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CONTENTS

Vanessa Agostino, Michele Riccardi MAFIA INVESTMENTS: WHERE MAFIA GROUPS INVEST THEIR MONEY AND WHAT BUSINESS SECTORS THEY PREFER	2
Andis Rinkevics, Dace Landmane POLICE KNOWLEDGE OF VICTIMS' NEEDS	9
Aleksandras Kovalenka, Vitas Saldžiūnas ARE POLYGRAPH EXAMINATIONS HELPFUL IN CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION CASES?	12
Dániel Eszteri BITCOIN: THE DECENTRALISED VIRTUAL CURRENCY AS A CRIMINAL TOOL	18
Andrea De Guttry INTERNATIONAL DISASTER RESPONSE LAW: A RESEARCH AREA ATTRACTING INCREASING INTEREST AMONG SCHOLARS AND PRACTITIONERS IN EUROPE.....	21
Jos Smeets THE PORTABLE VAN REENEN	25
Miroslav Lisoň, Monika Hullová THEORY OF OPERATIVE POLICE COGNITION IN THE SYSTEM OF POLICE SCIENCES	29
Dimitrios Galatoulas OVERVIEW OF RECENT POLICING-RELATED PROJECTS IN GREECE	33
Ketlin Jaani-Vihalem, Ramon Loik SMALL STATE PERFORMANCE IN EU DECISION-MAKING PROCESS: CASE OF THE EU AGENCY FOR THE OPERATIONAL MANAGEMENT OF LARGE-SCALE IT SYSTEMS IN THE AREA OF FREEDOM, SECURITY AND JUSTICE ESTABLISHMENT	37
Leonor Sà CRIME PREVENTION PROJECT RECEIVES EUROPEAN AWARD.....	39
UPCOMING CONFERENCES, MEETINGS, SYMPOSIA AND SEMINARS.....	41



MAFIA INVESTMENTS: WHERE MAFIA GROUPS INVEST THEIR MONEY AND WHAT BUSINESS SECTORS THEY PREFER



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Keywords: Italy, illicit markets, investments, Mafia, organised crime, Camorra, 'Ndrangheta, Cosa Nostra.

INTRODUCTION

This paper presents the main results of the project 'I beni sequestrati alle organizzazioni criminali nelle regioni dell'Obiettivo Convergenza: dalle strategie d'investimento della criminalità all'impiego di fondi comunitari nel riutilizzo di beni già destinati', carried out, in 2013, by Transcrime/Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore (Milan, Italy) and funded by the Italian Ministry of Interior — Piano Operativo Nazionale 'Sicurezza per lo sviluppo' (national operative programme 'Security for development').

The project has produced two reports. The first report (Transcrime 2013a) consists of an accurate and in-depth analysis concerning the investments of Italian Mafia-type organised crime groups (Mafia OCGs) in the legal economy and is structured as follows:

- Where Mafia OCGs operate
- How much Mafia OCGs earns from illicit activities
- Where and how Mafia OCGs invest their proceeds

- Mafia OCGs abroad: presence and cases of investment
- Sectors more vulnerable to the Mafia OCGs infiltrations.

The second report (Transcrime 2013b) focuses on projects of reuse of confiscated assets financed by the PON Sicurezza (NOP Security) programme, co-funded by the EU and the Italian Ministry of Interior, in the years 2000–06 and 2007–13.

Both reports can be downloaded (<http://www.investmentioc.it>). This paper will focus on the first report (Mafia investments).

AN ANALYSIS OF MAFIA INVESTMENTS

WHERE MAFIA OCGS OPERATE IN ITALY

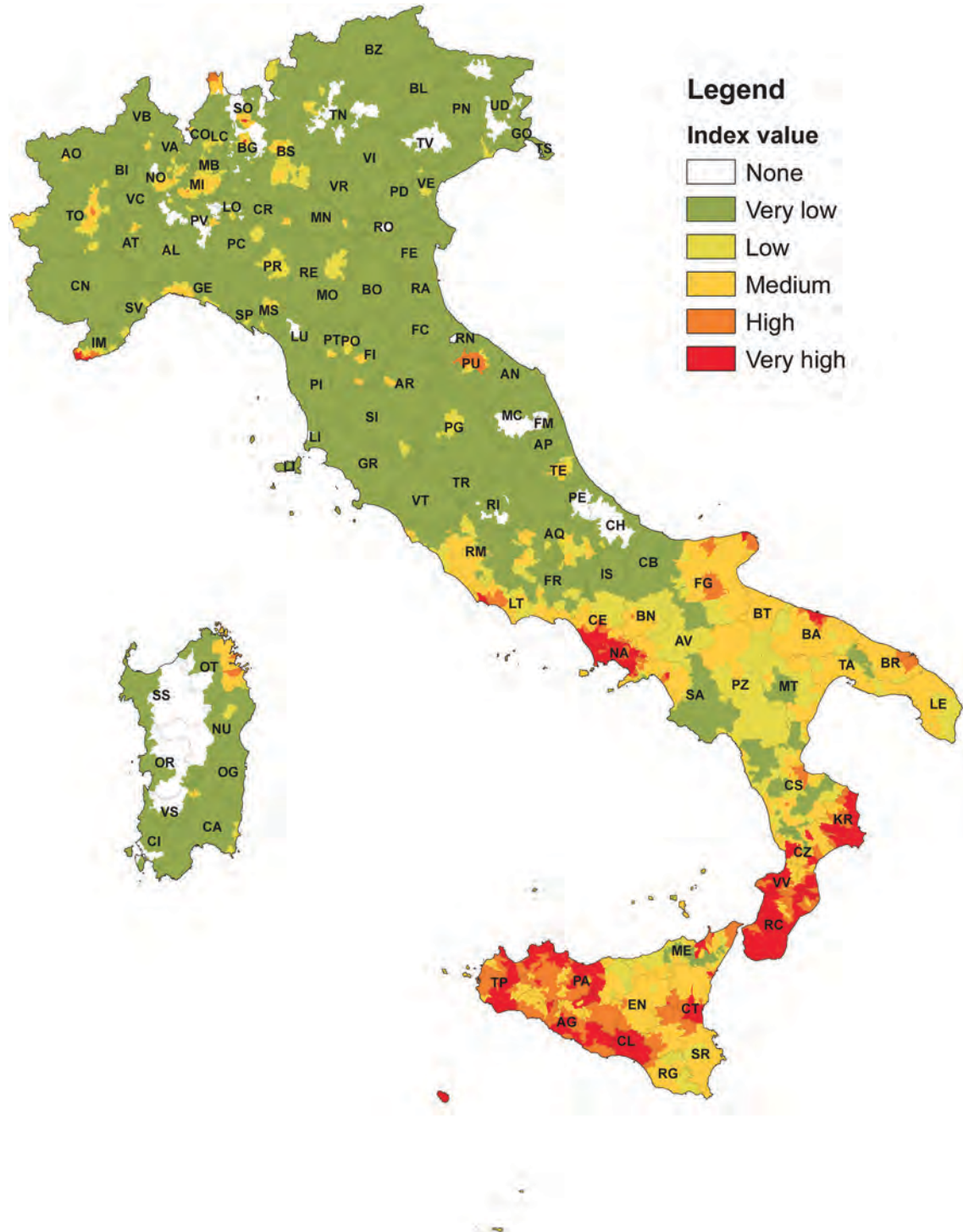
Mafia OCGs are located throughout Italy, although they are more influential in some areas than in others. Mapping the presence of Mafia groups on a regular basis can help to individualise any transformation regarding variation in respect to their geographic



distribution. For this end, the Mafia Presence Index (MPI hereafter), the result of a replicable and scientific methodology measuring for the

first time where and with what intensity Mafia OCGs operate in Italy, has been developed. The maps are at municipal level (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Where Mafia groups are in Italy



Source: Transcrime 2013a.



Looking at the map above, the MPI seems to confirm the presence of Mafia groups in regions (NUTS 2) traditionally under Mafia control, i.e. Apulia, Calabria, Sicily and Campania. The results suggest a strong Mafia presence also in regions not traditionally 'mafiose' such as Basilicata, Lazio, Liguria, Lombardy and Piedmont. In what concerns the analysis of Mafia presence at provincial level (NUTS 3), it is interesting to notice that the first five provinces are Naples, Reggio Calabria, Vibo Valentia, Palermo and Caltanissetta. Rome ranks 13th and Milan 26th (for further information visit the website <http://www.investimentioc.it>).

HOW MUCH MAFIA OCGS EARN FROM ILLICIT ACTIVITIES IN ITALY

The study presents an estimate of Mafia revenues stemming from illicit activities and their repartition between reallocation and reinvestment using a verifiable and definite methodology.

For comprehensive results concerning Mafia turnover, revenues and profits, nine illegal activities have been considered:

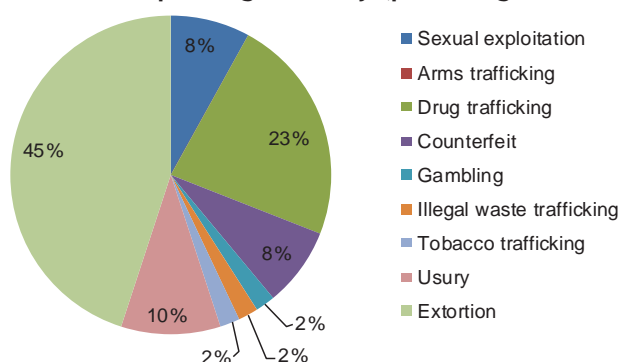
- sex trafficking,
- drug trafficking,
- tobacco smuggling,

- firearms trafficking,
- gambling,
- illicit waste disposal,
- counterfeiting,
- usury,
- extortion.

The turnover of these illegal activities has been calculated as equal to EUR 25.7 billion (on average), approximately 1.7 % of the Italian GDP. Drug trafficking stands out, generating the highest amount of revenues (on average EUR 7.7 billion), followed by extortion (EUR 4.7 billion), sexual exploitation and counterfeiting (respectively EUR 4.6 billion and EUR 4.5 billion).

The results highlight that Mafia OCGs do not have the monopoly of illicit markets. Apart from extortions, which are a traditional Mafia activity, only a share between 32 % and 51 % is considered controlled by Mafia OCGs. As a result, Mafia revenues could be estimated between EUR 8.3 and 13 billion. As the figure below shows, extortions generate 45 % of the total amount of Mafia revenues, followed by drugs (23 %), usury (10 %), counterfeiting and sexual exploitation (8 % each).

Figure 2: Average Mafia revenues per illegal activity (percentage of the total revenues)



Source: Transcrime 2013a.



However, not all Mafia groups play the same role in the illicit market. The Camorra and the 'Ndrangheta, according to the findings, are the groups with the highest illicit turnover, generating altogether 70 % of the total amount of revenues of OCGs from illicit markets. Differently, Cosa Nostra produces only 18 % of illicit revenues belonging to OCGs. It is interesting to note that 'Ndrangheta, unlike other organisations, obtains a significant share of revenues from other areas besides its region of origin (Calabria): in particular, 23 % of revenues are from Calabria, 21 % from Piedmont and 16 % from Lombardy.

The strongest point of this analysis is that the evaluation can be easily replicable and updated. Hence these estimates can play a fundamental role in terms of a better-planning of crime prevention policies.

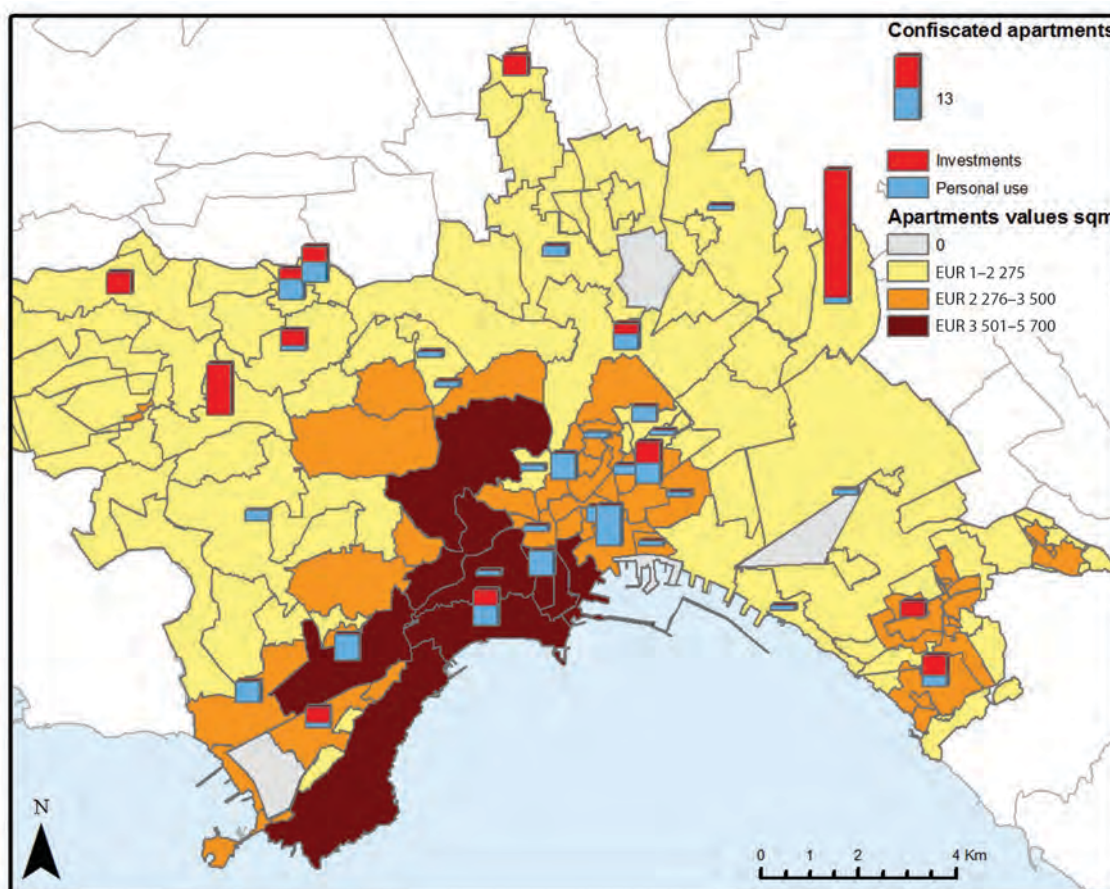
WHERE AND HOW MAFIA OCGS INVEST THEIR PROCEEDS

The third report concerns Mafia OCGs' investments in the Italian legal economy. Seized and confiscated assets have been used as proxy but also other sources such as judiciary and police evidence, LEA/FIU/ARO reports, data on suspicious transaction reports (STRs), tax evasion, corruption and information from open sources have been considered.

Mafia Real estate properties

The results have shown how more than half of the confiscated assets between 1983 and 2012 (in total 19 987 assets) are real estate (52.3 %) mainly located in the south, followed by registered assets (20.6 %), other movable assets (18.4 %) and companies and stocks (8.7 %).

Figure 3: Mafia investments in real estate and real estate prices in the area of Naples



Source: Transcrime 2013a.



Among real estate, apartments seem the most common type owned by Mafia members (33.8 % of the total real estate), outnumbering independent houses and villas. The Camorra and the 'Ndrangheta seem more 'open' towards new territories; indeed 10 % of confiscated real estate properties are located outside Calabria and Campania. However, only 2 % and 1 % of real estate were confiscated from Cosa Nostra and the Apulian OCGs outside Sicily and Apulia.

Personal/cultural reasons, rather than economic drivers, seem to guide Mafia OCGs in real estate investments, since they seem to mirror a symbolic status. For example, real estate in urban areas tends to be concentrated in the neighbourhoods with a greater Mafia influence, and not where the real estate market shows higher prices (Figure 3).

Mafia companies

Mafia OCGs seem to prefer to invest or constitute limited liability companies (SRL) (46.6 % of the approximately 2 000 companies confiscated from the Mafia since 1983 to 2013) due to advantages both from the management and the money laundering points of view. Individual companies rank second (25.8 %) followed by other types of unlimited companies.

Despite the increasing role of new business sectors (e.g. renewable energy, logistics, call centres, slot machines, etc.), Mafia OCGs still seem to prefer investing in traditional activities. In particular, according to the analysis of confiscated companies, the sector with the highest infiltration rate is mining and quarrying, followed by construction and restaurants. Wholesale and retail trades seem important only with respect to specific goods (e.g. milk products, flowers, clothes).

Table 1: Rate between confiscated companies and registered companies at national level per 10 000 registered companies

Business sectors	Rates
Mining and quarrying	45.16
Human health and social work activities	5.31
Construction	4.85
Hotels and restaurants	4.07
Electricity, gas, steam air conditioning supply	3.84
Transporting and storage	3.29
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	2.90
Other public, social and personal services	2.68
Financial and Insurance activities	2.05
Real estate activities	1.81
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	1.18
Manufacturing	0.53
Others	0.05

Source: Transcrime 2013a.

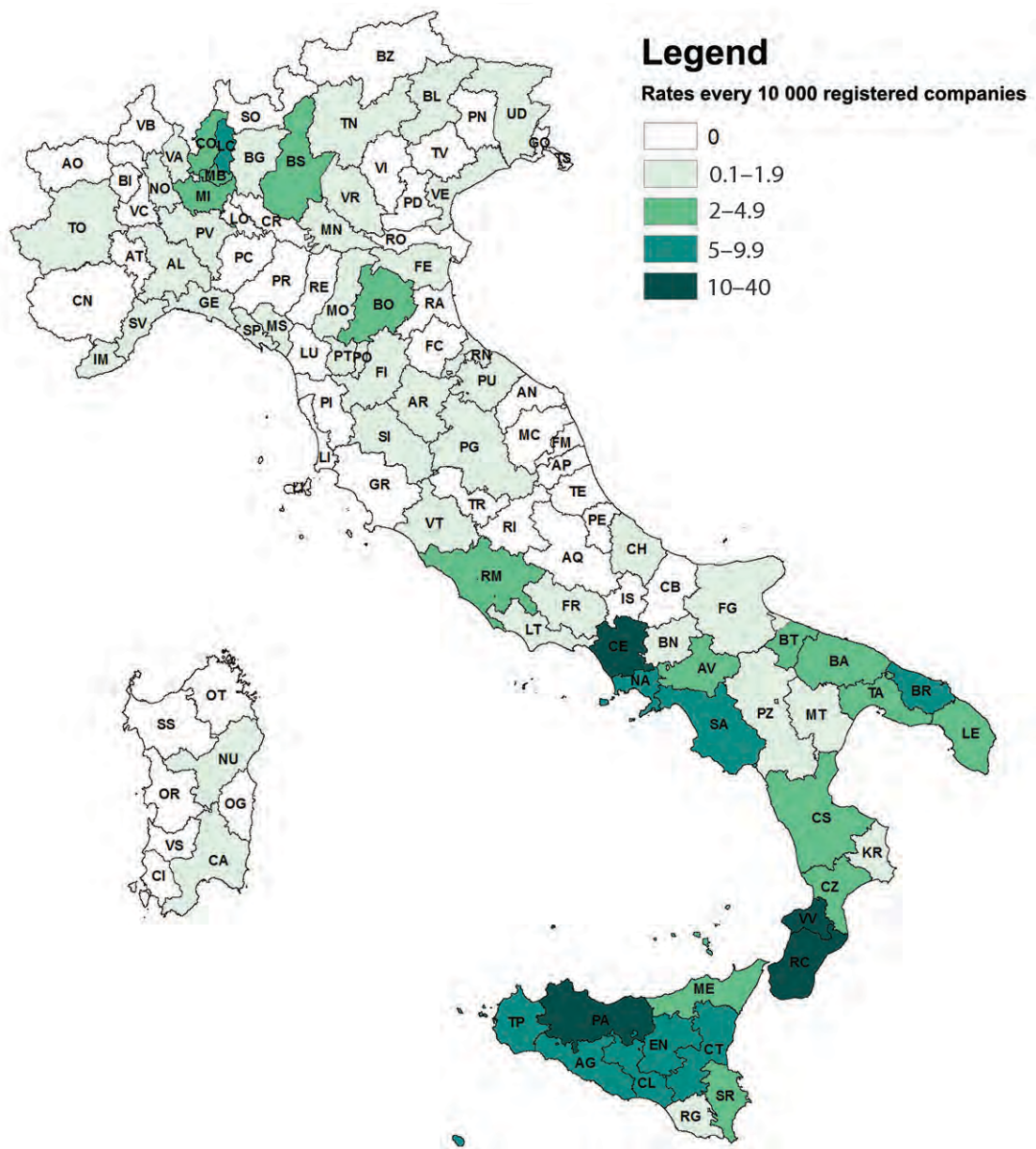


The expansion of Mafia companies outside of traditional territories does not seem homogeneous. Besides the south, main concentrations have been found in the north-west (Lombardy, Piedmont), while the north-east and central regions (excluding Lazio) are present to a much lesser extent.

However, not all Mafia groups invest in the same way. Considering the results, Cosa Nostra seems focused on the construction sector, the Camorra on different businesses including mining and quarrying and waste disposal, while the 'Ndrangheta seems to invest mainly in bars and

restaurants and construction. In spite of their relevant presence of investments in companies, Mafia businessmen cannot always be considered as brilliant entrepreneurs: many Mafia companies are badly managed and even less profitable than legal ones, since, rather than profit, the main purpose seems to be money laundering and control of territory. In this sense, Mafia OCGs often infiltrate legal businesses to take advantage of their strong connections with the economic and political system and to strengthen their control on certain territories and markets.

Figure 4: Mafia companies in Italy — Rate of confiscated companies every 10 000 registered companies — Province (NUTS 3) level



Source: Transcrime 2013a.



THE ITALIAN MAFIA OCGS ABROAD: PRESENCE AND CASES OF INVESTMENT

In order to analyse the presence and investments of Mafia OCGs outside Italy, the reports produced by the Italian Anti-Mafia National Directorate (DNA) and Anti-Mafia Investigative Directorate (DIA) were systematically analysed to identify which countries (and markets) are most frequently mentioned.

Cosa Nostra, the 'Ndrangheta, and the Camorra seem to be present in Germany, Spain and the Netherlands, whereas the Apulian organise crime in Albania, Greece and the Balkans.

In what concerns extra-European countries, Cosa Nostra appears to be active in Canada, Colombia and Venezuela, the 'Ndrangheta in Australia and Canada, the Camorra in China, Colombia and Venezuela and the Apulian's organised crime seems to have connections in Turkey, China and Colombia.

In what concerns investments, Mafia groups seem to replicate the Italian paradigms, namely an interest in the real estate sector, tourism, hotels and restaurants. It is the objective of another project, called OCP — Organised Crime Portfolio — funded by EU Commission's Directorate-General for Home Affairs, to analyse in a more systematic way the investments in Europe of OCGs, not only Italian Mafia-type groups but also foreign OCGs. Some preliminary results and maps are already available on the project website (<http://www.ocportfolio.eu>).

CONCLUSIONS

This paper has provided a brief overview of the results of a study carried out by Transcrime on Mafia investments, funded by the Italian Ministry of Interior. The results can strengthen positively the know-how of law enforcement agencies (LEA) in countering Italian Mafia OCGs. For the first time in Europe a scientific and replicable methodology to measure the presence, the turnover and the investments of Mafia organisations has been developed.

The results obtained to identify where Mafia groups are located and mapping at regular intervals can help tackling their activities in Italy and abroad. The research has the merit of highlighting different levels of vulnerability of the territories and of economic sectors. Regular follow-ups of this study can systematically identify changes about Mafia investment strategies and infiltrations in the legal economy, improving freezing and confiscation activity of LEA and ARO agencies worldwide. As to investments outside Italy, the study can be defined as the first step towards a systematic supervision of Italian Mafia OCGs abroad.

All the deliverables including the two final reports and their methodological annexes are available (<http://www.investimentioc.it>).

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POLICE KNOWLEDGE OF VICTIMS' NEEDS



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Abstract: crime victims have different needs when turning to the police. Most of the needs of victims have long been studied. However, practical studies on police officers' understanding of victims' needs are lacking. A practical study was therefore conducted by the State Police of Latvia in 2012 ⁽¹⁾. Crime victims' and police officers' samples were compared, so as to analyse and understand the victims' critical needs. Based on the results of this research, a specific training programme for police officers was developed.

Keywords: police, crime victims, victims' needs.

1. INTRODUCTION

Victims have several needs when a criminal offence is committed. As first responders, police officers are the professionals who must have sound knowledge about those needs. Professional support by the police will help a victim to cope with a crime better and will make the victim more willing to cooperate during the investigation process. Law enforcement experts have identified seven main needs, i.e. the need for safety, support, information, access, continuity, voice, and justice ⁽²⁾. However, special attention must be paid to three critical needs — safety, support and information. These

three needs are particularly important during the first contact between the victim and police officer.

The aim of the study was to examine the relationship between police professionalism, the victim's initial needs (safety, support and information) and the victim's satisfaction with the first police response.

2. RESEARCH METHODS

Multiple regression analysis was used for the study ⁽³⁾. A specific questionnaire was designed to assess the victims' needs when first contacting

⁽¹⁾ The research was conducted with the financial support of the European Commission's specific programme, 'Criminal Justice', and the implementing project, 'Cutting secondary victimisation in the State Police of Latvia'. Researchers of the project were Dace Landmane and Andis Rinkevics.

⁽²⁾ IACP National Law Enforcement Policy Center (2010), 'Response to Victims of Crime', Pieejams: <http://www.theiacp.org/portals/0/pdfs/ResponsetoVictimsofCrimePaper.pdf>

⁽³⁾ An SPSS macro designed for multiple mediation models was used to test the indirect effects and paths analysis. Thus, bootstrapping procedures were used to obtain estimates of the indirect effects and to test their significance by using confidence interval. If the 95 % bias-corrected confidence interval for the parameter estimate did not contain zero, then the indirect effect was statistically significant and mediation was demonstrated. Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008), 'Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models', *Behavior Research Methods*, Vol. 40, pp. 879–891.



the police. The study was conducted at a police station in Latvia. Police officers and victims were both questioned. This comparative survey was part of a larger crime victim research conducted by the State Police of Latvia. A special survey was adapted to assess three factors (safety, support and information), professionalism, and satisfaction with the police:

- Police professionalism was independent variable. Scale of police professionalism — the Cronbach's alpha for this variable was 0.89 (victims: $M=4.43$, $SD=1.02$; police officers: $M=4.51$, $SD=0.59$).
- Victims' needs were for mediators. Questionnaire on victims' needs — the Cronbach's alpha for each factors were as follows: safety ($\alpha=0.90$), support ($\alpha=0.84$) and information ($\alpha=0.86$).
- Satisfaction with first response of the police was dependent variable. Victims were asked:

'In general, how satisfied were you with the police's first response?' ($M=4.22$, $SD=1.27$). Police officers were asked: 'In general, how satisfied were victims with your first response?' ($M=4.53$, $SD=0.71$).

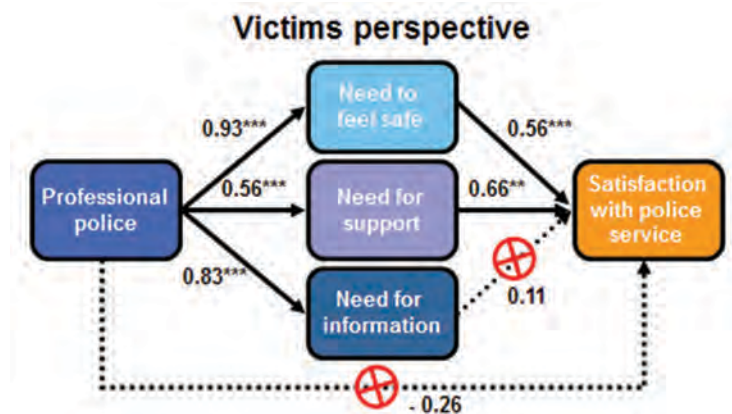
3. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The connection between all factors was analysed in the victim and police samples using multiple regression analysis.

Samples from victims: 57 victims ranged in age from 18 to 85 ($M=47.62$, $SD=18.46$), 42.1 % male and 57.9 % female.

The survey's results in the victims' samples revealed that a professional police force has to provide a sense of safety, support and information (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: A multiple mediation model of police professionalism and satisfaction with police services through attributions for victim needs factors in victim samples (N=57)



Note: The numbers in the figure represent standardised regression coefficients derived from bootstrap procedure. Group membership (police officers and crime victims) was controlled: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Attributions for victim needs factors were predicted from police professionalism, revealing that police professionalism leads to information, support and safety attributions. Next, satisfaction with the police services was looked at from the attributions for victims' needs. The results showed that safety and support attributions lead to satisfaction with police services. However, information attributions do not lead to victim satisfaction with police services. Finally, police professionalism resulting in satisfaction with police services was assessed. It was shown that police professionalism alone (without victim needs attributions) does not result in victims being satisfied with police services.

In other words, if a sense of safety and support are provided to victims, this will result in victim satisfaction with the police services. Analysis of the third factor — need for information — revealed that information is an important factor to explain police professionalism. However, although crime victims are keen to get information from the police (steps taken following an offence, case progress, etc.) this factor does not influence the victim's satisfaction towards the police. This is a very important conclusion for police managers and other stakeholders. It clearly indicates that an increased level of information, on its own, will not increase victim satisfaction with the police. What victims



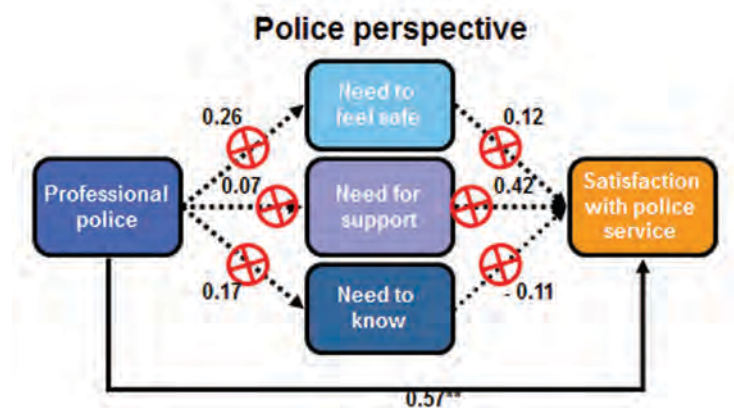


expect from the police as primary duties are safety and support. Similar conclusions can be made by taking a look at the relationship between police professionalism and victim satisfaction with the police. Data of study indicated that a professional police response won't directly influence victim satisfaction with the police services. However, victims believe that the police act professionally only if all three critical needs are provided.

Police sample: 49 police officers ranged in age from 23 to 48 ($M=33.2$, $SD=6.72$), 53.1 % male and 57.9 % female.

Survey results in police sample revealed that professional police response is not linked with a sense of safety, support and information to crime victims (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: A multiple mediation model of police professionalism and satisfaction with police services through attributions for victim needs factors in police sample (N=49)



Note: The numbers in the figure represent standardised regression coefficients derived from bootstrap procedure. Group membership (police officers and crime victims) was controlled: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Attributions for victim needs factors were predicted from police professionalism, revealing that police professionalism does not lead to information attributions (need to know), support attributions and safety attributions. Likewise, satisfaction with the police services was predicted from the attributions for the needs of victims. The results showed that safety attributions, support attributions and information attributions (need to know) don't result in satisfaction with police services. However, assessing police professionalism for showing satisfaction with police services revealed that police professionalism leads to victims' satisfaction with police services.

In other words, police officers believe that victims need a professional police response; professional response to crime victims will thus result in victim satisfaction. However, police officers also believe that police professionalism does not lie in their ability to provide a sense of safety, support and information. From the police viewpoint, as a professional body, solving a case is the main criterion for police efficiency. Police officers have a false perception that a more effective police response will result in better-satisfied crime victims.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Research data clearly indicate the differences between police and victim perspectives. The difference between both perspectives is very significant. Both crime victims and police officers believe that a police professional response is important. However, the understanding of what a professional police response is differs in both samples. Whilst police officers believe that solving the case will make crime victims pleased with the police; for the crime victims, solving the case, although important, is only one of the factors required to make them satisfied with the police services. In their opinion, the police should also provide a sense of safety, support, and information.

The conclusions of the study were used to develop a special training programme for police officers to improve their knowledge and skills in responding to crime victims. Special attention is paid on the methods to address three critical needs of victims in this programme.



ARE POLYGRAPH EXAMINATIONS HELPFUL IN CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION CASES?



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Keywords: criminal investigation, polygraph examination, Draft Note No 18030/12, comparison question test (CQT), concealed information test (CIT), event knowledge test (EKT).

INTRODUCTION

In 2012–13 police organisations of European countries started discussing whether polygraph examinations are needed in crime investigations. There are many who find polygraph examinations useless and outdated.

Lithuanian experts working with polygraph examination have accumulated sufficient experience in this field; but we discovered that EU Member States have a different experience and regulations in this area. For this reason, we have prepared a questionnaire (Council of the European Union Draft Note No 18030/12) which was distributed among the Member States. The main purpose of the questionnaire was to find the best ways and practices to use polygraphs and other unconventional tools in the investigation of criminal cases, to combat serious organised crime and other offences. The first results of the questionnaire were presented in the summer of 2013 in the Council's Working Party on General Matters including Evaluation (GENVAL) meeting and the final results will be disclosed at the end of 2013.

BACKGROUND

When answers to the questionnaire (Draft Note No 18030/12) were submitted, we found out

that not all EU Member States were informed that two methodologies — the comparison question test (CQT) and the concealed information test (CIT) — can be used in criminal investigation. At the moment, most universities and scientists agree that the CQT does not have sufficient scientific background, so we will not consider it in this paper.

Most countries have little information about the CIT and think or suppose that it is impossible to use the CIT in criminal cases. However, we are not aware of any article or scientific research that would prove that the CIT is a non-scientific method or test. So we decided not to wait for the final results of the draft to briefly explain the capabilities of the CIT and the CIT-EKT.

We decided to give a concrete example of how the court could pass the ruling only on the basis of polygraph examination findings. First and foremost, we would like to draw your attention to the fact that the results of polygraph examination could not be achieved utilising the globally most popular methodology — the comparison question test (CQT). The authors and Japanese police experts are convinced that reliable and informative results are obtainable only with the help of the concealed information test (CIT) and the CIT-event knowledge test (EKT) (Osugi, 2011).

CIT-type tests were more widely used in North America only in the times of L. Keeler. Since



CQT-type tests were developed, they have become more popular than CIT tests. The American Polygraph Association (APA), bringing together the largest number of polygraph specialists from all over the world, also recommends using the CQT. The CIT is typically used in an adjunct capacity, though examiners may use it as a primary technique. It can provide additional support for decisions based on a CQT and can serve as a powerful tool in the post-test interrogation. We are of the same opinion as R. Suzuki (2004), that this sort of polygraphic examination can distinguish, from the measurement results alone, whether an individual is telling the truth or being deceptive, and hence whether the examinee is guilty or innocent.

Japanese police polygraph examiners use the CIT exclusively in actual criminal investigations, and consider it to be of greater value than the CQT (Nakajama, 2002). Police polygraphers are particularly keen to avoid making wrong positive decisions. The examiner's goal in the pre-test interview is to confirm the subject's alleged unawareness of the criminal details and reduce the subject's anxiety for examination. If the subject learns of some critical items from the media or from other sources of information, questions referring to them are excluded or are replaced with others. Japanese examiners repeat the same series of questions two, three or four times. They only engage in polygraphic examination as researchers and do not investigate criminal cases as detectives.

The event knowledge test technologies are being further improved, but they are still incomplete. Everything that has been discussed here has been partially covered in our articles (Saldžiūnas & Kovalenka, 2008, 2009). We will illustrate the EKT application with a specific example of criminal investigation. The examination did not include all EKT technologies.

In 2006, two men raped a young woman, K, near a shopping centre in the city of Kaunas (the woman's version). The crime was committed around midnight. K said that two men grabbed her at the entrance to the Molas shopping centre and carried her to the square, where she was raped. K reported it to the police. The police found male suspect B, who had the woman's Samsung mobile phone in his possession. Suspect B said that he was at home at the time the crime was being committed and explained that he got the phone from a man nicknamed L. It turned out that L was abroad. After several years the police asked us to conduct a polygraph examination. Having read the material submitted by the police, we asked them to provide us with a map of the location with the indicated place of the woman's abduction and the plan of the location where the woman had been raped. We asked criminal investigators to submit several photographs of the men, including the photographs of both suspects B and L. We formulated questions and answer options for the woman and man B. Table 1 contains questions and answers for B.

Table 1: Questions, answers and suspect B's symptomatic responses

Possible answer options provided to the examinee by the specialist		Examinee's answer to the answer option provided	Symptomatic responses recorded in the examinee
3. Do you know how many people raped K at that time?			
0.	Five	no	
1.	Four	no	
2.	Three	no	
3.	Two	no	Response
4.	One	no	
5.	Don't know	no	Response
4. Do you know at what time K was raped that day?			
0.	At 19.00	no	
1.	At 21.00	no	
2.	At 23.00	no	
3.	At 1.00	no	Response
4.	At 3.00	no	
5.	At another time	no	





5. Do you know in what way you obtained K's Samsung mobile phone?			
0.	You found it	no	
1.	You bought it in a shop	no	
2.	You bought it from the Pope	no	
3.	You bought it from L	yes	Response
4.	Inga gave it to you	no	
5.	You took it away from K	no	Response
6.	Renata gave it to you	no	
7.	In some other way	no	

6. Where were you on the day K was raped?			
0.	At the Norfa store	no	
1.	At the Neste petrol station	no	
2.	At home	yes	Response
3.	At the billiards club	no	
4.	Near Molas	no	Response
5.	At the cinema	no	
6.	In some other place	no	

7. Do you know where at Molas the woman was abducted and taken from that day? Showing Figure 1			
0.	(0)	no	
1.	(1)	no	
2.	(2)	no	
3.	(3)	no	
4.	(4) <i>relevant</i>	no	Response
5.	(5)	no	

8. Do you know where at Molas K was raped that day? Showing Figure 2			
0.	(0)	no	
1.	(1)	no	
2.	(2)	no	
3.	(3) <i>relevant</i>	no	Response
4.	(4)	no	
5.	(5)	no	

11. Do you know which people raped the woman that day? Photos are shown			
0.	(photo of man X)	no	
1.	(photo of man Y)	no	
2.	(photo of man Z)	no	
3.	(photo of suspect L) <i>relevant</i>	no	Response
4.	(photo of man W)	no	
5.	You don't know who <i>relevant</i>	no	Response
6.	Someone else <i>relevant</i>	no	Response

The table does not contain questions 1 and 2 nor their answers. In accordance with the EKT tactics (Saldziunas & Kovalenka, 2008), the first questions (1 or 2) may be aimed at getting the examinee accustomed to the equipment and the procedure of examination. Therefore, for the sake of brevity, we have not provided them here as they are insignificant to the conclusion of the examination.



Figure 1: Plan of the location at the shopping centre Molas and the highlighted places from where the woman was allegedly abducted

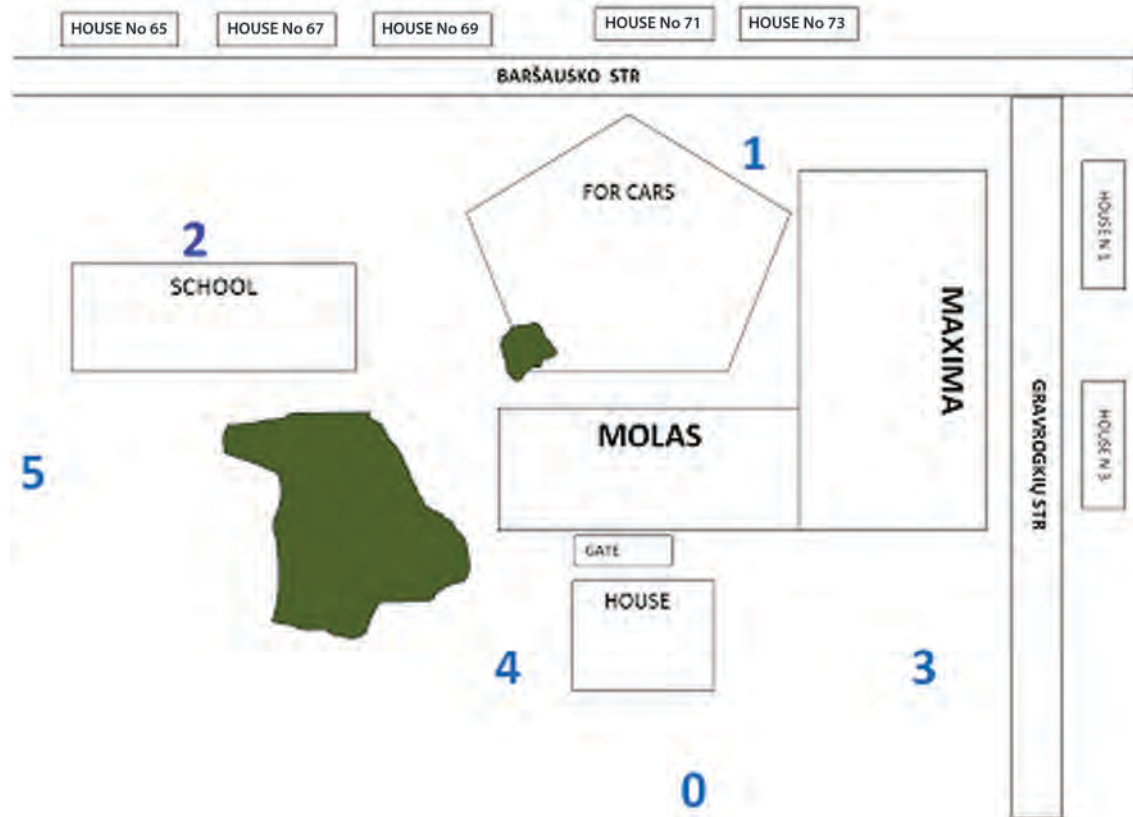
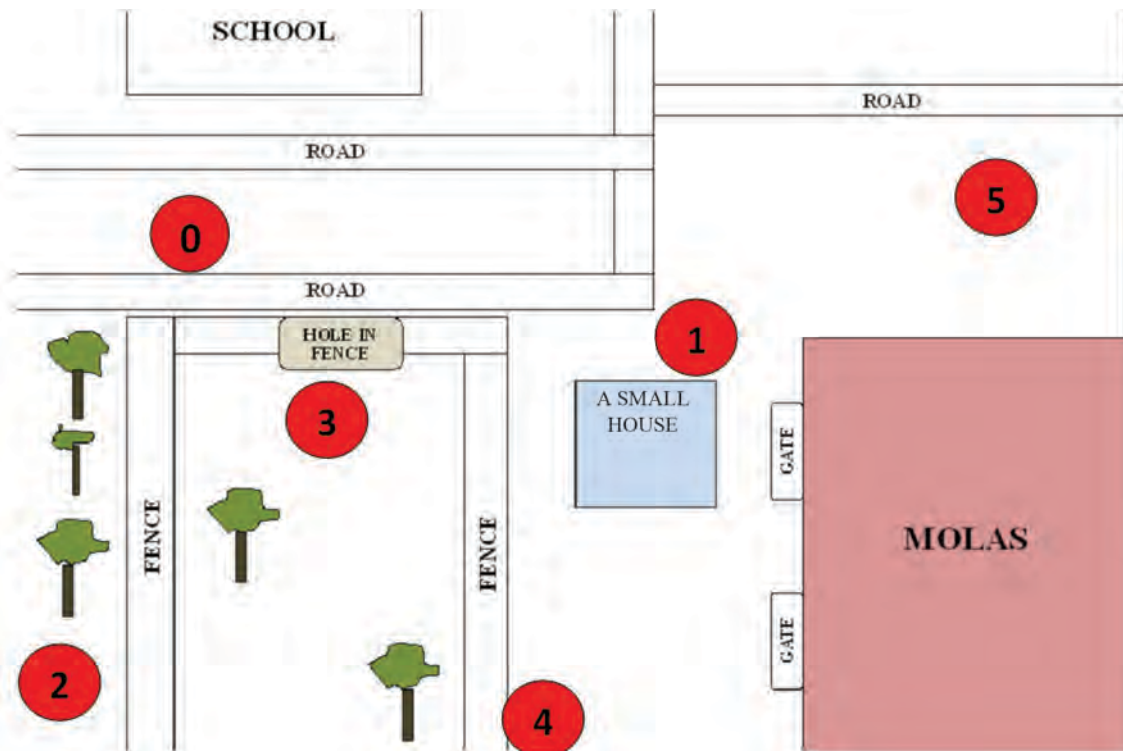


Figure 2: Plan of the location at the Molas shopping centre and the highlighted places where the woman was allegedly raped





RESULTS

We have not provided the questions and answers prepared for the woman nor her answers. The woman's questions and answers were the same as for suspect B. Only answers to question No 11 were different: suspect B's photo was added. No symptomatic (Konecny, 2009) responses were recorded for the woman; therefore, it was assumed that she was open in her answers, i.e. was not lying (P.S. we avoid using terms 'is lying' and 'is not lying'). Therefore, we think that, based on the formulated questions, the woman's version is true.

The polygraphers were clearly more interested in suspect B's symptomatic responses to the following answer options:

- In answers 3 and 5 to the third question, symptomatic responses were recorded, although, according to the suspect he was not at the Molas supermarket and did not know anything about what was going on there. On the basis of the recorded responses it can be assumed that he knows how many men raped Woman K.
- In answer 3 to the fourth question, a symptomatic response was recorded. It can be assumed that he knows that the woman was raped between 11pm and 1 am. The woman said that she was raped at around midnight.
- In answers 3 and 5 to the fifth question, symptomatic responses were recorded. Most probably his version that he had bought the telephone from L is not true. Most probably suspect B stole the telephone from the woman.
- In answers 2 and 4 to the sixth question, symptomatic responses were recorded. Most probably his version that at that time he was at home is not true. It may be assumed that he was at the Molas supermarket.
- In answer 4 to the seventh question, a symptomatic response was recorded. The woman also said that the men had grabbed her in point (4) on the scheme and carried her to another place.
- In answer 3 to the eighth question, a symptomatic response was recorded. The woman also said that the men had raped her in point (3) on the scheme.
- In answers 3, 5 and 6 to the ninth question, symptomatic responses were recorded. Suspect L was on photo No 3. No photo of suspect B was shown as it would have certainly caused a response which would be hard to assess correctly. It is worth noting that answers 'you don't know who' and 'somebody else' were followed by a response. It may be assumed that apart from L the woman was raped by someone else (the version that it was him is not dismissed).

CONCLUSIONS

After this polygraph examination, criminal investigators received a chart of responses and, having compared it with other results of the criminal investigation, a decision was taken concerning further course of the case. Thus, in Lithuania, polygraphers do not indicate in their conclusion whether the examinee was lying or not lying during the examination, whether he/she is guilty or innocent.

In relation to the forthcoming Lithuanian Presidency of the Council of the European Union (second half of 2013), we intend to scrutinise and analyse this topic in greater detail and consider promoting this method as a non-traditional investigative/administrative instrument to combat serious organised crimes. Reports and other findings will be presented at appropriate meetings, most probably at the Council's Working Party on General Matters, including Evaluations (GENVAL) and Network on Administrative Approach to Combat Organised Crime.



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BITCOIN: THE DECENTRALISED VIRTUAL CURRENCY AS A CRIMINAL TOOL



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INTRODUCTION

In January 2009, the Japanese software designer Satoshi Nakamoto invented a virtual currency named Bitcoin and released software for managing transactions in the new money ⁽¹⁾.

It consists solely of bits and bytes, but we cannot see it as a coin or banknote on the market. There is no cover in terms of gold or stocks, in fact, nothing but the source code of the software which consists of 31 000 lines of code ⁽²⁾. The payment system is completely decentralised and so contains no central organisation which monitors transactions. Many people use this new currency to pay for services or products on the Internet, since it is not less safe than traditional payment systems.

The anonym currency can be a perfect tool in the hands of criminals to reach their goals. Law enforcement authorities like the FBI have dealt with the question in a long report that recently leaked to the Internet ⁽³⁾. It can be interesting to examine the 'Bitcoin problem' from this point of view too, because the anonymous money transferring possibility seems to be the root of money laundering at first sight.

THE ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF BITCOIN

Bitcoin is not a concrete, physically existing currency, but virtual money: an amount associated with a so-called virtual wallet. First, we have to download software from the Internet, which is also called Bitcoin. We can find this on the official homepage of the virtual currency ⁽⁴⁾.

This software functions as a digital wallet on our computer after installation and stores our virtual money. Our wallet is nothing but a file on our hard drive named 'wallet.dat' ⁽⁵⁾. Bitcoin software is open-source, available for almost every operating system, updated regularly and contains every necessary function for sending and receiving Bitcoin.

ADVANTAGES AND DANGERS OF THE LACK OF CENTRAL CONTROL

Due to the Bitcoin network feature that users give no personal information about themselves and that there is no central control authority behind the system, the identification of

⁽¹⁾ Nakamoto, S., 'Bitcoin: A Peer-to-Peer Electronic Cash System', <http://bitcoin.org/bitcoin.pdf> (1.6.2013).

⁽²⁾ Davis, J., 'The Crypto-Currency', http://www.newyorker.com/reporting/2011/10/10/111010fa_fact_davis (2.6.2013).

⁽³⁾ Federal Bureau of Investigation (2012), 'Intelligence assessment: Bitcoin virtual currency: Unique features present distinct challenges for deterring illicit activity', <http://cryptome.org/2012/05/fbi-bitcoin.pdf> (31.5.2013).

⁽⁴⁾ Bitcoin webpage, <http://bitcoin.org/> (4.6.2013).

⁽⁵⁾ Bitcoin on Wikipedia, <https://en.bitcoin.it/wiki/Wallet> (4.6.2013).



suspicious transactions and users or obtaining transaction logs seems impossible at first sight. Nevertheless, the network has features which can help us track transactions and link them to someone. First, every transfer is public and can be seen on <http://www.blockexplorer.com> or <http://blockchain.info> websites⁽⁶⁾. We do not have to request transaction records from authorities or financial institutions, since they can be browsed freely on the Internet. Every single transfer made by a suspected Bitcoin address can be followed along the chain.

However, it is not guaranteed that the person behind a transfer can be identified since the information includes no personal data — especially not the sender's or receiver's IP address — but merely the amount transferred between two public keys.

We have to keep in mind that most people use Bitcoin as a simple, anonymous, online payment tool and not as a currency to replace real world money. Most users buy Bitcoin for a certain purpose (for example to buy something in a web shop), but sooner or later they change back to real world currencies.

Official currencies can be changed to Bitcoin and back on some special exchange websites, such as the Japan-based MtGox (<http://mtgox.com>). To use services offered by the website, users have to register an account and give it an account name, password and e-mail address. This information can be a good starting point for further identification. The operators of the website could confirm whether or not someone is the user of a certain Bitcoin address registered on their website. If the answer is yes, they could provide further information, such as the registered account name, e-mail address, or IP-addresses used during logins⁽⁷⁾. There are also exchange sites which ask for the bank account numbers of users, and so the service providers can transfer the amount changed in real world money. A bank account's transactions and documents concerning the owner of the account mostly provide enough information to identify a person.

According to the FBI, it is good to keep in mind that some users publish their Bitcoin addresses on online forums in their comments.

MONEY LAUNDERING WITH VIRTUAL CURRENCIES

It seems that Bitcoin could be an ideal tool to hide money made by committing a crime — money laundering — because of the anonymous paying opportunity and the absence of transaction costs. It is possible since such attempts happened recently with other virtual currencies, like a currency of an online game that is used to buy virtual items on the game's marketplace.

One good example is when an online, organised crime group changed their crime-related money to an online game's virtual currency on a special exchange website. Later they bought several virtual items (like virtual swords or armours) using the virtual world's in-game market and sold them to other players for real-world 'clean money'. Popular in-game currencies can be changed to real world money on several websites. There are also online games where the developers have made it possible to exchange virtual money for real currencies via the game clients themselves (for example 'Linden Dollars' in life-simulator 'Second Life' or 'gold' in the fantasy role-playing game 'Diablo III').

Coming back to our original topic, it is possible (criminally) to commit money laundering when someone uses Bitcoin exchange as a *modus operandi*. Someone changes criminally acquired money to Bitcoin and then forwards this to various addresses. However, it is possible to track the transactions because they are public and can be accessed by everyone on the Internet. Information could also be available in the log files of exchange websites where people can change their Bitcoin to real-world currencies.

BITCOIN THEFT

Bitcoin represents a certain value on the Internet, and we should thus keep in mind that it could be a possible target for thieves, as real-world money is.

The most important factor in these abuses is the virtual wallet file (wallet.dat) which contains the

⁽⁶⁾ Nakamoto, S., *supra nota* 1, p. 6.

⁽⁷⁾ Federal Bureau of Investigation, Intelligence Assessment, *supra nota* 3, p. 10.



actual amount of a user's Bitcoin. If someone deletes this file — and no backup has been made — the user could lose access to the Bitcoin forever. Bitcoin will not be deleted from the system, but the user loses the public and private key pairs which are crucial for access and transactions.

A more sophisticated criminal behaviour is when somebody steals virtual money, not directly, but by trying to impact other computers to mine Bitcoin, creating a Bitcoin-miner zombie network without the permission and knowledge of the owners of participating computers. Computer networks created with such illegal intent are called botnets. At first the cybercriminal needs to install a virus on the target computer that uses its video card's or CPU's computing power to mine Bitcoin. This can be achieved most easily by spams (unsolicited bulk messages) or phishing websites.

An example of this phenomenon was the malware named *ZeUs*, which used the computer's resources to illegally mine Bitcoin. This harmful software spread through deceptive advertisements posted to various websites in the first half of 2011 ⁽⁸⁾.

Other sources mention that larger computer networks would be ideal for cybercriminals for joint Bitcoin-mining (e.g. a company's or a university's local network). This technique is more expedient, because effective mining typically requires excessively high calculating power ⁽⁹⁾.

BUYING ILLEGAL GOODS WITH BITCOIN

There are several pages on the Internet where Bitcoin can be used as a paying option. We can browse clothes, books, trinkets, or computer parts ⁽¹⁰⁾.

According to an article published on *gawker.com* on 1 June 2011, there is a webpage where we can buy any drug imaginable. The page is called *SilkRoad* and can be visited only through a special anonymous browser called *Tor* (*The Onion Router*). After some search and registration effort we can look at the world's largest drug market, where we can order anything from marijuana to heroin or cocaine! However, drugs are not the only things that can be purchased: we also find tools for growing or producing drugs; we can even order ammunition, registration codes for websites, licences, etc., all of which can only be purchased with one type of currency: Bitcoin ⁽¹¹⁾.

Sadly, virtual money can be an excellent tool for criminal activities, because it is nearly impossible to trace who sent what amount to whom.

CONCLUSION

The technology behind the virtual currency is a novelty which means a paradigm shift without parallel among financial systems, and it is still unclear what may become of it, since the tools necessary for its greater evolution are still under development.

It is presently very difficult to form an opinion of this virtual phenomenon's future since it is too new to interpret it clearly. We have to pay close attention not just to the decentralised virtual currency, Bitcoin, and its role in future crimes, but to other (centralised) types of virtual money-like currencies of online games to handle possible dangers suitably. We have to keep in mind that virtual currencies and items represent a real product in the online world and have value in physical world's money too. My essay was written to serve this goal.

⁽⁸⁾ Segura, J., 'Zeus, Bitcoin and the Ub3erhackers', <http://blog.sparktrust.com/?p=572> (11.6.2013).

⁽⁹⁾ Bitcoin forum, <https://bitcointalk.org/index.php?topic=11506.0> (11.6.2013).

⁽¹⁰⁾ Bitcoin wiki, <https://en.bitcoin.it/wiki/Trade> (13.6.2013).

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INTERNATIONAL DISASTER RESPONSE LAW: A RESEARCH AREA ATTRACTING INCREASING INTEREST AMONG SCHOLARS AND PRACTITIONERS IN EUROPE



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INTRODUCTION

Over the last three decades, natural and technological disasters have been increasing in terms of frequency, size, the number of people affected and material damage caused. Between 1980 and 2011, 9 916 natural disasters occurred, killing some 2.5 million people across the world (according to the data collected and elaborated by the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters at the University of Louvain). The number of those affected by these phenomena — i.e. individuals requiring immediate assistance during a period of emergency, such as the provision of food, water, shelter, sanitation and immediate medical assistance — is even more impressive, as it reaches a figure close to 6 billion. The material damage produced has been reckoned to amount to USD 2.2 billion. Statistics are less astonishing, but still disturbing, with respect to the 6 603 technological disasters reported. In the time-span considered, over 250 000 people have died because of such events, while 4.4 million have been affected with estimated damages amounting to over USD 25 million. To provide a term of comparison, in the three decades between 1950 and 1980, the number of individuals affected by natural or technological disaster was around 730 million, while the combined economic losses caused by these events were just under USD 780 million. The total number of disasters reported in those

years was 2 216, as opposed to the 16 519 registered from 1980 to the present days, an increase of 745 %.

This trend has had a significant impact on police forces as these natural and man-made events inevitably implied the deployment of law-enforcement officers in the affected areas with increasingly complex tasks to be performed, very often under extremely difficult conditions.

THE SLOW DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL DISASTER RESPONSE LAW

Current international law does not offer a comprehensive legal framework to regulate intervention in disaster situations. What we refer to as international disaster response law (IDRL) is, in fact, a collection of multilateral and bilateral treaties and a wealth of soft law instruments produced by various authoritative bodies, covering a wide range of issues.

Some of these binding and non-binding instruments are explicitly devoted to issues of coordination, cooperation and assistance arising in connection to disaster situations (e.g. the Tampere Convention on the Provision

⁽¹⁾ The author is the editor, together with M. Gestri and G. Venturini of *'International Disaster Response Law'*, TMC Asser/Springer Verlag, 2012.



of Telecommunication Resources for Disaster Mitigation and Relief Operations, 1998). Others do not have disaster prevention and/or management as their primary aim, but are nonetheless relevant as their provisions might prove essential to provide a legal basis for relief activities or to facilitate the work of the entities and professionals therein involved (e.g. the Convention on the Safety of United Nations and Associated Personnel, 1994).

In addition, specific branches of international law are of particular importance to natural disaster situations because they:

- set out the modalities according to which assistance activities could be carried out (as is the case with international humanitarian law);
- contain indications on the legal entitlements which can be invoked by those affected by a calamitous event (as evidenced by the ongoing work of the International Law Commission on 'protection of persons in the event of disasters');
- are otherwise relevant to the forestalling and management of natural or man-made disasters (international environmental law, international 'health law', disarmament law, etc.).

The legal picture is further compounded by the existence of dozens of bilateral treaties concerned with various aspects of disaster prevention or mitigation ⁽²⁾.

THE INCREASING RELEVANCE OF INTERNATIONAL 'SOFT LAW' INSTRUMENTS

Even more numerous are the universal and regional 'soft law' instruments relevant to IDRL. The natural starting points in this regard are UN General Assembly resolutions, the first one specifically dealing with assistance in cases of natural disaster (GA Res 2034) having been adopted as early as 1965. In the following years, UN bodies strengthened their interest in disaster response, and this increased attention was reflected in the adoption of several resolutions. While initially only addressing the scope and timeliness of emergency assistance by states, these documents soon became more comprehensive, dealing with issues of task division and coordination with states and other actors ⁽³⁾, the limits imposed by state sovereignty and the facilitation and quality of the assistance.

Also significant are resolutions and declarations produced by intergovernmental or similar bodies (such as the International Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement or the International Parliamentary Union) and the remarkable number of codes of conduct, operational guidelines, minimum rules concerning humanitarian emergency assistance and analogous documents adopted by bodies as diverse as the United Nations Institute for Training and Research ('Model Rules for Disaster Relief Operations', 1982), the International Law Association ('Draft Model Agreement Concerning Humanitarian Relief Operations', 1980) or the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (which has developed a large number of policies, guidelines and reference documents that, while not binding on any of the participating organisations, nevertheless carry a high level of authority). These and other soft law instruments could be considered, along with the national laws and regulations concerning disaster prevention and management, so as to try and ascertain if customary rules have emerged (or are emerging) in the area of IDRL.

⁽²⁾ Examples are, the Convention in the area of the prediction and prevention of major risks and on mutual assistance in the event of natural or man-made disasters, France-Italy (1992) or, the Agreement between the Swiss Confederation and the Italian Republic on cooperation in the area of risk management and prevention and on mutual assistance in the event of natural and man-made disasters.

⁽³⁾ e.g. GA Resolution 46/182 buttressing the role of the UN in 'coordinating the efforts of the international community to support the affected countries', creating the post of Emergency Relief Coordinator, and establishing the 'Inter-Agency Standing Committee'.



THE INCREASING INTEREST OF THE EU AND ITS MEMBER STATES IN THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK OF DISASTER PREPAREDNESS, PREVENTION, RESPONSE AND RECOVERY: RECENT CHALLENGES

The recent developments that have taken place at a regional level and in particular within the European Union are of special interest. Over the last years, the EU has conceived a set of instruments to address various aspects of disaster preparedness, response and recovery. There is also a number of sector-specific initiatives covering floods, technological disasters, and oil spills, which deal with elements of disaster prevention.

Much progress has been made in the domain of civil protection through the establishment of a community mechanism for civil protection. The main role of the mechanism (established in 2001, with Council Decision 2001/792/EC, Euratom) is to facilitate cooperation in civil protection assistance interventions in the event of major emergencies that may require urgent response actions.

Finally, the Treaty of Lisbon provides the area of civil protection with a specific legal basis (Article 196 TFEU 'Civil Protection'), and formally establishes civil protection as an area in which the EU has the power to carry out actions to support, coordinate and complement actions undertaken by the Member States. The major challenges raised by this article are related to the qualification of this new EU competence as 'supporting' or 'complementary' competence which could provoke serious implementation problems among Member States. Article 222 of the Treaty also introduces a 'Solidarity Clause', according to which the Union and its Member States shall act jointly in a spirit of solidarity if a Member State is the object of a terroristic attack or a victim of a natural or man-made disasters.

There are significant differences in the position of Member States about the implementation of this 'Solidarity Clause' and its relations with the civil protection mechanism. There are several issues at stake which need to be clarified to prevent uncertainties in an extremely sensitive area: including the role of the European Commission

as a major decision-maker in mandating the deployment of national resources for a collective EU response in case of a disaster occurring in an EU country. The specific experiences of the creation of Frontex and the idea of creating a European Border Guard Team, to which Member States are basically bound to contribute, represent an interesting precedent. It has, however, to be mentioned that in the case of civil protection, the treaty entrusts the Union only with the tasks to adopt supporting or complementary measures. Any decision in this area will have a significant impact on Member States and on their internal structure coordinating emergency operations.

The attention of the EU is devoted not only to the 'internal' dimension of the disaster prevention and management but as well on the so-called 'external' dimension which involves both activities to support third states affected by a major disaster and activities to support and protect EU citizens suffering the consequences of emergencies in third countries. As far as the first dimension is concerned it has to be mentioned that the Lisbon Treaty has promoted a general reform of the existing mechanisms, with the view to reinforce their coherence, effectiveness and interoperability. Once concluded, these reforms will promote a more strategic approach to the external dimension of disaster management with significant repercussion on the national emergency systems which will have to rapidly adapt to the new scenario. As far as the second dimension is concerned, namely the protection of EU citizens abroad, the major problematic issue appears to be, at the moment, the full implementation of the rules devoted to the consular protection of EU citizens. Once more, the rules adopted at EU level in this regard represent a major challenge for all those involved in international disaster management mission, including the police component of these missions.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this framework, IDRL has attracted increasing attention from both practitioners and the public. This growing awareness is due to the new complex challenges facing international relief operations as well as to the magnitude and incidence of natural and man-made disasters. As it often occupies a centre stage position under close public scrutiny, the relief organisations and



the humanitarian community have discovered the importance of better international and internal regulation of their activities, which is essential to be able to perform in a more professional manner, to deliver the requested relief services on time and to act in a more accountable way. IDRL, however, is not a self-contained regime, growing in isolation from general international law. On the contrary, it shares a number of fundamental tenets with the legal discipline of other areas that in various ways contribute to shape its form and content. This relationship may be aptly described

in terms of mutual support and cross-fertilisation. While the general principles and rules belonging to related branches of international law influence and stimulate the progress of IDRL, the latter may in turn enhance their implementation. As a matter of fact IDRL should be constructed and applied taking into account the interpretation and implementation of human rights law, international humanitarian law, refugee law, global health law, international environmental law, international criminal law, and the law of international development.



THE PORTABLE VAN REENEN



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WHO IS PIET VAN REENEN?

On 2 September 2013, the Dutch Police Academy organised a seminar to honour the work of Dutch Professor of Sociology, Piet van Reenen. Mr van Reenen began his professional career as a police officer in Rotterdam in 1964. He always had a special interest in the legitimacy of police work. In order to learn more about this topic he decided to go to university and study sociology. After finishing his studies he set out to research questions and problems with regard to the police. Because of this he became one of the first pioneers in early Dutch police research. In 1974, Van Reenen wrote for the first time about the legitimacy of police work and this was also the first time that a police officer scientifically researched and published on the organisation he belonged to. This article started his long and distinguished career, both within the police and the world of science, in which legitimacy was often the focal point. As Director of the Dutch Police Academy he tried to integrate science and scientific research into the curriculum of future high ranking police officers. After retiring from the police he stayed in the academic world. At present he is Professor of Human Rights and Police at Utrecht University.

HOW TO HONOUR PROFESSOR VAN REENEN?

The initiative to look back on Van Reenen's career came from Dr Guus Meershoek and Professor Bob Hoogenboom. Meershoek is Lecturer in Police History at the Dutch Police

Academy and Hoogenboom is Professor for Police and Safety studies at the Vrije Universiteit in Amsterdam. Both came to the conclusion that the best way to show the importance and impact of Van Reenen's work, was to produce a book containing important articles by his hand. This became the book the title of this article refers to: *De draagbare Van Reenen* or, in English, *The portable Van Reenen*. The presentation of the book took place in the form of a seminar. In the seminar the key questions were: 'What influence has scientific research had on police work in general?' And, 'What was its impact on the down-to-earth police work?' This report is an extract of the topics discussed during the seminar.

INTRODUCTION BY PROFESSOR PIETER TOPS

Professor Tops, Member of the Board for the Dutch Police Academy, opened the seminar by stating that Van Reenen belonged to the group of the first four policemen who started scientific police studies. The other three were, C. Fijnaut, J. Naeyé and K. van der Vijver, who all became university professors. According to Tops, this phenomenon signalled the beginning of a deepening interest in police science by and for police officers. Hitherto, this was certainly not common amongst leading policemen although they often showed curiosity. He characterised Van Reenen as a man with a certain stubbornness, strong opinions and eagerness to know and explain. These character traits made Van Reenen almost predestined to become a police researcher. He combined



his work as a policeman with the quest for academic knowledge. Van Reenen's academic achievements can best be typified by the constant question of what legitimises the police and its work. Is the police an instrument of and for the state or does its *raison d'être* lie in being there for the citizens who are the sum of a state? This fundamental question can create dilemmas for the individual policeman — and policewoman. In a democratic society, force used by the police should always be used proportionally. Another feature of his work is that he has always had a keen eye for long-term developments and how they affect the practice of police work; a view which historians often call the *période de longue durée*.

THE MAIN THEME EXPLAINED BY PROFESSOR HOOGENBOOM AND DR MEERSHOEK

According to Hoogenboom and Meershoek, Piet van Reenen is something like a 'Bob Dylan of police science'. Some of the themes that preoccupied Van Reenen might now appear a little outdated and have gathered some dust. It's time to get rid of the dust and emphasise that the questions he formulated were fundamental and have in essence not lost any of their validity or actuality; the seminar was a chance to prove this. Furthermore, Van Reenen's enthusiasm is an inspiration to future researchers which should be passed on. From his work it is clear that he is fascinated by the monopoly of force that is the predominant feature of the police. The police should use force proportionally and there should always be transparency when force is used; transparency is the central theme in the book, *De draagbare Van Reenen*.

WHERE DO WE STAND CURRENTLY?

One of the earlier-mentioned founding fathers of applied police science, Professor Kees van der Vijver, gave an abstract of what impact 40 years of police research has had on the police and on police education. At first glance, the effect seems almost negligible. It should be noted

that the studies of universities in this field have been few and far between. Still, there are some positive examples that have to be mentioned. From 1973 onwards, the Scientific Research and Documentation Centre of the Dutch Ministry of Justice (WODC) sent out researchers to try and get explanations for trends in police work, and so to add to practical efficiency. It can therefore be concluded that Ministries under whose authority the police operated made their mark in promoting research. After the initial push by the WODC, private consultancy firms and universities tried to make their mark, but their efforts were at best limited. Nowadays, the Dutch Police Academy is trying its best to give scientific research a strong enough basis to achieve continuity.

If one tries to typify the police research of the last decades, one has to conclude that it is for the most part dominated by sociology and only modestly influenced by psychology and technology. The most common reason is that research had to be practically applicable and was financed by police organisations and ministries.

According to Professor Van der Vijver, it is strange that universities were unable to create continuity in the field of police research. Financial cuts put an end to ambitions in that direction. However, after the collapse in the 70s and 80s there has been an upswing that began in the 90s.

Looking at the long-term impact of police research, there are more or less four themes that are of particular interest. First, there is the attention the police have for the population and the individual citizen. The hunger for knowledge of how interactions between police and citizens work is still present. Beginning in the 70s, mostly by bigger municipal police forces, it now manifests itself in, for example, the family detective (who coaches families of victims); feedback when somebody informs the police about a crime; visibility on the streets through community-based policing; and interest in feelings of insecurity. The second theme is use of force. During the middle of the 70s, the Dutch Ministry of the Interior became more interested in the consequences of the use of force by the police. Research commenced in the use of firearms, and Piet van Reenen was awarded his PhD for his dissertation on strategies for large-scale police deployment. A third theme worth mentioning is that research was seen as a boost for innovation. New developments



were stimulated and legitimacy and community policing supported by research. The last point to be made concerns 'problem-orientated policing': however important the idea, it has never gained any notable support.

In short, according to Van der Vijver, there is still a lot missing. Our knowledge might be considerable on a lot of themes, but the problem is that we are not really able to expand. The rift between street cops and management cops is very large indeed.

What is important to keep in mind in order to reach the best results? Research has to comply with four criteria: it has to be original; it cannot be trivial; it needs patience and stamina; and it has to interact with the police organisation. Even if the research is sound, there are a few major problems, which are: interpreting police practice, the professionalism of the police; and the limitations of scientific research.

PETER NEYROUD AND HIS ARGUMENT FOR POLICE RESEARCH

Next in line to offer his thoughts with regard to police research was Peter Neyroud from the United Kingdom. Neyroud studied history and afterwards joined the British police. He was Chief Constable and Chief Executive at the National Policing Improvement Agency. In 2011, he wrote an article, together with David Weisburd, with the title: 'Police science: Towards a new paradigm'. In this article he argues that science should be an integral and important part of the police. However: 'Science is not an essential part of this police world. At best it is a luxury that can be useful but can also be done without. The police do not regard social science as essential to the work of police agencies. Furthermore, the police do not evaluate how new technologies affect policing and if they make the police more efficient. This can be contrasted with fields like medicine and public health and, to a lesser extent education, which have come to view science as an essential component of their efforts to provide public services.' Neyroud further argues, that the police fail to realise that science is extremely important in legitimising and underpinning its *raison d'être* and this will become even more important in the future.

Still, according to Neyroud, not everything is gloom and doom. There has been steady progress in the last 30 years. In his speech, he referred to the fact that evidence-based policing is gaining ground but there is still a long way to go. In the last 25 years, hot-spot and place-based strategies have borne fruit, as did 'TARE' and 'DARE' education programmes and, last but not least, restorative justice has made its mark.

A lot has been achieved but there is still a lot to gain. The focus has to be on the translation of science to the ordinary policeman and policewoman in the street. What do we teach the police? Sociology is at first glance far removed from day-to-day police practice. Knowledge of the law, of procedures and self-protection would be more useful to a police officer; the rest is more or less a matter of interpersonal skills. Is policing a craft or a profession with a set of values and a body of knowledge? Neyroud is strongly convinced that the latter is true.

A professional police needs an education to match. The best solution for the police, according to him, would be to adopt the model which is used by university medical centres. There, doctors are trained in a practical environment. This way, a body of knowledge is created based on scientific research that improves people's competence. In this model or paradigm scientists are right at the heart of policing. It's a challenge to transform this model or format into practice and train managers.

A SHORT DISCUSSION

After Neyroud's contribution, there was time for a short discussion centring on the question of how to position police research. According to Piet van Reenen, politicians should be made aware of the cost of research. It should be made clear that better education makes for more diversity. Structure is in the long run less important than professionalism. Van der Vijver points out that innovation has to come from within the police itself. Politics and politicians are not the prime obstacle but police managers are. Universities should also be more active with regard to police-related research. The Dutch Police Academy is trying its best but cannot fill the entire existing gap. Van Reenen reacts to Neyroud by pointing out that 'scientification' is something akin to a religious dogma. He warns that one should be critical; for the onlooker



everything seems clear and deceptively easy. What kind of research do police chiefs want and can they work with research partners? One has to test out what works!

A LAUDATION BY PROFESSOR CYRILLE FIJNAUT

Cyrille Fijnaut remembered meeting Piet van Reenen for the first time, in 1971, in Apeldoorn. They exchanged views about the future and the legitimacy of the Dutch police. Both had a special interest in international police cooperation and both were convinced that the Dutch police was not adequately prepared to take an active part in this cooperation. Again, in this discussion, legitimacy and proportionality was the central point. According to Fijnaut this has always been central in Van Reenen's work. There were some objective reasons for this, upon which Fijnaut wanted to briefly elaborate. Van Reenen once wrote an article about what happened to his father and uncle during the war. Both acted as policemen against collaborators breaking the peace. The result was a prison term for the brothers, who both returned to the police force after the war. This example shows what Van Reenen is really interested in, namely the real and practical keeping of the rule of law and the preservation of norms and values. He has never lost sight of this central point which is the thread running through all his work. Typical of Van Reenen's work is also his unshakable loyalty

towards the police. In contrast to several British scientists and colleagues, he is no iconoclast. He wants to gain inside knowledge whilst not falling for any form of blind identification with the police and losing critical reflection. This choice of position has resulted in very meaningful analyses. He still gets irritated when people talk about the police without basing themselves on real facts. He tries to balance empirical knowledge with practice.

But what happened after Van Reenen, Fijnaut, Van der Vijver and Naeyé made their contribution? Nationally, and also internationally, they made an impact. The police has always remained open to them and also prepared to give them a chance. Fijnaut also refers to Maurice Punch, the Englishman who made a career as a police researcher in the Netherlands. But Fijnaut has doubts for the future. After many years of political squabbling, the Netherlands have established a national police. Fijnaut is anxious as to whether this development is a potential threat to police science and police research. Does a less centralised organisation offer not more chances? In the future there should be enough space and money to ensure that research can continue. At this point, Fijnaut agrees with Peter Neyroud. Research is crucial for the Police Academy and should not be handed over to the whims of politicians without a fight. Fijnaut is not an advocate for a monopoly for the academy, but he urges for a robust field of research that guarantees continuity. The Dutch Police Academy should grab this chance and take Piet van Reenen as an example.



THEORY OF OPERATIVE POLICE COGNITION IN THE SYSTEM OF POLICE SCIENCES



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Abstract: The personnel of the Academy of the Police Force in Bratislava (the highest police educational institution in Slovakia) are systematically and purposefully involved in the constitution process of police sciences. The Criminal Police Department, with its theory of operative police cognition, tries to fulfil the gap that police theory and police practice continuously bring. Theory of operative police cognition comes from identified needs that were verified through applied research (carried out in 2011 and 2012). The results of research were published in the final report ⁽¹⁾ and scientific monograph ⁽²⁾. The authors of this contribution suggest that attention should be paid to the police processes that are permanently conducted in a police reality, where each spheres of this reality have their own typical processes as a main distinguish feature.

Keywords: police sciences, operative police cognition, scientific cognition, police theory.

Aims of the study

- To create a theory of police cognition (a new branch of theory)
 - To spread qualitative new dimension of knowledge (object and scope of theory, basic conceptual apparatus, methodology, system, relationship with police sciences, police theory and police practice)
 - To share information about situation related to constitution of police sciences in Slovakia
 - To enhance international police cooperation in this field.
- Comparative analysis (situation related to police sciences in Slovakia and in certain surrounding states, e. g. in the Czech Republic)
 - Identification analysis (the needs of police theory and police praxis, police processes and significant domain of police reality, etc.) in parallel with:
 - (a) guided, semi-structured interview with police experts;
 - (b) semi-standardised questionnaire (addressed to external students of the Academy of the Police Force in Bratislava).

Methodology

- Content analysis (books, monographs, studies, papers, archive data, investigation

⁽¹⁾ Lisoň, M. & Korgo, D. (2012), *Possibilities of development of operative police work: final report from applied research*, Bratislava, Academy of the Police Force in Bratislava.

⁽²⁾ Lisoň, M. (2012), *Theory of Operative Cognition*, Bratislava, Academy of the Police Force in Bratislava.



1. THE ROLE AND SCOPE OF POLICE SCIENCES

The staff of the Academy of the Police Force in Bratislava (particularly from profiling departments) pays special attention to the development of police sciences⁽³⁾ as well as the relationship between theory and practice. The activity follows from the needs of the police practice which are to be identified and met by the applied research of the theory.

The role of scientific cognition of the police practice is to serve the police practice itself. While fulfilling this task, the scientific cognition must resolutely eliminate all features of dogmatism or practicism that are still obvious in verbal displays of some police 'experts'⁽⁴⁾. The presence of these facts was verified through interviews with police experts. About 75 % of interviewed police experts have confirmed that scientific cognition in police practice is not appreciated, whilst only 53 % of them suggest that it would be necessary to change this situation. This means that communication problems still exist between practitioners and theoreticians, and probably in the exposure and advertisement of knowledge that was obtained through applied research.

One frequently discussed question in a theoretical environment of the Academy of the Police Force (that has reference to constitution and development of police sciences) is: 'How can we define an object of cognition?' It is clear that it epitomises a difficult theoretical and practical problem. According to the results of our applied research, we are persuaded that the reason is hidden somewhere within the 'disagreement' of the experts on the identity of theoretical and practical needs⁽⁵⁾. To summarise the discussion up to now, we can define police sciences as the 'arising system of scientific knowledge about police reality'.

- Police reality is each objectively occurred reality in a human society in which all specific processes (that refer to police activity) are conducted.

- The processes have their own logistic, mode of existence and consist of situations in which methods and means are used with a purpose to solve these situations.
- The logistic is predominantly composed of generalised scientific knowledge and it has the following forms: legislation, methodology, system of work-management and professional training.

Although not strictly expressed anywhere, the role of police sciences is not only a methodical support of police praxis, but also a deep cognition and explanation of police reality that is usable during the projection of the activity.

Police sciences are practical (applied) sciences, meaning that they are sciences about human activity. They give us a clue, an instruction on how to act purposefully and how to prepare for fulfilling this task. Police sciences should represent the system of knowledge developing in coherence with identified social needs. Through interviews with police experts, the majority of respondents (87 %) are persuaded that they are unable to reach consensus on the identity of theoretical and practical needs and only 10 % of interviewed people claimed that the most important needs of police practice are:

- basic functions and tasks of particular police services (the need to implement community policing);
- management and self-management of police officers in police processes (the need to change the organisational structure of the police force);
- evaluation process (the need of non-formal concept of career progress);
- participation of citizens in crime control (the need of development in professional communication, i.e. in police–citizen relationship).

The basic structure of the police sciences system has two parts, i.e. theory and research. One prerequisite for the constitution of police sciences is a mutual connection of theory and research,

⁽³⁾ The authors of the contribution intentionally use a plural verbal construction 'police sciences'. They see the importance of this approach in variety of police reality that will be explained further.

⁽⁴⁾ Val'ó, Ján. (2011). *Possibilities of cognition of criminal groups activities: qualification rigorous thesis*, Bratislava: Academy of the Police Force in Bratislava, p. 82.

⁽⁵⁾ Lisoň, M. & Korgo, D., *supra nota* 1, p. 98.



although it is obvious that sometimes this synergy doesn't work. These facts markedly complicate the integration of the police sciences system in a theoretical as well as practical plane⁽⁶⁾. According to the majority of respondents (88 %), the synergy between theory and research is dysfunctional. This state is also determined by theory and practise.

- Police practice is too conservative and unable to consider potential effects of applied research results on police practice.
- Police researchers are unable to identify current police needs.
- Synergy does not work because 'transfer of scientific knowledge into police practice' does not work either.

Just as in other sciences, the personnel of the academy tries to find, reveal and detect diversification, all small differences and disunity in the police reality. This approach has a pragmatic character. This is why people are usually interested in the effectiveness of their activity, and their final results frequently influenced by the quality of their preparation. The more accurate and the deeper the knowledge about the activity (system, purposes, aims, processes, means and methods), the better the preparation of the activity is. All the people interviewed confirmed the importance of systematic, long-term studying, whilst almost 80 % of them admitted that training and education was insufficient. The common opinion was that:

- many teachers and trainers are a bit too conservative;
- presented knowledge is static and out-of-date;
- feedback in evaluating the education process is missing.

Therefore, new challenges are to:

- create a functional system of long-term study;
- adopt an education module, e-learning (computer-based training) d-learning (distance education or distance learning);

- involve police experts for theory and practice (national and international), and other progressive methods.

2. CONSTITUTION OF THE THEORY OF OPERATIVE COGNITION

Criminal activity is a certain reality which either happened or not. It may also refer to behaviour and conduct of people before committing a crime, within minutes of committing it and after committing the crime. We come to know about facts through their reflection in the material world and in our minds, and that means that criminal activity is a cognisable object. All these specifics emphasise the importance of the existence of the theory that can be used by police officers in real criminal cases.

As aforementioned, the elaboration of the theory of operative cognition has an interdisciplinary character. Some theories, approaches and sciences (criminalistics, criminology, law, police sciences, and other related sciences) are frequently used during cognition of criminal activity. We can state that the theory of operative cognition increasingly implements theories and methodology of research from other scientific disciplines. Practically, it is possible to see it as a professional job preparation. Future operative workers should have some knowledge in law, criminalistics, criminology, sociology, psychology, pedagogy, economy, informatics, management, marketing, etc.

Based on the results of our applied research, 84 % of interviewed students are aware of the importance of police sciences, mainly law, criminalistics, criminology and psychology, for upcoming operative workers; 6 % stressed the role of informatics and management in operative police work (apart from the first category of scientific disciplines); 11 % were not convinced about the importance of police sciences beside law and criminalistics; and 28 % agreed that there is a need to create a theory of operative cognition supported by both theoreticians and practitioners.

⁽⁶⁾ Erneker, J. & Porada, V. (2006), *Cognition of needs and transfer of scientific knowledge into police practice*, Praha, Police Academy of the Czech Republic, p. 11.



FINAL REMARKS AND CONCLUSION

We are certain that the results presented from our applied research prove that we should create and further develop theoretical knowledge in coherence with police practice. Police practice determines the needs of police cognition, although there are still problems with their

identification. It is extremely challenging for theoretical and practical police experts to find a reasonable solution. Our ambition is to reveal and accept these needs during the elaboration of the theory. With our theory, we wish not only to explain specific police activities (operative and searching activities), but also to create convenient conditions for the projection of conducted processes in its system.



OVERVIEW OF RECENT POLICING-RELATED PROJECTS IN GREECE



Dimitrios Galatoulas,
Center for Security Studies (KEMEA)

GENERAL INFORMATION

The Center for Security Studies (KEMEA) has been established as the Hellenic Ministry of Public Order and Citizen Protection's think tank on security policies. It is a scientific, consulting and research agency, whose purpose is to conduct theoretical and applied research on security policies, particularly at strategic level.

- In 2011, the centre was appointed as the 'national contact point' for the protection of European critical infrastructures (ECIs).
- The centre is authorised to provide professional certification through examinations to private security personnel.
- It has represented the Hellenic government at the European Research and Innovation Forum (ESRIF) of the European Commission (EC).
- It is a member of the Board of Directors of the European Organisation for Security (EOS).
- Currently it is successfully participating in more than 30 research projects funded by the EC and the European Space Agency (ESA).

PROJECT EXAMPLES

The four most sustainable KEMEA's projects with major national and EU security interest are:

1. ISEC PROJECTS



The centre is coordinating three projects funded under the 'Prevention of and fight against crime' (ISEC) programme towards promoting and enhancing the capabilities of the forensic science division of the Hellenic police. Primarily this will be achieved through the acquisition of cutting-edge technological equipment for:

- responding, investigating and analysing CBRN incidents;
- analysing, detailed record-keeping and identifying culprits through DNA;
- investigating, analysing and maintaining a consolidated database for ballistic data.

The equipment acquisition will be supplemented by the establishment of communication channels, persistent cooperation and synergies with all respective European agencies in order to promote and facilitate mutual interexchange of information and best practices on both technological and methodological advancements in the field of forensic science. All three projects entail the study of associated EU



and national legislation in addition to the study of well-established practices, methodologies and technologies in order to draw up both the operational requirements and the specifications for the envisioned equipment listed below.

- ISEC-PRUM (Further strengthening the operational capacity of the Hellenic police to implement the PRUM decision)
- ISEC-CBRN (Advancing the CBRN forensic capacity of the CSI division of Hellenic police)
- ISEC-Ballistic (Expanding the ballistic laboratory data of firearms capability of the CSI division of Hellenic police).

Dissemination actions are foreseen within the scope of each project. Highly focused workshops will be organised, featuring well-acknowledged forensic, political and judicial scientists, experts and agents where best practices and accredited methodologies will be elaborated upon. Moreover, a series of conferences are scheduled to be organised and held in Athens, Greece, in the first semester of 2014.

2. ADVANCED COORDINATION CENTRE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES & APPLICATIONS FOR BORDER SURVEILLANCE (ACRITAS)

The Acritas project aspires to develop an integrated and common border management system, applied to land and sea border control. It is expected to facilitate rapid deployment to harsh and isolated environments, providing multifunctional surveillance capabilities, intelligent data products and innovative services to regional and national authorities. Acritas could operate as a stand-alone fully functional regional command and control (RCC) centre and/or in cooperation with the National Coordination Centre (NCC).

The proposed solution is designed to incorporate functionalities and operational features of a regional mobile command and control centre, providing common situational picture (CSP) and incident management applications to multiple agencies. Another unique feature is the ability to operate both on land and maritime missions, building upon the integration of on-demand sensors (electro-optics, radars, CBRN, acoustic, etc.) operated in real time. The system will be fully modular combining the advantages of mobility

(C & C Centre, Mini-UAVs) and transportability for high operational value areas deployment. This is in contrast to the conventional border guard concept with fixed facilities installed along the entire length of the border, requiring huge infrastructure expenses and a large number of operators.

The overall approach is intended to:

- propose and implement a solution adaptable to local geographical requirements regarding border length and complex topography;
- provide a mobile command and control solution equipped with advanced telecoms;
- collect and process data from existing heterogeneous data sources (radars, electro-optical, CBRN sensors, etc.) mounted on UAVs and ground stations and operated by multiple federal agencies;
- integrate data from existing land and maritime surveillance systems and earth observing products by using state-of-the-art fusion techniques and developing innovative algorithms;
- provide an advanced solution for common situational picture and incident management allowing for the maximisation of the operational capabilities of units deployed in the remotest areas of Greece;
- provide field tests of the derived products in both land and maritime scenarios;
- actively involve end-users in all stages of the project.

3. SAFE AND REVOCABLE BIOMETRIC ID CARDS FOR USAGE IN AMBIENT INTELLIGENCE ENVIRONMENTS (BIO-IDENTITY)



The Bio-identity (Biotaytothta) project's main objective is the secure management of identities in a wide spectrum of network infrastructures



and information systems towards establishing required levels of confidence exploiting biometric identification technologies. More specifically, Bio-identity aims at exploring, identifying and evaluating discreet and non-invasive biometric technologies able to support individuals' identity validation and access control in restricted infrastructures.

Ease of use was a primary design concern as well as using, as much as possible, discreet and soundless sensors. The main idea is that an unobtrusive and user-friendly authentication process will facilitate effective and uninterrupted physical access to infrastructures along to secure and efficient management on users' digital identities. The expected results are closely related to reducing fraud cases and more specifically identity theft and impersonation.

The main objectives of the project are:

- designing a comprehensive system which promotes the security of a wide range of information systems;
- developing the prototype system through the exploitation of modern technologies and tools to increase the level security in controlled environments and buildings;
- the introduction to electronic environments of innovative biometric technologies in combination to encoding/encryption methods of users' personal data.

The proposed system can be regarded as a point of reference for improving existing biometric security systems and promoting the overall level of security in industrial or business environments by ameliorating the systems' precision, reducing failure rates and increasing fraud resilience. Within the scope of the project, a new prototype system for a 'non-interfering' fully automated individual identification and authentication has been developed and implemented. Furthermore, various possibilities regarding encoding and 'biometric identity' revocability have been identified and analysed, reclaiming any existing possibility and newly introduced cutting-edge technologies.

The centre is responsible for developing the system specifications, making elicited and analysing end-users requirements and refining overall solutions' standards. It is also participating actively in disseminating the project's results and is leading

the activities for organising the demonstration and evaluation activities both from security experts and high-ranking end-users.

4. GREEK CYBERCRIME CENTER



The Center for Security Studies, in cooperation with the Foundation for Research and Technology (FORTH), Aristotle University of Thessaloniki (AUTH) and the Greek Self-Regulatory Body for the Content of the Internet (Safenet), under the Prevention of and Fight against Crime (ISEC) call of the European programme's Directorate-General for Home Affairs, have created the Greek Center for Cybercrime (GCC). It is part of an emerging coordinated European effort which has the capacity to significantly improve education and research in the newly growing area of cybercrime and complements transnational projects such as 2CENTRE (The Cybercrime Centres of Excellence Network), and B-CCENTRE. It was established in 2013 as a centre of excellence to promote cybercrime investigation training, research and education, replenishing the void of a national cybercrime centre.

GCC's objectives are to:

- become the Greek knowledge centre in the area of cybercrime;
- mobilise the Greek constituency in the area of cybercrime training, research and education;
- provide high quality short training courses in the area of cybercrime;
- provide interdisciplinary university courses in the area of cybercrime;
- advance research in focused areas of cybercrime such as botnets and cyber-attacks;
- closely collaborate with European cybercrime centres and initiatives.

The Center for Security Studies is responsible for organising and delivering high quality short



training courses to law enforcement personnel, judicial authorities, legal practitioners, public officials, civil society associations, NGOs and professional organisations. On cybercrime research aspect, GCC focuses on cybercrime legal issues, botnet detection and reporting tools, disruptive monitoring approaches and intrusion detection systems (IDS). The Center

for Security Studies leads the research efforts on IDS and focuses on threat-generated risks and induced behaviours of unknown dynamic composition towards real-time threat prediction, identification, detection and mitigation using statistical sequential analysis with semantic monitoring and reasoning components.



SMALL STATE PERFORMANCE IN EU DECISION-MAKING PROCESS: CASE OF THE EU AGENCY FOR THE OPERATIONAL MANAGEMENT OF LARGE-SCALE IT SYSTEMS IN THE AREA OF FREEDOM, SECURITY AND JUSTICE ESTABLISHMENT



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INTRODUCTION

The establishment of EU Agency for the operational management of large-scale IT systems in the area of freedom, security and justice (IT Agency) with its headquarters in Tallinn (approved in September 2011) may be considered as one of the most positive outcomes of the Estonian EU Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) policy so far. It was in Estonia's best interest to create a capable agency that would effectively support the EU internal security and law enforcement-related cooperation. Estonia considered the IT Agency as a good opportunity to participate more actively in the EU JHA domain, and decided to stand as a candidate for its country of location. The process demanded comprehensive commitment and a lot of extra resources.

The aim of the qualitative research was to assess by example of the establishment of the IT Agency how productive Estonian participation has been in the EU JHA decision-making process, as well as determine the main factors for effective participation. The research is based upon the liberal intergovernmental approach that has been shaping the EU JHA cooperation for some pre-Lisbon Treaty decades.

The topicality of the research is based on the need to systematically explain what a small

Member State should take into account in order to participate successfully and upload its policy preferences to the EU level. The main method used was the explanatory case study, consisting of expert interviews and document analysis. Eleven detailed expert interviews from different decision-making levels were conducted with the participants in the creation of the IT Agency both from Estonia and various EU institutions.

CONTEXT AND CONDITIONS FOR SUCCESS

Estonia's success in the highly political process was determined by various factors. The decisive factor was Estonia's prompt political will to be proactive in their EU policy, and the idea to create an IT Agency was a good opportunity for that. The agency's sphere of activity coincided with Estonia's previous innovative, very IT-friendly image and therefore created a suitable context for the official candidature. This context was also supported by the 2003 Council's decision foreseeing that all new EU agencies ought to be head-quartered in the new Member States.

When weighing their candidacy and as early as during the negotiations phase, Estonia constituted



its course of action on the domestically agreed priorities of their EU-directional approach. Verbalising priorities and setting prompt goals makes it possible for small countries to better channel their engagement in the EU policies. This was also the case with Estonia standing as a candidate for the IT Agency's country of location.

In addition, Estonia made the far-sighted decision of choosing experienced officials and professional cooperation partners on the EU level to manage the multi-directional negotiation process. Based on their earlier experiences and having been active in the field for many years, it was easier for them to establish contacts with both the EU institutions and other Member State representatives. Creating cooperation networks and having the skill to use them gives small Member States an edge that enables to strengthen their position in international negotiations, as well as build up a good teamwork environment.

Another criterion of success according to the research was the content of Estonia's offer and also the reasoning behind the candidacy. Estonia was willing to cover the costs for building the headquarters, moreover to use environmentally friendly solutions to do so, offer support teams for personnel to facilitate settling in, as well as create opportunities for offering international education. Estonia's candidacy was based on arguments that were difficult to argue against: there were yet no EU agencies in Estonia, the country was a new Member State, and according to the 2003 Council decision it had reasonable expectations of housing an EU agency.

The right strategy (*ex post*) and choice of appropriate tactics granted success in negotiations. Early preparations on the domestic level, including both the government's approval of the offer and the layout of presenting the candidacy, was what enabled Estonia to portray itself as self-confident and impelling whilst pleading its case. During the negotiations about the country of location, Estonia focused on finding support and forming as large a coalition as possible. For that purpose, a series of meetings took place both in Member States' capitals as well as in permanent representations in Brussels. Officials, politicians and diplomats were involved in the process. Lobbying was at first focused on

neighbouring countries, then moved on to the new Member States, and finally tried to gain the support of all the rest.

Negotiations with France were the most challenging for Estonia. The political weight of their 'competitor' and their experience in the EU cooperation did not give much promise for success to Estonia at the initial stage. At the end of the process, both parties were forced to seek some compromise. Yet consistency and fearlessness were the qualities that eventually brought success and aided in achieving a suitable agreement as described by the experts. Thus it can be said that Estonia used all bargaining strategies that small countries have in their arsenal — forming coalitions, bargaining and striving for self-profit.

The establishment of the IT Agency as a whole was problematic also when striving to achieve an agreement with the European Parliament. The changes in the EU JHA decision-making processes that came about with the changes to the Lisbon Treaty gave the European Parliament more decision-making power, as well as pressured Member States to feel more compelled to make compromises. The Council-approved decision regarding the IT Agency was approved by the European Parliament partly due to Estonia's preparedness for close cooperation and openness in offering clarifications.

CONCLUSION

The creation of the IT Agency could be characterised by being based on the liberal intergovernmental approach. On the other hand — defined by the forcefulness of Estonia's transnational approach — the realisation of Member States' interests and preferences can no longer be realised only through transnational negotiations. However, the changes that have taken place in the EU JHA decision-making processes have given some more opportunities for small Member States in realising their interests due to the fact that in the conditions of a qualified majority votes (QMV) it is easier to form coalitions and thus succeed in reaching the goals that they strive for.



CRIME PREVENTION PROJECT RECEIVES EUROPEAN AWARD



Leonor Sà,
Portuguese Judiciary Police Museum, Museum Curator

'SOS Azulejo', a project designed and implemented by the Portuguese Polícia Judiciária Museum, received the Grand Prix, 'EU Prize for Cultural Heritage/Europa Nostra Awards' 2013, in Category 4 — Education, Training and Awareness-Raising.

Portuguese architecture is known worldwide for its 'azulejos', which decorate the exterior and interior walls of hundreds of thousands of Portuguese buildings, from churches to hospitals, from palaces to railway stations, from fountains to monuments, from all sorts of public buildings to entire ancient urban private housing blocks. Because this kind of cultural heritage is increasingly valued by art experts,

historians and antique dealers, it is getting more and more tempting for art and antiques burglary and trafficking — and the number of thefts has been rising accordingly. These factors put the Portuguese historic and artistic tile heritage at greater risk every day ⁽¹⁾.

The 'SOS Azulejo Project' was launched, in 2007, by the Portuguese Judiciary Police Museum (Judiciary Police School) and has been coordinated since then by its curator, Leonor Sà, who received the award from Plácido Domingo and Androulla Vassiliou, European Commissioner for Education, Culture, Multilingualism, Sport, Media and Youth at the impressive scenery of the ancient Herodes Atticus Theatre in Athens.

www.sosazulejo.com

PROJECTO
SOS
azulejo

Against Theft and lack of Conservation
Protect the Portuguese Historic Tile Heritage

MPJ/EPJ Museu de Polícia Judiciária ESCOLA DE POLÍCIA JUDICIÁRIA	Partners ANMP Associação Nacional de Municípios Portugueses DGCP Direção Geral do Património Cultural	IPT Instituto Politécnico de Tomar RTEACJMSS Rede Temática de Estudos de Azulejaria e Cerâmica João Miguel dos Santos Simões	GNR Guarda Nacional Republicana PSP Polícia de Segurança Pública
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<http://www.sosazulejo.com>

⁽¹⁾ Projeto SOS Azulejo, http://www.sosazulejo.com/?page_id=97 (30.10.2013).



The initial idea of this undertaking was to create a crime prevention project against theft, traffic and vandalism, but it soon grew into something bigger. 'SOS Azulejo' now also includes raising awareness about the importance of this kind of cultural heritage and its conservation, as well as obtaining a global approach and a more effective response to the problem of extensive loss of the 'azulejos'. Indeed, Portuguese 'azulejos' stand out in the world cultural heritage for their invaluable richness, but they have been victim of massive plunder in the last 20 years in terms of theft and, also, lack of conservation.

As the judiciary police have competencies in crimes related to cultural heritage in Portugal, the Portuguese Judiciary Police Museum decided to create 'SOS Azulejo', an interdisciplinary project against theft, vandalism and lack of conservation which included raising people's awareness to the relevance of this cultural heritage. With the important partnership of various organisations — the former Ministry of Culture, two universities, local authorities and other police forces — several actions were implemented from 2007 onwards, attaining important measurable positive results in terms of the project aims and community impact. For example: the decrease of 80 % in registered tile thefts; new

regulations prohibiting demolitions of tile-covered building façades in Lisbon and preventive protection of buildings with important tile collections. These positive results confirm the importance of interdisciplinary work and institutional collaboration towards common goals, transcending the difference of perspectives and optimising resources.

Partners:

- Escola de Polícia Judiciária
- Instituto Politécnico de Tomar (IPT)
- Instituto de Gestão do Património Arquitectónico e Arqueológico (Igespar)
- Associação Nacional de Municípios Portugueses (ANMP)
- Guarda Nacional Republicana (GNR)
- Polícia de Segurança Pública (PSP)
- Rede Temática de Estudos de Azulejaria e Cerâmica João Miguel dos Santos Simões (RTEACJMSS).



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EUROPEAN POLICE CONGRESS 2014

Date: 18–19 February 2014

Place: Berlin, Germany

THE INTERNATIONAL SECURITY AND POLICING SUMMIT IN THE UK – SAFER CITIES

Date: 10 March 2014

Place: London, UK

Info: <http://www.securityandpolicing.co.uk/conference/>

THE SIXTH INTERNATIONAL SURVEILLANCE AND SOCIETY CONFERENCE

Date: 24–25 April 2014

Place: University of Barcelona, Spain

Info: <http://www.ssn2014.net/>

POLICE-LED EXPERIMENTS

Date: 7–9 July 2014

Place: Cambridge, UK

Info: <http://www.crim.cam.ac.uk/events/conferences/ebp/2014/>

NORDIC POLICE RESEARCH CONFERENCE 2014

Date: 19–21 August 2014

Place: Växjö, Sweden

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Date: tbd 2014

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