resolution 66/290 on 10 September 2012:

- (a) The right of people to live in freedom and dignity, free from poverty and despair. All individuals, in particular vulnerable people, are entitled to freedom from fear and freedom from want, with an equal opportunity to enjoy all their rights and fully develop their human potential;
- (b) Human security calls for people-centred, comprehensive, context-specific and prevention-oriented responses that strengthen the protection and empowerment of all people and all communities;
- (c) Human security recognizes the interlinkages between peace, development and human rights, and equally considers civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights;

¹ Similar to the broad approach of UNDP are a number of proposals including Nef (1999) who suggests five elements of human security: (1) environmental, personal, and physical security; (2) economic security, (3) social security, (4) political security; and (5) cultural security.

- (d) The notion of human security is distinct from the responsibility to protect and its implementation;
- (e) Human security does not entail the threat or the use of force or coercive measures. Human security does not replace State security;...²

The concept of human security is questioned by some critics. The two most noted questions on human security are: (1) as a result of the expanded notion of security, how can human security, especially its broad version, be reliably measured and (2) how, therefore, can human security be practically useful? (MacFarlane and Khong, 2006, Newman, 2010, Paris, 2001). The consequence is that human security approach would do little to understand the causes of threats, the operative mechanisms and means to achieve security (Fukuda-Parr and Messineo, 2012).

Irrespective of these critiques, the use of the broad human security approach has been increasingly widespread in various fields worldwide, which has “chalked up significant accomplishments” (Paris, 2001:88). Specifically, thanks to this approach, key global governance institutions such as the IMF and the World Bank pay increasing attention to the field of human security with poverty and inequality increasingly seen as threats to national, regional and global security (Thomas, 2001). What is more, the construction of human security helps establish an umbrella norm for a variety of national security policies, international treaties and conventions (Kerr, 2007). Foreign policy in Japan and Canada, the security policy in Europe, the establishments of the International Criminal Court, the International Campaign to Ban Land Mines and the International Commission on Intervention and State Sovereignty are “solid achievements”, which prove that the human security approach formulated by UNDP has had a “significant role” to play in foreign policy (Fukuda-Parr and Messineo, 2012:14).

² Three more clarifications of human security in Resolution 66/290 were:

(f) Human security is based on national ownership. Since the political, economic, social and cultural conditions for human security vary significantly across and within countries, and at different points in time, human security strengthens national solutions which are compatible with local realities;

(g) Governments retain the primary role and responsibility for ensuring the survival, livelihood and dignity of their citizens. The role of the international community is to complement and provide the necessary support to Governments, upon their request, so as to strengthen their capacity to respond to current and emerging threats. Human security requires greater collaboration and partnership among Governments, international and regional organizations and civil society;

(h) Human security must be implemented with full respect for the purposes and principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations, including full respect for the sovereignty of States, territorial integrity and non-interference in matters that are essentially within the domestic jurisdiction of States. Human security does not entail additional legal obligations on the part of States;

It is argued in this paper that although the broader approach in human security may have to somewhat sacrifice its analytical strength, adopting this “emancipatory and empowering concept” (Voelkner, 2012:19) in the security agenda may well satisfy the actual aspiration of, and bring benefit for, the vast majority of citizens worldwide. Indeed, any individual worldwide can benefit from a security policy that is in privilege for all people, and is extensive and intensive enough to address core values of these people. For instance, rather than investing massively in costly arms races, as observed by MacFarlane and Khong (2006), securitising various issues such as health and the environment to ensure human security has resulted in more policy attention to, and resources for, these domains that are essential to all people. This theoretical framework will be employed in this research to investigate the impacts of drug problems particularly drug addiction and drug trafficking in Vietnam. Prior to looking into these impacts, it is worth gaining an overall understanding on these problems in the country.

Drug Addiction and Trafficking In Vietnam

Vietnam is located next to “Golden Triangle” - one of three most critical drug manufacturing centres worldwide³, and neighbored to the huge drug market of China. In the last over two decades, drug problems especially drug trafficking has remained an increasingly complex issue in Vietnam, seeing substantial changing patterns with a decline in the average age of users, an increase in female users, and a rapid transition from smoking to injecting. Indeed, before mid-1990s, the prevalence of drug use in Viet Nam was moderately low and mainly involved opium and cannabis smoking and some localized abuse of pharmaceuticals. By 1994, opium use accounted for 86% of registered drug addicts, but in 2000, 80% were heroin users (Nguyen & Scannapieco, 2008). Recently while around 70% of drug addicts still use heroin, the rapid increase in the addiction by young drug users of amphetamine-type stimulants (ATS)⁴ has become a particular concern in Vietnam. ATS are now the second-most popular class of illicit drugs of use in the country, taking over opium. In some provinces, 85-90% of new addicts only use ATS (UNODC 2012a, MPS 2016). By 1995, only 42% of drug addicts were under 30, but by 2010 this figure was 70% (Department against Social Evils, 2013). The vast majority of the drug addicts are now male (95%), while the percentage of female drug users grew from

³ “Golden Triangle” covers the overlap of the mountains of three countries of Myanmar, Laos and Thailand. In 2015, Myanmar accounted for 20% (55,500 ha) of the total area under opium poppy cultivation worldwide (UNODC, 2016).

⁴ Most popular ATS in Vietnam include methamphetamine, crystalline methamphetamine and ecstasy (UNODC, 2012a)

2% in 2001 to 5% in 2010 (UNODC, 2012b). The principal route of drug administration is through injection (70 to 85%), followed by smoking and then sniffing. Opium smoking is mainly found among the elderly in rural highland areas; whereas heroin remains the most commonly used drug among younger people particularly in metropolitan areas (UNODC, 2012b).

By the end of 2016, there were in Vietnam 210.751 drug addicts⁵ registered by the state authorities, indicating an increase of 10.617 addicts by 2015 (MOLISA, 2016). Among those addicts, 67.5% live in community compared to 13.5% who are treated in detoxification centres, and 19% who are detained in jails and compulsory schools for drug users (MPS, 2016). In the last ten years, on average the number of drug addicts in Vietnam consistently increase by 5 - 10% every year (Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2015). One of the most worrying issues related to drug addiction in Vietnam is the relapse rate remains very high, up to 95%; even some estimate 99%, which greatly deteriorates the drug problem in Vietnam (FO1, SE, HM).

Concerning drug trafficking, despite internationally recognised significant achievements in drug control by Vietnamese law enforcement agencies, the crime remains a noticed problem in the 90-million-plus-population country. Viet Nam is currently not considered as a major drug producing country, but rather a location where drugs are smuggled through for local consumption and to third countries especially China (US State Department, 2010). Thanks to effective measures to eradicate opium poppy inside Vietnam, it is estimated that about 95% of illicit drugs transported to the country are smuggled from neighbouring countries (UNODC, 2012b). Recent years, drug smuggling from Laos to Vietnam has increased drastically with the amount of ATS smuggled across Vietnam-Laos border in 2016 being four and a haft times higher than that in 2015 (MPS, 2016). The techniques of cross-border and domestic drug trafficking have been steadily more sophisticated and organized. The traffickers take advantage of the long and porous land borderline and the coastline to smuggle drugs from neighbouring countries; while more complex tricks have been employed to transport drugs by airplanes (Luong, 2015).

⁵ According to the Vietnamese laws, drug addicts are those who regularly use one or more than one kind of drugs, are dependent mentally and/or physically on drugs, causing changes in the users' behavior, always need drug to satisfy the struggle of lacking drugs (Act of Drug Prevention). Drug addicts do not include those who use several times but are not dependent on drug use.

In the last five years, from 2012 – 2016, the numbers of drug criminal cases and offenders detected by law enforcement forces remain high and relatively stable. On average every year about 19,000 criminal cases of drug crime are detected and investigated, with around 28,000 offenders arrested (Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2017) (see Table 1). By 2016, law enforcement agencies seized 876.8 kg of heroin, 152 kg of opium, 637.3 kg of cannabis, 1.030 kg and 635.681 tablets of synthetic drugs, 20,8 kg of cocaine (MPS, 2016) (see Table 2). Viet Nam is also increasingly vulnerable to the threat of precursor chemical diversion and local illicit drug production, given its location in the neighbourhood of the world's major hubs of synthetic drug manufacture, especially China (UNODC, 2012b).

Brief overview of the typology of drug problems in Vietnam has been provided, it is now time to reveal the consequences of the crime on different aspects of human security in the country.

Table 1: The numbers of arrested criminal offenders and detected cases in Vietnam from 2012 – 2016, sources: Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2017.

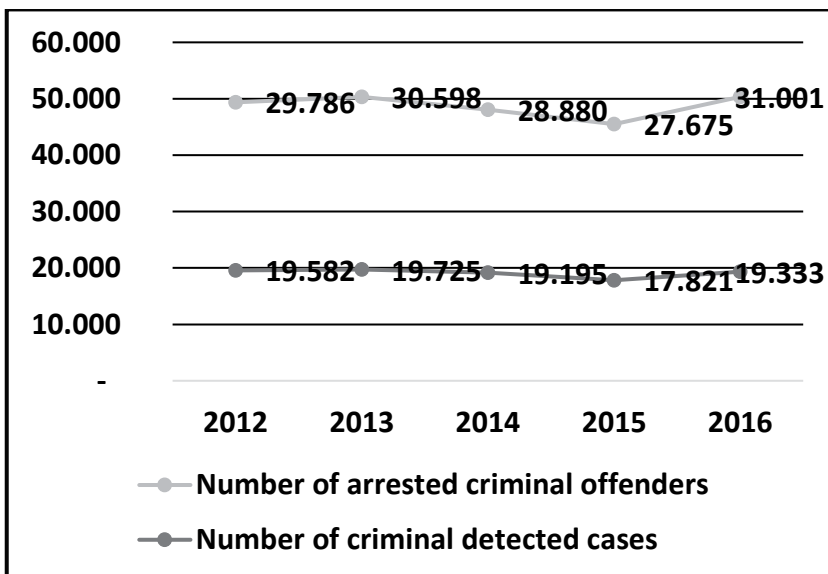
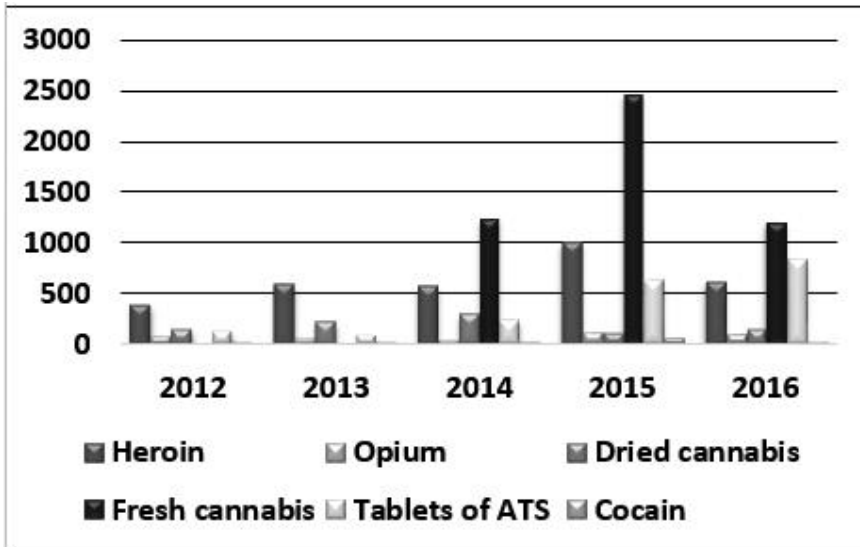


Table 2: The amounts of different drug types seized in Vietnam from 2012 – 2016, sources: Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2017.



The Impacts of Drug Trafficking On Human Security

Economic and Food Security

Economic security in the conceptual framework of human security firstly requires “an assured basic income - usually from productive and remunerative work or in the last resort from some publicly financed safety net”, whereas food security calls for all people at all times to “have both physical and economic access to basic food” (UNDP, 1994:25&27). The economic and food security dimensions are briefly recapped by the Commission on Human Security (2003:73):

“When people’s livelihoods are deeply compromised—when people are uncertain where the next meal will come from, when their life savings suddenly plummet in value, when their crops fail and they have no savings—human security contracts. People eat less and some starve. They pull their children out of school. They cannot afford clothing, heating or health care. Repeated crises further increase the vulnerability of people in absolute or extreme poverty”.

Under this conceptual framework, it is suggested that drugs could generate severe threats to the livelihoods of drug users. Indeed, drugs can curb the users' employment prospects, both by curtailing the opportunity of getting a job and by decreasing the productivity in the workplaces (Badel & Greaney, 2013). This can be in part explained by the fact that drug addicts suffer from many serious personal, health, lifestyle and other problems and are often dearth of qualifications, low levels of skills and poor employment records (UNODC, 2016). This drug-employment relationship has been found across the world. For instance, a study that looked at the relationship between drug use and employment in the US found that on the statewide scale, states with higher number of drug users often also experience high rates of unemployment (Promises Treatment Centers, 2013). Statistics for 30 European countries show that, by 2013, at least half all people in the labor age who receive treatment for drug use disorders were unemployed (cited in UNODC, 2016).

This scenario may even be worse in Vietnam since the social stigma on, and discrimination against, drug addicts are very intensive with almost all employers finding it extremely difficult to accept drug addicts as employees (PO1, HM, FA). A study by Department against Social Evil (2013) shows that over a half of the addicts surveyed are unemployed. Only one in five has a stable job and others have some kids of low-paid, part-time or precarious works. Generally the main income of drug addicts in Vietnam stems from family members. However, this income even plus legitimate earnings only account for averagely one third of the total cost for buying drugs, meaning that a significant number of addicts must find unlawful incomes for drug purchase.

Additionally, severe deterioration of mental and physical health as a result of drug addiction leads the drug users to considerable losses of working productivity resulting in not only the loss of worker's income, but also company's output and therefore country's GDP. In the US, by 2011 the loss of productivity owing to labor non-participation by drug abuser is significant, mounting to \$120 billion USD equivalent to 0.9% of the country's GDP (International Narcotics Control Board, 2013). Similar studies discovered the losses of 0.3% and 0.4 % of GDP in Australia and Canada, respectively. It was also estimated in these two countries that owing to morbidity, ambulatory care, physician visits and other related consequences, the cost of lost productivity was 8 and 3 times higher, respectively, than health-related costs.

Along with the loss of productivity, massive amounts of funding have been allocated to control drug and to fix its dire consequences. If spent on human

welfare, this funding would greatly improve the status of human security. Globally, estimates by UNODC (2014) are that 35 billion USD are spent annually for treatment of 4.5 million drug users worldwide. This is however only one in six drug users who have the treatment opportunity. Accordingly, if all drug users had received treatment in 2010, an estimated \$200 billion - \$250 billion, or 0.3-0.4% of the global GDP, are needed for such treatment. At national level, the costs arising both directly and indirectly from the drug problem ranged between 0.07 and 1.7 % of GDP of the countries studied (UNODC, 2016). The US governments, for example, has spent 150 billion USD on the four-decade-long 'War on Drugs' (Robinson, 2011).

In the context of Vietnam, spending on the dealing with drug and policing of drug trafficking is believed to be extremely costly, which is even far higher than the expenditure on many other social issues and types of criminal offences (PO1, SE, RE). To be sure, to cope with drug, especially drug trafficking, a larger number of law enforcement and governmental agencies have to take part in the work mainly including police, forces of social affairs, treatment institutions, local authorities, market inspection, customs and border army, which collectively is costly for the state budget to maintain. Vietnam now, for instance, has approximately 10,000 law enforcers intensively specialized on combatting drug trafficking, including over 6,000 police officers, 3,000 border army officers and 1,000 customs officials (Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2017). Apart from the expenditure for staff salary, the annual funding for fighting drug trafficking from central government is around 10,000 billion Vietnam Dong (480 million USD) (PO1). Additionally it is estimated that on average the Vietnamese governments have to spend at least 20 million VND (890 USD) on the treatment and management of one single drug addict annually⁶; accordingly, every year the drug treatment and management for about 211.000 Vietnamese drug dependents costs the governments at least 190 million USD. At individual perspective, everyday each drug addict spends averagely 230,000 Vietnam Dong (over 10 USD) buying drugs (SE, HM, FA); thus the annual expense for drug by Vietnamese drug addicts are approximately 770 million USD which is equivalent to the total annual income of nearly 370.000 Vietnamese (about 0.4 % of Vietnamese population)⁷.

⁶ At the moment, Vietnam has 123 compulsory detoxification centers with over 7,000 member of staff in addition to 180 Mathadone treatment centers in 42 provinces treating 42,000 drug addicts (Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2015).

⁷ According to World Bank, GDP per capital of Vietnam is approximately 2,100 USD by 2015 (World Bank, 2015).

Health and Environmental Security

Good health is surely both essential and instrumental to achieve human security. It is essential because the very heart of security is protecting human lives and health. Health security is, therefore, at the vital core of human security; and illness, disability and avoidable death are “critical pervasive threats” to human security (Commission on Human Security, 2003:96). Against this conceptual backdrop, it could be expected that drug-related death is surely the most extreme form of human insecurity resulted from drug use.

Globally, it is estimated there are about 211,000 drug-related deaths annually, and that drug-related deaths account for between 0.5 and 1.3% of all-cause dead toll for people aged 15-64 years (International Narcotics Control Board, 2013). UNODC (2014) reports that mortality rate of the drug addicts is nearby 40 deaths per million persons aged 15-64 with younger drug users facing higher risk. In Europe, for example, the average age of death among drug users is in the mid-30s (International Narcotics Control Board, 2013). Drug overdose is the principal reason for the global drug-related deaths, and opioids (heroin and the non-medical use of prescription opioids) are the leading drug type associated with those deaths (UNODC, 2014). In addition to deaths, severe morbidity can be another consequence of drug overdose, resulting in prolonged hospitalization, brain damage and disabilities (UNODC, 2014).

What is more, unsafe drug injecting especially when sharing contaminated injecting equipment leads to extremely serious health impacts especially the transmission of blood-borne infections such as HIV, hepatitis B and hepatitis C. The Joint United Nations Program on HIV/AIDS informs that the number of new cases of HIV among drug injectors remains high, accounting for up to 40% of new infections in some countries (UNAIDS, 2013). It is estimated that among 14 million injecting drug users worldwide are 1.6 million who are living with HIV. By 2010, via premature death as a result of HIV infection, unsafe drug injection led to the loss of 1,980,000 years of life with a further 494,000 years of life were lost worldwide by reason of hepatitis C infection. Data available in the 49 countries shows that the prevalence of HIV among drug injector is at least 22 times higher than among the general population, and in 11 countries, it is at least 50 times higher (cited in UNODC, 2014).

The similar situation is found in Vietnam where history of drug injection is seen as a predictor of HIV seropositive among drug addicts, meaning

that the longer the addict had been involved in injecting drugs, the higher his or her probability of HIV seropositive has been (Nguyen & Scannapieco, 2008). UNODC (2005, 2012b) estimate that in Vietnam needles were shared by 80 – 85% of all drug users, leading to the fact that drug injection makes up half of all reported cases of HIV and that Vietnam is one of few countries in South-East Asia with the highest rates of HIV infection among drug addicts. Recent estimates report that drug injection constitutes up to 70% (in some provinces 96%) of new cases of HIV infection⁸, while prostitution is responsible for 30% of HIV cases (Do Tuyet, 2013, PO1). Research by Hayes-Larson et al (2013) indicates that mortality rates among male drug injectors in Vietnam are 13.4 times higher than the general male population.

In addition to HIV prevalence, drug use can also significantly contribute to hepatitis B and C which cause liver diseases such as cirrhosis, liver cancer and death. Hepatitis C is highly prevalent among drug injectors and is transmitted via sharing needles and syringes even more easily than HIV. By 2012, it is estimated that there were 6.6 million drug injectors aged 15-64 who are living with hepatitis C, meaning that the rate of drug injectors suffering from hepatitis C is up to 52.0%. Also in 2012, the global rate of people aged 15-64 who inject drugs living with hepatitis B is 6.7 %, corresponding to 850,000 people (UNODC, 2014).

In Vietnam, among 309 injecting drug users surveyed in a case-control study by Quan et al (2009), the HIV, hepatitis B and hepatitis C prevalence was 42.4%, 80.9%, and 74.1%, respectively. Among these, only 11% reported having been vaccinated against hepatitis B. In the past six months, 63.8% of drug addicts engaged in indirect sharing practices, including sharing drug solutions, containers, rinse water, and frontloading drugs (Quan et al, 2009).

The impacts of drug trafficking on human health security could also be looked at the number of dead traffickers as a result of severe penalty imposed on drug offenders. Vietnam is one of the countries that impose very harsh penalties on drug crimes. In 10 years, from 1993 – 2003, 266 drug offenders have been sentenced to death (Vu, 2010). In 2016 alone, 342 drug traffickers were sentenced to death or life imprisonment (MPS, 2016). In one single trial in 2014, 30 out of 89 Vietnamese drug traffickers who smuggled 5,000 cakes of heroin and thousands of drug tablets from Laos

⁸ HIV cases have been reported nationwide in all 63 provinces and cities of Viet Nam. According to Viet Nam Authority of HIV/AIDS Control, by December 2011, there were 240,055 people living with HIV/AIDS in the country (UNODC, 2012b).

to Viet Nam and China were sentenced to death with a further 13 defendants were given life in prison (The Telegraph, 2014, VietnamNews, 2014).

Another dimension of health insecurity could be seen at the death and injury of law enforcement officers caused in the fights against drug trafficking. A noted instance is the Colombian Medellín cartel who during the 1980s killed many public officials in Colombia, including elected politicians, judges, presidential candidates, journalists and over 3,000 military and police officers (Jorath, 2009). In Vietnam thus far, 22 police officers have been killed in deadly fighting against harsh traffickers. Besides, the numbers of police officers who have been severely wounded and transmitted HIV in the confrontations against drug trafficking have been over 100 and 900, respectively (PO1, PO2).

Concerning environmental security, International Narcotics Control Board (2013) observes that as a consequence of the precursor chemicals, active ingredients and substances used for drug manufacture and the producing process itself, illicit manufacture and disposal of drugs generate substantial environmental contamination. Besides, in some countries such as Bolivia, Colombia and Peru, illicit cultivation of coca bush and opium poppy has often led to the clearance of forests and severe degradation of biodiversity. In Colombia, for instance, over the period 2001-2014, every year, 22,400 ha of forest have been cleared for coca bush cultivation (UNODC, 2016).

In the context of Vietnam, because of the small scale and scattered nature of drug production, environmental impacts do not appear to be substantial. Indeed, in the last 10 years only about 20 cases of production of synthetic drugs have been detected, which has not rendered large amounts of contamination. In the meantime, Vietnam now has only around 10 hectare of opium poppy planted dispersedly in the Northern provinces, which against does not cause significant forest clearance (PO1).

Personal Security

Personal security is chiefly concerned with physical safety from, and psychological wellbeing against, violence particularly from violent crime (Commission on Human Security, 2003, UNDP, 1994). In the context of drug trafficking, violence often directly involves the crime with professional traffickers employing extreme violence to support their illicit business and to compete rival gangs during the turf wars over drugs. Violence also occurs as a consequence of the fighting among users and sellers over

deals gone askew. Over the last 10 years, this scenario has been a particular concern case in Latin America, especially in Guatemala and Mexico, but it has also been the case in every continent across the world (International Narcotics Control Board, 2013). A study by Calderón et al (2013) evaluates in detail the violence involved in drug trafficking in Mexico, indicating that in this country, there were 50,000 drug-trafficking-related deaths in 2011 with the overwhelming majority of these toll caused by the fighting between drug cartels for the control of smuggling routes and drug markets. The study concludes that in Mexico there were “inter-narco wars” that generally started with a wide array of executions among hostile trafficking syndicates, worsened by disorder and dramatic surge of murder, robberies, kidnappings, extortion and violence threat⁹.

Very little documentation on extreme violence involved in drug trafficking in Vietnam has been conducted except some cases prevented by law enforcement forces. However, it is reported that drug addiction is one of the primary causes of committing violent and poverty offences in Vietnam (PO1). An estimate is that around 70% of drug addicts have links to these offences and the vast majority (about 95%) of cases of property robbery by snatching are committed by drug addicts (PO1). Violent fights among rival gangs of drug smuggling are reportedly not prevalent although the bulk of professional large-scale drug traffickers equip with guns to protect their business.

In addition to violence, drug trafficking is reported to connect with international terrorism and other forms of trafficking such as human smuggling and arm trafficking, which could also also a threat to personal security. The line between profit-driven organized crime groups and ideologically-motivated rebels and terrorists has increasingly blurred over recent decades, merging the spheres of crime and warfare (Jorath, 2009). In the Madrid bombings in 2004, it was suspected that explosives used for the attack were bought from the profit gained from the sale of hashish (cited in Goodwin 2007). In Vietnam, no official evidence on the connectedness between drug and terrorism has been found yet. There are however some instances to show that drug traffickers smuggle drugs together with arms but this does not seem to be widespread (PO1, PO2). By 2016 alone, law enforcement agencies in Vietnam seized 230 guns, 3.305 bullets (Police Department of Drug Crime Investigation, 2016).

⁹Another exemplary of the heinous violence that can explode within the illicit drug trade, toward the end of 2005, Peter Philips, National Security Minister of Jamaica, announced that over 1,400 people had been killed during the year in a country which only has a total population of 2.7 million. This was not a unique year as there had been over 1,400 homicide deaths on the island the previous year as well (as contrasted with 900 in the year 2000) (cited in Singer, 2008)

Community Security

Community security is chiefly concerned (1) with membership of a community that “can provide a cultural identity and a reassuring set of values”, and (2) with the safety from oppressive community practices and ethnic conflict (UNDP, 1994:31). To be more operational, community security can be considered as the freedom from threats to key community values particularly cultural norms, rules, regulations and behaviors. It is revealed in this study some community values are endangered both tangibly and intangibly by drug trafficking.

Firstly, drugs can ruin family’s self-esteem and happiness which is the core value of each community. This aspect does not appear to be very well examined among international publications in this topic but it is an important dimension when mentioning impacts of drugs in Vietnam. Research by Department against Social Evil (2013) unveils that in Vietnam, over one third of drug addicts have serious conflicts and irreconcilable dispute with their family. The rate of family separation and divorce among drug dependents is relatively high, representing about 20% of the married drug addicts. Survey by MOLISA Hanoi (2014) reports that by September 2014, the capital of Vietnam has 16,000 registered drug addicts, and almost all of these addicts’ family face serious financial crisis or bankruptcy, 27% of these addicts experience family breakdown and 24% are permanently abandoned by their family members. A senior member of MOLISA Hanoi staff believes that a family has two sons, if one becomes addicted, almost certainly the other one is also gradually addicted (HM). A father of a drug addict talks about his son:

“Drug addiction is always loathing in our community. We’ve lost almost everything since my son got addicted. Sometimes, he seems to lose his humanity nature, willing to commit horrible things. Material or economic losses are huge but the cost of our self-esteem and social values to the community is incalculable” (FA).

Secondly, drugs would beget long-term pernicious effects to children and the youth’s development which is very important value of any community. Research has been consistently shown that children exposed to drugs face extensively higher level of peril of both physical and sexual abuse as well as neglect and they often experience higher rates of anxiety, depression, delinquency and educational and attention problems (International Narcotics Control Board, 2013). One study reports that kids of parents with drug use disorders are seven times more likely than their peers to grow up with

drug and alcohol problems (cited in UNODC, 2016). In some countries, many children sale of illicit drugs as a means of survival in a hostile, un-supportive social environment (Singer, 2008). In some Southeast Asian countries, including Vietnam there are “substantial populations of street children [involved in] consuming drugs, living precariously with little or no family support or guardians” (cited in Singer, 2008:44). Research by MOLISA & UNDCP (2001) reported that the level of drug abuse among street children in Vietnam was 17.3%. These homeless children receive no parenting support or education or training that would allow them to participate in future development.

Political Security

The root causes of political human insecurity are political repression, human rights violations, lack of rule of law and justice. Based on this conception, drug and drug trafficking could impact human security in a number of dimensions. Firstly, drug significant contributes and closely links to widespread corruption which weakens the rule of law, hence building an environment where the governments may not be able to ensuring security to its citizens (Goodwin, 2007). There has been extensive evidence proving the “drug-corruption” connection at all levels of law enforcement and government across the world, resulting in the erosion of the confidence on the justice and rule of law (Singer, 2008; International Narcotics Control Board, 2013). Robinson (2011:105) observes that:

“The entry of drug money into an economy can play a key role in undermining vulnerable regimes by encouraging official corruption amongst political and military leaders, and the judiciary. As well as corrupting individuals this can damage the overall structure of government by encouraging corrupted branches to violate separation of powers through interference in other spheres, e.g. military interference in government, or political interference in the judicial process”.

This situation has been of particular concern in West Africa where governments have been progressively helpless in dealing with security challenges, particularly the powerlessness to arrest identified drug barons who, in some cases, patronize local regimes (Goodwin, 2007). Accordingly, UNODC notifies a number of states in West Africa that, “risk becoming shell-states: sovereign in name, but hollowed out from the inside by criminals in collusion with corrupt officials in the government and the security services” (UNODC, 2008: 2). In the context of Vietnam, there have been

certainly instances of drug trafficking which involve corrupt officials particularly in police, border army, customs and local authorities. At least, for example, three police officers have been sentenced to capital punishment owing to deeply partaking in large-scale drug trafficking (PO1). However, there have not been instances when drug barons patronize, damage or control local authorities.

Implications for Police Training

The foregoing revelations on drug trafficking and its impacts on human security suggest a number of implications for the training of the anti-drug trafficking police. To begin with the perception on drug crime, the crime should be considered as not only a criminal problem but also an important issue of human security. This is to say, the combat against drug trafficking plays an important role in protecting non-traditional security; accordingly, together with police, security forces should seriously involve in dealing with the crime. This infers that the training of anti-drug trafficking policing could be undertaken by both police and security academies.

With regard to the training curriculum for drug trafficking policing, it should pay more attention on curbing the victimization from drug crime. Additionally, when designing curriculum, the number of module and the size of credits on drug control particularly ATS drug in police academies should be increased for both specialized anti-drug trafficking police and other forces of police forces. This is surely needed in Vietnam where survey by UNODC (2012c) reveals that when asked to describe the effects of ATS on the user, overall the understanding by the majority of police officers is poor, particularly the understanding on the psychological and physical effects and the prevalence of use of ATS in their communities.

Regarding to the methods for policing drug trafficking, since the crime is determined as a human security threat, it is suggested that some strategies of governing human security could be utilized to better control the crime. From an operational perspective, strategies to ensure human security involve people-centered, multi-sectorial, comprehensive, context-specific, and prevention-oriented measures (Human Security Unit, 2016). Some of these measures could be applicable to tackle drug trafficking. For example, people-centered measure means that human security is ensured by empowering people so as to develop their resilience and their capacity to mitigate and respond to current and future crises. This strategy could be used to proactively prevent drug trafficking by enabling victims of drugs and drug

trafficking to better cope with the crime. This could be achieved via delivering effective grassroots propagandas and investments to ensure livelihood and enhance welfare and knowledge of local residents who are vulnerable to drug abuse. Human-centered also recommends that training curriculum should include sufficient contents to strengthen police officers' bravery to resist the temptation to receive benefits from massive illicit profits. Also important is to recruit well-bodied police officers with master military skills and martial arts to tackle harsh violent drug criminals, which could reduce the potential harm to the police officer's health security. It is also necessary to keep regular training for law enforcers to acquire knowledge on new kinds of illegal drug and criminal tricks and to obtain skills in using advanced technologies to support the criminal investigation.

Likewise, multi-sectorial suggests that the work of dealing with drug trafficking should go beyond the mere responsibility of police, but the engagement of many different sectors and actors in society. It should diversify and broaden the sources of trainees. Since the types of stakeholder interested in human security are very diverse, the sources of trainees in combating drugs should not be confine in law enforcement and governmental officials, but rather should really target wide range of actors such as victims, grassroots community members, business people, students and NGOs.

Conclusion

It could be hyperbolic to considered drug trafficking as a direct major threat to national security in the traditional perception of security. It is unlikely scenario that drug traffickers plot to overthrow a government, or render portions of a sovereign country uncontrollable (UNODC 2008). However, under the framework of human security as a non-traditional security approach, at the global perspective, it is reasonable to conclude that drug smuggling is considered "one of the major threats to human security, impeding the social, economic, political, and cultural development of societies worldwide" (Goodwin 2007). It has "stalled progress in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals", particularly in cases where most or all of the abovementioned impacts emerge in tandem (Singer, 2008).

In the context of Vietnam, it is almost certain to confirm that the extent and scope of impacts of drugs in Vietnam are less formidable compared to some countries especially the ones in West Africa, South America, Golden

Triangle and Golden Crescent. Nonetheless it is also rational to argue that drug trafficking is impacting a wide range of aspects of Vietnamese society in considerable albeit varying degrees. Indeed, drugs generate immeasurable economic consequences, severe harm on public health and safety, threaten traditional values of many communities. An understanding of these costs is necessary to develop policies that reduce such costs. One of the important policies is to design and administer appropriate policing training programs to effectively deal with drug problems. These programs could adopt some relevant strategies in governing human security to the course of controlling drugs. Finally, this research is only an initial exploration in to this topic. Surely more research on security implication of drug and drug trafficking should be conducted.

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THE PREVALENCE OF PSYCHOACTIVE SUBSTANCE USE AMONG MIDDLE SCHOOL STUDENTS IN THE TURKISH REPUBLIC OF NORTHERN CYPRUS

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Abstract

This study is a follow-up study of the study which was conducted in 1999. In the light of the recent results, this study's aim is to investigate prevalence of psychoactive substance use; such as cigarettes, alcohol and others, and to see the change in ratios compared to previous years. This study was conducted in March 2015, with 1487 secondary school students from state schools and private schools in TRNC. A questionnaire form consisted of questions about socio-demographic characteristics, use of cigarettes, alcohol and other psychoactive substances was administered to the students. Results showed that, the percentage of smoking at least once was 8.9%, alcohol use percentage was 36.3%, use of other psychoactive drugs (OPD) was 5.5% and the use of illegal substances was 3.9%. Research findings indicated that there is an increase in the use of different kinds of psychoactive substances.

Keywords: Psychoactive substance use, prevalence, risk factors, secondary school students

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Introduction

The use of psychoactive substances is one of the most important problems in the world and needs to be overemphasized (Ögel, Tamar, Evren, Çakmak, 2000). Psychoactive substance use is considered to be a serious public health problem today, because it affects the physical, psychological and psychosocial life of a person, harms the social and economic structure of societies and starts at an early age (Qadri, 2013). Rapid industrialization, urbanization and changing forms of life have put children into the struggle of surviving and have pushed many of them into the dark world of substance abuse as a shelter (Simatwa, 2014). According to recent researches, the age of psychoactive substance use has decreased and the use of these substances among adolescents increased (Durandı et al., 2013). As a consequence, prevention efforts have focused on young people which considered to be one of the most important, leading risk groups (Botvin, 1995; Ögel, 2002). In 2007, a study of young people in Canada, confirmed that up to %50 of the adolescents seeking substance abuse treatment has a comorbid mental health disorder, such as depression or anxiety (CCSA, 2007). According to the United Nations Office of Substance and Crime Global Youth Network (UNODC) report in 1999, the prevalence of life long cannabis use among 15-16 year old students is, 4.5% to 5% in Asia, 1% to 35% in various parts of Europe, 40.9% in USA and 42.8% in Ontario, Canada (UNODC, 2001).

In recent years, the name of the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus has often comes up with the use of psychoactive substances, as the TRNC's location is on the way of substance trafficking (Booth, 1996). TRNC is on the route of substance traffic which known as "Golden Crescent" and starts from Afghanistan, Pakistan and Iran and goes all the way to Europe. This road, also known as the Balkan road, reaches to Cyprus as well, while making its way to south. It is known that they use this route starting from Turkey and continue via Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Czech and Slovakian Republics (UNODC, 2012). It is also reported that a significant portion of the heroin reaches the UK, is also taken through Turkey and Cyprus (TUBİM, 2012).

Researches on understanding the meaning of substance use in the TRNC has gained momentum in recent years, as is around the globe. Recently, researches in the TRNC have shown a tendency to increase in substance

abuse and exploitation (Çakıcı, Karaokçu and Çamlıköylü, 2006, EMU-PDRAM, 2015).

The first study on the subject in Northern Cyprus was done with 2215 high school second year students in 1996, showed that 47.2% of them tried cigarettes, 80% of them tried alcohol and 5.5% had tried at least one other psychoactive substance in their lifetime (Çakıcı et al., 1996). In 1999, the same study was repeated with 641 high school second year students who represent the same population and the results showed that 40.6% of them tried smoking, 79.7% of them used alcohol and 8.3% of them used other psychoactive substances (Çakıcı et al., 1999). In a survey conducted on young people aged 15-16 years in the TRNC, among the second year high school students the prevalence of smoking was 32.2%, the frequency of alcohol use was 85.9%, the frequency of other psychoactive substance abuse was 8%, volatile substance abuse was 3.3%, hypnotic drug use was 2.4%, cannabis was 2.2%, ecstasy was 1.8%, cocaine was 0.7% and heroin was 0.6% (Çakıcı, Çakıcı and Eş, 2010). A survey conducted with 34 high schools and 2114 high school second year students in TRNC in 2011 showed that; the smoking prevalence was 6.8%, alcohol consumption was 75.6% and prevalence of other psychoactive substances usage was 10.0% (Eş, 2015). In 2015, a study with 2236 students showed that, 31% of them smoked, 69.7% of them used alcohol, 5.6% of them used DPM in their lifetime and compared to the high school study in 2011; smoking was increased while alcohol and DPM use was decreased (Çakıcı et al. 2015). According to the first research on the 5th grade students in primary school in TRNC in 2015, 10.9% of students tried smoking at least once in their lifetime, 23.5% of them used alcohol and 1.2% of them used DPM. The fact that the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus is a country in a small island and that psychoactive substances are easily accessible makes it possible for new substances to spread rapidly (Çakıcı, 2000).

As of now, there is only one research in the TRNC that involves middle school students aged 13-14 (Çakıcı et al., 2001). In the survey conducted with middle school third graders, the prevalence of smoking was reported as 19%, the prevalence of alcohol was 61.9% and the other psychoactive substance rate was 5.8% (Çakıcı, Çakıcı and Subaşı, 2001).

This study is the follow-up study of the work done in 1999. In the light of previous findings, the aim of this research is to investigate the prevalence and risk factors of cigarettes, alcohol and other psychoactive substances in middle schools in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus and also to find

out the changes in rates compared to previous years. With the help of the data which obtained from these studies; it will be possible to develop up-to-date preventive programs and public health policies.

Methodology

Participants

Study's questionnaires were evaluated by the Ministry of National Education and the Turkish Education Board, and the written approval was obtained as a result of the examination. The study was conducted in March 2015, in all state secondary schools and private colleges affiliated to the General Directorate of Secondary Education and Vocational Technical Education in the TRNC under the Ministry of National Education and Culture. In the academic year 2014-2015, there were a total of 31 secondary schools affiliated to TRNC General High School. A total of 10148 children were students at these middle schools. The plan was to include 1564 students who were detected by stratified sampling method in this study.

Instruments

The survey form used in the research was the same form used in 1996, 1999 and 2001 high school prevalence studies. The survey which was given to the students; contained questions about sociodemographic characteristics, smoking, alcohol and psychoactive substance use. The section on cigarette, alcohol and other psychoactive substances in the survey was based on the questions of the European Schools Research Project (ESPAD) Alcohol and Other Matters (Hibbel et al., 1995, Hibbel et al. 1998). Questions about sociodemographic data were prepared by the researchers. The survey was prepared to be filled by the students themselves.

Data Collection

The data collection phase of the study was carried out by a team of authors and professors and students of the Psychology Department of the Near East University. Before the survey, the interviewers were informed about the form in detail. Each class was informed by the authors about the study topic beforehand. Students were informed that this research is purely scientific work and that the answers will be confidential. Upon entering the classes, the teachers who were in the class were asked to leave and the students

were allowed to fill the form with only the interviewers present; and they were solely helping the students when necessary.

Analysis of Data

The data obtained in the study were analyzed by a computer using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 21 software package program. Descriptive statistical methods were used in the study and chi-square (χ^2) statistical method was used in user-nonuser comparison of socio-demographic characteristics. Logistic regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between risk factors such as gender, age, place of birth, living with, education, religion, smoking and alcohol use and being drunk (independent variables) and illicit drug use (dependent variables).

Results

This study was conducted in March 2015 in all public secondary schools and private colleges affiliated to the General Directorate of Secondary Education and Vocational Teaching Teaching in the TRNC under the Ministry of National Education and Culture. In the academic year 2014-2015, there were a total of 31 secondary schools in the TRNC General Secondary School. A total of 10148 children were students at these middle schools. 1564 students who were detected by stratified sampling method were included in this study. 737 of the students (49.6%) were female and 750 (50.4%) of them were male students. The average age of the students were 13.31 ± 1.12 . 883 (60%) of the students were citizens of the TRNC, 420 (28.6%) of them were from Turkey and 168 (11.4%) of them were citizens of other countries. 490 (33%) of them were grade 6 students, 467 (31.4%) of them were 7th grade students and 526 (35.4%) of them were 8th grade students.

This study showed that, 5.7% of the students tried smoking at least once in their life time. 6.4% of the females and 4.9% of the males smoked at least once. There was no statistically significant difference in the rates of smoking between male and female students. The rate of students smoking at least once in the last year, was 2.5%. 2,9% of the females and 2,1% of the males have smoked at least once in the last year. The rate of students smoking at least once in the last 30 days, was 1.1%. 1,4% of the females and 0.7% of the males have smoked at least once in the last 30 days. 63.2% of the students smoke to have fun. 59.2% of the girls and 67% of the men

smoke to have fun. No statistically significant difference was found when male and female students were compared by the reasons of smoking.

The rate of students using alcohol at least once in their lives was 16.2%. 16.2% of the females and 16.1% of the males tried alcohol at least once in their lifetime. The rate of students using alcohol at least once in the last year was 14.5%. 15,6% of the females and 13,5% of the males have used alcohol at least once in the last year. The frequency of students using alcohol at least once in the last 30 days was 4.4%. 5.9% of the females and 6.9% of the males drank alcoholic beverages at least once in the last 30 days. 98% of the students have never been drunk during their lifetime. 6,1% of the females and 7,2% of the males become drunk at least 1-2 times. 0.1% of the females and 0.8% of the males become drunk 40 or more times. 0,5% of the females and 0.9% of the males used alcohol twice in the last 30 days. 39.6% of the females and 34.7% of the males use alcoholic beverages to have fun.

This study shows that, lifetime prevalence of using psychoactive drugs at least once was (OPD) 5.5% and illegal substances was 3.9%. It also shows that lifetime prevalence of ecstasy use was 0.9%, cannabis was 0.9% and synthetic cannabinoid was 0.8%. Most commonly used drugs among OPD were; benzodiazepine (2.1%), volatile substances (1.6%) and pills with alcohol (2.2%). Prevalence of using cocaine, heroin, amphetamine, LSD, ecstasy and anabolic steroid were between 0.5 and 0.9%. Most common reason of using OPD were entertainment, curiosity and irritability. Studies show that the first use of OPD decreased to the age of 11 and below. Smoking, alcohol use and becoming drunk at young age are the risk factors of becoming illegal drug users.

Table 1 provides a comparison of some sociodemographic characteristics of students who use and do not use an illegal substances.

Table 1. Comparison of some sociodemographic characteristics of students who use and do not use illegal substances

Groups	Non-User n %	User n %	x²	p
Sex				
Female	628 96,8	21,9 3,2	1,357	0,240
Male	618 95,5	29 4,5		
Place of birth				
Turkey	909 96,5	33 3,5		
Cyprus	304 95,5	16 5,0		
United Kingdom	18 94,7	1 5,3		
Other	24 100,0	0 0		
Mothly income of the family				
1000 TL and less	48 94,1	3 5,9	2,523	0,258
1000-2000	413 94,9	22 5,1		
2000-4000	632 07,1	19 2,9		
4000 and above	151 96,8	5 3,2		
Loss of year				
Yes	1058 96,6	37 3,4	2,709	0,100
No	197 94,3	12 5,7		
Mother's level of education				
Illiterate	64 92,2	5 7,2	6,667	0,155
Primary school	319 97,3	9 2,7		
Secondary school	201 98,0	4 2,0		
High school	443 95,3	22 4,7		
University	214 95,1	11 4,9		
Father's level of education				
Illiterate	39 92,9	3 7,2	2,302	0,630
Primary school	280 97,2	9 2,7		
Secondary school	251 95,8	4 2,0		
High school	438 95,8	22 4,7		
University	227 95,1	11 4,9		
Smoking				
Once a week or less	1215 96,7	42 3,3	64,850	0,000
More than once a day	7 53,8	6 46,2		
Alcohol				
Once a week or less	1139	42 3,6	41,258	0,000
More than once a day	96,4 21 72,4	8 27,6		
Becoming Drunk				
Three times and less	1161 96,5	42 3,5	13,206	0,000
More than three times	45 86,5	7 13,5		

When Table 1 is examined, it is seen that the students who using an illegal substance or not, do not differ according to gender, place of birth, monthly income of the family, year loss, mother's education level and father's education level. Regarding cigarettes, alcohol use and drunkenness, it was found that those who smoked 1 or less a day, those who drink 1 or less alcohol a week, and those who become drunk less than 3 times a week were more likely to use illegal substances.

Table 2 shows the results of logistic regression analysis of the risk factors that are effective in the use of illegal DPM in middle school students.

Table 2. Investigation of the risk factors that are effective in the use of illegal DPM in middle school students by logistic regression analysis

Sociodemographic variables	Pre-Test	95% Confidence Interval
Sex (female/male)	1,403	(0,732-2,488)
Passing the class (failed / passed)	1,742	(0,893-3,399)
Place of birth (Turkey/Cyprus)	1,450	(0,787-2,671)
Age (14 and above/13-12-11 years old)	1,501	(0,835-2,697)
Mothers' education (high school and above/below)	1,927	(0,791-4,694)
Fathers' education (high school and above/below)	1,851	(0,601-5,703)
Monthly income of the family (2000 and above/below)	1,588	(0,511-4,936)
Smoking (more than once a day/less)	24,796	(7,986-76,989)**
Drinking alcohol (more than once a week/less)	10,331	(4,326-24,674)**
Being drunk (more than once a week/less)	4,300	(1,831-10,098)**

* $p < 0,05$, ** $p < 0,01$

When Table 2 is examined; it is seen that the monthly income of the family, father's level of education, mother's level of education, age, place of birth, grade and gender variables are not a risk factor of illegal using, however, smoking, alcohol use and becoming drunk 3 times a week represents risk factors in the use of DPM.

Discussion

This study reveals that substance use among middle school youth is an important problem in the TRNC. This study was carried out to determine the prevalence of substance use among the secondary school youth in TRNC (Çakıcı et al., 2001), and as it includes all secondary schools, refers to the same age group and consists of the same questions; serves as a 15 year old follow-up survey and has enabled us to monitor the changes of the rates in substance preferences in the TRNC.

The survey shows that, 8.7% of students tried smoking at least once in their life. In 2001, this ratio was found to be 19.7% among third-year students (Çakıcı et al., 2001) and the rate among middle school students was 12.4%. Similarly, in another study conducted in Turkey, 29.3% of students reported using cigarettes at least once in their life (Özcebe, 2008). In the ESPAD project which includes 26 countries (Hibell et al., 1997) in 1995, 31 countries (Hibell et al., 2000) in 1999 and 36 countries (Hibell et al., 2012), the rate of smoking among students in the TRNC as well as Turkey, shown to be lower compared to the results of studies done in the same age group with similar method in ESPAD countries.

In the study, 36.3% of alcohol use was observed among young people at least once in their life. The prevalence of the use of alcohol was found to be 61.9% (Çakıcı et al., 2001) In a previous survey conducted among the middle school students and in this study, it was determined that the alcohol consumption rate use was 49.3% in the same age group. However, alcohol use was found to be at higher levels when compared to previous studies. It seems that; young people in Croatia, Estonia, Italy, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Ukraine and Turkey are using alcohol in their homes as they are in the TRNC. In Denmark, the Faroe Islands, Finland, Iceland, Lithuania and Norway, the most used places are friends' houses; in South Cyprus and Czech Republic mostly used places are discos, in Ireland it is bars and in Bulgaria they use it in pubs and far from family control Çakıcı et al., 2015, Simatwa, 2014).

In the secondary school study in the TRNC, we learned that the rate of middle school students using DPM at least once in their life was 5.8% in 2001 and in 2015 it was 5.5%, a similar rate among young people. DPM ratio was found to be 4.9% among all middle school students. Nevertheless, it is observed that illegal drug use rate has increased to 3.9%. According to NIDA's research report in 2011, half of the adolescents were found to use illegal substances at least once (Murphey, Barry, Vaughn, Guzman

and Terzian, 2013) despite the challenges on collecting data on illegal substance use in adolescents.

Bonsai has become the most popular ingredient in recent years. The use of bonsai is spreading very rapidly in the TRNC in recent years, since it is cheap. In recent years, it has been seen that the use of synthetic cannabinoids is spreading and replacing the cannabis and ecstasy (Doğan and Demirci, 2014). However, 0,9% of ecstasy and 0,9% of cannabis use in this study revealed that ecstasy and cannabis use was less than synthetic cannabinoid usage compared to previous studies. It was determined that the overall rate of synthetic cannabinoid use was 0,8% in this study, and the rate of synthetic cannabinoid use was 0,6% among third grade middle school students.

There is an upward trend in cannabis use among young people in schools for years. On the other hand, it was observed that the rate of cannabis use in this study was 0,9% and 0,8% among third grade middle school students. It has been found that cannabis use rate was 2.7% in high schools and 2.9% in overall community (Çakıcı et al., 2015, Çakıcı et al., 2003). Contrary to the results of previous surveys, all previous reports, school researches and studies on addicts show that most used illegal substance in the TRNC is cannabis (Çakıcı, 1999, Çakıcı and Çakıcı, 2000a, 2000b, Çakıcı et al., 2003, Çakıcı et al. 2000, Çakıcı et al., 2006, Çakıcı et al., 2015).

In this study, it was found that the rate of volatile substance use among middle school students was 1.6% and 1.8% among third grade middle school students. Although volatile substance use tends to decline over the years, it is still the most common substance after cigarettes and alcohol. The study also shows that volatile substance use, follows after pill use (diazem etc.) for treatment and the use of other pills. The fact that volatile substances are easier to find and cheaper than other substances may be helping these substances to spread (Pandina and Hendren, 1999). It is seen that the most commonly used substance after cigarettes and alcohol are volatile substances in the studies carried out in Turkey (Yazman, 1995; Ögel et al., 2001, Ögel et al., 2005).

The use of sedative-hypnotic tablets among young people has shown increase in 1996 to 1999(Çakıcı ve Çakıcı, 2000a), however it's been stable since 2004 (Çakıcı and Çakıcı, 2000b). According to NIDA's research report in 2011, it was found that 22% of the 12th-year-olds tried prescription drugs at least once in their life without medical supervision (Murphey et al., 2013). And in this study, the rate of pill use (diazem, etc.) for treatment was found to be 2.1%, the use of other pills was 2.2%, and the use of some

pills with alcohol was 1.2%. In addition, among the third grade middle school students; the use of treatment pill (diazem etc.) was determined as 2.1%, the use of other pills was 2.5% and the use of some pills with alcohol was 1.8%. It has been determined that the rate of pill use for treatment (diazem etc.) and the use of other pills has increased compared to previous years according to previous findings. It was thought that the use of these pills would be reduced by the introduction of the doctor's prescription to these sedative-hypnotic pills which can be controlled by the Ministry of Health of the TRNC and sold with three copies of green prescriptions which was free to be provided from pharmacies without the need for a doctor's prescription until 2000 (Çakıcı et al., 2015; Karaokçu, 2000; Çakıcı, 1999). According to this study, there is still an increase in the use of therapeutic tablets (diazem, etc.) and other tablets, therefore it suggests that there may be a corresponding increase, since these tablets are present in the students' homes, and therefore easy to access.

The prevalence of lifetime use of cocaine, heroin, amphetamine, LSD, ecstasy and anabolic steroid was found as 0.5-0.9% in the study. When the prevalence of the use of these substances among middle school third grade students was examined, it shows that the rate of cocaine was 0.4%, heroin was 0.4%, amphetamine was 1.0%, LSD was 0.8%, ecstasy was 1.2% and anabolic steroids was 1.0%. These findings are higher than the rates of 0.2-0.6% in 1996 (Çakıcı and Çakıcı, 2000a) and 0.3-0.7% in 1999 (Çakıcı and Çakıcı, 2000b). A threefold increase in the use of ecstasy from 1996 to 2004, the substance used in the highest proportion among these substances, is noticeable. In 2011, the study showed a decrease in the use of ecstasy, but this study found that the rate of use was 0,9%. Until 2004, the use of ecstasy was increased due to the absence of ecstasy in the TRNC laws as an illegal substance, but after it is outlawed as an illegal substance in 2004, there was a tendency to decrease in the ecstasy use from 2004 to 2011. However, as has been the case in recent years, there has been a rapid increase in the use of ecstasy and similar stimulants among young people in the TRNC (Yazman, 1995, Johnston et al., 2000, Yacoubian et al., 2002, UNODC, 2004). According to the research report in 2011, it has been determined that the most frequently used substances in the last 30 days by 8 to 12 graders; are cannabis, amphetamines, volatiles and hallucinogens (ecstasy and LSD) (Murphey et al., 2013).

In this study, the rate of substance testing of male students was higher than that of female students. Similar trends have been observed in all school surveys (Çakıcı and Çakıcı, 2000a; 2000b). Turkey (Ögel et al., 2005), European countries (Hibell et al., 1997) and USA (Johnston, 2000) have also been found to have a higher use rate among males. In this study, it was

observed that the use of sedative-hypnotic pills rate was found to be about the same rate in male and female students, unlike recent years. In 1996, 1999 and 2004 high-school studies also found that the use of sedative-hypnotic pills was higher among females than among males (Çakıcı and Çakıcı, 2000a; 2000b). In the 1999 ESPAD study, male students were more likely to use in South Cyprus, while females in Czech Republic, Poland, France, Lithuania, Hungary, Portugal, Romania and Bulgaria had higher rates of use (Hibell et al., 2000). Ögel (2005) reports that sedative-hypnotic pills are drugs that can be found at home and that these drugs can also be easily accessed by girls. It is known that volatile substances and sedative-hypnotic drugs are used more commonly among students since they are easy to access (Çakıcı et al., 2001).

The results of the study indicate that the rate of psychoactive substance use among young people in TRNC is lower than in European countries, however there is an increase in illegal substance use. It also shows that the tendency of using many psychoactive substances has increased. The fact that alcohol rates are especially high in TRNC teenagers, suggests that alcohol use should be focused on in the preventive programs. The increase in non-therapeutic use of prescription pills reveals the need to raise awareness of the families of young people. Also for the DPM; counter measures should be taken against the use of volatile substances, cannabis, synthetic cannabinoids and ecstasy. Repeated prevalence studies within the middle schools in the TRNC, can able us to monitor the changes in the substance use rates in the TRNC and show us which topics should be emphasized in the preventive programs by determining the preferred substances.

This study covers all middle school classes. However, a group of similar aged young people who do not attend school are out of coverage. In order to be able to demonstrate the psychoactive substance use profile of the TRNC youth; studies that include young people with a wider age range and who are not continuing their education, should be performed.

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POLICE INTEGRITY IN THE TURKISH REPUBLIC OF NORTHERN CYPRUS: NARCOTICS AND PREVENTION OF SMUGGLING DIRECTORATE POLICE OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS

Osman KAYABAŞI*

Abstract

Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate, which is one of the twelve police directorates in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) Police Organization, is the police unit that combating drugs in TRNC. This article explores Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate police officers' perceptions about police ethics in TRNC, by using the second version of international police integrity questionnaire developed by Klockars and colleagues. The questionnaire administered to police officers which employed in Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate in December 2013. Firstly, police officers evaluated eleven hypothetical scenarios. After reviewing each scenario, the respondents were asked to report; own and others' evaluations of its seriousness, knowledge of official rules, views about appropriate and expected discipline, and own and others' willingness to report the misconduct. The respondents evaluated scenarios described in the questionnaire to range in seriousness from the least serious to the most serious. Unlike the results of similar surveys, in three scenarios (failure to arrest friend with warrant, cover-up of police driving under the influence accident, and sergeant fails to halt beating of child abuser) respondents tended to have a higher view of the integrity of colleagues compared to their own position. According to the results most of the respondents supported and expected dismissal for the theft of knife from crime scene and auto-body shop 5% kickback scenarios; they only supported dismissal for unjustifiable use of deadly force scenario; and they only expected dismissal for false report on drug on dealer scenario. Although most of the respondents supported and expected some discipline for the rest scenarios described in the questionnaire. We also measured the contours of the code of silence and found that the code was much stronger for the behaviors evaluated as the least serious and the weakest for the behaviors evaluated as the most serious. Finally, we found that, most of the respondents believed that other officers in their directorate would be much more likely to protect all these behaviors -except unjustifiable use of deadly force, verbal abuse, cover-up of police driving under the influence accident, and sergeant fails to halt beating of child abuser - in the code of silence than they themselves would.

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Introduction

The island of Cyprus is located in the intersection of Europe-Asia and Africa. Politically and culturally it is European whereas it is geographically Middle Eastern. It is the third largest island in the Mediterranean Sea. TRNC is located in the north of island and declared independency in 1983¹. TRNC has 35.04 % of the territory of the island with 3242 km² land area (İlseven et al., 2012: 6). According to the results of the census that was performed in December of 2011, de-facto population of TRNC is 294,396 inhabitants (SPO, 2012: 2)². The Gross National Product per capita is \$-13,721 in 2015 (SPO, 2017: 3). The official language is Turkish and the capital is Nicosia³, while currency used is the Turkish Lira. The main population of the TRNC is consist of the Turkish Cypriot natives and Anatolian-rooted Turkish immigrants⁴, and islam is the most dominant religion in the TRNC⁵. Due to its historic background and experiences, the power of central administration is deeply rooted in TRNC.

The police organization in TRNC is lead by the Prime Minister through the Commander of the Security Forces Commandership (Police Law, 1984: Article 3). The Police fulfill their functions under the Commander of Security Forces. The Commander of Security Forces is responsible for the overall work performance, administration, supervision, and inspection of the organization (Police Law, 1984: Article 3). The organization has central and district forces. District organization consists of 5 district police

¹ Turkish Cypriots established various political governing bodies under the names of: "General Committee" (from 21 December 1963 to 28 December 1967); "Temporary Cyprus Turkish Administration" (from 28 December 1967 to 21 December 1971); "Cyprus Turkish Administration" (from 21 December 1971 to 1 October 1974); "Autonomous Cyprus Turkish Administration" (from 1 October 1974 to 13 February 1975); and the Turkish Federate State of Cyprus (from 13 February 1975 to 15 November 1983) until 1983 (MONEYAS, 2010: 47). In this period, prior they accepted Basic Rules in 28 December 1967 as a miniature constitution, and after the Peace Operation they accepted the Turkish Federate State of Cyprus Constitution in 8 June 1975 (TFSC Constitution, 1975). Finally, Turkish Cypriots declared the establishment of the TRNC, and accepted the TRNC Constitution in 5 May 1985 (TRNC Constitution, 1985).

² 2015 estimate population of TRNC is 326,158 inhabitants (A new mid-year population estimate series has been prepared based on the 2006 and 2011 Population and Housing Unit Census) (SPO, 2017: 3).

³ The TRNC is divided into six districts namely Nicosia (Lefkoşa), Famagusta (Gazimağusa), Kyrenia (Girne), Morphou (Güzelyurt), Trikomo (İskele), and Lefka (Lefke).

⁴ Additional population of the island is consist of the laborers from Turkey and from other countries and students from different countries -at most from Turkey- who came over to pursue educational opportunities. In addition 311 Cypriot Greeks (Dayıoğlu, 2014: 37) and 156 Cypriot Maronites lives in TRNC (Dayıoğlu, 2014: 89).

⁵ Turkish Cypriot natives and Anatolian-rooted Turkish immigrants are Muslims, Cypriot Greeks are Orthodox Christians, and Cypriot Maronites are Maronite Christians.

directorates reporting to the 1st Assistant Chief of Police. Central organization has 12 directorates, out of which 3 report directly to Chief Commandant of Police and 9 report to 1st Assistant Chief of Police. Central organization has also the Supervisory Board and the Research and Development Unit reporting to the 2nd Assistant Chief of Police. Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate, which is one of the 3 police directorates that report directly to Chief Commandant of Police, is combating drugs in TRNC.

This research explores the contours of police integrity among the police officers in the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate in TRNC. It begins with a short history of policing in Cyprus and TRNC Police. Then, it gives information about the foundation and development of the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate and how it fights against drugs in TRNC. After that it explains the methodology of the measurement of police integrity. Finally, the study provides a measurement of the level of police integrity among the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate police officers.

Short History of Policing in Cyprus and TRNC Police

The history of the police in Cyprus began in the Ottomans period (1571-1878)⁶. When the administration of the island was handed over from Ottoman Empire to the United Kingdom in 1878, there was already a security force on the island, which was called “Zaptiah Organization” consisting of mostly the Turks (Kayabaşı, 2016). This organization was reorganised in few years by the British and became known as the “Cyprus Military Police Force” (Kayabaşı, 2016). During the restructuring in 1st January 1935, the title of the Police was changed from the “Cyprus Military Police” to the “Cyprus Police Force” and the police uniforms, training, standards, ranks, and equipment also changed (King, 1936: 4).

After the Greek Cypriot police officers’ decisions to support a faction of National Organization of Cypriot Fighters (Ethniki Organosis Kyprion Agoniston (Eoka⁷)) which was formed on 1st April 1955, which resulted in police failure to prevent crimes, a group of British police experts, the

⁶ For more information see KAYABAŞI, Osman (2016). The Building Of The Cyprus Military Police During The Period Of Transition From The Ottoman Empire To The British Administration (1878-1881), “The 1st International Mediterranean Karpasia Symposium” In History Cyprus, April 11-13, 2016, Mediterranean Karpasia University, Journal Of History Studies, Turkish National Police Academy, Nicosia, TRNC.

⁷ Eoka was a Greek Cypriot nationalist guerrilla organization that fought a campaign for the end of British rule and also Turkish Cypriots in Cyprus, for the island’s self-determination, and for the eventual union with Greece.

“Cyprus Police Commission”, visited the island in 1956, to examine the organization and advised to implement the Anglo-Saxon law enforcement system (Armstrong, 1956: 1-48).

When the British government decided to evacuate the island, they revised the Police Law in 1958. In 1959, all laws enacted during United Kingdom colonial period was revised and published in 354 chapters and 6 volumes. Police Law was included in this publication, referred to as “Chapter 285, Police Law”. The British left in 1960 with two British military bases remaining on the island, and the administration was transferred to the Republic of Cyprus which was composed of two ethno-national communities (Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots).

Different from the United Kingdom colonial period, according to the Zurich and London Agreements which provided the legal base for the formation of the new republic, the new law enforcement was supposed to consist of two different organizations; police and gendarmerie. The staffs of the new organizations were supposed to be 70% Greek Cypriots and 30% Turkish Cypriots. When the creation of the new state was announced on 16th August 1960, Cyprus Police Force was also formed, urban areas being under the responsibility of the police and rural areas being under the responsibility of the gendarmerie. Commander of the police was Greek Cypriot and the commander of the gendarmerie was Turkish Cypriot.

On 21st December 1963, the reactivation of Eoka, resulted in disintegration between the Turkish Cypriot and Greek Cypriot communities of the island which forced the Turkish police officers to retreat to Turkish populated areas and Greek police officers to retreat to Greek populated areas. This enabled them, aside from providing law enforcement, to act as a defensive force for their population. The Turkish Cypriots established various political governing bodies until 1983 and the police officers performed their duties both in districts and center under the military commanders.

When military junta in Greece seized the power in the island in 1974 by a military coup that it made by using Greek National Guardian Army and Eoka-b⁸, Turkey fearing the safety of both the Turkish Cypriots and Greek Cypriots, initiated the “Peace Operation” and terminated the military administration. This operation was followed by a Ceasefire Agreement and

⁸ Eoka-b, was a Greek Cypriot paramilitary organization formed in 1971, and followed an ultra right-wing nationalistic ideology and had the ultimate goal of achieving the enosis (union) of Cyprus with Greece. Enosis refers to the movement of various Greek communities that live outside Greece, for incorporation of the regions they inhabit into the Greek state. Widely known is the case of the Greek Cypriots for union of Cyprus into Greece.

later Vienne Agreement which divided the island into two parts, Turkish Cypriots in the north and Greek Cypriots in the south of the island. The war-related experience exposed Turkish Cypriot police officers to considerable violence, while resulting in the relaxation of official rules and strengthening of the code of silence.

In 1976, police forces' connection to military commanders in the central administration and also in the districts ended and they were brought together under the umbrella of "Police Headquarters" that was formed under Commander of Security Forces. After the declaration of TRNC in 1983, Police Law, a residue from the United Kingdom colonial period was repealed and replaced by TRNC Police Organization (Establishment, Duty and Authority) Law (Law No 51/1984). The new republic's vision of a better security service was translated into recruitment of more officers and allocation of more financial resources to the police organization.

With the year 1991, cooperation with the Turkish National Police Academy was started, and resulted in some cadets being sent to Turkey for undergraduate police training and also some small scale improvements were made to the curriculum of basic police training course for police officers at TRNC Police School. With the opening of the borders between TRNC and the Greek Administration of South Cyprus in 2003, the interaction between the Turkish Cypriot and Greek Cypriot communities was renewed. In 2005, many women employed as civilian staff in the TRNC Police Organization, were deployed to the borders, which also changed the mainly man staffed gender distribution in the organization.

In 2009, to start the cooperation between two communities with regard to the internal security problems, "the Office for Information Exchange for Crimes and Criminals" was formed in the buffer zone that is under the responsibility of United Nations. In 2011, the "Financial Crimes Unit" was formed to strengthen the fight against corruption and other related offences. Towards the end of 2012, the police initiated the institutional reconstruction in the way of modernization.

The Foundation and Development of the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate and Fight Against Drugs in TRNC

After the conflict between the Turkish Cypriot and Greek Cypriot communities in the end of 1963, Turkish Cypriots established various political governing bodies until 1983. In this period they started to built

legislative, executive, and judgment institutions. In this context, to fight against drugs more effectively, Turkish Cypriot Administration repealed Chapter 248 “Dangerous Drugs Law” (Law No: 20, 1956) a residue from United Kingdom colonial period, and replaced “The Rule of Amending and Regulating the Laws Relating to Narcotics” in 1972 (Law No: 4, 1972). Following year, “Narcotic Drugs Regulation” entered into force (Regulation No: 21, 1973). After the legal regulations, Turkish Cypriots Administration went on with the reconditioning the executive regulations.

The struggle of the Turkish Cypriots against drugs was carried out by the District Security Directorates until the end of 1974 (Refik, 1974: 11). The foundation of the Directorate of Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling dates back to 23 November 1974 when an Operation Unit was founded to help the District Security Directorates for narcotics and prevention of smuggling activities (Hıfzı, 1975: 23).

In the following years, as there was an increase in offences related to illegal drugs, this Unit was renamed as Operations and Narcotics Supervisory Unit in 1984 in order to facilitate a more effective fight against these kind of crimes (Birgen, 1985: 39). In 2005, the Unit was transformed into a Directorate and renamed as Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate (PGM, 2006: 45). During 2005-2009, the Directorate of Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling conducted all of its duties and activities at a central building in Nicosia. However, in the beginning 2009, Narcotics agencies in Famagusta and Kyrenia were established under the surveillance of the directorate in order to perform its duties more effectively in the districts.

With the aim of enhancing controls at TRNC entry/exit ports, detection dogs have been used since 2003 with the contribution of the Turkish National Police from Turkey despite not being included in the foundational framework of Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate. The training of dogs and their handlers has been carried by TRNC since 2008. A modern centre for Detection Dog Training was built in 2009 for the use of dogs and their handlers. Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate carries out its activities directly under the auspices of the Chief Commandant of Police. The Directorate gathers information on investigations approved by the General Directorate of Police and carries out investigations, conducts operations and when needed, assists other directorates and units on relevant matters about drugs and prevention of smuggling.

The Metodology of the Measurement of Police Integrity

Klockars and Kutnjak Ivković designed a survey instrument -police integrity questionnaire- that measures the extent of police integrity, in 1995 (Kutnjak Ivković and Klockars, 1996; Klockars et al., 1997). Their questionnaire includes descriptions of 11 hypothetical scenarios, the majority of which address various forms of police corruption, from the acceptance of gratuities and gifts to opportunistic thefts and shakedowns. Each scenario is followed by the same series of 7 questions that asked officers to report; own and others' evaluations of its seriousness, knowledge of official rules, views about appropriate and expected discipline, and own and others' willingness to report the misconduct.

Over the span of the last 20 years the first version of the police integrity questionnaire has been applied in 23 countries, spanning continents, cultures, legal systems, and economic states (Kutnjak Ivković, 2015: 17). One of the study used the first questionnaire is the book "Contours of Police Integrity" (Klockars et al., 2004a) features chapters from 14 countries.

Klockars and colleagues argued that their original survey needed to be augmented if inquiry into police misconduct were to be extended beyond corruption motivated by personal gain (Klockars et al., 2000: 9-10). Carl B. Klockars, Sanja Kutnjak Ivković, and Maria R. Haberfeld (Klockars, 1999) developed the second version of the police integrity questionnaire in 1998, which includes scenarios that cover a variety of forms of police misconduct, from police corruption and use of excessive force to a failure to execute an arrest warrant and a falsification of the official record and planting of evidence. One of the study used the second questionnaire is the book "Measuring Police Integrity Across The World: Studies From Established Democracies And Countries In Transition" (Kutnjak Ivković and Haberfeld, 2015a) features chapters from 10 countries. Our research reports the results of the TRNC survey of police officers using the second version of the international police integrity questionnaire developed by Klockars and colleagues.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire includes 11 hypothetical scenarios, 5 of which describe examples of police corruption, 4 describe examples of the use of excessive force, 1 describes a failure to execute an arrest warrant, and 1 describes a falsification of the official record and planting of evidence.

Our study of police integrity in TRNC, was conducted in December 2013. The respondents were provided with a letter asking them to assume that the officer described in the scenarios had been a police officer for 5 years, had a satisfactory working record, and had not been disciplined in the past. The questionnaires were completed anonymously, and the questions regarding demographic information were kept to the absolute minimum.

Upon reading description of each hypothetical scenario, the respondents answered seven questions designed to measure the officers' personal views, as well as their assessments of their colleagues views, regarding the case. In particular, the respondents were asked to provide assessment of scenario seriousness, the anticipated and appropriate disciplinary action, and willingness to report police misconduct. Each question is followed by the possible answers ranging from a five- to a six – point Likert-scale. Most of the scales were kept in the original form, but the disciplinary scales had to be adjusted for the TRNC conditions. According to the TRNC Police Law (1984) for a misconduct, the following disciplinary penalties can be applied: 1= “None”, 2= “Warning”, 3= “Written Reprimand”, 4= “Short-term retention of promotion (up to 6 months)”, 5=“Long-term retention of promotion (up to 18 months)”, and 6= “Dismissal or demotion in rank”.

At the end of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked a few demographic questions. To increase the respondents' willingness to participate in the study and to exclude the possibility that respondents could be identified, demographic questions has been kept to a bare minimum, inquiring about the length of the respondents' police experience and current agency experience, rank, whether they were employed in a supervisory position. The question regarding the demographic information about rank was modified in accordance with the ranking system of the TRNC police.

Finally, the last two questions were asked the respondents to assess whether other police officers in their directorate would have provided truthful answers and whether they had done so themselves. We used the response to the latter question as a screen, for eliminating the filling questionnaires from further analyses which the respondents who had stated openly that their answers were not truthful.

The Sample

The study aiming at measuring occupational corruption perceptions and improving ethics perception was carried out in TRNC in the beginning of

December of 2013. Personnel working in the eight directorates affiliated to Police Headquarters central institution comprise population of the main study⁹. The directorates are: Administration Police, Criminal Investigation, Intelligence, Traffic, Immigration, Administrative and Personnel Affairs, Communication & IT., Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling; whereas Fire-fighters; Sea, Air and Ports; Police School; and Special Forces directorates are not included in the main study. This study includes only the results of the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate police officers' perceptions.

Personnel working in the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate comprise population of this study. Sample is designed to include all personnel of this directorate; except the chief of directorate. In the end, 32 of 37 officers or 86.5% of the population of police officers, employed in this directorate, filled out the surveys.

Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Our respondents were quite experienced police officers; only 18.8% had less than 6 years of total experience, and the majority of the respondents (81.2%) had more than 6 years of experience (Table 1). In the other hand, the majority of the respondents (75.1%) had less than 11 years of experience in the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate (Table 1). The majority (84.4%) of police officers in our sample are in the lower-rank group (police constable- police sergeant). In addition, 56.3% of the respondents were non-supervisor.

The last two questions in the questionnaire asks respondents whether they and their fellow police officers responded honestly while filling out the questionnaire. The overwhelming majority (71.9%) thought that their fellow officers would provide truthful answers. In the other hand, all of the participants reported that they personally had answered honestly, so we did not exclude any response from the further analyses.

⁹ For the main study see: KAYABAŞI, Osman (2017). The Contours of Police Integrity in The Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, II. International Symposium on Multidisciplinary Studies (ISMS), 18-21 May 2017, Rome, Italy.

Table 1: Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

	Number of Re- spondents	Percentage of Respondents (%)
Supervisory Role		
non-supervisor	18	56.3%
supervisor	14	43.8%
Length of service (total)		
3-5	6	18.8%
6-10	9	28.1%
11-15	6	18.8%
16-20	9	28.1%
over 20 years	2	6.3%
Length of service (current agency)		
Less than 1 year	3	9.4%
1-2	2	6.3%
3-5	7	21.9%
6-10	12	37.5%
11-15	5	15.6%
16-20	3	9.4%
Rank		
Police constable	19	59.4%
Police Sergeant	8	25.0%
Sub. Inspector	3	9.4%
Inspector	2	6.3%

Results

1. Perceptions of Misconduct Seriousness

After reviewing each scenario, the respondents were asked to evaluate how serious they perceive the behaviors described in the scenarios, as well as to estimate how serious most police officers in their agency would evaluate them¹⁰. They were offered answers on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “not at all serious” (1) to “very serious” (5). The results shown in Table 2, indicate that the respondents viewed each of these violations of their agency’s rules as serious. Specifically, the mean assessment of seriousness for each of the 11 scenarios was greater than the midpoint (3) of

¹⁰ The two questions were worded: “How serious do YOU consider this behavior to be?” and “How serious do MOST POLICE OFFICERS IN YOUR AGENCY consider this behavior to be?”.

the scale; in 10 scenarios (except scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI (3.28)), the mean was well above four (Table 2).

Although the degree to which the officers considered the scenarios serious, though high on average, varied greatly across the scenarios. Evaluations on seriousness ranged from scenario 3 (describing the theft of a knife from the crime scene) as the most serious and scenario 8 (describing cover-up of police DUI) as the least serious (Table 2). The respondents' evaluations of seriousness of 11 scenarios could be classified into three categories: the least serious, intermediate seriousness, and the most serious scenarios.

Based on respondents' responses four behaviors (scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident; scenario 6: officer strikes a prisoner who hurt partner; scenario 11: Stg. fails to halt beating; and scenario 7: verbal abuse "arrest an asshole day") were identified as the least serious forms of police misconduct covered by the questionnaire.

Even though the given scenarios describe the severe forms of police misconduct, scenario 8 (cover-up of police DUI), which is a form of police corruption, one involving internal corruption from Barker and Roebuck's classification (1973). Prior research on police integrity (Klockars et al., 2004b: 14) shows that internal corruption has been classified as one of the least serious forms of police corruption. In their analysis of the application of the second questionnaire, Kutnjak Ivković and Haberfeld (2015b: 342) document that the respondents in 8 out of 10 countries evaluated the cover-up of police DUI accident among the three least serious scenarios.

On the other hand, it is surprising that the two scenarios that involve officer misuse of force (scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner; and scenario 11: Stg. fails to halt beating child abuser) were evaluated as the least serious scenarios in the questionnaire. These two scenarios which are examples of the empty hand control and located in the middle of the force continuum; evaluated as less serious than the verbal coercion (scenario 7: verbal abuse of motorist) which can be viewed as belonging to the start of the force continuum.

Out of the four scenarios that can be classified as scenarios of intermediate seriousness (the values of means are between 4.25 and 4.50), one describes gifts from merchants (scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants), while the other is scenario 2 (fail to arrest friend with warrant) depict violation of professional conduct by police officers. In this group, both of unjustifiable use of deadly force (scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force), and falsification of the official report (scenario 10: false report on drug on

dealer) scenarios are the two scenarios which are at the border of most serious scenarios with the values of means 4.5. Keeping in mind that deadly force is at the top of the use of force continuum, it is by no means surprising to see that the respondents evaluated the use of deadly force as the most serious scenario describing the use of force scenarios and, at the same time it is surprising that the abuse of deadly force was evaluated as the intermediate seriousness level.

On the other end of the scale, with mean values ranging from higher than 4.5 to 5 (Table 2), respondents placed three scenarios which they considered to be the most serious types of misconduct. These scenarios include the theft of a knife from a crime scene (scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene), the acceptance of a kickback (scenario 9: auto body shop %5 kickback), and a biased allocation of services (scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands). Out of those three most serious scenarios, theft from a crime scene (scenario 3), which encompasses not only the abuse of power for personal gain, but also the abuse of trust by citizens put in a vulnerable position by a crime, was evaluated as the most serious in this group. In their analysis of the application of the second questionnaire in 10 countries, Kutnjak Ivković and Haberfeld (2015b: 340) document that the respondents in virtually every country (Armenia, Australia, Croatia, Estonia, Slovenia, South Africa, South Korea, Thailand, and USA) other than Russia evaluated the theft of knife from crime scene as the most serious out of all 11 scenarios. This uniformity should not be surprising, opportunistic theft is among the most serious forms of corruption in Roebuck and Barker's typology of corruption (1974). Furthermore, in their analysis of the application of the first questionnaire in 14 countries, Klockars et al. (2004b: 14) document that an earlier version of this scenario, describing a theft of watch from the crime scene, that the respondents from almost every country evaluated it as the most serious or second serious scenario.

Similarly the acceptance of a kickback (scenario 9) was another scenario which well deserves to be on the serious side of the scale. Also scenario 9 illustrating traditional form of corruption in which a police officer abuses his official position to obtain an illegal kickback (Roebuck and Barker, 1974).

It is surprising to see that scenario 5 (supervisor offers holiday for errands) is in the same group. This could be probably explained that they might have identified themselves with the officers who would have replaced the corrupt officer in our scenarios. In other words, our respondents are potentially

reacting harshly not to the supervisor conduct, but to the direct consequences of the corrupt transaction, which they envision facing themselves or potentially might have already faced in real life.

The fact that a case of internal corruption (scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands) is considered more serious scenario than both scenario 4 (unjustifiable use of deadly force) and scenario 10 (planting drugs on a drug dealer and falsifying the official record) is surprising. Particularly in light of the fact that scenario 4 describing the abuse of the most severe form of force –unjustifiable use of deadly force- and scenario 10 describing another severe form of corruption -planting drugs on a drug dealer and falsifying the official record- in the second group. This could be probably explained by the fact that our respondents are working in the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate that fight against drug dealers and justification given for the activity – a dose of “street justice”- probably contributing toward making it less serious in the eyes of police officers than it should be.

A comparison of the respondents’ own estimates of seriousness and how serious they estimated that other police officers in their directorate would evaluate the same scenarios revealed several findings.

First, for each scenario (except from scenario 2, 8 and 11), the respondents evaluated these scenarios as more serious than they thought the other police officers would; the means for evaluations of own seriousness were generally (except from scenario 2, 8 and 11) higher than the means for others’ estimates of seriousness. Second, there were not statistically significant differences between the means measuring own estimates of seriousness and the means measuring others’ estimates of seriousness. On the other hand, all of the mean differences were small (above the 0.50)¹¹. Third, the relative order of the scenarios, measured through the ranking of the scenarios, suggests that police officers followed approximately the same internal order of seriousness. In fact, the Spearman’s correlation between the rankings of own estimates of seriousness and others’ estimates of seriousness is very high (Spearman’s correlation coefficient = 0.902, $p < 0.001$).

¹¹ Klockars and colleagues, “employed a rule of thumb which was to regard mean differences of less than 0.5 as not meaningful even though a simple t-test establishes the difference as significant” (Klockars et al., 2006: 26).

2. Assessment of Rule Violations

As part of the evaluation of each scenario, the officers from the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate were asked whether the hypothetical cases violates the official rules¹². They could select an answer a five-point Likert scale, ranging from “definitely not” (1) to “definitely yes” (5).

The portion of affirmative answers, shown in Table 2, demonstrates that most of the police officers from the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate correctly evaluated the described behaviors as violations of official rules. The respondents’ evaluations of scenarios suggest that the most of the scenarios were considered rule-violating behaviors with means clustered in the center (3.50 to 4.69 point scale) (Table 2). More than three fourths of the respondents (76.15% on average across the 11 scenarios) selected either “4” or “5” on the questionnaire and, thus, affirmed that the behavior described in the scenarios violated the agency’s rules.

However, the percentages of police officers who did so varied across scenarios, from the scenarios in which a slim majority (56.3%) evaluated the behavior as rule violating (scenario 7: verbal abuse “arrest an asshole day”) to the scenarios in which the overwhelming majority (90.6%) did the same in three scenarios (scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene; scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands; and scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer) (Table 2).

Similar to the rankings of own and other police officer’s seriousness, the ranking of violation of official rules can be also categorized into three groups: the least, intermediate, and the most violation of official rules.

Based on respondents’ responses, four behaviors (scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident; scenario 7: verbal abuse “arrest an asshole day”; scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner; and scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating) were viewed as the least serious violation of official rules, similarly in the same group (the least serious scenarios) of respondents own seriousness.

Out of the four scenarios that can be classified as scenarios of intermediate level (the values of means are between 4.16 and 4.50) one describes with

¹² The question was worded: “Would this behavior be regarded as a violation of official policy in your agency?”.

minor forms of police corruption, such as the acceptance of gratuities (scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants), another one describes misconduct by a supervisor (scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands) while the others (scenario 2: fail to arrest friend with warrant, and scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force) describes depict violation of professional conduct by police officers. These scenarios were identified as intermediate level of violating official rules.

Scenarios ranked highest for the most serious violation of official rules were scenario 9 (auto-body shop 5% kickback), scenario 10 (false report on drug on dealer), and scenario 3 (theft of knife from crime scene).

Why would some of the respondents have problems recognizing some of these scenarios as violations of official rules? It is possible that a substantial minority of the police officers do not know the official rules. On the other hand, it is possible that the officers from the Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate may meet on the grounds of seeing some force continuum as a right for their agency to solve the criminal activity about drug trafficking. However, in three of four use of force continuum scenarios (scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner (34.4%); scenario 7: verbal abuse “arrest an asshole day” (28.1%); and scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating (28.1%)) almost one third of the police officers seem to be unsure of whether the behaviors constitute violations of official rules (Table 2).

Finally, the respondents' evaluations of whether the behavior constitutes a violation of official rules is strongly related to how serious they perceive the behavior; the more serious they evaluate the behavior, the more likely they are to evaluate it as rule-violating. The ranking of scenarios based on their evaluations of seriousness and the ranking of scenarios based on their evaluations of rule-violating nature of the behavior are very similar (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.943; $p < 0.001$).

Table 2. Police Officers Perceptions Of Seriousness And Violations Of Rules

Scenario number and description	Own seriousness		Others' seriousness		Mean difference (own -others)	Paired t-test	P	Violation of rules				
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank				Yes (%)	No (%)	Not sure (%)	Mean Rank	
	Scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants	4.25	5.0	4.00	4.0	0.25	1.679	.103	75	9.4	15.6	4.16
Scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant	4.41	6.0	4.50	9.0	-0.09	-0.828	.414	78.1	9.4	12.5	4.34	6.5
Scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene	4.75	11.0	4.65	11.0	0.10	1.791	.083	90.6	3.1	6.3	4.69	11
Scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force	4.50	7.5	4.38	6.0	0.12	1.277	.211	81.3	12.5	6.3	4.34	6.5
Scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands	4.59	9.0	4.41	7.0	0.18	1.982	.056	90.6	9.4	0	4.50	8
Scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner	4.03	2.0	3.91	2.0	0.12	1.277	.211	59.4	6.3	34.4	3.94	3
Scenario 7: verbal abuse- "Arrest An Asshole Day"	4.12	4.0	3.97	3.0	0.15	1.646	.110	56.3	15.6	28.1	3.84	2
Scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident	3.28	1.0	3.31	1.0	-0.03	-0.297	.768	59.4	25.0	15.6	3.50	1
Scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback	4.69	10.0	4.56	10.0	0.13	1.277	.211	87.5	3.1	9.4	4.56	9.5
Scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer	4.50	7.5	4.47	8.0	0.03	0.373	.712	90.6	6.3	3.1	4.56	9.5
Scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating of child abuser	4.06	3.0	4.13	5.0	-0.07	-0.701	.488	68.8	3.1	28.1	4.03	4

Stig Sergeant, DUI driving under the influence

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Answers "4" and "5" were grouped together as "yes", answers "1" and "2" as "no", and answer "3" as "not sure"

Table 3. Views About Appropriate Discipline (Should) And Expected Discipline (Would)

Scenario number and description	Should	Mode	Rank should	Rank would	Mean	None	Some Discipline	Dismissal	Chi-square test	P	Phi
Scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants	Should	Warning	1-7		2.66	15.6%	75.0%	9.4%	38.976***	.000	1.104
	Would	Warning		1-7	2.78	15.6%	78.1%	6.3%			
Scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant	Should	Warning	1-7		3.72	37.5%	59.4%	21.9%	21.164***	.000	0.813
	Would	Warning		1-7	3.69	31.3%	53.1%	15.6%			
Scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene	Should	Dismissal	9-11		5.25	12.5%	31.2%	56.3%	8.780**	.003	0.524
	Would	Dismissal		9-11	5.25	3.1%	53.1%	43.8%			
Scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force	Should	Dismissal	9-11		4.69	3.1%	59.4%	37.5%	39.326***	.000	1.109
	Would	Long-Term Retention		8	4.56	6.3%	62.4%	31.3%			
Scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands	Should	Warning	1-7		3.56	6.3%	84.3%	9.4%	52.543***	.000	1.281
	Would	Warning		1-7	3.31	9.4%	81.2%	9.4%			
Scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner	Should	Warning	1-7		2.81	12.5%	78.1%	9.4%	35.429***	.000	1.052
	Would	Warning		1-7	2.78	6.3%	87.4%	6.3%			
Scenario 7: verbal abuse- "Arrest An Asshole Day"	Should	Warning	1-7		2.59	21.9%	68.7%	9.4%	25.129***	.000	0.886
	Would	Warning		1-7	2.40	21.9%	71.8%	6.3%			
Scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident	Should	Warning	1-7		2.66	25.0%	31.3%	6.3%	42.396***	.000	1.151
	Would	Warning		1-7	2.75	25.0%	34.4%	9.4%			
Scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback	Should	Dismissal	9-11		4.28	25.0%	65.6%	40.6%	27.109***	.000	0.935
	Would	Dismissal		9-11	4.45	22.6%	64.5%	41.9%			
Scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer	Should	Short-Term Retention	8		4.13	18.8%	40.7%	21.9%	26.880***	.000	0.917
	Would	Dismissal		9-11	4.22	3.1%	28.1%	25.0%			
Scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating of child abuser	Should	Warning	1-7		3.52	9.7%	25.8%	16.1%	40.067***	.000	1.137
	Would	Warning		1-7	3.55	6.5%	29.1%	22.6%			

Stg Sergeant, DUI driving under the influence

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

3. Perceptions of Appropriate and Expected Discipline

In addition to emphasizing the communication of official rules, the organizational theory of police integrity predicts that the disciplinary actions taken by an agency play a key role in shaping that department's overall integrity levels (Kutnjak Ivković et al. 2015: 317). Accordingly, the respondents were asked to select the discipline appropriate for the behaviors described in the scenarios as well as to select the discipline they thought their agency would mete out in such cases¹. Based on the norms of the TRNC Police Law (1984), the answers offered in the questionnaire included: "none" (no discipline), "warning", "written reprimand", "short-term retention of promotion", "long-term retention of promotion", and "dismissal or demotion in rank".

We first explored the respondents' views of the appropriate discipline for the misbehaviors described in the questionnaire. We used four different approaches: modes, ranks, means, and percentages². Similar to the case of evaluation of seriousness opinions on the appropriate discipline also vary across scenarios.

Among the different appropriate disciplines described in the questionnaire, "warning" appeared to be the most frequently regarded as an appropriate discipline that should follow in case an officer is engaged in inappropriate behaviors (this was the fact in seven cases: scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants; scenario 2: failing to arrest friend with warrant; scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands; scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner; scenario 7: verbal abuse "Arrest An Asshole Day"; scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident; and scenario 11: supervisor fails to halt beating).

Short-term retention in promotion as the appropriate sanction was selected only in one scenario. Respondents thought that scenario 10 (false report on drug dealer) was the case when retaining an officer from promotion up to six months should be the proper form of disciplinary sanction. According to respondents' modal responses, the three scenarios in which the dismissal should be considered the appropriate discipline were scenario 3 (theft of

¹ The two questions were worded: "If an officer in your agency engaged in this behavior and was discovered doing so, what if any, discipline do you think SHOULD follow?" and "If an officer in your agency engaged in this behavior and was discovered doing so, what if any, discipline do you think WHOULD follow?"

² The answers were reclassified the following way: "none" remained "none", "dismissal or demotion in rank" was shortened as "dismissal", and all the other disciplinary options ("warning", "written reprimand", "short-term retention of promotion", "long-term retention of promotion") were reclassified as "some discipline other than dismissal".

knife from crime scene), scenario 4 (unjustifiable use of deadly force), and scenario 9 (auto-body shop 5 % kickback).

By comparing the respondents' views on the appropriate discipline and their expectation of the agency's actual response, the police integrity survey offers a gauge of whether the officers perceive the agency's discipline as fair (Kutnjak Ivković et al. 2015: 319). The officers' modal judgments on what they viewed as appropriate and what they expected the agency to choose to implement for a discipline did not differ for nine of the scenarios (Table 3). It means that the officers perceive the agency's discipline as fair in these nine scenarios.

Our respondents thought that a police officer who use force continuum (scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force) should attract more harsher discipline, and must meting out a "dismissal or demotion in rank". At the same time, they expected that the agency would discipline somewhat lenient, and receive a "long-term retention" instead. On the other hand, respondents thought that a police officer who are planting drugs on a drug dealer and falsifying the official record (scenario 10 : false report on drug on dealer) should receive only a "short-term retention". But, at the same time, they expected that the agency would discipline somewhat more harshly, meting out a "dismissal or demotion in rank" instead. According to modals, respondents perceive the agency's discipline as lenient in scenario 4 (unjustifiable use of deadly force), and as harsh in scenario 10 (false report on drug on dealer).

The correlation between the two rankings of modal values suggests a very strong correlation (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.950; $p < 0.001$). The police integrity survey allows for a test of whether the officers' evaluation of the seriousness of the misconduct influenced their advocacy and expectation of more severe discipline. In this study, the officers' assessments of both appropriate and expected discipline were closely related to their evaluations of scenario seriousness. Support for a positive relation was demonstrated by the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between modal appropriate discipline and the mean seriousness of the misconduct (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.737; $p < 0.05$) and between modal expected discipline and the mean seriousness of the misconduct (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.737; $p < 0.05$).

To further compare the respondents' views on appropriate versus expected agency discipline, we compared the respondents' mean responses (Table 3). According to the means, in the five scenarios (scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant, scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force,

scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands, scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner, scenario 7: verbal abuse “arrest an asshole day”), the officers expected agency discipline on average would be milder than they perceived as appropriate. On the other hand, in the five scenarios (scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants, scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident, scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback, scenario 10: false report on drug dealer, scenario 11: Stg. fails to halt beating of child abuser), the officers expected agency discipline on average would be harsher than they perceived as appropriate. In one scenario (scenario 3: theft of knife from crime), the mean values of appropriate and expected discipline are the same (5.25). The mean responses were differing from the past police integrity surveys of USA police agencies (see Klockars et al., 2006; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2013, Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2015) which found that most officers perceived the appropriate discipline to be slightly lighter than the discipline they expected their police agency would mete out.

Nonetheless, none of those cases have a difference between mean responses that meets the rule of thumb on meaningful differences between mean survey responses of 0.5 (Klockars et al., 2006: 26), with the respondents expecting that the discipline the agency would mete out would be neither less nor more severe than it should have been (Table 3).

Table 4: Police Officers Perceptions of Willingness to Report

Scenario Number & Description	Own Willingness to Report		Others' Willingness to Report		Mean Difference (Own - Others)	t-test	p	Own Willingness to Report		
	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank				Yes (%)	No (%)	Not sure (%)
	Scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants	3.63	5.5	3.06				1.5	0.57	1.982
Scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant	4.31	8	4.03	8	0.28	2.329*	.027	81.3	6.3	12.5
Scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene	4.69	11	4.56	11	0.13	1.161	.255	90.7	6.3	3.1
Scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force	3.63	5.5	3.78	6	-0.15	-1.408	.169	53.1	18.8	28.1
Scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands	4.09	7	3.97	7	0.12	1.072	.292	75	9.4	15.6
Scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner	3.31	3	3.25	3	0.06	0.626	.536	46.9	34.4	18.8
Scenario 7: verbal abuse- "Arrest An Asshole Day"	3.19	2	3.28	4	-0.09	-0.770	.447	40.6	34.4	25
Scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident	2.97	1	3.06	1.5	-0.09	-0.722	.476	40.6	43.8	15.6
Scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback	4.53	10	4.41	10	0.12	2.104*	.044	81.3	0	18.8
Scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer	4.34	9	4.22	9	0.12	1.679	.103	78.2	9.4	12.5
Scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating of child abuser	3.53	4	3.69	5	-0.16	-1.222	.231	50	18.8	31.3

*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001

Stg Sergeant, DUI driving under the influence

1. Willingness to Report Misconduct

The police integrity questionnaire offers a means to assess the extent and nature of the police code of silence (Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2015: 320). The blue wall of the silence refers to the existence of an unwritten rule that police officers do not report on the misconduct of their colleagues (Kutnjak Ivković, 2005:79-80). The last two questions after each scenario asked the respondents to express how willing they would be to report misconduct and to estimate how willing other officers in their agency would be to do so¹. The answers ranged on a five-point Likert scale from “definitely not” (1) to “definitely yes” (5).

The answers conveying their (un)willingness to report misconduct, help us assess the extent and nature of the code of silence. However, our results illustrate the point that the code of silence does not protect all behaviors equally. The analysis of the mean values suggests that scenarios could be divided into three categories.

First, there are three scenarios (scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident; scenario 7: verbal abuse “Arrest An Asshole Day”; and scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner) in which the mean values are near the mid-point of the scale (2.97-3.31), suggesting that the behaviors described in these scenarios would be well protected by the code of silence. In addition, a separate analysis of the code of silence (measured as the percentage of the respondents who said that they would not report) shows that about one-third of the respondents for each of these scenarios said that they would not report a police officer who engaged in misconduct described in these scenarios (Table 4).

Second, there are three scenarios (scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating; scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants; and scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force) in the middle group with the means between 3.5 and 4 and with about one-five of the respondents saying that they would not report (Table 4).

Third, there are five scenarios (scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands; scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene; scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback; scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer; and scenario 2: fail to arrest friend with warrant) for which the means are all from above

¹ The two questions were worded: “Do you think you would report a fellow police officer who engaged in this behavior?” and “Do you think most police officers in your agency would report a fellow police officer who engaged in this behavior?”.

4 to close to 5, that are on the reporting side of the scale. At the same time, the percentage of the police officers who stated that they would not report is the smallest for these scenarios (between 9.4 and 0 percent).

The respondents' adherence to the code of silence is strongly negatively related to their perceptions of scenario seriousness (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.906, $p < 0.001$), likelihood of recognizing it as rule-violating behavior (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.977, $p < 0.001$), and the severity of appropriate discipline (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.673, $p < 0.05$). The more serious the officers evaluated the behavior, the less likely they were to say that they would protect it. This findings is consistent with past studies on USA police integrity (Klockars at al., 2006; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2013; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2015), suggesting that willingness to report misconduct is negatively related to the officers' perceptions that the behavior was serious.

We also compared the respondents' own willingness to report with their estimates of others' willingness to report (Table 4). The mean values suggest that, in seven scenarios, the respondents seem to be somewhat more willing to say that they would report than they estimated that others would. On the other hand, in four scenarios (scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force; scenario 7: verbal abuse "Arrest An Asshole Day"; scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident; and scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating) - one of them is internal corruption and the rest is levels of force continuum-, the respondents say that they would not report than they estimated that others would. Although the differences between the means for their own willingness to report and the means for others' willingness to report are statistically significant in only 2 out of 11 scenarios (scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant, and scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback). Nonetheless, following the rule-of-thumb (Klockars et al., 2006: 26) the differences are meaningful in only one scenario (scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants). Finally, a comparison of the rankings shows that their own willingness to report and their estimates of others' willingness to report are very strongly related (Spearman's correlation coefficient = 0.902, $p < 0.001$).

Conclusion

Our study is the part of the first study of police integrity in Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The results indicate that police integrity is a com-

plex phenomenon and Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate's police officers in TRNC Police Organization do not treat all police misconduct equally. We found that the respondents' evaluations about police misconduct seriousness were closely related with their knowledge about official rule violations and they were also closely related to the severity of discipline and they were negatively related to their willingness to report misconduct.

The respondents evaluated scenarios described in the questionnaire to range in seriousness from the least serious to the most serious. According to the means; "scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene" and "scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback" are in the category of behaviors of most serious scenarios for themselves, their colleagues and their directorates. Moreover; "scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer" is in the category of behaviors of the most serious scenarios for their directorates, but, both for themselves and their colleagues it is in the category of behaviors of the intermediate seriousness. Narcotics and Prevention of Smuggling Directorate's police officers in TRNC Police Organization considered that; "scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant" is in the category of behaviors of the most serious scenarios in terms of colleagues, and they also considered that it is in the category of behaviors of the intermediate seriousness in terms of themselves and their directorates.

According to the means; "scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident", "scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner", and "scenario 7: verbal abuse- 'Arrest An Asshole Day'" are in the category of behaviors of the least serious scenarios for themselves, their colleagues and their directorates. Unlike the results of the similar surveys, in three scenarios (scenario 2: failure to arrest friend with warrant, scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident, and scenario 11: sergeant fails to halt beating of child abuser) respondents tended to have a higher view of the integrity of colleagues compared to their own position.

On the one hand, cover-up of police DUI accident (scenario 8), striking a prisoner (scenario 6), and verbal abuse of citizens (scenario 7) have been evaluated as the least serious forms of police misconduct featured in the questionnaire, requiring the most lenient discipline, and the most likely to be covered by the code of silence (first group). On the other hand, theft from a crime scene (scenario 3), and kickback (scenario 9) have been evaluated as the most serious forms of police misconduct in the questionnaire, requiring harsher disciplinary sanctions, and lacking strong support by the code of silence (second group). These findings are

consistent with the main police integrity survey of TRNC (Kayabaşı, 2017). Besides these findings, in the main police integrity survey of TRNC (Kayabaşı, 2017) not stopping the use of excessive force by a supervisor (scenario 11) have been evaluated in the first group, and the falsification of the official report (scenario 10) have been evaluated in the second group.

The four scenarios used in the questionnaire (scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force; scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner; scenario 7: verbal abuse of motorist; scenario 11: sergeant fails to halt beating of child abuser) could be modeled along the use of force continuum traditionally used to model force in police training (NIJ, 2009). The verbal coercion (scenario 7) can be viewed as belonging to the starting point of the force continuum while the use of deadly force (scenario 4) would occupy the end of the force continuum, and the other two scenarios (scenario 6 and scenario 11) are examples of the empty hand control which located in the middle of the force continuum (Kayabaşı, 2017).

In our study, it is surprising that these two scenarios (scenario 6 and scenario 11) which are located in the middle of the continuum, were evaluated in the same group (as the least serious scenarios) with the verbal coercion but less serious than it. As deadly force is at the top of the use of force continuum, it is by no means surprising to see that the respondents evaluated the use of deadly force as the most serious scenario describing the abuse of force scenarios and, at the same time it is surprising that the abuse of deadly force was evaluated as the intermediate seriousness level. On the one hand, these findings are consistent with the main police integrity survey of TRNC (Kayabaşı, 2017). On the other hand, they are not consistent with past police integrity surveys of USA police agencies (see Klockars et al., 2006; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2013; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2015).

The questionnaire also contains five scenarios describing police corruption, spanning a range of seriousness (scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants; scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene; scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands; scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident; and scenario 9: auto body shop 5% kickback). The policing literature typically views the acceptance of gratuities as the stepping stone toward more serious corruption, in itself tolerated by the police culture, seen as easily justifiable, and rarely severely disciplined by police agencies (Roebuck and Barker, 1974). On the other end of the spectrum, Roebuck and Barker (1974) characterized opportunistic theft as one of the most

serious types of corrupt activities, typically triggering a negative reaction from the police agency.

Our respondents evaluated the cover-up of police DUI accident as the least serious form of corruption; the acceptance of free meals and gratuities as intermediate seriousness; the kickback and the theft from a crime scene were evaluate as the most serious for themselves, their colleagues and their directorates; while the supervisor offers holiday for errands (scenario 5) was evaluate as the most serious for themselves, but both their colleagues and their directorates it was evaluate as the intermediate seriousness. These findings (except scenario 5 own seriousness) are consistent with the main police integrity survey of TRNC (Kayabaşı, 2017), and past police integrity surveys of USA police agencies (see Klockars et al., 2006; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2013; Kutnjak Ivković et al., 2015).

Most of the police officers from TRNC correctly evaluated the described behaviors as violations of official rules. However, percentages of police officers who did so varied across scenarios, from the scenario in which from slightly more than a half of the respondents (56.3 %) evaluated the behavior as rule violating (Scenario 7: verbal abuse “Arrest An Asshole Day”) to the scenario in which the overwhelming majority (90.6%) did the same in three scenario (scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene, scenario 5: supervisor offers holiday for errands, and scenario 10: false report on drug on dealer). It is possible that a substantial minority of the police officers do not know the official rules. On the other hand, it is possible that the officers, may meet on the grounds of seeing some “street justices” as a right for their directorate to solve the criminal activities as a part of their work. However, in the three of four use of force continuum scenarios (scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner (34.4%); scenario 7: verbal abuse “arrest an asshole day” (28.1%); and scenario 11: Sgt. fails to halt beating (28.1%)) nearly one third of the police officers seem to be unsure of whether the behaviors constitute violations of official rules.

According to the modes they reported that; “scenario 3: theft of knife from crime scene”, “scenario 4: unjustifiable use of deadly force”, and “scenario 9: auto-body shop 5% kickback” are in the category of behaviors that required the most harsh disciplinary sanctions. In addition they reported that; “scenario 7: verbal abuse- ‘Arrest An Asshole Day’”, “scenario 8: cover-up of police DUI accident”, “scenario 1: free meals, gifts from merchants”, and “scenario 6: officer strikes prisoner who hurt partner” are in the category of behaviors that required the most lenient disciplinary sanctions.

Furthermore, they supported and expected dismissal for the theft of knife from crime scene and auto-body shop 5% kickback scenarios; they only supported (not expected) dismissal for unjustifiable use of deadly force scenario; and they only expected (not supported) dismissal for false report on drug on dealer scenario. Although most of the respondents supported and expected some discipline for the rest scenarios described in the questionnaire. By comparing the respondents' views on the appropriate discipline and their expectation of the agency's actual response, the officers' modal judgments on what they viewed as appropriate and what they expected the agency to choose to implement for a discipline did not differ for nine of the scenarios, that it means the officers perceive the agency's discipline as fair for these nine scenarios. On the other hand, our respondents perceive the directorate's discipline as lenient for scenario 4 (unjustifiable use of deadly force), and as harsh for scenario 10 (false report on drug on dealer).

We also measured the contours of the code of silence and found that the code was much stronger for the behaviours evaluated as the least serious and the weakest for the behaviours evaluated as the most serious. These results provide further evidence in support, Klockars and colleagues' (2006: 6), Kutnjak Ivković and colleagues' (2015: 323) and Kayabaşı's (2017) empirical findings of the negative relation between perceptions of police misconduct seriousness and the code of silence. Finally, we found that, most of the respondents responses that other officers in their directorate would be much more likely to protect all these behaviors -except unjustifiable use of deadly force, cover-up of police driving under the influence accident, and sergeant fails to halt beating of child abuser scenarios- in the code of silence than they themselves would.

Finally, we can clearly said that TRNC Police Organization need to set up "police ethics rules set" without further delay and by means of TRNC Police School need to prepare "police ethics training program" both in the basic training and in-service training levels for enhancing police ethics and police integrity in TRNC.

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NARKO TERÖRİZM TEHDİDİ İLE MÜCADELEDE POLİS EĞİTİMİNİN ROLÜ VE ÖNEMİ

The Role and Importance of Police Training in Combating the Threat of Narco-Terrorism

Mehmet Ali TEKİNER*
Cem KAYABAŞI**

Öz

Narko terörizm kavramı, uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı ve terörizm olgularının biri biriyle ilişkili olduğu anlayışından kaynaklanır. Uyuşturucuyla ve terörle mücadele politikalarının eşgüdümlü kullanılması, bu tehditlerle etkili bir şekilde mücadele edebilmek için gereklidir. Sonuç olarak, teröre karşı savaşın, uyuşturucuya karşı savaşla birleşmesi, narko terörizme karşı savaş ile sonuçlanır.

Bu makalede öncelikle terör, terörizm, uyuşturucu ve narko terörizm kavramları incelenmiştir. Ardından Türkiye, Orta Doğu ve Avrupa’da faaliyet gösteren narko terörist örgütlerden; Kürdistan İşçi Partisi (Kürtçe: Partiya Karkerên Kurdistanê) (PKK)/Kürdistan Topluluklar Birliği (Kürtçe: Koma Civakên Kurdistan) (KCK) ve Fethullahçı Terör Örgütü/Paralel Devlet Yapılanması (FETÖ/PYD) analiz edilmiştir. Daha sonra narko terörizmin Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti’ndeki mevcut durumu değerlendirilmiştir. Son olarak, narko terörizm ile mücadelede polis eğitiminin rolü ve önemi üzerinde durulmuştur. Makale, narko terörizmin küresel bir sorun olduğunu, narko terörizm ile etkili ve verimli bir şekilde mücadele edilebilmesi için ülkelerin kendi içlerinde yapılanan narko terörist örgütleri iyice tanımaları, bu örgütlerle mücadelede bütüncül bir bakış açısı geliştirmeleri ve polis teşkilatlarına narko terörizm üzerine kapsamlı eğitimler vermeleri gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Uyuşturucu Kaçakçılığı, Terörizm, Narko Terörizm, PKK/KCK, FETÖ/PYD, Narko Terörizm ile Mücadelede Polis Eğitimi.

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Abstract

The concept of narco terrorism stems from the perception that one of the cases of drug trafficking and terrorism is related to one another. The coordinated use of anti-drug and anti-terror policies is necessary to effectively combat these threats. As a result, the unification of the fight against terrorism with the war against drugs, results in a war against narco terrorism. In this article, firstly the concepts of terror, terrorism, narcotics and narco terrorism are examined. Then, from narco terrorist organizations operating in Turkey, Middle East and Europe; Kurdistan Workers' Party (Kurdish: Partiya Karkerên Kurdistanê) (PKK) / Kurdistan Communities Union (Kurdish: Koma Civakên Kurdistan) (KCK) and the Fethullahist Terrorist Organization / Parallel State Constitution (FETO / PYD) have been analyzed. Then the current situation of narco terrorism in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus has been evaluated. Finally, the role and importance of police education in combating narco terrorism has been emphasized. The article emphasizes that narco terrorism is a global problem and that nations should thoroughly identify the narco terrorist organizations within themselves, develop a holistic perspective in their struggle and provide comprehensive training on narco terrorism in order to be able to combat narco terrorism effectively and efficiently.

Keywords: Narcotics Trafficking, Terrorism, Narco-Terrorism, PKK/KCK, FETÖ/PYD, Police Training in Combatting Narco-Terrorism.

Giriş

Narko terörizm kavramı, uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı ile terörizm olgularının biri biriyle yakın ilişkili olduğu anlayışından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu tehditlerle etkili bir şekilde mücadele etmek için uyuşturucuya karşı ve teröre karşı mücadele politikalarının bütüncül bir şekilde kullanılması gerekmektedir. Terörle mücadele ve uyuşturucuyla mücadelenin birleşmesi, narko terörizmle mücadele ile sonuçlanır.

Bu makalede öncelikle, terör, terörizm, uyuşturucu, narko terörizm kavramları üzerinde durulacaktır. Ardından Türkiye, Orta Doğu ve Avrupa'da faaliyet gösteren narko terrorist örgütlerden olan PKK/KCK ve FETÖ/ PYD narko terörist suç örgütleri analiz edilecektir. Daha sonra narko terörizmin KKTC'deki mevcut durumu değerlendirilecektir.

Son olarak, narko terörizm ile bütüncül bir bakış açısıyla mücadele edebilmek için, narko terörizm üzerine polis eğitiminin rolü ve önemi üzerinde durulacaktır. Makale, narko terörizmin küresel bir sorun olduğunu, narko terörizm ile etkili ve verimli bir şekilde mücadele edilebilmesi için ülkelerin kendi içlerinde yapılanan narko terörist örgütleri

iyice tanınmaları, bu örgütlerle mücadele politika ve stratejilerini bütüncül bir bakış açısı ile geliştirmeleri ve polis teşkilatlarına narko terörizm üzerine kapsamlı eğitimler vermeleri gerektiğini vurgulamaktadır.

Kavramsal Çerçeve

Narko terörizm kavramını daha iyi anlayabilmek, uyuşturucu ve terörizm kavramlarını bilmekten geçmektedir. Bu başlık altında terör ve terörizm, uyuşturucu ve narko terörizm kavramlarına değinilecektir.

Terör ve Terörizm

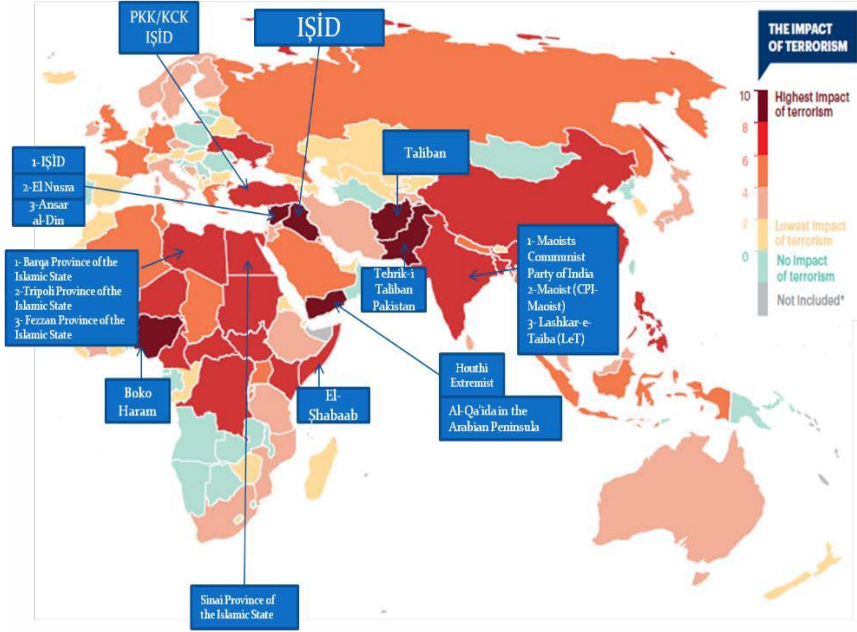
Terör ve terörizm birbirlerinin yerine sıklıkla kullanılan iki kavram olup her ikisinin de birçok tanımı bulunmaktadır. Türk Dil Kurumu'na göre 'terör'; "yıldırı, yıldırma, cana kıyma ve malı yakıp yıkma" şeklinde tanımlanırken (TDK, terör, 2017); 'terörizm'; "terörün, siyasi hedeflere ulaşmak amacıyla sistematik ve hesaplı bir şekilde bilinçli kullanılması" (TDK, terörizm, 2017) olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Diğer bir tanıma göre 'terörizm'; "şiddet ya da şiddet kullanma tehdidiyle siyasal amaçlara ulaşılması süreci" anlamına gelmektedir (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017:10). Terör; dehşet ve korkuyu ifade ederken, terörizm; terör kavramına süreklilik ve siyasal içerik katmaktadır.

Tablo 1. 2016 Dünya Terörizm Raporuna Göre 2015 Yılında Terör Saldırılarından En Fazla Etkilenen Ülkeler

	Ülke Adı	En Etkin Terör Örgütleri	Öldürülen Kişi Sayısı
1	Irak	IŞİD (DEAŞ)	6960
2	Afganistan	Taliban	5312
3	Nijerya	Boko Haram	4940
4	Pakistan	Tehrik-i Taliban Pakistan vs	1086
5	Suriye	IŞİD (DEAŞ) El – Nüsra	2761
6	Yemen	Huti Yanlıları vs.	1519
7	Hindistan	Maocular, CPI-Maoist	289
8	Somali	El – Şebab	659
9	Mısır	Sina Eyaleti Örgütü (IŞİD)	662
10	Libya	Barka Eyaleti Örgütü (IŞİD) Tripolis Eyaleti Örgütü (IŞİD)	454

Kaynak: Global Terörizm Raporu, 2016

Harita 1. 2016 Dünya Terörizm Raporuna Göre 2015 Yılında Terör Saldırılarından En Fazla Etkilenen Ülkeler Haritası



Kaynak: Global Terörizm Raporu, 2016

2016 Dünya Terörizm Raporuna göre; 2015 yılında terörizm sonucu 29.376 kişi hayatını kaybetmiştir (Global Terörizm Raporu, 2016). Bu rapora göre dünya genelinde terörden en fazla etkilenen 10 ülke sırası ile; (1) Irak, (2) Afganistan, (3) Nijerya, (4) Pakistan, (5) Suriye, (6) Yemen, (7) Hindistan, (8) Somali, (9) Mısır ve (10) Libya'dır (Tablo 1, Harita 1). Bu rapora göre Türkiye 6,738 puan ile 14'üncü sırada yer almaktadır (Global Terörizm Raporu, 2016). Türkiye'de terörist saldırılar PKK ve IŞİD tarafından gerçekleştirilmiş olup, konu dönemi kapsayan 1,5 yıllık süreçte yaklaşık 500 kişi hayatını kaybetmiştir (Global Terörizm Raporu, 2016).

Uyuşturucu

Uyuşturucu madde için Batı dillerinde kullanılan "Narkotik" sözcüğü, Yunanca "narke-uyku" sözcüğünden gelmektedir (Yokuş Sevük, 2007: 21). Türk Dil Kurumu'na göre 'uyuşturucu'; "uyuşturma özelliği olan, uyuşturan, gereği gibi düşünmekten alıkoyan, narkotik" anlamlarına gelmektedir (TDK, uyuşturucu, 2017).

Uyuşturucu madde; organizmaya karışması merkezi sinir sisteminde dikkatin dağılması, düşünsel etkinin azalması, bilinç bulanıklığı ve uyku ile kendini belli eden işlevsel bir değişikliğe, duyarlılığın azalmasına, kasların gevşemesine yol açan bir maddeyi ifade eder (Büyük Larousse, 1992; 11996). Uyuşturucu maddeler, uyuşturma özelliklerinin yanında keyif veren, kışkırtan, uyanıklık sağlayan ve yatıştırıcı maddeler için de kullanılmaktadır (Toksoy, 2013: 13).

Uyuşturucu maddeler; kimyasal nitelikleriyle canlı organizmaların yapısını etkileyen, insan yapısında fiziki ve psikolojik bağımlılık meydana getiren, ruhsal durumu, bedeni ve zihni faaliyetleri menfi yönde etkileyerek değiştiren, kötüye kullanılması halinde toplum sağlığına, ekonomik ve kültürel yapıya da çok çeşitli zararlar veren tabii ve kimyasal maddelerdir.

Uzun süre insanlık için en büyük tehlikenin “Narkotik” adı verilen afyon, esrar, eroin ve kokain gibi doğal uyuşturucu maddeler olduğu düşünülmüş ve buna göre çeşitli tedbirler alınmıştır. Zamanla uyku ilaçları, amfetaminler, halüsinojenler, tedavi amacıyla kullanılan çeşitli sentetik maddeler ve uçucu maddelerin kötüye kullanılması karşısında, bu tür maddelerin de denetim altına alınması zorunluluğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Yasa dışı uyuşturucu üretimi, ticareti ve kullanımı tüm dünyayı hem sosyal hem de ekonomik açıdan etkileyen küresel bir sorun haline gelmiştir. Sebep olduğu siyasal, ekonomik, sosyal ve güvenlik sorunları nedeniyle uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı, son yıllarda ülkemizin ve dünyanın en önemli gündem maddelerinden biri olmuştur. Özellikle uyuşturucu maddelerin üretiminden kullanıcıya ulaştığı ana kadar geçen süreçler dikkate alındığında, bütün devletlerin bu sorunla karşı karşıya kaldığı ve bu süreçlerin birbirinden bağımsız olmadığı görülmektedir.

Bu sorun karşısında Türkiye’de, ulusal düzeyde Türkiye Uyuşturucu Raporu yıllık olarak yayımlanmakta ve ayrıca Ulusal Uyuşturucu ile Mücadele Strateji Belgesi ve Eylem Planları hazırlanmaktadır. UNODC, EMCDDA, INCB ve EUROPOL gibi uluslararası kuruluşlar ise, her yıl stratejik analiz ve tehdit değerlendirme raporları yayımlamaktadır.

Narko Terörizm

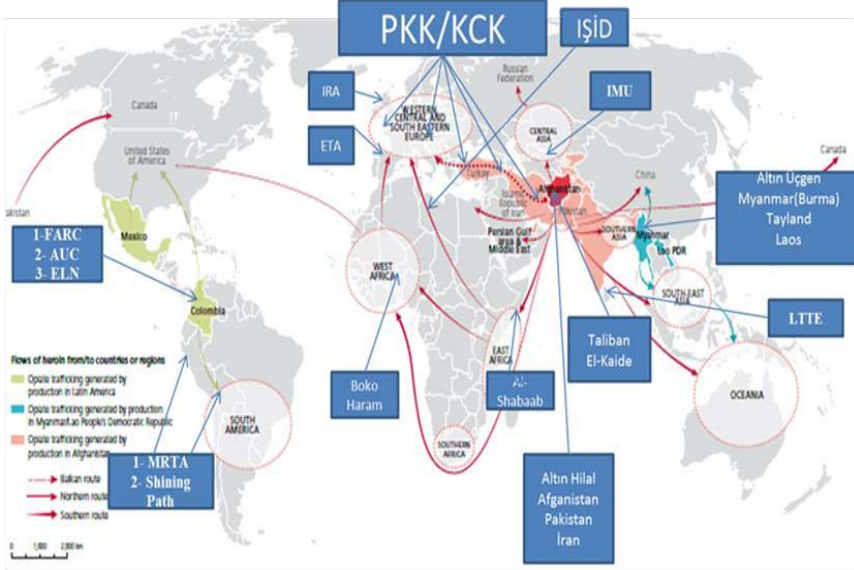
Genel olarak narko terörizm, terörizm ile uyuşturucu arasındaki ilişkiyi açıklamak amacıyla kullanılan bir kavramdır. 1980’li yıllarda Kolombiya, Peru, Bolivya gibi Latin Amerika ülkelerinde faaliyet gösteren uyuşturucu

örgütleri, kaçakçılık faaliyetlerini gerçekleştirirken, terör örgütlerinin kullandıkları yöntemlerle saldırılar düzenleyip pek çok polis yetkilisi ve devlet adamını öldürmüşlerdir (Guy, 2005). Narko terörizm kavramı da ilk defa 1983 yılında Peru Devlet Başkanı Fernando Belaunde Terry tarafından, uyuşturucu örgütlerinin Peru narkotik polisine karşı düzenledikleri bu terör eylemlerini tanımlamak amacıyla kullanılmıştır (Beers ve Taylor, 2002).

Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'ne yönelik olarak gerçekleştirilen 11 Eylül 2001 saldırısından sonra, narko terörizm tanımı da değişikliğe uğramış ve terörizm vurgusu narkotik vurgusunun önüne geçmiştir. Bu bağlamda Amerika Birleşik Devletleri Uyuşturucu ile Mücadele Dairesi (DEA) 'narko terörizmi'; "Grupların veya ilişkili kişilerin terörist aktivitelerini devam ettirmek ve/veya finanse edebilmek amacıyla uyuşturucu ticareti teşebbüslerine, vergilendirme, güvenlik sağlama, yardım ve yataklık etme şeklinde katılım sağlaması" olarak tanımlamaktadır (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 12).

Terör örgütleri faaliyetlerini finanse etmek ve varlıklarını sürdürmek amacıyla, uyuşturucu madde kaçakçıları ile işbirliğine giderek koruma, taşıma, kolaylaştırma ve vergilendirme karşılığında çıkar elde etmekte veya doğrudan uyuşturucu ticareti yapmaktadırlar (Braun, 2008).

Günümüzde dünyadaki önemli narko terör örgütlerine örnek olarak; Türkiye'de PKK/KCK, FETÖ/PDY, DHKPC, TKP-ML; Suriye ve Irak'ta IŞİD (DEAŞ); Kolombiya'da Kolombiya Devrimci Silahlı Güçleri (FARC), Kolombiya Birleşik Öz Savunma Kuvvetleri (AUC), Kolombiya Ulusal Kurtuluş Ordusu (ELN); Sri Lanka'da Tamil Elam Özgürlük Kaplanları (LTTE); Afganistan'da Taliban, El-Kaide; Peru'da Aydınlık Yol ile Tupac Amaru Devrimci Hareketi (MRTA); İspanya'da Bask Vatan ve Özgürlük (ETA); Birleşik Krallık'ta İrlanda Cumhuriyet Ordusu (IRA); Özbekistan'da Özbekistan İslami Hareketi (IMU) ve Nijerya'da Boko-Haram gösterilebilir (Harita 2)

Harita 2. Dünyadaki Önemli Narko Terör Örgütleri ve Uyuşturucu Trafığı

Kaynak: Dünya Uyuşturucu Raporu 2016

Türkiye’deki Narko Terör Örgütleri

Türkiye’de faaliyet gösteren terör örgütlerinin uyuşturucu madde kaçakçılığından finansman sağladıkları bilinen bir gerçektir. Bu kapsamda Türkiye’deki narko terör örgütlerinin başlıcaları; PKK/KCK, DHKPC ve TKP-ML, DEAŞ ve son zamanlarda varlığı su yüzüne çıkan FETÖ/PDY’dir. Bunlar arasında PKK/KCK terör örgütünün Afganistan’dan Avrupa’ya giden Afgan eroininden yıllık 1,5 milyar dolar gelir elde ettiği tahmin edilmektedir (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 9). Bu çalışma kapsamında, konu narko terör örgütleri içerisinde Türkiye’ye en fazla zarar verdiği inanılan FETÖ/PDY ve PKK/KCK narko terör örgütleri analiz edilecektir.

1. FETÖ/PDY Terör Örgütü

FETÖ/PDY Terör Örgütü; “cebir, şiddet ve yasal olmayan diğer yöntemleri de kullanarak Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Hükümetini ortadan kaldırmak veya görevlerini yapmasını kısmen veya tamamen engellemek, devlet otoritesini baskı altına almak, zaafa uğratmak, yönlendirmek, alternatif bir otorite olarak ortaya çıkmak ve neticede devlet otoritesini ele geçirmeye çalışan silahlı bir terör örgütüdür.” (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017:

32). FETÖ/PDY terör örgütünün kurucusu ve lideri Fethullah Gülen olup 1999 yılından beri ABD'nin Pensilvanya eyaletinde yaşamaktadır. FETÖ/PDY terör örgütü öncelikle 17-25 Aralık 2013 tarihlerinde emniyet ve yargıdaki yandaşlarını kullanarak meşru hükümetin Başbakanı ve kabinedeki bazı bakanları tutuklama girişimi ile meşru yönetimi ele geçirmeye çalışmış ancak bunda başarılı olamamıştır.

15 Temmuz 2016 tarihinde ise FETÖ/PDY terör örgütü, seçilmiş hükümete karşı silahlı bir darbe teşebbüsünde bulunmuştur. Ancak emniyet kuvvetleri ve sivil halkın gayretleriyle bu darbe teşebbüsü de bozguna uğratılmıştır. Bu darbe teşebbüsü sırasında darbeye karşı omuz omuza mücadele eden 247 Türkiye vatandaşı hain darbeciler tarafından öldürülerek şehit edilmişler, 2193 kişi de yaralanarak gazi olmuşlardır.

İleri süreçte yapılan araştırmalarda ise FETÖ/PDY terör örgütünün yasa dışı uyuşturucu imal ve ticareti yaptığı, bu şekilde faaliyetlerde bulunan kaçakçılardan pay aldığı, ayrıca devlet içerisine sızarak deşifre edilmeden önce uyuşturucu ile mücadele eden birim ve muhbirlerle ödenen paradan himmet toplamak suretiyle örgüte finans sağladığı tespit edilmiştir. Bu şekilde elde ettiği gelirin yaklaşık olarak yıllık 500 milyon dolar olduğu saptanmıştır.

Örneğin, “Dubai Operasyonu” olarak adlandırılan operasyonda bir organize suç örgütüne yönelik yürütülen soruşturmada 25 Nisan 2015 tarihinde Dubai’de 800 bin adet Captagon uyuşturucu hap ele geçirilmiş ve lideri ile birlikte 3 örgüt mensubu yakalanmış, 25 Mayıs 2015 tarihinde ise İran’da uyuşturucu imalinde kullanılan madde ele geçirilmiş ve 1’i Türk, 1’i İran asıllı 2 kişi yakalanmıştır (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 32-34). Türkiye güvenlik güçleri tarafından yürütülen soruşturma neticesinde ise örgüt üyelerinin aynı anda PKK/KCK ve FETÖ/PDY terör örgütleri ile bağlantılarının olduğu ve her iki örgüt adına da faaliyette buldukları saptanmıştır (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 32-34).

2. PKK/KCK Terör Örgütü

PKK/KCK terör örgütü, silahlı saldırı yoluyla Suriye’nin kuzeydoğusu, İran’ın kuzeybatısını, Türkiye’nin doğusu ve güneydoğusunu kapsayan bir alan içerisinde devlet kurmayı hedefleyen bölücü terör örgütüdür. PKK/KCK terör örgütü, faaliyetlerini gerçekleştirmek ve kazanç sağlamak amacı ile, önceleri uyuşturucu ticareti yapan suç örgütlerinden güvenliklerini sağlama bahanesiyle komisyon almış, daha sonra uyuşturucu maddelerin; üretiminden, dağıtım ve satışına kadar her

aşamasına dahil olmuştur. Bugün PKK/KCK'nın en önemli gelir kaynaklarından bir tanesi uyuşturucu ticaretidir.

Yapılan operasyonlar sonucunda PKK/KCK terör örgütünün; uyuşturucu ticaretini kontrol ettiği, Türkiye üzerinden uyuşturucu ticareti yapan örgütlerden haraç aldığı, Avrupa'da etkin bir şekilde uyuşturucu dağıtımında rol aldığı, Türkiye'nin doğu ve güneydoğu Anadolu bölgesinde yasadışı kenevir ekiminde etkin bir şekilde rol aldığı ortaya çıkarılmıştır (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 45).

Uyuşturucu ticaretinin en önemli güzergâhlarından birisi de Balkan Rotası olarak adlandırılan rotadır. Afyon ve türevleri olan uyuşturucu maddelerinin, özellikle de eroinin, en önemli üretim noktaları olan ve "Altın Hilal" olarak adlandırılan Afganistan, Pakistan ve İran ülkelerinde üretilerek en önemli tüketim pazarı olan Avrupa'ya ticaretinde kullanılan güzergâh olan Balkan Rotası, Türkiye üzerinden geçmektedir. Altın Hilal bölgesinden yola çıkan uyuşturucu Türkiye'ye PKK/KCK'nın faaliyet alanının daha yoğun olduğu doğu ve güneydoğu bölgelerinden girmekte ve Türkiye'nin batı sınırından çıktıktan sonra Avrupa'ya ulaşmakta ve dağıtımını yapılmaktadır (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 46).

Amerika Narkotik Örgütünün (DEA) raporlarına göre PKK/KCK Avrupa'da eroin piyasalarının önemli bir bölümünü kontrol etmektedir. Ayrıca Türkiye'ye karşı terör faaliyetlerini desteklemek için en önemli gelir kaynağı da eroin üretimi ve kaçakçılığıdır. Almanya Başsavcılığı ise Avrupa'da yakalanan uyuşturucunun %80'inin PKK ile bağlantılı olduğunu ileri sürmüştür (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 44). Sonuç olarak PKK/KCK'nın teşkilatlanması Balkan Rotasının tamamına yayılmış durumdadır ve hem kendi ürettiği hem de kaynağından elde ettiği uyuşturucuyu bu güzergâh üzerinden nakletmektedir (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 46).

Bugün PKK/KCK, uyuşturucu ekimi, imalat ve nakliyesi, dağıtım ve sokak satışlarını gerçekleştirmekte, uyuşturucu üretici ve kaçakçılarından ise komisyon almaktadır. 1980 – 2017 yılları arasında Türkiye'de terör örgütleri ile ilgili yakalanan uyuşturucu istatistikleri Tablo 2.'de görüldüğü gibidir (TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017: 46-51).

Tablo 2. 1980-2017 Yılları Arasında Terör Örgütleri ile İlgili Yakalanan Uyuşturucu İstatistikleri Tablosu

	PKK/KCK	DHKP/C, TIKKO vb.	FETÖ/PDY
Şüpheli Sayısı	1.325	33	18
Esrar (kg)	62.610	38,5	-
Eroin(kg)	5.413	38,6	-
Afyon (kg)	71	-	-
Bazmorfin (kg)	4314	-	-
Kokain (kg)	9,4	690	252
Captagon(adet)	-	-	800.000
Ecstasy (adet)	72.315	-	30
Asit Anhidrit (lt)	23.348	-	-
Metamfetamin (kg)	-	-	0,01
Kenevir Bitki(adet)	88.148.037	-	252

Kaynak: TC İçişleri Bakanlığı, 2017.

Narko Terörizmin Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti Açısından Değerlendirilmesi

KKTC, terör suçlarının çok ender işlendiği, uyuşturucu suçlarının ise giderek arttığı bir ülke olarak değerlendirilebilir. KKTC’de terör suçları, Ceza Yasası’nın (Fasıl 154) “Anayasa ve Sosyal Düzene Karşı Suçlar” başlığı altında 56-63 maddeleri arasında yer almaktadır. Terör suçları KKTC Ceza Yasası’nda tanımlanmamakla birlikte, genellikle “yasadışı cemiyete üye olma”, “yasa dışı cemiyeti teşvik ve savunma”, “yasa dışı cemiyete aidat veya bağış verme”, “yasa dışı cemiyete ait dergi, kitap, broşür, afiş, bildiri bulundurma” suçları tanımlanmış ve bu suçları işleyenlere çeşitli cezalar öngörülmüştür. Bu çerçevede KKTC Ceza Yasası’nda yer verilen yasadışı cemiyetin, terör örgütü anlamında kullanıldığı söylenebilir. KKTC’de, Bakanlar Kurulu tarafından her yıl yasadışı cemiyetler listesi ilan edilmektedir. 2017 yılı için Bakanlar Kurulu tarafından ilan edilen 26 yasadışı cemiyet bulunmaktadır. PKK/KCK, FETÖ/PDY, DHKP-C, YPG, PJAK, İŞİD (DEAŞ), EL-KAİDE bunlardan bazılarıdır.

KKTC’de meydana gelen tüm polisiye olaylar 2008 yılından beridir suç analizi ve istatistikî değerlendirme programına kaydedilmektedir. Bu veriler üzerinden yapılan incelemede 2008 yılı Ocak ayı ile 2017 yılı Mart ayı arasındaki süreçte, mahkemeye sevk edilen toplam 12 adet terör örgütü bağlantılı suç kaydına rastlanmıştır (PGM, 2017). Bu suçların 2015 ve

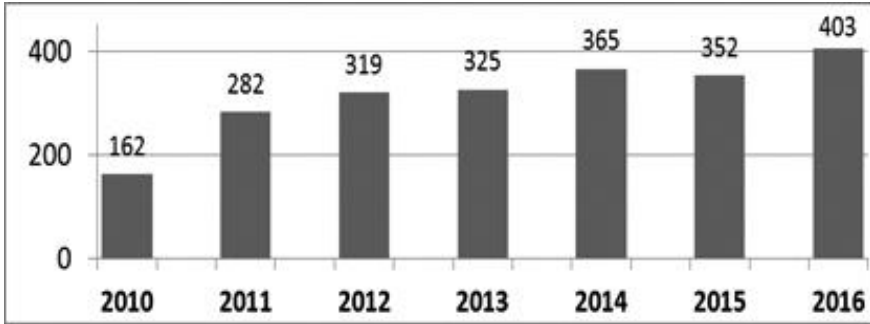
2016 yıllarında işlendiği görülmüştür. Bu 12 kaydın tamamı PKK/KCK Terör Örgütü ile ilgilidir. Konu 12 suç kaydı ile ilgili olarak toplam 27 kişi aleyhine şüpheli sıfatı ile işlem başlatılmıştır. Aleyhine işlem başlatılan 27 şüphelinin tamamı Türkiye Cumhuriyeti vatandaşı olmalarının yanı sıra, içlerinden 21'i konu suçları işlemekle itham edildikleri sırada KKTC'deki üniversitelerde eğitim görmekteydiler. Ayrıca konu şüpheliler aleyhine, propaganda niteliğinde yayın bulundurma, teşvik ve savunma suçlarından da yasal işlem başlatıldığı saptanmıştır (PGM, 2017).

KKTC Polis Teşkilatı içerisinde, yolsuzlukla, suç gelirlerinin (kara para) aklanması ve terörün finansmanı ile mücadele amacıyla kurulan ve bu suçlarla ilgili soruşturmaları yürüten Mali Suçlarla Mücadele Birimi, kurulduğu 2011 yılı ile 2017 yılı Mart ayı arasında 461 soruşturma gerçekleştirmiştir (PGM, 2017). Ancak konu soruşturmaların hiç birisi organize suç örgütleri ve/veya terör örgütleri ile bağlantılı herhangi bir suç unsuru içermemektedir. KKTC yasalarında “organize suç örgütü” ve böyle bir örgüt kurmak, üye olmak vs konularında herhangi bir suç tanımı bugüne değin yapılmış değildir. Mevcut kayıtlar üzerinden özellikle “terörizmin finansmanı” suçu ile ilgili yapılan taramada da KKTC’de, 2008 yılından günümüze “terörizmin finansmanı” suçu ile ilgili herhangi bir soruşturmanın yapılmadığı ve böyle bir suçun tespit edilmediği bulgusuna varılmıştır (PGM, 2017).

KKTC’de özel olarak uyuşturucu suçları ile mücadele görevini yürüten polis birimi Narkotik ve Kaçakçılığı Önleme Müdürlüğü’dür. KKTC’de Lefkoşa, Gazimağusa, Girne, Güzelyurt, İskele ve Lefke olmak üzere toplam 6 ilçe bulunmaktadır. Narkotik ve Kaçakçılığı Önleme Müdürlüğü’nün merkez binası başkent Lefkoşa’da olup, 2009 yılından beri Gazimağusa’da hizmet veren Narkotik Bürosu bulunmaktadır. Girne, Güzelyurt, İskele ve Lefke ilçelerinde Narkotik Şubeleri bulunmamaktadır. Gerek bu birime 41 personel gibi az sayıda personelin görev yapıyor olması, gerekse bu birimde görevli personelin kendi görevlerinin yanı sıra toplumsal olaylara müdahale, tutukluların nakil ve sevk edilmesi gibi ek görevler üstlenmeleri KKTC’deki uyuşturucu ile mücadeleyi olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir. Sonuç olarak Narkotik ve Kaçakçılığı Önleme Müdürlüğü’nün, hem personel sayısının hem de ilçelerde bulunan şube sayısının yetersiz olduğu değerlendirilmektedir.

Polis Genel Müdürlüğü’nün yıllık faaliyet raporları incelendiğinde; son 7 yıllık dönemde uyuşturucu suçları nedeniyle aleyhinde yasal işlem başlatılan sanık sayılarının giderek arttığı gözlenmektedir (Tablo 3). 2010 yılında uyuşturucu suçlarıyla ilgili aleyhine yasal işlem başlatılan şüpheli sayısı 162 iken; 2016 yılında bu sayı 403’e yükselmiştir (Şekil 1).

Şekil 1. 2010-2016 Yıllarını Kapsayan Dönemde Uyuşturucu Suçlarıyla İlgili Aleyhine Yasal İşlem Başlatılan Şüpheli Sayıları



Kaynak: Polis Genel Müdürlüğü 2010-2016 Yıllık Faaliyet Raporlarından derlenmiştir (PGM, 2011-2017).

2000 yılında narkotik suç işlediği gerekçesiyle yargıya gönderilen şüpheli sayısı 64 iken, 2016 yılında bu sayı 2000 yılına oranla % 630 artarak 403'e yükselmiştir. KKTC'de uyuşturucu ile ilgili işlenen suçlardaki sanık sayıları neredeyse her geçen yıl artmaktadır.

Tablo 3. Yıllık Ele Geçirilen Miktarlarına Göre Uyuşturucu Türlerinin Dağılımı

Uyuşturucu Türü	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Sentetik Cannabinoid	3421,532 Gr	5897,638 Gr.	5576 Gr. 306 Mg.	9388 Gr. 374 Mg.	3356 Gr. 558 Mg.
Hint Keneviri	27 988 Gr. 43 Mg.	824 Gr. 628 Mg.	1552 Gr. 364 Mg.	1612 Gr. 833 Mg.	9723 Gr. 624 Mg.
Eroin	577 Gr. 944 Mg.	930 Gr. 657 Mg.	2182 Gr. 464 Mg.	482 Gr. 958 Mg.	7 Gr. 918 Mg.
Kokain	2 Gr. 936 Mg.	16 Gr. 279 Mg.	19 Gr. 783 Mg.	99 Gr. 996 Mg.	112 Gr. 424 Mg.
Ham Afyon	1406 Gr. 460 Mg.	-	-	270 Mg.	-
LSD	-	-	3.Adet Pulda LSD varlığı	18 Mg.	76 Mg.
Ecstasy Hap	139 Adet	147 Adet	621 Adet	297 Adet	1905 Adet
Hint K.Bitkisi	30 Kök	1190 Kök	161 Kök	139 Kök	123 Kök

Kaynak: Polis Genel Müdürlüğü 2012-2016 Yıllık Faaliyet Raporlarından derlenmiştir (PGM, 2013-2017).

Narkotik ve Kaçakçılığı Önleme Müdürlüğü tarafından uyuşturucu suçlarıyla ilgili yapılan soruşturmaların çoğunluğu ihbar üzerine başlatılmaktadır. Ender olarak bir suç itirafında bulunulması veya şikayet yapılması üzerine de soruşturmalar başlatılabilmektedir. İleri soruşturmada şüpheli itirafları olması durumunda da şüphelilerin soruşturma konusu uyuşturucuyu temin ettikleri şüpheli durumundaki uyuşturucu satıcılarının üzerine gidilebilmektedir. Polis Genel Müdürlüğü'nün yıllık faaliyet raporlarında yer verilen yıllık ele geçirilen uyuşturucu miktarlarının uyuşturucu türlerine göre dağılımı incelendiğinde, KKTC'de herhangi bir uyuşturucu türünün yasa dışı kullanımının, ithalinin, alışının veya satışının artmakta veya azalmakta olduğunu söylemek pek de mümkün görünmemektedir (Tablo 3).

2003 yılında Çakıcı ve arkadaşları tarafından yapılan ve 2008, 2013 ve 2015 yıllarında tekrarlanan uyuşturucu ile ilgili sosyal araştırmalar; esrar, amfetamin, MDMA (ecstasy), kokain, eroin, LSD, Sentetik Cannabinoid türü uyuşturucuların tamamında kullanım yaygınlığının arttığını ortaya çıkarmıştır (Çakıcı vd., 2015a: 52-53).

Tablo 4. Dünyada ve KKTC'de Uyuşturucu Madde Kullanım Yaygınlığı

Uyuşturucu Türü	Dünya (15-64)*	KKTC (18-65)**	KKTC (Lise-2236 kişi)***
Esrar	3,8	4,5	2,7
Kokain	0,4	1,3	1,5
Eroin/Afyon	0,7	0,8	1,6
Amfetamin	0,8	1,2	0,8
MDMA (Ecstasy)	0,4	1,5	2,0

2016 yılı Dünya Uyuşturucu Raporu'na (UNODC, 2016) göre, dünya genelinde 15-64 yaş aralığında uyuşturucu kullanım yaygınlığı ile Çakıcı ve arkadaşları tarafından 2015 yılında KKTC'de 18-65 yaş aralığındaki 986 kişinin katılımıyla gerçekleştirilen (Çakıcı vd., 2015a: 49), ayrıca yine 2015 yılında lise öğrencilerine yönelik yapılan sosyal araştırma (Çakıcı vd., 2015b: 53) sonuçlarına bakıldığında KKTC'deki uyuşturucu madde kullanım yaygınlığı karşılaştırıldığında, KKTC'deki uyuşturucu madde kullanımının birçok ülkeye göre düşük olsa da dünya ortalamalarının üzerinde olduğu görülmektedir (Tablo 4).

Ayrıca aynı sosyal araştırmaların sonucunda KKTC'de LSD (0,7) ve sentetik cannabinoid (bonzai) (3,5) kullanımının geçmiş yıllara göre yükseldiği tespit edilmiştir.

4 Aralık 2011 tarihinde KKTC’de gerçekleştirilen “Nüfus ve Konut Sayımı” sonuçlarına göre KKTC’nin de-jure nüfusu 286,257 kişiden, de-facto nüfusu ise 294,396 kişiden oluşmaktadır (KKTC Nüfus ve Konut Sayımı 2011, 2012: 2). KKTC Milli Eğitim ve Kültür Bakanlığına bağlı Yüksek Öğrenim ve Dış İlişkiler Dairesi Müdürlüğü’nün açıkladığı sayısal veriler ışığında 2016-2017 öğretim yılında KKTC Üniversitelerinde 93,292 öğrenci eğitim ve öğretim görmektedir. Bu öğrencilerin 52,135’i TC uyruklu, 27,538’i Türkiye Cumhuriyeti dışından gelen yabancı uyruklu, 13,619 öğrenci ise KKTC vatandaşıdır (KKTC Milli Eğitim ve Kültür Bakanlığı, 2017).

KKTC’de telekomünikasyon yoluyla iletişimin denetlenmesi, teknik araçlarla izleme, polis tarafından kullanılan muhbirin ödüllendirilmesi, gizli soruşturmacı görevlendirilmesi ve kullanılması, kontrollü teslimat, etkin pişmanlık üzerine yasal mevzuat henüz düzenlenebilmiş değildir. Organize suç örgütü ve terör örgütü tanımları yasalarda yapılmamış ve bu suç örgütlerine yönelik yasal mevzuat düzenlenebilmiş değildir.

Narko Terör Eğitimi

Günümüzde Narko terör örgütlerinin yasa dışı faaliyetleri ile daha etkili ve verimli bir şekilde mücadele edebilmek için narko terör eğitimine ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Narko terör eğitimi ile uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı ile terörist faaliyetler arasındaki bağ, ülkede faaliyet gösteren terör örgütlerinin tehdit durumu, terör örgütleriyle bağlantılı uyuşturucu suçlarının önlenmesi, ortaya çıkarılması, soruşturulması ve suçluların yakalanmasında uygulanacak teknikler gibi konularda bilgi verilmektedir (Northeast Counterdrug Training Center, 2017; Narcoterrorism Course Dublin, 2017; North Carolina Counterdrug Program, 2017).

KKTC’de de uyuşturucu madde kullanımının mevcut olduğu ve kullanım düzeyinin giderek arttığı görülmektedir. Artan üniversiteli öğrenci sayısının ise KKTC’deki uyuşturucu kullanımı ve ticaretini artırma riski olduğu değerlendirilmektedir. Ayrıca Türkiye’nin aldığı etkin önlemler nedeniyle Balkan rotasının Güney rotasına kayma gösterebileceği ve böylece Doğu Akdeniz rotasından KKTC güzergâhının uyuşturucu sevkiyatında kullanılma riskinin mevcut olduğu öngörülmektedir.

KKTC’de, son zamanlarda işlenen terör suçlarından, gazete ve sosyal medya yayınlarından, toplumsal olaylarda alınan güvenlik önlemlerinden PKK/KCK yapılanmasının (özellikle üniversitelerde) gerçekleşmekte

olduğu izlenimi ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu nedenlerle Narko terör örgütü olan PKK/KCK'nın veya FETÖ/PDY gibi diğer terör örgütlerinin KKTC'de uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı veya suçlarına müdahil olduğu veya olacağı değerlendirilmektedir. KKTC Polis Teşkilatında ise henüz Narko terör suçları ile mücadele için özel bir birim kurulmuş ve özel bir eğitim programı düzenlenmiş değildir.

KKTC Polis Okulu Müdürlüğünde polis temel eğitiminde verilen dersler incelendiğinde uyuşturucu maddeler ve terörizm konuları ile ilgili olarak iki saatlik bir konferansın verilmekle birlikte narko terör eğitimi henüz verilmeye başlanmış değildir (PGM, 2017).

Sonuç

Terör örgütleri varlıklarını devam ettirebilmek ve faaliyetlerini sürdürebilmek için gereksinim duydukları finans kaynağını bulmak için çeşitli yöntemler kullanmaktadırlar. Bu yöntemlerin içerisinde hem devamlılık hem de örgütler açısından minimum düzeyde risk taşıyan uyuşturucu kaçakçılığıdır. Uyuşturucu madde kaçakçılığı günümüzde yaygınlaşarak artmaktadır, buna bağlı olarak da terörizm faaliyetleri yoğunlaşmaktadır. Uyuşturucu madde kaçakçılığı, belli bir ideolojisi olan terör örgütlerini zamanla kendine esir etmekte ve bu örgütleri birer narko terör örgütüne dönüştürebilmektedir.

Bu çalışmada dünya üzerinde birçok ülkenin sorunu olan terörizm tehlikesinin boyutları açısından uyuşturucu madde kaçakçılığı ile olan ilişkisi ortaya konulmaya çalışılmıştır. Türkiye, Orta Doğu ve Avrupa'da faaliyet gösteren narko terörist örgütlerden; Kürdistan İşçi Partisi (Kürtçe: Partiya Karkerên Kurdistanê) (PKK)/Kürdistan Topluluklar Birliği (Kürtçe: Koma Civakên Kurdistan) (KCK) ve Fethullahçı Terör Örgütü/Paralel Devlet Yapılanması (FETÖ/PYD) analiz edilmiştir.

Günümüzde uyuşturucu madde elde edilmesinde kullanılan bitkilerin yetiştirilmesi, uyuşturucu madde üretimi ve bunların bir ülkeden diğerine taşınması küresel bir sorun haline gelmiştir. Uyuşturucu madde kullanımı da, madde arzına paralel olarak artmaktadır. Bu nedenle, dünya üzerindeki her ülke uyuşturucuyla mücadelede yer almak zorundadır. Bu gerçekten hareketle, uyuşturucuyla mücadelede ortak bir payda oluşturabilmek için birçok uluslararası sözleşme imzalanmış ve uluslararası kurum ve kuruluşlar oluşturulmuştur. Türkiye de, bu konu ile ilgili olarak hazırlanan uluslararası belge ve sözleşmelerin tamamına yakınına imza koymuş ve

kurulan uluslararası kurum ve kuruluşlara üye olmuştur. Fakat KKTC, Türkiye haricinde hiçbir ülke tarafından tanınmamasının etkisiyle uluslararası organizasyonlarda yer alamamakta, uluslararası sözleşme ve belgelere karşılıklı olarak imza koyamamaktadır.

Bunun yanında, Türkiye kendi iç hukukunda da uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı ve bağımlılığı ile mücadele için çeşitli yasal düzenlemeler yapmıştır. Bu bağlamda Türk Ceza Kanunu'nda uyuşturucu maddelerin üretilmesinden başlayarak dağıtımına, satışına, kanun dışı yollarla kullanıcının eline geçmesine kadar geçen bütün aşamalar suç olarak düzenlenmiştir. Ayrıca, aynı Kanunla denetimli serbestlik uygulaması da öngörülmüştür. KKTC iç hukukunda da uyuşturucu kaçakçılığı ve bağımlılığı ile mücadele için günümüz şartlarında yeterliliğini yitirmiş olmakla birlikte çeşitli yasal düzenlemeler yer almaktadır. Buna ilaveten KKTC'de madde bağımlılığı ile daha etkin bir şekilde mücadele edilebilmesi için, 2016 yılında denetimli serbestlik yasası yürürlüğe girmiştir. Diğer taraftan Türkiye, terörle uzun zamandır tanışık olmasının etkisi ve edindiği tecrübe ile kendi iç hukukunda terörle mücadele için bir çok yasal düzenlemeler yapmış olmasına karşın, KKTC'de terörle mücadele alanında, bu suçların son yıllarda KKTC'de de işlendiklerinin farkına varılmıştır ve bu suçlarla yeni yeni mücadele edilmeye başlanmıştır.

KKTC Polis Örgütü polis mensuplarının, narko terör suçları ile etkili ve verimli bir şekilde mücadele edebilmesi için acilen bir taraftan bu suçlarla ilgili yasal mevzuat düzenlenmeli, diğer taraftan bu suçları hangi birimin soruşturacağı netleştirilmelidir. Ardından bu suçları soruşturacak olan polis mensuplarına narko terör eğitimi verilmelidir. Verilecek narko terör eğitimiyle personel bu alanda bilgi sahibi olacak ve terör ve uyuşturucu suçlarına farklı bir bakış açısıyla yaklaşacak, aralarındaki bağlantıyı bu bakış açısıyla değerlendirme imkânına sahip olacaktır. Ayrıca polis mensupları, terör örgütleriyle bağlantılı uyuşturucu suçlarının önlenmesi, ortaya çıkarılması, soruşturulması ve suçluların yakalanmasında daha etkili rol oynayacaktır.

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PUBLISHING PRINCIPLES

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