INNOVATION IN POLICING REGARDING EU MEMBERSHIP IN TURKEY: POLICE OFFICERS' PERCEPTIONS OF COMMUNITY POLICING

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ABSTRACT

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The Turkish National Police (TNP) has been undergoing continuous reform and reorganization for over a decade, with many new departments and training facilities being set up. As part of this continuous change, a number of innovative initiatives, including community policing, have been introduced in Turkey in the past decade in anticipation of European Union membership. The advent of Community Policing (COP) was announced to the Police Organization, in a circular, by the Turkish Interior Ministry in 2005. In support of this new policy style, studies were also undertaken to run an EU sponsored project titled 'Community Involvement in Suppression of Crimes'. It is expected that such policies and programmes will contribute to the approach to policing in Turkey.

Similar to any other innovative initiative, effective implementation of COP as an innovative style depends on the police officers' perceptions and acceptance in particular and the police organisation in general. However, to date, no empirical studies have been conducted to examine officers' perceptions of community policing nationwide.

The aim of this study, therefore, is to examine the perceived effectiveness of COP at the individual level through the expressed perceptions of participating police officers. In addition, this study also aims to identify the selected demographic and experiential variables, which determine the level of effectiveness of COP from the viewpoint of the police officers on the ground. In order to fulfil these aims, this study is constructed as an explorative case study for which primary data is collected through a questionnaire survey administered with 290 law enforcement community police officers from 16 cities across Turkey.

Statistical methods are employed to analyse the primary data. The findings from the OLS regression analysis demonstrate that COP has the potential to be implemented in Turkey. After creating dependent and one independent variable using factor analysis, the results reveals that COP officers strongly support the program and they have positive perceptions of it. In addition, the majority of the participating COP officers are in support of the EU process to help the changing environment in Turkey, particularly in the Police service. The OLS model I identifies six variables with a statistically significant relationship. These variables are: 'European Union', 'fear of crime', 'years of experience', 'volunteer or assigned', 'education' and 'proportion of COP to traditional policing'. The OLS model II reveals that there is a significant relationship in city size (population). In addition, the Black Sea, East Anatolia, and Aegean regions are statistically associated with the effectiveness of COP which means there are no differences according to region in Turkey. The findings of the study also rendered useful information for future developments.

It can be concluded that the findings of this study can be expected to help practitioners, policymakers, and researchers for the development of future policies in the field.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AFSJ	Area of Freedom, Security and Justice
AKP	Justice and Development Party
APD	Accession Partnership Document
CFCU	Central Finance and Contracts Unit
CFSP	Common Foreign and Security Policy
CMAC	Central Monitoring and Assessment Council
CAPS	Chicago's Alternative Policing Strategy
CEPOL	College European de Police
COI	country of origin information
COP	Community Policing
CT	Constitutional Treaty
CUA	Custom Union Agreement
DIS	Decentralized Management System
EURATOM	European Atomic Energy Community
EC	European Commission
ECJ	European Court of Justice
ECSC	European Coal and Steel Community
EDU	Europol Drugs Unit
EEC	European Economic Community
ENPI	European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument
EMS	European Monetary System
EMU	Economic and Monetary Union
ETK	Law for the Turkish National Police Organisation
EU	European Union
EUCIVPOL	Integrated Civil Police Force for the European Union
EUPM	European Union Police Mission
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
GDTNP	General Directorate of Turkish National Police
INTERPOL	International Criminal Police Organization
IPA	Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance
IPARD	Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance for Rural Development

JHA	Justice and Home Affairs
LISREL	Acronym For Linear Structural Relations
KCPD	Kansas City (Missouri) Police Department
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure
MIFF	Multi-Annual Indicative Financial Framework
MoI	Minister of Interior
NAC	National Aid Coordinator
NAO	National Authorising Officer
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NP	Neighbourhood Policing
NPAA	National Program Adoptions of Acquis
NSC	National Security Council
OLAF	European Anti-Fraud Office
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PCSO	Police Community Support Officers
PEC	Provincial Executive Council
PMIB	Prime Minister's Inspection Board
PVSK	Law For Duties And Powers Of Police
QMV	Quality Major Voting
RP	Reassuring Policing
SASEM	Crime Investigation and Research Education Centre
SEA	Single European Act
SIS	Schengen Information System
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TADOC	Turkish International Academy against Drugs and Organized Crime
TCK	Turkish Penal Code
TETRA	Terrestrial Trunked Radio
TEU	Treaty of European Union
TGNA	Turkish Grand National Assembly
TMK	Anti-Terror Law
TNP	Turkish National Police
TNPA	Turkish National Police Academy
TUBIM	Turkish Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction

UCLAF   Co-ordination of Fraud Prevention

VIF   Variance Inflation Factors

CHAPTER 1:

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND THE COMPONENTS OF THE RESEARCH

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Modern policing applications were first implemented in England in 1829 by Sir Robert Peel in the London Metropolitan Police Force, which has undergone radical changes since the 1970s. An important part of the change has been the introduction of a new model policing approach based on community involvement, known as 'Community Policing' (COP). In support of such a change, Peel's well-known principle is often referred to, which states that "police are members of the public and the members of the public are the police" (Mathias *et al.,* 2003; Thornton, 2007, p.12). Since the 1970s the desire to adopt COP has been considered as a new and more democratic paradigm of law enforcement (Buono, 1997).

Many contributors to the field agree that the adoption of COP is an innovation in police services (Skolnick & Bayley, 1986; Moore and Sparrow, 1988; Sparrow *et al.*, 1990; Weisburd & Uchida, 1993; Zhao, 1995; Morabito, 2008). Thus, innovation theory is considered to be an appropriate theoretical framework for the examination of the subject, which is therefore examined in detail.

As the Turkish National Police (TNP) is going through reforms as part of the larger democratisation reforms due to the EU accession process, it is particularly important to examine innovation theory in this context in locating the change that has been taking place in TNP. Bayley (2008) points out that a number of studies on various police forces have concluded that new types of COP paradigms should be considered innovations that were initiated by forces exogenous to the police. In support of this, he states that "police organizations themselves have not been the source of significant reform ideas. Police reform has not been self-generated, but instead it has been instigated by people, or events, outside the police themselves. This is not regrettable, however, but a cause for celebration" (Bayley, 2008, p.8).

It should be noted that a significant number of police departments have implemented COP all over the world in the last three decades. However, Turkey only embraced it five years ago and it should be considered a remarkable shift and major transformation from traditional policing to COP in Turkey.

The Turkish Police has struggled to reorganize and improve its services in both central and local departments since 1983, after the military coup d'état in 1980. Considerable changes have taken place with internal amendments particularly in the education field to prevent human rights violations as part of the larger democratization policies. In this attempt, organizational structure of the TNP underwent important changes through the decentralization strategies, which, as a policy, have been implemented for most of the public sector with the liberalization and structural change policies.

The major changes, furthermore, have started in TNP with Turkey's full membership application to the EU, which has consequences for every aspect of formal life in the country. Being the police forces of a candidate country, TNP has taken major steps to provide alignment in policing issues. One of the major steps is the implementation of the 'Community Police' which has had a considerable effect on the changing environment of policing in Turkey. It can, therefore, be argued that the most significant change in policing in Turkey in the Republican Era (since 1923) has been the adoption of COP in the TNP. Therefore, the main aim of this research is to identify police officers' perceptions about COP implementation in preparation for accession to the EU.

Successful implementation of any innovation is determined by the willingness of its participants to embrace it. Therefore, the adoption and effective implementation of COP requires the acceptance and willingness of police officers involved in the programme, which is the aim of this study.

1.2. AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Considering the innovative nature of COP for Turkey and the impact of the EU accession policies on its adoption in Turkey, this study aims to investigate and analyse the perceptions of community police officers regarding the programme itself and also

their commitment in carrying out the program. This is essentially important, as it is noted that, being the backbone of police organizations, police officers' perception and acceptance of the program is crucial to the effective implementation of such innovative programmes. In addition, this study also aims to identify the determining variables of the acceptance of COP among the COP officers' in Turkey, which are mainly the demographical factors. Thirdly, particular attention is given to Turkey's attempt to become a full member of the EU, and hence accession policies are considered as one of the most important exogenous variable determining the adoption of the programme.

It should be noted that these aims are examined through the primary data assembled from a questionnaire survey which aims to measure the perceptions of the COP officers' in relation to COP-related issues.

The following objectives are developed to respond to the aims of the study:

(i)   to examine the transformation of TNP over the years;

(ii)   to consider the innovation theory and apply it to the study in understanding the introduction of COP in TNP;

(iii)   to examine the impact of the EU as an important determinant factor in the implementation of the COP through the analysis of relevant internal and EU official documents, and also through the perceptions of the participating COP officers;

(iv)   to conduct a questionnaire survey to collect the primary data to measure the perception of the participating COP officers;

(v)   to carry out statistical analysis with the primary data gathered to fulfil the aims of the study;

(vi)   to conduct an interpretative discussing to contextualise the findings of the study through the hypothesis testing.

After defining the objectives of the study, the research questions, which are identified in the next section, will address the conduct of the research.

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions in this study represent both the theoretical background and practical implementation of the COP in Turkey. The literature review provides the models of COP philosophy in the world, particularly in the US and the UK. The collected data is aimed at testing a number of hypotheses derived from the research questions with the objective of accepting or rejecting them according to the perceptions of COP officers of this new way of policing in Turkey. The research questions of this study, hence, are:

(i) What is the nature of the perceptions of police officers toward community policing?

Police officers' perceptions were measured by demographic and descriptive variables in relation to the implementation of COP. As stated before, the successful implementation of COP depends on police officers' perceptions and acceptance. Therefore, officer's perceptions of COP and their commitment in carrying out the basic tenets of COP in Turkey were hypothesized with several variables.

(ii) How is organizational structure related to the effectiveness of community policing?

Organizational structure is defined by the population of the cities, the size of the departments (number of sworn COP officers) and regional participation in the study. Several questions were developed in the questionnaire for this study related to the effectiveness of the COP program and organizational structure.

(iii) What elements help to facilitate the implementation of the community policing program in Turkey?

The advent of COP was announced to the TNP in a circular published in 2005 by the Turkish Interior Ministry. Studies were also undertaken in order to implement a project titled 'Community Involvement in Suppression of Crimes' by the Crime and Crime Prevention Commission established within the Strategy Centre of the Interior Ministry. The expectation is that COP will improve the quality of policing and the system of justice in Turkey with the commitment of governmental and local authorities.

(iv) To what extent do aspirations to join the European Union determine the efficient implementation of community policing practices in Turkey?

One part of the data in this study which consist of seven questions deals with the EU policing implementations and their effect on the TNP. Some questions highlighted the importance of the EU harmonization projects conducted by the TNP, including 'implementation of COP in Turkey', and perception of their possible outcomes on the police organization. Thus, the accession process has a direct impact on the practices of most of the institutions in facilitating the convergence process.

1.4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology in this research allowed the exploration of the subject matter in detail by collecting data from the 16 cities of the seven regions of Turkey to see the effectiveness of COP implementation, which has been implemented since 2005. The aim of the questionnaire was to collect information about the perceptions of police officers regarding this new way of policing. Consequently, this research should be considered as an example of explorative design. It should also be considered as a case study, as this study primarily focuses on a unit in an organization that is a COP in TNP in Turkey.

1.5. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The main theme of this research is the implementation of COP in Turkey, particularly police officers perceptions of potential EU membership. In this respect, this study is divided into nine chapters.

Chapter Two attempts to explain the implementation of COP in Turkey using innovation theory. As a theoretical chapter; this chapter describes innovation theory and its key elements with the main objective of locating the research within such a theoretical framework. In examining the innovation theory, 'organizational commitment', 'governmental commitment' and particularly officers' perception and acceptance, which is 'individual commitment' are considered as components of the innovation theory.

Chapter Three presents and discusses the aspects of research methodology of the study by particularly focusing on research methods, research design and model selection. It also identifies the theoretical dimensions of the research, and looks at how to develop research questions and hypothesis. It also describes the data collection process and the relevant method of analysis of the study.

Chapter Four first defines the meaning of police concept and addresses the structural changes of policing passing through different stages in world history. Then, it reviews the history and literature on how COP was implemented both in the USA and the UK. In addition it identifies how COP emerged as an alternative approach to traditional policing. It also focuses on the main characteristics of COP such as 'personnel', 'organization' and 'community'.

Chapter Five renders a brief history of the TNP and traditional policing methods prior to the introduction of the COP Program in Turkey. It also address the structural changes of policing covering different stages in Turkish history beginning from the Ancient Turks to today. Then it examines the organizational structure of the police, its duties and functions. Finally, it discusses both the national and international education and training system of the Turkish Police. Furthermore, successful COP implementation from Provincial Police Departments highlights the achievement of the program in Turkey.

Chapter Six provides a contextualization of the research by presenting the developments in EU institutionalization in general and also developments in Turkey's relations with the EU and the EU accession process. It also provides a summary of Turkey's accession process by examining the current accession process and, moreover; reforms and harmonization packages passed by the Turkish Grand National Assembly (TGNA) in general. In addition, it examines the adaptation process of the Turkish National Police in preparation for EU membership. In the second part, it also identifies the importance of EU harmonization aimed police projects and attempts to find out the Turkish Police's capability for implementation and its potential for success in the adaptation period.

Chapter Seven, being the first empirical chapter, is based on the analysis of a questionnaire schedule, as mentioned in detail in Chapter 3. In addition, this chapter

explains how dependent and independent variables are constructed. Furthermore, it illustrates the central importance of descriptive statistics of demographic and organizational variables in detail which not only provides useful information on the variables but also enables the researcher to check if the research questions can be explained by the available variables.

Chapter Eight provides an account of and the reasons for the use of regression analysis and its appropriateness for this study. Therefore, regression analysis is utilised to examine police officers' perceptions in determining the significant variables on the effectiveness of COP nationwide, which is presented in detail with all its aspects.

Chapter Nine discusses the findings of the study in an interpretative manner and provides recommendations for future policy, particularly with regard to potential EU membership. It also concludes this study.

CHAPTER 2:

SEARCHING FOR A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF COP IN TURKEY

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study lies on the implementation of COP in Turkey. Innovation theory can be considered to be an appropriate tool for the examination of the subject and is therefore examined in detail. In examining the innovation theory, 'Organizational Commitment', 'Governmental Commitment' and, in particular, 'Individual Commitment', i.e. officers' perception and acceptance, are considered as components of the innovation theory.

As stated earlier, the TNP has been undergoing continuous reform and reorganization for over a decade, with many new departments and training facilities being set up. In addition, a number of innovative initiatives, including COP, have been introduced in Turkey in the past decade in anticipation of EU membership, and it is hoped that these measures will develop in a way which contributes to policing in Turkey.

The TNP has been struggling to overcome the challenges in reorganizing itself with the objective of improving service delivery in both the central and local departments. The most significant change in policing in Turkey during the past 85 years has been the adoption of COP in the TNP. Therefore, the question arises to what extent this innovation (COP) changes the philosophy of policing in Turkey.

As a theoretical review chapter, this chapter begins by describing innovation theory and its key elements with the main objective of locating the research within such a theoretical framework. The chapter discusses innovation as a concept in policing from a general perspective and then explores the theoretical underpinnings of innovation theory as compatible with the COP. Finally, in the last part, this chapter intends to determine how innovation theory can help us in terms of implementing COP ideas, principles, and values in TNP, and how TPN appropriates as a possible alternative to the existing policing in Turkey.

2.2. INNOVATION THEORY

According to a definition provided by Kimberly and Evanisko (1981, p. 85), the term 'innovation' refers to "bring[ing] some new method" and "discrete product or program" into an organization. In the literature, innovation tends to be used in several contexts beyond strategic management, particularly in establishing a new structure such as COP, motor voter registration systems, regional governance councils, and charter schools. In a more comprehensive manner, many scholars define innovation as the "development of a technology, system, practice, and product and/or use adoption of new ideas or behaviours" (Wood 1998; Oerlemans *et al.,* 1998; Hage, 1999; Walker 2008; Damanpour & Schneider, 2009).

The innovation concept has been applied mostly to the private corporate sector. However, the expectations in the public sector are still the same, as through innovation the public sector and public administration aim to enhance public policy "for the better" (Mitchell, 2001).

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on innovation theory; however, the first serious analysis of innovation, particularly the diffusion of innovation, emerged during the 1960s with Everett Rogers, the author of more than thirty publications in this field. The best known of his books is: *Diffusion of innovations* which was published in 1962 with many editions printed in later years.

While a variety of definitions of the term innovation have been suggested, the definition suggested by Rogers (2003, p. 11) refers to the micro dynamics: "it's an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption". In this process-oriented definition, the post-innovation period is also considered, i.e. the diffusion stage. Diffusion, as a concept, is defined as "the process in which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system" (Rogers, 2003, p. 5).

Rogers (1995) identified four elements in the diffusion of innovations: 'the innovation', 'communication', 'time', and 'the social system', which can be described individually as follows:

Innovation: In addition to the definition of innovation as stated above, it is also stated that "if the idea seems new to the individual, it is an innovation" (Rogers, 1995, p. 11).

Communication: According to Rogers (1995, p. 11), as an important part of the diffusion process, "[c]ommunication is a process in which participants create and share information with one another to reach a mutual understanding".

Time: This is another important element of diffusion innovations, which is classified into three dimensions: the innovation-decision process, adopter categories, and the rate of adoption (Rogers, 1995).

Social System: The fourth essential element in the diffusion of innovations, the main essence of the social system, is to develop cooperation between individuals, groups, and organizations to reach a common goal (Rogers, 1995).

In expanding the idea and researching the aspects of 'innovation', Johannessen *et al.* (2001) defined innovation as "newness: what is new, how new, and new to whom". In conducting an empirical study through factor analysis on 684 firms, Johannessen *et al.* (2001) revealed that there are four different dimensions in innovation literature. These are: 'individual-oriented'; 'structure-oriented'; 'interactive-oriented'; and 'systems of innovation- oriented'.

Taken as a whole, after highlighting different aspects of innovation in the literature, the main purpose of engaging with innovation is articulated by Damanpour and Gopalakrishnan (1998, p. 4) as a "means of changing the organization to facilitate the adaptation to changing environments in order to sustain or increase organizational effectiveness".

The next section will focus specifically on how these paradigms are appropriate for policing and to what extent they can be implemented effectively. This is particularly important in cases where police organisations have to go through changes to fit into the democratisation process. Considering that the Turkish Police Organisation is going through reforms as part of the larger democratisation reforms due to the EU accession process, it is particularly important to examine innovation theory in this context.

2.3. STRENGHT OF INNOVATION THEORY IN EXPLAINING CHANGES IN POLICING

Many scholars have agreed that the adoption of COP is an innovation in police services (Skolnick and Bayley, 1986; Moore and Sparrow, 1988; Sparrow *et al.,* 1990; Weisburd and Uchida, 1993; Zhao, 1995; Morabito, 2008). However, to date there has been little agreement on the definition of innovation, thus there is no index to measure it. In this respect, as has been highlighted in Kimberley's (1981) definitions, police scholars have also defined innovation as a "product or program that is state-of-the-art for possible adopters" (Weiss, 1992; Zhao, 1995; Moore *et al*., 1996; King, 1998). In addition, other researchers have also considered the COP as an innovation which has resulted in significant change to the structure or procedures of an organization (Skogan, 2004; Morabito, 2008).

A recent study by Morabito (2008) identified the three components used both in COP and innovation theory. These are: 'Community Characteristics', 'Organizational Characteristics', and 'Organizational Commitment'. According to Morabito (2008) *Community Characteristics* which covers 'income level', 'government structure', 'public safety', 'the centralization of power', is the main indicator for both COP and adoption of innovations in agencies. In addition, he highlights the importance of the 'exchange of ideas', 'decreasing the layers of internal bureaucracy', and 'size of agency' as key concepts in both the innovation and COP implementations from *Organizational Characteristics* perspectives. Moreover, he draws attention to training activities as an *organizational commitment* which can be characterized as resources for an innovation and also investment for COP officers. In another major study, Moore, *et al.* (1997) divided police innovation into four subcategories. These are: 'programmatic', 'administrative', 'technological, and 'strategic' innovations.

After providing a general understanding and application of innovation in policing, the next section will identify how innovation theory is compatible with the COP program in Turkey and to what extent the innovation approach will support the changing process in TNP in the light of Turkey's EU membership.

2.4. REFLECTING ON DIMENSIONS OF INNOVATION THEORY IN POLICE FORCES

In order to understand the innovations that have taken place in TNP it is vital to look at the key factors which made this change possible. Thus, the general principles of innovation literature, as mentioned above, can be applied to TNP as follows: First of all, 'individual commitment', which is crucial in order to observe the officers' acceptance and perception of COP since they are the performers of this new way of policing. Second, 'Governmental Commitment', which is essential for the social, political and economic aspects in order to implement it effectively nationwide. Third, 'Organizational Commitment', which is crucial to settle a new program in the organization and is mostly provided by training programs to police officers (Drucker, 1993; Rogers, 1995 and 2003; Morabito, 2008).

As will be addressed in the succeeding chapter, COP started its journey in Turkey as part of the EU harmonization project under the title of 'Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the TNP'. In this respect, detailed examination of Bayley's (2008, p. 8) study 'Police Reform: Who done it?' shows that big reform ideas in policing come from outside of the organization as a transformational or exogenous innovation. In examining the changes which have taken place in American police forces over the years since 1976, Bayley identifies nine innovations that were initiated by forces exogenous to the police. He claims that:

> Police organizations themselves have not been the source of significant reform ideas. Police reform has not been self-generated. It has been instigated by people, or events, outside the police themselves. This is not regrettable, however, but a cause for celebration. (Bayley, 2008, p.8)

In addition, Damanpour (1991) states that since environments are permanently changing, organizations should also harmonize themselves and adopt new programs accordingly. Thus, he defined innovations as a response to "external environments, or as primitive actions taken to influence environment" (Damanpour, 1991, p.377), which is very much related to the evolution which has taken place in the TNP through the EU accession process.

It can, therefore, be concluded that the main motive for the introduction of COP in Turkey was Turkey's wish to join the EU with the objective of enhancing the capabilities of the TNP with particular reforms such as COP implementation. According to Bayley (2008) and Damanpour (1991) COP having been implemented as part of the EU harmonisation process does not undermine the nature of 'innovation'. However, it indicated that the nature of innovation is exogenous or transformational. In other words, Bayley (2008) states that TNP could not innovate through its own dynamics, but rather it could transplant the innovation developed by other police forces. This, however, still remains as an organisational innovation, as it represents something 'new'.

In this respect, Damanpour (1991) and Rogers (1995) identified four types of innovation process: 'initiation'; 'implementation'; 'sustainability'; and 'institutionalization'. When looking at these in relation to TNP's adoption of COP, it should be stated that the initiation period of COP has already started with EU harmonization projects. Thus, the current situation of COP is the implementation phase, which has been growing steadily throughout the local police agencies in Turkey.

As a result, it is essential to look at the above three dimensions of innovation concept to scrutinize the implementation of COP in Turkey. These are: 'individual commitment'; 'organizational commitment'; and 'governmental commitment', which are discussed in detail below.

2.4.1. Individual Commitment

One of the key elements of the success of COP is commitment of the individual police officers, as they are the performers of this duty on the street. Thus, they have to be willing to give their time to participate, which requires voluntary action. In this respect, both Lurigio and Rosenbaum (1994) and Cordner (1994) reported that COP provides positive changes in police officers' attitudes toward their job and the community they serve. In addition, Sparrow *et al.* (1992) described officers' commitment as a 'street-level innovation' in which they make their own decisions and find new solutions to problems. Klein and Sorra (1996) point out that individuals'

commitment is central to effective innovation implementation and it is the most significant criteria for the change process.

In this theoretical framework, Kirton (2003) mentioned the special situations of individuals and defined them as 'agents of change'. In addition, Greenhalgh and Robert *et al*. (2004, p. 598) identified individuals in this framework as active recipients of innovations from several indicators such as: they "seek innovations, experiment with them, evaluate them, find meaning in them, develop feelings (positive or negative) about them, challenge them, worry about them, complain about them, gain experience with them, and try to improve them". Furthermore, Rogers (1995, p. 30) also characterized individual commitment as 'contingent innovation decisions' and he argued that after a collective decision is made by an agency "an individual member of a social system may be free to adopt or not adopt a new idea only after his/her system's innovation-decision".

After addressing the importance of an individual commitment to the success of a new program in an agency within the innovation framework, the next section will consider organizational commitment and its responsibilities to establish a new idea in an organization.

2.4.2. Organizational and Peripheral Commitment

The definition for innovation provided by Drucker (1993) mainly addressed the importance of systematic efforts, and a high degree of organization for the achievement of the new application. In this respect, Rogers (2003) draws our attention to leaders in the organizations which have absolute power for the implementation of a program in highly structured organizations such as police agencies. This view is supported by Morabito (2008) who concludes that the rejection or adoption of new programmes depends on the head of the organization such as the chief of staff of police forces. Moreover, Damanpour and Schneider (2009) in their study "Assessing the Role of Managers" also revealed that public administrators and business managers have to persuade their staff to accept a new program and to develop ideas for change and innovation. Therefore, it may be inferred that the views of the heads of organizations support the achievements of programs like COP.

Another important factor in organizational commitment is 'training activities', which are provided by police departments. Morabito (2008) highlighted the necessity of training for the success of the innovation process, underlining the need to set aside and arrange training for COP officers. In addition, he concluded that the presence of a COP training program makes clear both organizational commitment and the adoption of the innovations.

The media factor should also be considered as a primary reason for the achievement of organizational commitment, as local as well as national press have a great impact on the successful implementation of a new program such as COP. Thus, police agencies must establish good relations with media organs to inform citizens about the main aim and principles of the new program (Edwards & Hayeslip, 1997) for efficient acceptance and recognition of the programmes. It should be remembered that one of the four elements in Rogers (2003) diffusion of innovations is 'communication channels', including media, which have great impact on transmitting messages to target audiences.

Another example of why the media is crucial for the successful implementing of COP is demonstrated by Chermak and Weiss (2006), who have drawn attention to the fact that some variables directly affect the success of COP, such as: support of citizens, public awareness and systematic flow of information to the public. Hence, media support explicitly leads to great contribution to the success of the program and makes citizens aware of 'what police departments are doing'. Consequently, it can be suggested that to accelerate the implementation process of a new program the agencies must establish contacts with different institutions by organizing meetings or using electronic media such as internet, email, and webmail (Brynjolfsson & Hitt, 2000).

One other factor that could affect the success of the COP program would be to hire new police officers. In this respect, Worrall and Zhao (2003) points out that COP is a 'labour-intensive innovation' that needs additional police officers to start a new program. In addition, it is also reported by Zhao *et al*. (2005) that undertaking an innovation require additional labour forces like COP programs. Thus, in their work they argued that "The greater the increase in the number of commissioned officers,

the greater will be the number of COP programs and strategies implemented in an agency".

2.4.3. Governmental Commitment

Government as an entity has direct and indirect impact on innovations and programmes through their regulations and policies. Governmental organizations are created to serve citizens as effectively and efficiently as possible (Moore, 1995). In this process, Osborne and Gaebler (1992) see government as an instrument that citizens use. They argue that government is an important mechanism to be able to make collective decisions such as how to provide security (p.24). In this respect, Morabito (2008a) rightly points out that COP reforms should not only be an internal police decision-making process but could also be concerned with local governors such as the mayor and city managers.

In addition, since the government is considered responsible for reducing crimes and crime prevention, all citizens can benefit from police services as they should be (Weimer & Vining, 2004). As a matter of fact, the study of Brudney (1989) shows that for the delivery of public services, collaboration should be established among the local government bodies, citizens, neighbourhood associations and particularly with community organizations which have vital influence over local policing policies.

Moreover, one of the most significant researches, by Cardarelli *et al.* (1998) which measured 'factors important to the success of COP' revealed that 76 of the 82 chiefs declared that the support of local mayors, city managers and town officials was vital to the long-term success of the COP program. The results of their investigation also showed that without the support of the municipal agencies the police could not handle specific problems such as abandoned housing, racial tensions and the homeless.

2.5. CONCEPTUALISING AND ARTICULATING INNOVATION THEORY FOR COP FOR TNP

Basing the discussion on innovation theory and its application to policing in the preceding section, the following conceptual model has been constructed to

demonstrate the dimensions and activities of the structural changes taking place in TNP with COP practices, which is depicted in figure 3.1.

In order to contextualise the formulated model, the following section discusses the parameters and variables of the model:

Individual Commitment: The primary emphasis of individual commitment is highlighted by the following variables: 'volunteering', 'age', 'education' and 'discretion', which are discussed in detail as follows:

Volunteering: COP officers are selected among the volunteering candidates after the announcements made at the provincial police organizations. The police officers who were appointed as COP officers were asked whether they were volunteering for this job or not. In short, they are voluntarily doing COP and satisfied with performing this program in a special unit which only deals with COP activities.

Figure 2.1: Integrated Framework of COP implementation with Innovation Principles
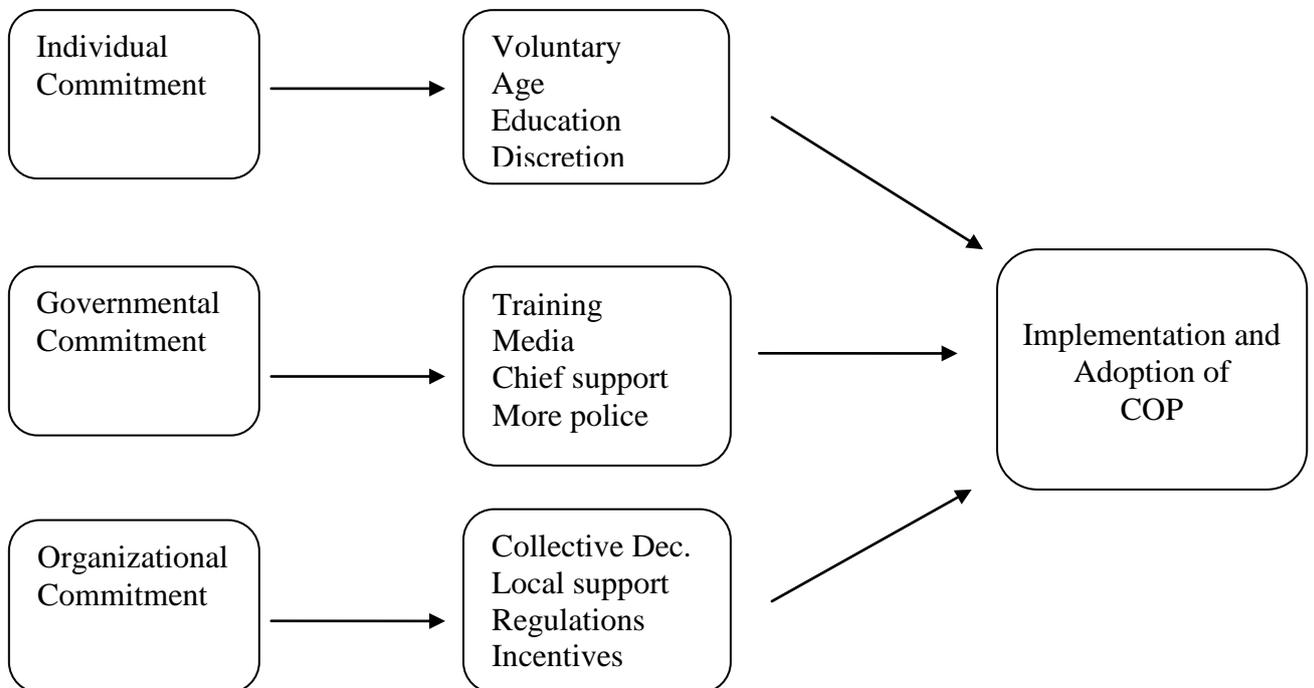
Age: The application and practice of COP in Turkey indicates that there is no age restriction on becoming a COP officer. According to the data gathered from TNP (see Ch.7), the age distribution of community police officers is as follows: 14.3 percent are

younger than 25 years old, 64.5 percent of them are between 26 and 33 years old, 19.7 percent are between 34 and 41 years old and finally just 1.4 percent are older than 42 years. Therefore, it can be inferred that more than half of the respondents are between 26 and 33 years of age.

Education: Since education is considered an important factor in the adoption and development of innovation, in the case of COP, volunteering individuals should have a certain level of education in order to fulfil the requirements of COP related duties. Concerning the education of community police officers, the data collected from the TNP (see Ch.7) shows that 22.6 percent have a high school (police high school) diploma and 77.4 percent of them have a university degree. Given this result, it can be seen that three quarters of respondents have a Bachelor degree, which indicates the importance given to the successful implementation of the programme.

Discretion: COP is highly dependent on officers showing initiative and an ability to make decisions in urgent situations. As a result of making immediate decisions, fast and effective solutions are provided for local problems, which is one of the main philosophies of the program. One of the most significant contributions of police discretion in Turkey is to diminish bureaucracy and find quick solutions to problems, which makes citizen happy.

Organizational Commitment Organizational commitment is explained through four concepts: 'training'; 'media'; 'support of the chief' and more police officers.

Training: TNP has made great efforts to provide adequate training for COP officers. The most significant one is that police officers who have not received basic COP training cannot be assigned as COP officers. After their recruitment as COP officers, they continue with in-service training. Each member of staff takes in-service training every four months according to the curriculum, which helps to update and refresh their knowledge. One of the main expectations from these trainings is to reach high level of satisfaction both for citizens and the police in the community. For this reason, some of the courses provided to COP officers are as follows: 'COP Philosophy', 'Time Management', 'Cultural Diversity', 'Communication with Local Authorities', 'Ethics', 'Citizen Involvement Programs', 'Local Responsibilities in Crime Prevention', 'Using Crime Data' and 'Communication Skills'.

Media: A considerable amount of literature has addressed the importance of the media in achieving expected results in COP implementations. Kose (1995) states that the media is not only a vital tool for announcing the policies of police departments to the public, but it also creates a positive attitude toward the police. Another reason why the media is considered to be important in Turkey is the increasing numbers of private and public TV channels, which play a leading role in influencing citizens regarding police activities in their local community.

*Support of the Chief***:** The current general directorate of TNP Koksal (2007) has drawn attention to the fact that COP practices are embraced by every public sector in Turkey and increased public satisfaction in the police. In addition, it has led to an improvement in the police's image in the community. Furthermore, COP implementations are supported by the former Interior Minister Aksu (2007) who addressed the fact that the general purpose of COP is to strengthen the relationship between the police and the community which has led to effectively combating crime. He also added that community participation and contribution are the key factors in creating a secure environment to solve mutual problems which are the main paradigms of COP philosophy. Furthermore, the current Interior Minister, MoI Atalay (2009) regards each COP officer as an individual representative of the TNP, who can reach even very small areas to resolve the problems without further issues. Due to having direct access to citizens on the street, these officers observe the needs, suggestions and demands of the citizens and try to meet them immediately, providing efficiency in the delivery of the services. Overall, COP has been effective in fulfilling the aim of strengthening community associations and social mechanisms to combat crime efficiently.

More Police: The success of COP is associated with having enough personnel to perform the program effectively. In Turkey COP has been executed both at central and local levels under the umbrella of the Public Order Department which is also responsible for ensuring coordination across the country. COP services are executed in the 15 Metropolitan Municipalities at Branch level. In addition, in 66 cities COP is carried out at Bureau level. To carry out all COP activities effectively new police officers who also have university degrees have been appointed on a voluntary basis.

Governmental Commitment: Perhaps the key event facilitating the implementation of COP has been the strong endorsement of this concept by the GDTNP, and MoI. Such commitment is explained through variables such as 'collective decision', 'local support', 'regulations' and 'incentives'.

Collective Decision: Because policing operates in a political environment, it is important for the COP service to be seen in this context in order for it to attain permanent results and gain support. For this reason the COP was announced to the Police Organization in a circular published in 2005 by the Turkish Interior Ministry. Studies were also undertaken by the Crime and Crime Prevention Commission established within the Strategy Centre of the Interior Ministry to make COP as an institution possible.

Regulations: In order to implement the COP within the TNP, a number of regulations have been produced by the Turkish government over the years, which are as follows: 1982 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey; Law no. 2559 of Police Powers; Law no. 3201 of the Police Organization; Law no. 5442 of the Provincial Administration; Law no. 4320 Concerning the Protection of Families; Law no. 5395 of Child Welfare; and Decisions of the EU, EC, and UN Concerning Suppression Of Crimes.

Local Support: COP services regulations (Article 5.3) highlighted that the main future of the COP is its location-based services, which provide local solutions to local problems. In this regard, central government provides the necessary support to local COP implementation via city governors, district governors and with city mayors. These city managers are responsible for the effective functioning of COP in their regions.

Incentives: The successful implementation of any programme requires properly defined motivation and incentives. As part of such incentives, COP officers cannot be called in on their off-duty times and no duty can be given out by the primary task which is COP practice. Their standard daily shift starts at 8.30 until 12.00 noon and continues in the afternoon from 13.30 until 18.00. They have rest time between 12:00 to 13:30 hours. In addition, COP officers wear their own uniform to distinguish them from other police officers.

2.6. CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the rationale and the reasons for applying innovation theory in policing. In addition, it aimed to establish a conceptual theoretical framework by addressing the roles of individual, organizational and governmental factors and their support of the COP program in Turkey. Moreover, in the data analysis chapter, the aforementioned variables were evaluated and used in detail and measured by SPSS in a statistical manner to establish their impact.

CHAPTER 3:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND MODEL SELECTION

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will examine the nature of research methodology, focusing particularly on research methods, research design and model selection. It begins with a literature review concerning the effectiveness of using the identified research strategy and highlights the importance of structuring research and research methods. It also identifies the theoretical dimensions of the research, and looks at how to develop research questions and hypotheses and make them consistent with each other. In addition, it shows us the relationship between theory and research and also presents the statistical equation. The final part describes the data collection process and the relevant analysis method and addresses the limitations and difficulties of the study.

3.2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Before defining research methodology, it is essential to differentiate between the words 'research' and 'methodology'. The broad use of the term 'research' is mostly associated with finding answers to organized systematic questions. In this respect, Shuttleworth (2008) uses the term 'research' to refer to any gathering of data, information and facts for the advancement of knowledge. Moreover, Kumar (2008, p. 2) examines the meaning of research according to various researchers' definitions and lists key, common aspects of research as follows:

    i.   Research is a systematic inquiry;

    ii.   Research is an investigation into a subject or specific field of knowledge;

    iii.   Research is undertaken to establish facts or principles;

    iv.   Research is an original contribution to the existing stock of knowledge making for its advancement.

On the other hand, the generally-accepted definition of 'methodology' is provided by Boland (1987) who defines it as the "study of methods" or "study of scientific method". In addition, in an integrated manner, methodology is generally understood to be "inclusive of research design, theoretical frameworks, the selection and analysis of data relevant to the nominated topic, and justified preferences for particular types of data-gathering activities" (Murray and Lawrence, 2000, p. 218). Thus as a concept 'research methodology' describes "the study of method and principles and their application in a given field of academic inquiry" (O'Sullivan and Rassel, 1989, pp. 209-210).

Singh (2008, p.133) lists the main characteristics of research methodology as follows: "identifying problems"; "review of the literature review"; "formulating hypothesis"; "procedure for testing hypothesis"; "measurement"; "data collection"; "analysis of data"; "interpreting results" and "drawing conclusions". These all refer to various aspects of the research process and stages of research methodology.

Kumar's (2008) definition of research methodology also identifies the differences between research method and research methodology. According to Kumar, research methodology is a way to systematically solve problems and it has many dimensions, whereas research method only constitutes one part of it in terms of identifying the research tools for data collection and analysis. The scope of research methodology, thus, covers research method and shows us the logic behind the particular research method and tells us why specific research techniques have been chosen.

In the social research field, research methodology is generally grouped into two broad types: quantitative and qualitative. The common definition of quantitative research is essentially the collection of numerical data to explain a particular phenomenon, and particular questions (Muijs, 2004) by focusing mostly on factual data such as statistical data. In addition, Bryman and Cramer (1999) classify the quantitative data analysis process into eight main sub categories. These are: 'theory', 'hypothesis', 'operationalization of concepts', 'selection of respondents or participants', 'setting up research design', 'collecting data', 'analyzing data', and 'findings'. The following diagram illustrates each process step by step.

Figure 3.1: Quantitative Data Analysis Process

Theory

Hypothesis

Operationalization of concepts

Selection of respondents or participants

Survey/Correlational design

Conduct interviews or administer questionnaires

Experimental design

Create experimental and control groups

Carry out observations and/or administrative tests or questionnaires

Collect Data

Analyze Data

Findings
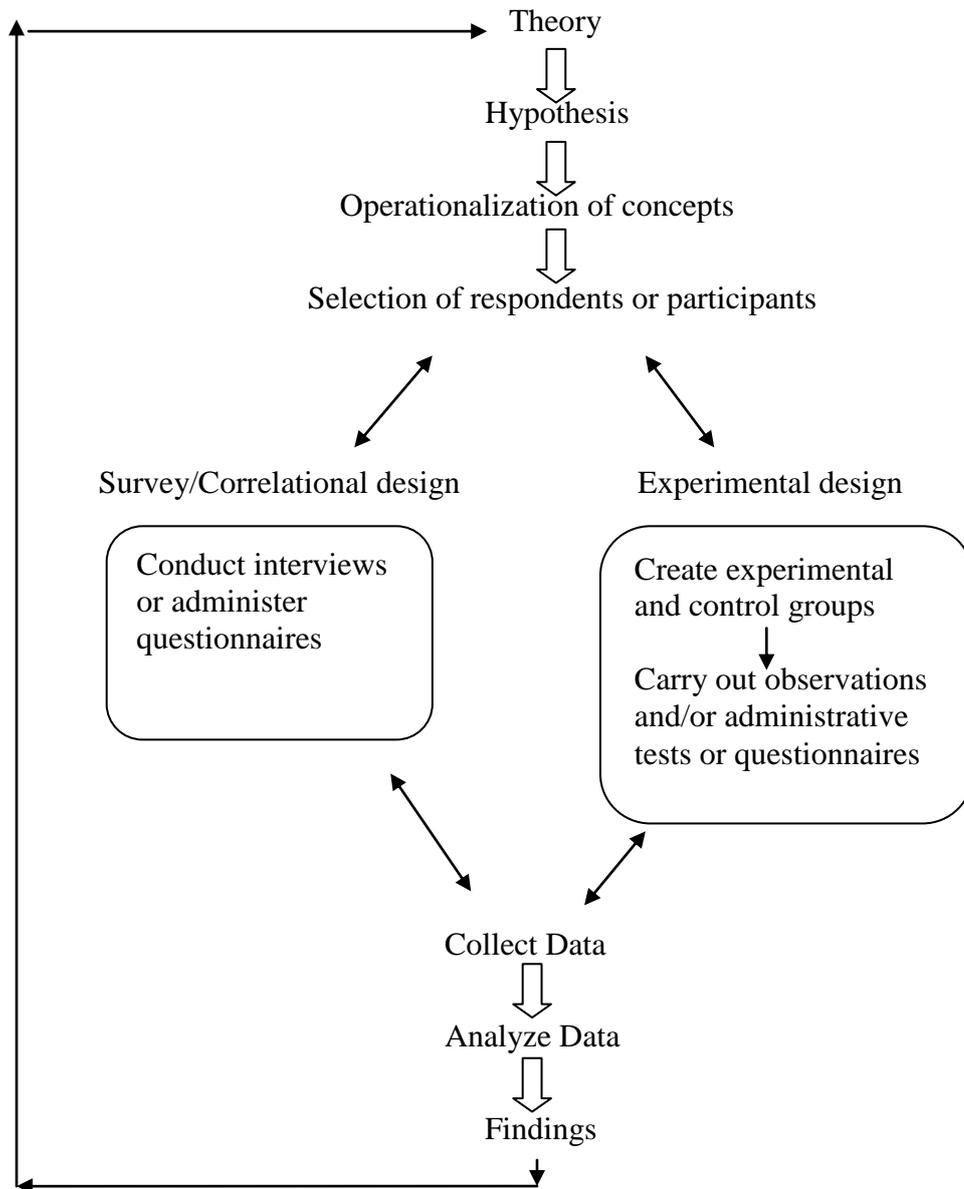
The simple definition suggested by Bryman of qualitative methodology is "an approach to the study of the social world which seeks to describe and analyze the culture and behaviours of humans and their groups from the point of view of those being studied" (1988, p.46). Thus, qualitative research is mainly explorative and directly focuses on participants' preferences, perceptions and opinions.

In addition, Denzin and Lincoln state that qualitative methodology is employed in "natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (1994, p.2). Glesne and Peshkin (1992) define

qualitative method as an umbrella term for various philosophical orientations to interpret research. As an example they add that researchers are capable of studying work ethnography, case study, phenomenology, educational criticism, human ethnology, ecological psychology, holistic ethnography, cognitive anthropology and ethnography of communication. They also discuss the advantages of quantitative methods by paying attention to the researcher's behaviour. According to them the researcher's role in quantitative research is "to observe and measure, and care is taken to keep the researcher from 'contaminating' the data through personal involvement with the research subjects" (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992, p.6).

After examining the differences between these two methods, it can be concluded that this research is constructed as qualitative research, which aims to measure the identified research questions through an explorative case study. However, as will be seen later, the research method used in this study is quantitative.

3.3. RESEARCH STRATEGY

In addition to research methodologies, research strategy is an important aspect of the research process. The literature indicates that there are also two main research strategies, 'inductive' and 'deductive'.

The inductive approach is generally understood to begin with specific observations and measures and end up with general conclusions or theories. It also tends to be used to refer to the "bottom up" approach. However, the deductive approach starts from more general and goes to the more specific which is commonly called the "top-down" approach (Trochim, 2006).

Misra (2006) identifies the main strategic differences of both approaches: the deductive approach considers "the deduction of a series of events or states from a set of pre-established axioms and comparison of observed phenomena". On the other hand, the inductive approach "starts with observation of a set of phenomena and concludes with some suggestions" (p.39).

The key aspects of both approaches processes are illustrated by (Trochim, 2006) using the following model.

Figure 3.2: Top down Approach

Deductive Approach	Inductive Approach

<div align="center">

Deductive Approach   Inductive Approach

Theory   Theory

⇓   ⇑

Hypothesis   Tentative Hypothesis

⇓   ⇑

Observation   Pattern

⇓   ⇑

Confirmation or rejection   Observation

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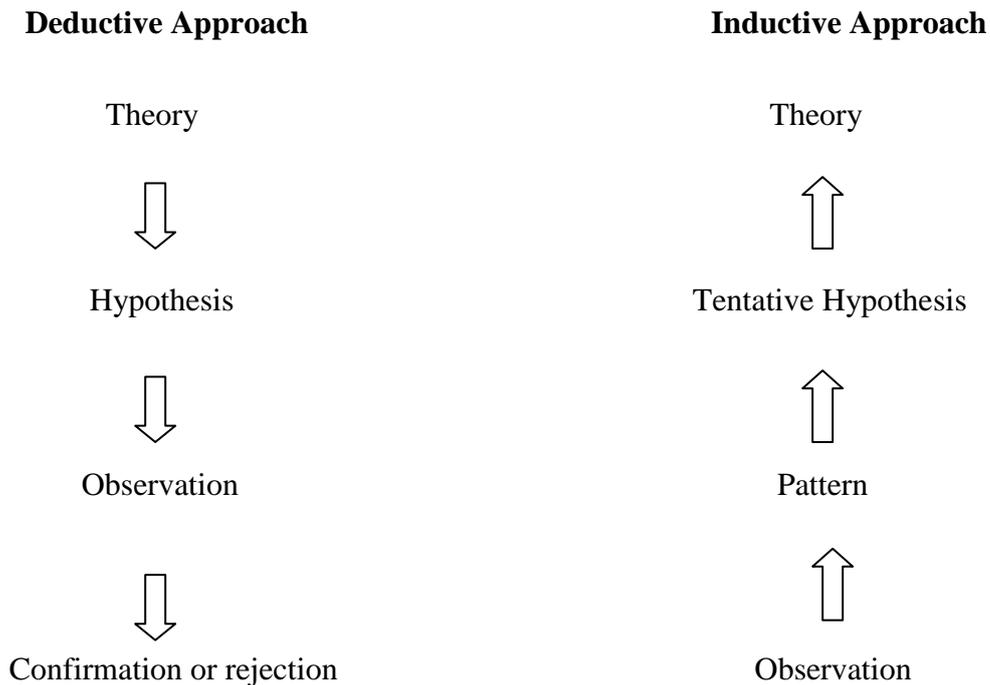
This study is restricted to the inductive research strategy, as it begins with the field study which looked at the measurement of the participants' perceptions. Initially, the survey questions were prepared and distributed and data was collected. After analyzing the data, the appropriate theory was chosen and hypotheses arranged according to the main flow of the theory. Finally, the specific pattern of 'effectiveness of COP' implementation was evaluated among the police officers.

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The importance of research design is identified by Vaus (2001, p.9) who states that a "builder or architect can develop a work plan or order materials before they must first establish the type of building required". Likewise, in social research researchers have to think what information they require to answer their research questions. Otherwise, the conclusions drawn from the results will be weak, incompatible and give inadequate answers to the research questions. In addition, he adds that research design is not a part of the data collection method. As research design can be applied to both quantitative and qualitative methods and it is not concerned with how the data is collected, it refers to the "structure of an enquiry; it is a logical matter rather than a logistical one" (p.16).

Maurice (1998) also defines research design, stating that "Research design situates the researcher in the empirical world, and connects the research questions to data". He also draws attention to the four main principles of research. These are: strategy; conceptual framework; questions of whom or what will be studied and tools used for collecting and analyzing empirical materials. He argues that research design covers these principles with the following ideas: the data will be collected (and analysed) "following what strategy? within what framework? from whom? and how?" (p. 166).

Research design has been classified into different sub-groups by researchers. However, the most commonly used are (Henn *et al.,* 2006, p. 60):

i. Comparative design.
ii. Experimental design;
iii. Explorative design
iv. Cross-sectional design;
v. Longitudinal design;
vi. Case study design;
vii. Action research design;
viii. Evaluation research design.

This research has been designed as an explorative case study, as it aims to locate the perceptions of the participants in relation to identified aims and hypotheses. Thus, only this particular method has been assessed in detail below. The main purpose of explorative design is to "investigate an issue or a topic in order to develop insight and ideas about its underlying nature" (McNabb, 2004, p.96).

The use of questionnaires in this research allowed the exploration of the subject matter in detail by collecting data from 16 cities in the seven regions of Turkey to see the effectiveness of COP implementation, which has been implemented since 2005. The aim of the questionnaire was to collect information about the perceptions of police officers regarding this new way of policing. Consequently, this research should be considered as an example of explorative design. It should also be considered as a case study, as this study primarily focuses on a unit in an organization that is a COP in TNP in Turkey. As a result, it can be concluded that this study is an explorative case study.

3.5. RESEARCH METHOD

According to the definition provided by (Saunders *et.al*. 2009, p.2) research method refers to "the techniques and procedures used to obtain and analyze data which includes questionnaires, observation and interviews as well as both quantitative and qualitative analysis techniques". In this respect, research method is categorized into two approaches: "quantitative" and "qualitative".

The simple definition and comparison of qualitative and quantitative methods is identified by Thomas (2003). According to him, the basic difference between the two is that qualitative methods involve a researcher describing the characteristics of people and events without comparing events. However, quantitative methods draw attention to measurements and the number of characteristics presented by the people.

In addition, quantitative and qualitative approaches have been described from different perspectives by Glesne and Peshkin. According to them, quantitative methods are "supported by the positivist or scientific paradigm, which leads us to regard the world as made up of observable, measurable facts". On the other hand, qualitative methods are "generally supported by the interpretivist paradigm, which portrays a world in which reality is socially constructed, complex and ever-changing…" The main distinction between them depends on the paradigms, assumptions, different instruments and procedures (Glesne and Peshkin, 1992. pp.8-9).

As mentioned above, the research method of this study follows the quantitative approach by using survey questionnaires, analyzing them and interpreting the results. This method fulfils the aim of the study, which is to examine the perceived effectiveness of COP at an individual level and discover selected variables along which levels of effectiveness COP may be expected in the police departments.

The sample in this study consisted of 290 law enforcement officers from 16 cities in Turkey. A purposive sampling method was utilized; as the aim was to collect data from COP units of the TNP. However, within the COP unit, simple random sampling method was utilized. With the assistance of each police department, the current project was introduced and questionnaires were distributed to all police officers working in those police departments. As mentioned, all the respondents to the

questionnaire survey came from COP implementation tasks at the time of the survey. Officers on duty were asked to fill out the questionnaire by themselves and return it to an administration unit for collection. It should be noted that participation was voluntary and respondents were anonymous. The response rate was 94% percent.

3.5.1. Survey Design

The first part of the survey consists of both demographic information and description of the community-policing program. The survey begins with seven questions regarding demographic profile of the participants and four questions describing the program.

The second and third part of the data was obtained from the study of the "Street-Level View of COP in the United States" (1995), with written authorization and necessary permission taken from the ICPSR, which can be found in the Appendix section (see Appendix C for Survey Approval email). To overcome any potential validity and reliability problems, this particular part of the questionnaire was translated into Turkish by an official translation unit in Ankara. A process of back-translation was followed to ensure that the meaning of the words in Turkish was the same. Before conducting the questionnaire, this part of the questionnaire was pre-tested by Turkish Police Headquarters specialists dealing with COP implementations and minor changes were made to clarify some questions and to avoid misunderstandings.

The second part of the survey was designed using statements aimed at revealing officers' perceptions of COP programs. In this section, fifteen questions were asked on the Likert scale question basis which reduces sampling and selection errors. The questions covered the basic tenets of COP program including; environmental problems, patrol, citizen police relations and cooperation, fear of crime, organizational commitment and perceptions of non-community police officers. The Likert scale was established by Likert (1932) as a scale for obtaining people's attitudes, opinions and perceptions.

McIver and Carmines (1981) define the Likert type scale as "A set of items, composed of approximately an equal number of favourable and unfavourable statements concerning the attitude object, is given to a group of subject. They are asked to respond to each statement in terms of their own degree of agreement or disagreement" (pp. 22-23). From

this aspect, Likert-type scale results are significant to for the outcome of this study and compatible with the research questions and hypotheses.

The third part of the survey deals with the level of training given for COP. The training is measured by the number of questions covered; training hours provided by the organization, format of training - 'mandatory in-service, basic academy and roll-call training' - and who the classes are taught by: "agency trainers, trainers from other agencies, experienced police officers, immediate supervisor, community specialists". Furthermore, the training period is measured according to whether it takes place before being assigned as a COP officer or after. The last thirteen questions relating to training programs aim to measure the effectiveness of the 'received training' subjects for COP job. The questions in this section reflect the basic components and strategies of COP.

The fourth part of the questionnaire consists of seven questions dealing with EU policing implementations and their effect on the TNP. Some questions highlight the importance of the EU harmonization projects conducted by the Turkish National Police, including 'implementation of COP in Turkey', and perceptions of their possible outcomes on the police organization. Questions were based also on the Likert-scale to reduce sampling and selection errors.

3.5.2. Survey Administration

In order to conduct this study in the TNP, firstly, oral permission was taken from the Department of Public Order within the TNP which supervises all COP units in the cities in Turkey. Secondly an official letter was written to TNP Headquarters which expressed the main aim of the research (See Appendix D for Survey Permission Request letter).

The questionnaire was checked by COP specialists for its appropriateness to be conducted with permission. After the approval of the questionnaire, sixteen cities were identified as the sample cities, according to geographical region, population and numbers of COP officers on duty. The survey was sent on the orders of the General Directorate of Turkish National Police to 16 cities (See Appendix E for Survey

Approval Letter). The completed surveys were returned to the Department of Public Order in sealed envelopes.

Some problems were encountered while conducting the study. Despite oral and written permission having been obtained from the responsible persons in TNP COP unit working in the TNP Headquarters, I was not allowed to ask certain questions which could have been perceived as political. However, this small limitation did not impact on the police officers' perceptions of COP and general findings of the study. In addition, in terms of ethical considerations, oral and written permission was obtained before conducting the study. Furthermore, it should also be noted that participation was voluntary and respondents were anonymous and participants were assured that their identity would not be revealed to anybody.

Table 3.1 depicts the cities selected for the conduct of the questionnaire according to regional location, population and the number of officers specialized in COP.

Table 3.1: COP Survey Cities

CITIES	REGIONAL LOCATION	POPULATION	PERSONNEL
Adana	The Mediterranean	2.026.650	6664
Adiyaman	Southeast Anatolia	585.067	1239
Antalya	The Mediterranean	1.859.275	5363
Balikesir	Marmara	1.130.276	2789
Bursa	Marmara	2.507.963	6362
Corum	The Black Sea	545.444	1380
Diyarbakir	Southeast Anatolia	1.492.828	4224
Erzurum	East Anatolia	774.967	2124
Istanbul	Marmara	12.697.164	31853
Izmir	The Aegean	3.795.978	10980
Kayseri	Central Anatolia	1.184.986	2937
Konya	Central Anatolia	1.969.868	4341
Malatya	Eastern Anatolia	733.789	2081
Osmaniye	The Mediterranean	464.704	1409
Samsun	The Black Sea	1.233.667	2606
Tekirdag	Marmara	728.396	1363

As can be seen in Table 3.1, in order to represent the entire country, according to regional location four cities were selected from the Marmara region, three cities from the Mediterranean, two cities from the Black Sea, two cities from Central Anatolia, two cities from Eastern Anatolia, two cities from Southeast Anatolia and one city was selected from the Aegean region. Brief information is given below about the biggest cities in these regions.

Istanbul is the largest city with a population of more than 12 million and is known as the centre of the old world. It is the only bi-continental city in the world, connecting Asia to Europe. Policing is very important in Istanbul in terms of location, with people from different countries, different religions and different cultural backgrounds. Sixty COP officers participated in the survey from Istanbul, which is more than 20 percent of the total participants, which represents the population distribution of the country.

Adana is located in the Mediterranean region with a population of slightly more than two million. It is the biggest city in the region and the fifth biggest in Turkey in terms of population. Thirty COP officers participated from Adana.

The distribution of the sample of CPOs in relation to the cities in which they are stationed is depicted in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: COP officers' participation according to cities
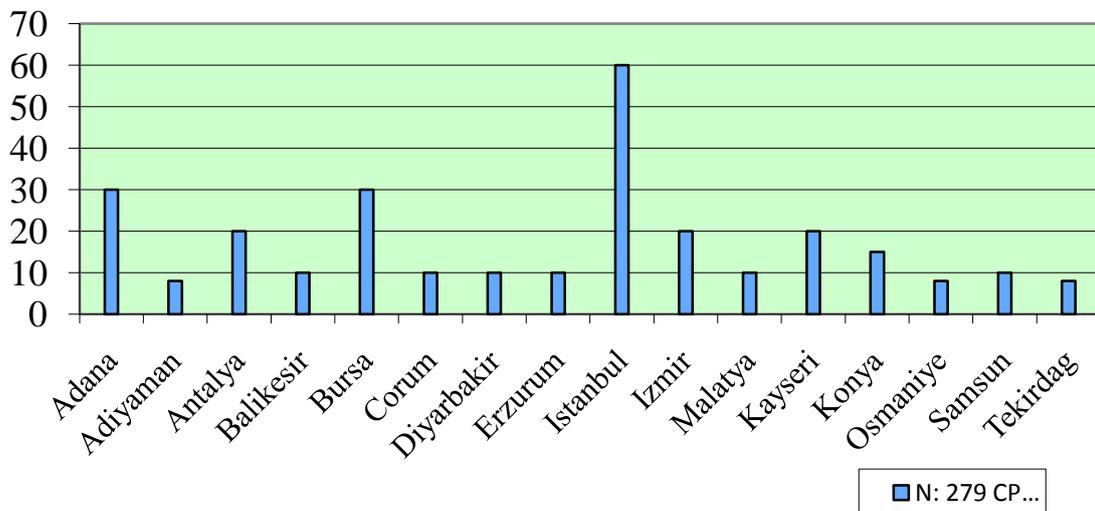
Diyarbakir is known as the intersection of many civilizations in history. It is the largest city in Southeast Anatolia with a population of almost 1.5 million. The number of COP officers who participated from Diyarbakir was ten.

Samsun is the largest city in the Black Sea region with a population of 1.228 million. It is known as the window of the Black Sea region with transport available to other regions. Ten COP officers participated from Samsun.

Konya, with a population of slightly less than two million, is one of the oldest, popular urban centres in the world; it is a place of pilgrimage for the Muslim world and the home of Mevlâna Celalledin Rumi. Fifteen COP officers participated from Konya.

3.5.3. Measurement of Variables

The first part of the data was separated into demographic information and description of the program. The demographic information includes gender, age, years of experience, job, highest level of education and rank. It should be noted that 'job' is included to establish whether the participants consider themselves to be attached to the COP and express themselves in terms of being stationed in the COP department, as otherwise they are all from COP units. In addition, further measurement variables include a description of the program through the variables such as whether the participant volunteered to be a community police officer or was assigned, whether they were assigned to a particular geographic area or beat, proportion of the time spent doing COP or traditional police work and awareness of how this implementation is launched.

The variables and their coding are explained and presented below:

Gender was measured by male (1) and female (0) with the relevant coding.

Age was analyzed under four categories: Under 25 (1), 26 to 33 (2), 34 to 41 (3) and 42 and over (4).

Years of experience was evaluated in four categories: 0 to 5 (1), 6 to 10 (2), 11 to 15 (3) and 16 or more (4).

Job considered specifically COP was measured as yes (1) or no (0).

Months of experience as COP officer was measured by four categories: 0 to 5 (1), 6 to 10 (2), 11 to 15 (3) and 16 or more (4).

Highest level of education was measured by four categories: high school (1), university degree (2), Masters (3) and PhD (4).

Rank was measured by police officer (1) or supervisor (0).

Second section:

Volunteer to be a community police officer or assigned was measured by volunteer (1) or assigned (0).

Assigned to a particular geographic area and beat was evaluated by yes (1) or no (0).

Proportion of time spent doing COP or traditional police work was measured by traditional work (1) and COP work (0).

The final question, 'do you know that the COP program was launched by an EU harmonization project titled "**Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the Turkish National Police**"' was measured by Yes (1) or No (0).

Police department size (sworn officers): Concerning the police departments sizes, there are three types of police department: small police departments, medium size police departments and large police departments. Small departments (1) were measured as between 0 to 2,000 sworn officers, medium size police departments (2) were measured as between 2001 to 4000 sworn officers, and large police departments (3) were measured as 4001 or more.

City size (population): City sizes were measured according to population (2008 population census). First size cities (1) were measured between 0 to 1.000.000 population; second size cities (2) were measured between 1.000.001 to 2.000.000 population and third size cities (3) were evaluated 2.000.001 or more.

Regional distribution: there are seven regions in Turkey: Marmara region (1), Mediterranean region (2), Black Sea region (3), Central Anatolia region (4), East Anatolia region (5), Southeast Anatolia region (6) and Aegean region (7).

The second part of the survey was designed to measure perceived effectiveness of CP programs. Fifteen questions were asked on the Likert scale question basis. Strongly Disagree =1, Disagree =2, Do not know =3, Agree =4 and Strongly Agree =5.

The third part of the questionnaire focused on COP training issues. Training hours provided by the organization was measured by less than 40 hours (1), 41 to 80 (2), 81 to 120 (3) and 121 hours or more (4). The second question about format of the training "mandatory in service, basic academy and roll-call training" was measured by; Yes (1) or No (0).

Who taught the classes question was measured by multiple answers as "agency trainers, trainers from other agencies, experienced police officers, immediate supervisor, and community specialists" with Yes (1) or No (0).

Furthermore, the majority of training period was measured by; before being assigned as a COP officer (1), and after being assigned as a COP officer (0).

The last 13 training program questions were measured by; Yes (1) or No (0).

The fourth part of the data consists of seven questions dealing with EU policing implementations and their effect on the Turkish National Police. Questions were asked on the Likert scale question basis. Strongly Disagree =1, Disagree =2, Do not know =3, Agree =4 and Strongly Agree =5.

The following section explains the key variables:

3.5.4. Gender: In recent decades, female officers have been as actively involved in many policing duties as male officers, however, there are quite limited sources available on female officers' attitudes to policing work (Bartollas and Hahn, 1999). In fact, Weisel and Eck (1994) state that there is no distinction between officers' attitudes toward the implementation of the COP program from the point of view of gender. On the other hand, Herbert (1997) asserts that officers' attitudes could differ

according to gender due to the existing culture of the organization. According to Herbert's observation, male officers impede police-public cooperation which is perceived as not a real policing job. Therefore, Herbert concludes that female officers are more compatible with COP principles, which provide increasing community and police relations and diminish tensions between them. Thus, gender is introduced as a variable in this study.

3.5.5. Age and Length of Service

Many scholars assert that officers' age and length of service have a significant effect on the achievement of the COP program (Skolnick and Bayley, 1988; Weisel and Eck 1994; Lurigio and Skogan 1994). CAPS observed that officers in their 50s were more favourable than officers in their 40s, 30s and 20s and it continued accordingly (Lurigio and Skogan 1994). Thus, to measure the effect of age in COP implementation, age is introduced as a key variable.

3.5.6. Training

COP training is a must for the success of the program otherwise failure of the program is inevitable (Cheurprakobkit, 2002). Geller (1997) states that training programs should be evaluated as one of the main instruments available to make vital changes within police organizations. Peak and Glensor (1996, p. 173) state that "Training must begin by helping officers understand the reason for change, and that change enables organizations to progress and meet the ongoing challenges of their jobs''.

Breci and Erickson (1998) and Zhao *et al*. (1995) assert that successful implementation of COP largely depends on the training programs provided within the organization. In addition, a study by Rosenbaum *et al*. (1994) revealed that officers' perceptions and attitudes were positively changed because of the training programs they received over a two-year period. The basic tenets of COP training are described by Cheurprakobkit as "tak[ing] into account specific community needs, updated public input, innovative and proactive thinking" (2002, p. 711).

Breci (1997) addresses the impact of continuing education on police officers' perceptions and attitudes toward COP implementation. According to him, police

departments develop programs compatible with the core principles and strategies of COP which provide the necessary motivation for effective program performance. Therefore, officers whose training is developed according to the COP principles probably perform more adequately than untrained officers (Cordner, 2004). According to police chiefs' opinions in a study by Cardarelli *et al.* (1998), special training programs are considered vital to the success of COP programs and make a significant difference between COP and traditional policing. In addition, Chappell (2008) addresses considerable differences between the training methods for traditional and COP. According to him, the traditional method ignores community problems, diversity and communication. They only focus on physical training, defensive tactics and arrest procedures. In this respect, Meese (1993, p. 6) argues that, "The content of police training must go beyond merely preparing officers for the mechanical aspects of police work and that training should help them to understand their communities, the police role, police history and even imperfections of the criminal justice system". This suggests that COP training not only has a significant impact on officers to convince them of the strategy and philosophy of the program but also makes them more compatible with the practice and implementation of the program compared to officers who do not receive training (Cheurprakobkit, 2002).

Chappell (2007) addresses the importance of the field training program which covers the basic philosophy of COP: cultural diversity, communication, ethics, collaborating with other agencies and problem-solving techniques. Moreover, he adds that the majority of police departments train their officers in the police academy which does not reflect contemporary COP issues and then let these officers handle street level real community problems. In Haarr's (2001) study, training periods are investigated over four different periods and it is argued that the training received in the field has a significant effect on the officers regarding COP and is a crucial period for handling tangible community and crime problems. On the other hand, according to a study by Cheurprakobkit (2002), length of training has no significant impact on the officers' acceptance of COP.

Consequently, considering the importance of training in an innovated programme such as COP, this study includes training as an important variable.

3.5.7. Education

In addition to training, research indicates that education develops officers' perceptions and capacity to adopt COP. Trojanowicz *et al*. (2002) state that officers who have a higher level of education are more likely to understand the COP philosophy. On the other hand, Weisel and Eck's (1994) study indicates that education does not have an impact on the officers regarding their acceptance of COP. Regardless of the latter position, this study considers education an important variable.

3.5.8. Permanent Beat

Frank *et al*. (1997) focus on the importance of permanent beats in COP by comparing it with the traditional policing beat system. According to their results, a permanent beat makes a considerable contribution to the delivery of COP services to the community by linking residents with schools, social service agencies and local governments. From the citizens' point of view, they better understand how the working of community officers actually differs from that of the traditional policing system. In addition, Travis and Sanders (1998) conducted a study in Ohio which analyzed the differences between COP and traditional policing beat systems. Their major finding was that COP officers "reported a higher frequency of involvement in representing departments within other organizations, patrolling on foot, giving directions, providing various types of information to citizens, and visiting schools" (Travis and Sanders, 1998, p.28).

Furthermore, a study by Smith *et al.* (2001) took Cincinnati as a case study comparing COP and non-COP officers in terms of proportion of time spent with 16 activity categories while they are on duty. According to the results, there were considerable differences in 11 categories between the two groups. COP officers generally spent their time on community–based services, related problems, focused perspectives and information-gathering activities. However, non-COP officers spent their time on motor patrol, traffic enforcement, crime incidents and routine patrolling. According to Robinson (2003), geographic solidity develops accountability and responsibility which are the main strategy of COP in establishing permanently-assigned beats in a particular area. Cardarelli *et al.* (1998) state that the permanent beat is a key indicator

of applicability of the COP program in the departments and moreover, from the police officers' point of view, they are able to detect the problems which occur on their beat quickly and find appropriate solutions before the same problem arises again. In reflecting on the impact of permanent beat as a variable, this study included it as an important variable.

3.5.9. Separate Special Unit

COP units are usually voluntary, special units separate from the main body and, therefore, officers enjoy the status of working in them (Sadd & Grinc, 1996; Skogan, 2004). Many police departments have developed separate units to handle community problems efficiently in advance; however separate units have led to misunderstanding of COP (Greene, 1989). Furthermore, according to Sadd and Grinc (1996) community problems should be managed not only by separate special units but also by entire police departments, which is appropriate to the main strategy of the COP philosophy. In this respect, Trojanowicz and Carter (1988, p.12) point out that "COP works best when it is not forced to operate in isolation". According to Skogan's study (2004), other police officers perceive COP officers as not 'real police'. Thus, separate special units as a variable is also considered in this study.

3.6. DEPENDENT VARIABLES

After presenting the independent variables in the preceding section, this section presents the dependent variables.

In this study, effectiveness of COP has been measured with 15 variables in the data. Brief definitional reviews are given according to citizen-police relations, potential conflict between citizen and officers, citizens' behaviour toward officers, fear of crime, crime rates, and physical neighbourhood problems.

3.6.1. Citizen-Focused Variables: Foremost, in COP, collaboration between citizens and police makes it possible to solve problems, reduce fear of crime, and prevent the deterioration of a neighbourhood (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1994; Zhao *et. al.*, 1995). The results of a survey conducted on more than 2,000 different police departments in the USA, mostly confirmed that COP reduced problems related to

citizens, improved physical environments in neighbourhoods, encouraged more positive public attitudes toward police departments, decreased potential conflict between citizens and police, and reduced crime rates (National Institute of Justice, 1995, p. 1). In addition, Goldstein (1990) evaluated citizen and police relations from the police officers' point of view. According to him, police officers encourage citizens to obtain the information needed to tackle their problems and support them in finding ways to solve them. COP officers also play the role of coordinator between citizens and municipal governments to deal with specific physical environment problems (Sadd and Grinc, 1994). These are all justifications for including these variables in this study.

3.6.2. Fear of Crime and Crime Rates: Many authors have found that the implementation of COP has a significant impact on reducing the fear of crime (Mastrofski and Greene, 1993; Skogan 1994; Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Reisig *et al*, 2004). In an evaluation of COP programs in six states in the US, Skogan (1994) determined that fears of crime was the most influential variable in the implementation of COP which reduced crime in all states. Skogan and Harnett (1997) handled the issue of fear of crime from the point of view of the citizen. According to them "Residents who subsequently observed the police in action were more satisfied with police responsiveness to community concerns, thought they were more effective at dealing with crime, and felt safer" (p.208). Moreover, Reisig *et al*, (2004) also addressed COP performance by looking at residents' perceptions and their satisfaction provided by reducing fear of crime and growing feelings of security. Hence, this again provides justification as to why these variables should be included in this study.

Lastly, as regards further country-specific variables, since this study considers the EU process as the main motivation for innovation and hence COP in Turkey, the EU and other institutional variables are also included in this study.

3.7. HYPOTHESES

The research questions in this study represent both theoretical background and practical implementation of COP in Turkey. Literature reviews provide the models of COP philosophy in the world, particularly in the US and the UK. The collected data is used to test a number of hypotheses derived from the research questions with the

objective of accepting or rejecting them according to the perceptions of COP officers regarding this new way of policing in Turkey. Hypotheses which are compatible with the research questions attempt to measure the relationships between effectiveness of the application of COP with selected organizational and individual variables. A number of hypotheses were developed to operationalize the research and these are presented as follows:

Group 1: Demographic and experiential factors and the effectiveness of COP

H_{01}**.** Implementation of the EU accession process and policies will be positively related to the effectiveness of the COP program.

H_{02}: There is a positive relationship between reducing fear of crime and effectiveness of COP in Turkey.

H_{03}: Officers with higher education levels are more likely to have positive a perception (acceptance) of the effectiveness of community policing than other officers.

H_{04}: There is a significant relationship between the age of officers and the positive perception of COP.

H_{05}*:* Experienced officers will have higher levels of positive COP perception (acceptance) than junior officers.

H_{06}: Volunteer officers have higher levels of positive COP perception (acceptance) than assigned officers.

H_{07}: Individual training hours will be positively related to effectiveness of COP.

H_{08}: Officers patrolling in a permanent area have higher levels of positive COP perception (acceptance) than officers patrolling in a random area.

H_{09}: Officers who consider their job as COP work have higher levels of positive perception (acceptance) of the effectiveness of COP than officers who consider their job as traditional policing work.

Group 2: Organizational factors and the effectiveness of COP

H_{010}: There is a positive relationship between department size and effectiveness of COP.

H_{011}: There is a positive relationship between city size (population) and effectiveness of COP

H_{012}: There is no relationship between regional locations and the effectiveness of COP.

3.8. DATA ANALYSIS METHODS

Data analysis consists of both descriptive and inferential statistics conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Frequency distributions are used to obtain summaries of the sample and measures. Moreover, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis are used to test the hypotheses and related findings to the sample for police officers' perceptions and acceptance of effectiveness and implementation of COP.

CHAPTER 4:

HISTORY OF POLICING: A LITERATURE SURVEY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter will begin with a definition of policing and then examine the developments of policing both in the UK and the US. Then, it will go on to review the literature concerning how COP emerged and was embraced by police forces. It also will also identify how COP became an alternative approach to traditional policing. In addition, it will address the main concepts of community policing, focusing particularly on police culture, organizational issues and community involvement.

4.2. CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION

The police are defined by Bittner (2005) as the 'best known' and 'less understood' institution in the world. In general, the police are an institution represented by police officers in charge of internal security (Mawby, 2003). From a historical perspective, the word 'police' comes from the Greek *polis*, which is associated with the social function and management of the public or a town (Johnston 1992). The term and idea of *the politia* was developed by the Romans, and by the early eighteenth century in continental Europe *la police* and *die Politzei* were being used in the sense of the internal management, welfare, security, and surveillance of a country (Emsley, 1996, p.3).

The first community model to be established was known as *frankpledge* after the Norman Conquest of 1066. According to this system, every male above the age of twelve joined a group called a 'tything' (Klockars, 1985). The system of *frankpledge* has a notion of excluding foreigners from a neighbourhood to protect fellow citizens (Rawlings, 2003). In 1326, Edward II established new offices and judicial and law enforcement functions were separated for the first time (Trojanowicz *et al.*, 1998). During the Middle Ages communal policing lost its influence over citizens and its functions were taken over by the parish constable and justices of the peace (Rawlings, 2003).

After the Middle Ages nation-states founded in Continental Europe developed policing systems aimed at serving the interests of the political administration through which they were created. Such kinds of policing units consisted of officers who were armed in a military style. Their duty was the control of all kinds of political thematic rebellions even if they were natural citizens' actions (Wilson *et al.,* 1997).

4.3. DEVELOPMENT OF POLICING IN THE UK

In Britain, the police service constitutes an important part of the historical landscape and the significance of the police officer is appreciated as a national figure with a special place in the cultural system (McLaughlin, 2007).

The industrial revolutions which influenced all of Europe brought about serious social changes which were brought about the need for policing in cities and towns (Edwards, 2005). In this respect, the evolution of the police force in Britain has always been related to the story of civil riot, protest and demonstration (Manwaring & White, 1983). In the middle of 18th century, immigration and urbanization made English cities complex, crowded, disordered and criminal cities (Kelling & Stewart, 1991). The modern police organization emerged at the time of this rapid social change (Fielding, 1991). Because of growing threat to property and person in districts of London, Robert Peel introduced the Metropolis Police Act to the House of Commons in April 1829 as a necessity to provide efficient safety (Taylor, 1997). Thus, the social collapse in laws and community life led to the rise of a new reform, which was an organized and public police administration system with no equivalent in Europe (Kelling & Stewart, 1991).

The Metropolitan Police Act finally took effect in 1829 after long term discussions in the English Parliament. Peel's Police Act led to subsequent acts, such as the 1835 Municipal Corporations Act, the 1839 Rural Constabulary Act and, finally, the 1856 County and Borough Police Act, which brought about the establishment of police forces in all counties and boroughs and founded a supervision system to ensure their effectiveness (Taylor, 1998).

Robert Peel's model bore the characteristics of the first organized police organization which was then imitated by the American Local Police Organizations and many cities

in Europe. Its organizational structure and administrative directive also brought about the policing system, which was affiliated to the order and command chain, a new mission and strategy (Wilson *et al.,* 1997). The main duty of this new policing system was not only to prevent crime by regularly patrolling beats but also to prevent public riots and mobs. Its success gave them a good reputation in the world and it took its place in the British tradition (Silver, 2005).

Peel's Law Enforcement Principles with administrative guide characteristics was prepared as a duty code in accordance with the value system and is well-known today.

4.3.1. Peel's Law Enforcement Principles

The world-famous Law Enforcement Principles of Peel, who was the founder of the London Metropolitan Police and maybe of modern policing, consists of nine articles which are listed as follows (Reith, 1984, p. 64):

i.   The basic mission for which the police exist is to prevent crime and disorder;

ii.   The ability of the police to perform their duties is dependent upon public approval of police actions;

iii.   Police must secure the willing co-operation of the public in voluntary observance of the law to be able to secure and maintain the respect of the public;

iv.   The degree of co-operation of the public that can be secured diminishes proportionately to the necessity of the use of physical force;

v.   Police seek and preserve public favour not by catering to public opinion but by constantly demonstrating absolute impartial service to the law;

vi.   Police use physical force to the extent necessary to secure observance of the law or to restore order only when the exercise of persuasion, advice and warning is found to be insufficient;

vii.   Police, at all times, should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and the public are

the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interests of community welfare and existence;

viii. Police should always direct their action strictly towards their functions and never appear to usurp the powers of the judiciary;

ix. The test of police efficiency is the absence of crime and disorder, not the visible evidence of police action in dealing with it;

x. This duty code also covers the values of the English legal system and citizens. With the impact of 'New Police', the term bobby which means respectful public officer started to be used instead of the term police in London in the 19th Century and the police administration appeared as a prestigious national institution in the world and according to many researchers the first modern police organization in the modern sense was established in 1829 in England by the publishing of these principles (Brodgen, 1987).

The main achievement of Robert Peel was to establish individual police constables separate from the army with the aim of handling crime and disorder incidents under a new official unit. However, the introduction of a new police organization was a controversial and much disputed subject in the UK parliament. Eventually, Robert Peel convinced the parliament of the necessity for a new modern police force (Skolnick and Fyfe, 1994).

After the establishment of this new unit was approved by Parliament, the Metropolitan Police Force commenced its duties in September 1829 in six divisions and with 1000 officers' to maintain public order on the streets of London (Police, 2002).

The major social and economic developments in the 20th century changed the role of the policeman in society. In the 1960s Michael Banton's famous book 'The Policeman in the Community' principally pointed out that the police could not sustain social control by itself, since they were always in need of informal, formal, private and community sources to build social informal policies (Banton, 1964). In addition, he asserts that the police have a vital role in regulation of the daily life, however, it should be considered that creating social control relies on more than mere police work.

Thus, it can be clearly seen that the main paradigms of COP such as police discretion, providing support to local police departments and creating social informal policies were undertaken by Banton in 1964 which had a significant contribution towards development of the COP in Britain.

4.4. DEVELOPMENT OF POLICING IN THE US

In the 17th Century, America entered into a process of institutionalizing its judicial administrative systems and started to apply laws which were based on English traditions and adapted in accordance with the country's political, social and cultural structure (Uchida, 2001). The sheriff system established in America was heavily influenced by the early British colony of Virginia, which was named in honour of Queen Elizabeth I and the Carolinas which were named after King Charles I (Edwards, 2005).

The Declaration of Independence, which highlights the people's desire to be free of any government control, and mass immigration from the west to America, had a significant impact on the nature of policing in the US (Edwards, 2005, p.35). The best known history of American policing is divided by Kelling and Moore (1988) into three different eras: political era, reform era, and community policing era.

In the political era the police and political leaders had a mutual relationship. The police obtained both their resources and authorization from local political leaders and thus they persuaded citizens to vote for certain candidates in the local elections. Furthermore, police officers continued to live in the areas they patrolled which caused discrimination against minority and ethnic groups (Kelling & Moore, 1988). Thus, the establishment of police units affiliated to the municipality could not succeed in the effective preventing of crimes, forming well-managed cities or ensuring effective or professional public service in America (Wilson *et al*., 1997). However, the close relationship between the police and local governments, as part of the administrative process, later resulted in political corruption and violence (Edwards, 2005).

During the reform era, a new reform movement was launched in the early years of the 20th century under the leadership of police directors such as August Vollmer and J. Edgar Hoover who were willing to make policing a prestigious profession. Such

people aimed at creating impartial, apolitical and active police in the broad sense of administrative police functions extending from police operations to the behaviour of line officers (Goldstein, 1990). Police departments heavily focused on crime control and fear of crime issues during the reform era, and were known as 'law enforcement agencies'. Their objective was to take police units out of the management of politicians and make them units engaged in the complete prevention of crime and capture of criminals (Kelling & Moore, 1998). In this respect, controlling crime was the main strategy of this era and the aim was to carry out this strategy using technology and an adequate personal administration system (Dobrin, 2006). Bratton (1998) characterized this era by 3Rs; 'rapid response', 'random patrol' and 'reactive investigation'. Furthermore, throughout the era, a proper and objective relationship between the police and citizens was established as part of the democratic political and civil culture (Kelling & Moore, 1998).

According to Wilson *et al.* (1997), a new rational-legal bureaucratic structure was developed in the policing profession and a new administrative leadership concept was institutionalized together with its principles in the reform era. In addition, the training and the fair working capacity of the personnel as well as the control of organizations were developed. Kelling and Moore (1998, p. 6) state that the key principle of this era was "impersonal and crime-oriented policing, raised with idea that they merely enforce law".

It should be noted that, with such efforts, to some extent the reforms achieved the elimination of corruption and cruelty from policing which promoted professionalism. On the other hand, police departments only focused on crime controls which affected the relationship between citizens and the police. The isolation of the police from the citizens created new problems and dissatisfaction during the 1960s (Oliver, 2007). The main duty of the police in this new paradigm was to respond to crime after it had been committed. However, it was noticed that this tactic did not work as crime was still increasing (Dobrin, 2006).

During this period COP emerged as a new way of policing which dealt with the problems of the reform area policing (Goldstein, 1990; Oliver, 2007). In the community policing era which followed on from the reform era, law defined fundamental power but it did not indicate all policing activities. New concepts such as

community, participation, neighbourhood and support were involved in this era for the success of COP (Kelling & Moore, 1998). Moreover, to carry out their job successfully, it became necessary to get community assistance in tackling crime in the community. Hence, the police departments and citizens were given the opportunity to contribute to the solution of the problems of crime (Oliver, 2007). Many researchers have evaluated the transition of police agencies from a professional model to a COP through 'evolutionary pace rather than a revolutionary' one in most place (Zhao & Thurman, 1997).

4.5. TOWARDS COMMUNITY POLICING

Since the Second World War, policing in Britain has undergone significant changes in terms of the relationships between the police and the local communities; the function and the image of the police, and notably their relationship with minor communities (Newburn, 2003). In the 1970's police departments established a new unit, which dealt with citizen-police relations and was a new beginning between police and citizens. These units were then enlarged by the police and they tried to organize communities to reduce illegal activities (Eck & Spelman, 1987).

As a result of the riots in the early 1980's, major changes took place in the performance and in the nature of policing in Britain. This process was initiated through the introduction of COP by then Chief Constable of Devon and Cornwall John Alderson, and pursued through a series of programs in the Metropolitan Police region. John Alderson's main idea for preventing future riots in the community relied on certain strategies which were also later accepted as the main components of COP. These were: improving police-public relations; more direct contact with the community members; and increasing engagement with diverse communities to foster legitimacy (Reiner, 2000).

 The Commissioner at that time, Sir Kenneth Newman, emphasized that "crime could not be controlled by the police alone and that significant levels of public co-operation were needed if inroads were to be made" (Jones & Newburn, 1998, p. 8). Thus, the riots in Brixton highlighted the necessity of a close relationship between the community and the police (Scarman, 1982). According to Trojanowicz *et al.* (1998, pp. 64), thus, the birth of COP "rose like a phoenix from the ashes of burned cities,

embattled campuses, and crime-riddled neighbourhoods, a new response to the chaos of that turbulent era".

At the beginning of the 1980's, new policing approaches started to be practised in public services, which were also supported by the National Institute of Justice, the Police Institution and the Research Institute of Police Actions in the US. Newark in New Jersey, Boston in Massachusetts, Houston in Texas, Flint in Michigan, Santa Ana in California and New York City Police Units adopted COP strategies. It was noticed that patrol services decreased the fear of crime and increased the satisfaction of citizens towards police (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990).

The main idea behind the COP movement comes from poor community and police relations. Thus, in many respects COP bring about a new way in policing by diminishing the distance and working closer with the residents (Tilley, 2003).

4.6. TRADITIONAL POLICING vs COMMUNITY POLICING

The transition from traditional to COP involves major changes including shared responsibility, officer discretion and crime prevention (Skogan and Hartnett, 1997; Rohe *et al*., 2001; Morash *et al*., 2002; Oliver, 2007).

In COP, shared responsibility requires regular and continuous contact which is crucial in developing mutual trust and collaboration between police staff and a community's residents. Furthermore, shared responsibility, such as reporting crime and neighbourhood watch programmes, allows residents to engage in the decision-making process (Rohe *et al*., 2001). In order to enhance the quality of life they live, residents report gangs, drunks, panhandlers, prostitutes, abandoned cars and derelict buildings, to increase the order in the community (Trojanowicz, 1983). In addition shared responsibility gives residents the opportunity to develop skills and set up connections that they need to deal with social exclusion (Burton *et al*., 2004).

When police officers build these partnerships they become co-producers of the solutions to a variety of problems with specific neighbourhoods. As a result, they are more answerable to the citizens they serve (Oliver, 2007). In the traditional method, because of the centralized bureaucracy, police officers become a responsive agent

under the command and control orientation. They only take their orders from the police hierarchy, which leads to restricted interaction with community members (Kelling & Moore, 1988). Police departments obtain limited information about crime incidents from the community. Thus, they have to provide information from data which are internally established by themselves (Brown, 1989).

The second main difference is that COP emphasizes increased officer discretion as to how they carry out their job and within rational limits, officers are asked to be creative in finding ways to deal with community problems (Rohe *et al.*, 2001). Discretion is defined by Ericson (2005, p. 222) as "a power to decide which rules apply to a given situation and whether or not to apply them". In this context, discretion is evaluated by Skogan and Hartnett (1997) from the police officer's perspective as making their own decisions, and feeling more a part of the community. Moreover, police officers under COP are more proactive and more focused on not only crime-related issues, but also disorder, quality-of-life and disarray (Oliver, 1997). This personalized form of policing breaks down the ambiguity of traditional police efforts (Trojanowicz & Kappeler, 1998). COP Consortium (1994, p. 22) describes the importance of police discretion as follows:

> COP patrol officers are given broader freedom to decide what should be done and how it should be done in their communities - they assume managerial responsibility for the delivery of police services to their assigned areas. Patrol officers are the most familiar with the needs and strengths of their communities and are thus in the best position to forge the close ties with the community that lead to effective solutions to local problems.

In traditional policing method, police officers decisions are open to re-evaluation of the superiors and officers are controlled by internal rules. Consequently, the main consideration of the traditional policy methods can be summarised as "you will do this because I tell you so" (Ponsaers, 2001).

The third difference is that COP addresses crime prevention whereas traditional policing is concerned with the crime after it has been committed. Harpol (2000) emphasises the importance of prevention by giving examples from the health sector. He states that police departments would do well to take their cue from the medical

profession and treat and prevent disease in the communities they serve, since early treatment can keep the community from becoming ill.

COP engages in underlying conditions that cause crime (Rohe *et al*., 2001). Skogan and Hartnett (1997) state that COP does not only identify the causes of problems and offer efficient solutions within communities but also involves private and other agencies which can help them to devise better tactics to fight against crime. However, the traditional model places the emphasis on crime control as a component of policing (Jesilow & Parsons, 2000). The traditional model focuses on the informational perspective, which means citizens complain about a crime issue and then the police handle it (Morash *et al*., 2002).

One of the major differences between traditional crime control and COP is how a law enforcement agency and a community define success. Instead of counting the number of arrests, COP looks at the quality of life in a neighbourhood. Specifically, COP attempts to reduce the fear of crime and enable residents to feel safe in their homes and businesses (Inman, 1994).

Based on the preceding discussion, Table 4.1 depicts the main differences between traditional and COP methods (Sparrow 1988 cited in Trojanowicz *et. al*, 1998 pg.28).

Lurigio and Rosenbaum (1994) emphasize that COP broadens the role of the police and improves relationships with citizens which has a great effect on crime prevention efforts.

As a result, they have developed ties with the broader community in an attempt to eliminate the 'us-v-them' mentality that often characterizes traditional reactive policing (Breci and Erickson, 1998) and police departments give the idea of "we are on the same side" (Skogan & Hartnett 1997).

Table 4.1: Traditional versus COP Model

Question	Traditional Policing	Community Policing
1. Who are the police?	A government *agency* principally responsible for law enforcement.	*Police are the public* and the public are the police; police officers are those who paid to give full time attention to the duties of every citizen.
2. What is the relationship of the police to other public service departments?	*Priorities often conflict.*	The police are one department *among many responsible* for improving the quality of life.
3. What is the role of the Police?	Focusing on *solving crimes*	A broader *problem-solving* Approach
4. How is police efficiency measured?	By detecting and *arrest* rates.	By the *absence of crime* and *disorder*
5. What are the highest priorities?	*Crimes* that are high value (e.g., bank robberies) and those involving violence.	*Whatever* problems disturb the community most.
6. What specifically do police deal with?	*Incidents.*	Citizens' *problems* and concerns.
7. What determines the effectiveness of police?	*Response* times.	*Public cooperation.*
8. What view do police take of service calls?	Deal with them only if there is no *real police* work to do.	Vital function and great *opportunity.*
9. What is police professionalism?	Swift/effective response to *serious crime.*	Keeping close the *community.*
10. What kind of intelligence is most important?	*Crime intelligence* (study of particular crimes or series of activities crimes).	Criminal intelligence (*information* about individuals or *groups*).
11. What is the essential nature of police accountability?	*Highly centralized*; governed by rules, regulations, and policy directives; accountable to the *law*.	Emphasis on *local accountability* to community needs.
12. What is the role of headquarters?	To provide the necessary *rules and policy* directives.	To preach organizational *values.*
13. What is the role of the press liaison department?	To *keep* the *"heat" off* operational officers so they can get on with the job.	To *coordinate* an essential channel of communication with the community.
14. How do the police regard prosecutions?	As an important goal.	As one tool among many.

4.7. COMMUNITY POLICING

Sir Robert Peel established the Metropolitan Police Force in 1829, which is considered the commencement of modern policing, and a few of his principles developed the main structure of the contemporary COP program. As a matter of fact, one of Peel's original principles point outs that "police are members of the public and the members of the public are the police" (Braiden, 1992; Mathias *et al.,* 2003; Thornton, 2007, p.12).

4.7.1. Definitions

As a social science concept, there is still no agreement about the definition of COP. Regardless of the difficulties in the definition many departments in the world have implemented its strategies and tactics as a useful philosophy. Therefore, before defining COP, it is more meaningful to discuss its components.

'Community' is regarded as a residential neighbourhood while others visualize it just as a specific area. Ethnic and cultural groups also consider themselves as communities (the Latin American, African American, *etc*). In fact, the main view behind the concept of community is "collective perception" which joins people collectively as a community (Flynn, 1998). Mandelson and Liddle (1996) define community as a "robust and powerful idea" which means teamwork, mutuality, justice and to get things done**.** The word community, associated with policing, emerged in both the United States and in the United Kingdom in the 1960's with the concept of 'COP' (Weatheritt, 1987).

Policing is described by Reiner (2000) as an aspect of social control, which takes place across the world in all social circumstances like conflict, deviance, or chaos**.** In general usage, the majority of the people perceive the phrase 'policing' to indicate the tasks of law enforcement, inspection and maintaining order carried out by police forces. On the other hand, it also describes the verb 'to police' which has a number of meanings, including keeping order and control (Jones & Newburn, 1998).

Hence, the police and the community are the main players in this new philosophy, in which the combination of the words 'community' and 'policing' words becomes

'community policing' which is a 'buzz word' to cover other terms such as problem-oriented policing, crime prevention, community-oriented policing and more (Friedman, 1992). Fletcher (2005, p. 187) recognizes its importance as a process that "encourages community contact as a means of exchanging valuable information and prioritizing policing activity". Moreover, Brown (1989, p. 7) characterizes COP as "an interactive process between the police and the community to mutually identify and resolve community problems". As with other definitions, Tilley (2003, p. 315) focuses on the concept of the importance of community suggesting that "COP stresses policing *with* and *for* the community rather than policing *of* the community".

In this respect, Friedman (1992) states that community and policing cannot be considered separately; policing will assume the understandings of some community characteristics and community assumes that policing is not completed without it. According to Skogan and Harnett (1997) COP cannot be defined simply. It establishes new cultures and redefines the objectives of policing including the development of the decision-making process within police departments.

COP, as mentioned before, is defined in different ways by different scholars from different perspectives. A well-known description of COP is defined by Trojanowicz *et al.* (1998, p. 5):

COP is a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, social and physical disorder, and neighbourhood decay. The philosophy is based on the belief that achieving these goals requires that police departments develop new relationships with law-abiding people in the community, allowing them a greater voice in setting local police priorities and involving them in efforts to improve the overall quality of life in their neighbourhoods.

To have a further understanding of COP, Trojanowicz *et al.* (1998) have noted ten principles as follows:

i.   **Philosophy and organizational strategy:** The first principle identifies that COP is a philosophical and structural strategy which comes together in different ways to resolve problems like crime, fear of crime, physical and

social disorders. The main basis of the philosophy is the thought that people within the community deserve to be involved in the policing process in terms of their participation and support. At the same time, the solution of today's social problems makes it necessary to give autonomy to find creative solutions regarding the society and police patrol and neighbourhood supervision.

ii. **Commitment to community empowerment:** The second principle stresses that both the police and civilian personnel in the department must investigate ways to bring philosophy into practice. It is necessary for everyone in the unit to focus on creative solutions for societal problems and the need to provide public participation in the fight against crime.

iii. **Decentralized and personalized policing**: The third principle emphasizes that officers assigned to a COP unit should provide communication between the citizens and the police. COP officers' as the specialist officers reflecting the police unit to the society should be exempted from their duties regarding patrol and police radio so that they will be able to meet people face to face in their duty areas.

iv. **Volunteer citizens and long-term proactive problem solving:** The role of COP officers is to structure a stable and determined meeting process with volunteer citizens and law-abiding individuals of the society to find creative solutions at local level regarding fear of crime, chaos and social disengagement. The aim of COP officer is not only to make arrests but also to address the needs of the community to improve the quality of life in the community.

v. **Mutual respect, legality and trust:** Principle five points out a new agreement which promises to overcome the antipathy between the police and the citizens it serves and to prevent any incident which may lead to exploitation. This new relationship based on mutual trust suggests the police should serve as a catalyst in inviting people to accept their responsibilities in solving their own problems and take more responsibility for minor issues.

vi. **Expanding the police mandate:** Principle six identifies that COP adds a proactive role which would include all services of the police to reactive policing. As an institution providing service 24 hours a day, seven days a week, the police provides help in crisis situations and emergency help against criminals and deals with everyday events, however, COP "broadens the police

role so that they can make a greater impact on making changes today that hold the promise of making communities safer and more attractive places to live tomorrow" (Trojanowicz *et al*., p.312).

vii. **Helping those with special needs**: Community-based policing, especially emphasizes finding new ways to protect the lives and improve the living conditions of people like children, senior citizens, minorities, the poor, the handicapped and homeless people who need help most. It aims to assimilate mutual collaboration of prior works of units like Crime Prevention and Police/Public Relations Units and all unit officers and police and law obeying individuals and to widen the area of these works.

viii. **Creativity and support**: COP is a grass-roots effort by police to establish good human relations with the community, and hence its focus is on relationships and trust. Officers must be empowered to make short-term decisions and work to produce long-term results in creative ways. This creativity and empowerment makes officers problem solvers and community generalists.

ix. **Internal change**: Principle nine identifies the importance of internal change in the department. The police must serve as generalists in their community by "bridging the gap between the police and people they serve" (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1994, p. 6). COP approach has great importance to police units regarding enabling support from a big part of the community and providing information and help for community and its problems.

x. **Building for the future**: The basic underlying understanding is that police will not be able to organize the society from outside but that people should be encouraged to see the police as a source of help in solving today's societal problems. This application is not a tactic which should be removed later it is a new way of thinking about police's role in the community and it is a philosophy suggesting a consistent link between the police and the community.

In addition to Trojanowicz *et al*.'s contribution, Cordner (1998) also offers a fourfold definition of COP: 'organizational', 'philosophical', 'strategic' and 'tactical' dimensions.

Accordingly, the *organizational* dimension defines COP implementation functions with structure and information. Structure means that decentralization allows police officers to work independently and provides a reduction in bureaucracy. Information not only allows the measurement of effectiveness and efficiency of police activities but also provides crime analysis for certain geographical areas. The second aspect is the *philosophical* dimension that constitutes the main tenets of COP. These are: personal service, broadening police roles and community input. Cordner (1998, p. 48) characterizes the *strategic* dimension as key operational concepts that translate philosophy into action. These are: face to face interaction, more engagement in local problems, and emphasising crime prevention methods, concentrating on long-term benefits. Cordner (1998) states that, the fourth *tactical* dimension transforms philosophies and strategies into practice by establishing community partnerships, developing problem-solving techniques and building trust in the community.

After presenting different views about what COP is, the three core strategies (personal, organizational and community) are vitally important to the performance of COP. In this respect, Fielding and Innes (2006) argue that the success of COP mainly depends on organizational, operational and personal factors. A significant number of studies have been conducted on the importance of the organizational, personal and community factors for the achievement of COP (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990; Lurigio & Rosenbaum, 1994; Yates & Pillai, 1996; Skogan & Hartnett, 1997; Cordner, 1998; Thurman *et al*., 2001; Fielding & Innes, 2006; Zager, 2007).

4.7.2. Police Culture and Personnel

Changes in traditional policing style with COP have immense impact on the police departments as well police officers (Rohe, *et al*., 2001). COP performance is closely related to the eagerness and motivation of police officers whether they accept the main principles of the program or not (Yates & Pillai, 1996). Thus, the role of the individual officer's task should be defined appropriately (Meese, 1993). The expectation from the police officers is that they can engage in COP without difficulty. However, most police officers' selection, evaluation and training activities are organized according to traditional policing methods. Thus, they do not take into account police personnel perceptions and feelings, resulting in ineffectiveness of COP implementations (Lurigio and Rosenbaum, 1994). Many police departments isolate

COP implementations from general police work (Edwards, 1999), which causes COP program to be perceived as not 'real' police work by police officers (Sarre, 1997).

A great deal of research has been conducted in order to understand the extent of officers' acceptance of COP. All the surveys and interviews with officers tried to find out whether they accepted the tenets of COP since they are in the best position to implement these programme changes (Novak, *et al.,* 2003).

Schafer (2002) argues that police managers have to persuade their officers about the philosophy and strategy of COP by winning their 'hearts' and 'minds'. Many articles and much research conducted in this area confirm that commitment and success in COP is passed on through officers' behaviour (Matrofski *et al*., 1995; Yates & Pillai, 1996; Schafer, 2002). Thus, it can be concluded that it is vital to understand the officers' perceptions of COP for successful performance.

Chan (1997) deals with the police culture by analyzing previous studies and finds that the police culture is deemed as solid and untouchable, a fact which is developed by the policing work itself. She also states that it is characteristic of the police that they work in risky situations isolated from the public and perceive themselves as crime fighters, prohibited from sharing their decisions with the community. According to Rosenman (1978) police officers see themselves as hard working, competitive, and intolerant, thus they like to rely on their own resources rather than work cooperatively. In addition, there is a belief that "police have to be calm, cool and objective, it doesn't matter what the situation is" (Violanti, 1995). The police culture inhibits the expression of emotion, which implies that police officers should always be free of emotion, as any acknowledgment of emotion is considered 'weak' or 'unprofessional' (Lennings, 1997).

Elizabeth and Francis (2005) addressed COP culture from twelve aspects, two of them dealing directly with structure and authority of policing. These are "Do not make waves" which means do not fight with the system and do not introduce recommendation on how to improve the system, just keep your position and support the status quo. The other one is "Do not give them too much activity" since you and your colleagues will be exposed to more pressure and an increase in expectations from your work.

Sackmann (1991, p. 342) explains police culture as a social reality "forms of things that people have in their minds; their models for perceiving, integrating, and interpreting them; the ideas or theories that they use collectively to make sense of their social and physical reality". Handy (1993) defined culture as something that is sensible and perceived but never exactly specified. Kiely and Peek (2002) emphasize that police officers generally joined up at an early age and spent most of their time within the police environment which shaped their attitudes and knowledge according to the current police task and principles.

From this perspective, Trojanowicz *et al*. (1998) define police culture as the "sum of the matrix values" established individually or by a group coming together in the organization. These values directly manipulate police behaviour in terms of whether it is suitable or not for the present culture. Moorhead and Griffin (1998, pp. 513-154) describe organizational culture as a "set of shared values, often taken for granted, that help people in an organization understand which actions are considered acceptable and which are considered unacceptable".

From the COP perspective, police officers have great difficulty in adjusting their behaviour and tasks according to new values which they are not familiar with and it is not only a new approach but a completely different way of policing for them (Sparrow, 1988). Skogan *et al.* (1999) has drawn attention to the fact that police culture is "robust and resistant to change". According to numerous studies, however, change in organizational cultural is inevitable for the achievement of the COP program (Sadd and Grinc, 1994; Alley *et al*., 2002; Wycoff, 2004; Cordner, 2004).

Many police departments moving to COP ignore current organizational culture, which may result in the failure of the program. Furthermore, the internal culture of the organization has a significant influence on the achievement or failure of COP implementation efforts (Green 1994). Thus, the work of Alley *et al*. (2002) shows that departments performing COP should engage in current organizational culture by persuading officers with understandable rules and practical regulations. Otherwise, many police officers will show their reluctance to the concept, philosophy and performance of COP (Moon, 2006). Police officers' will be reluctant to abandon their past tasks and it will be difficult to convince them to consult and work with the residents (Sarre, 1997). Indeed, officers' who embrace COP are perceived as 'hobby

Bobbies' by their friends and "they are not deemed to be doing real policing at the sharp end" (Grinc, 1994, p.37).

It is clear therefore that to implement COP effectively, the role and responsibilities of the officers should be redefined and more attention must be given to interaction with citizens (Ford, 2002).

4.7.3. Organizational Issues

COP provides decentralization and structural changes in police organizations. Green (1994) stresses that police organizations are mostly hierarchical and centre-oriented and isolated from the citizens, and he concludes that it is not easy to change the organizational structures and processes of policing in the whole department by COP. Thus, a police department consents to vital changes which can be seen in the departments' mission statements and are supposed to cover the main philosophy and strategy of the program (Trojanowicz *et. al*, 1998). By defining the meaning of COP clearly, police officers understand their responsibilities and carry out their duties coherently with the main principles of the program (Schafer, 2002). In this respect, COP should be understood, practised and sustained by the whole organization (Sarre, 1997; Thurman *et al*., 2002). The hope is that COP principles become department strategy, covering large areas and embraced by all officers (Rohe *et al.,* 2001).

Moreover, Green (1988) emphasises that COP is significantly shaped by organizational factors comprising organizational structure, level of support and back up from colleagues and managers. Additionally, Bennett (1994) rightly points out that organizational structure includes supportive career and management structures that reward COP and police attitudes and occupational cultures which lead to the acceptance of COP as a legitimate and desirable form of policing.

Skogan and Hartnett (1997) claim that the key component of an ideal COP heavily depends first on organizational decentralization in the organizational structure. They state that decentralization provides a way of developing better local solutions to local problems and makes available police officers closer to the communities that they serve. They also indicate that police departments need to adapt the strategy to the changing demands of their jurisdictions by carrying out research and surveys to

determine their needs and priorities. In this respect, Rohe *et al.* (2001) states a similar view and notes that police departments adapt COP practices according to their local needs. In particular, trained officers develop separate units which handle all COP activities to find solutions to local crime problems with residents and government bodies in a specific area.

It must therefore be recognised that police departments are the main responsible body for contributing officers' talent and knowledge in terms of how COP should be implemented. Regular training on the structure, strategy and philosophy of COP principles should be a necessity for the motivation of the officers and make it easy for them to adopt new values in the transit period (Breci, 1997).

4.7.4. Community Support

The main distinction according to the traditional method is that COP perceives the community "as an agent and partner in promoting security rather than as a passive audience" (Sparrow, 1988, p.1). Edwards (2005) argues that COP is not just regarding more police on the streets; its importance is more direct contact, communication and cooperation between police and public, which develops the concept of partnership in the community. From this point of view, informing residents is at least as important as education of the police officers for COP, thus, residents should be aware of their role in this new task and of the meaning of 'partnership' concept (Grinch, 1994; Rosenbaum & Lurigio 2000; Sagar, 2005). According to a study by Long *et al.* (2002) an ambiguous definition of 'common perspective' may lead to failure of the COP 'partnership' effort in advance. Rosenbaum and Lurigio (1994, p. 298) define COP as "emphasis on improving the number and quality of police citizen contacts, a broader definition of `legitimate` police work". Kessler (1999) points out that those individuals who have never encountered the police are generally supportive of the police or at least ambivalent. However, he argues that police officers have negative perceptions toward the public due to the unrepresentative people they encounter in the traditional police system. Thus, COP allows officers to have more contact with citizens who have a stake in the community and are committed to maintaining and improving the quality of community life.

Further definition by Friedman, who argues that 'partnership' is a coordinated strategy in some aspects moves further than problem-solving methodology and provides understanding and effectiveness of COP for its success. He also suggests that partnership is indispensable for the achievement of COP implementation and informed organizations are vital for the partnership strategy as well (Friedman, 1992). Duffee *et al*. (1999) argue therefore, that improvement of COP not only depends on the theoretical issues but also on community and policing terms which take place equally inside and outside the department.

In contextualising and highlighting the importance and the nature of COP, lastly, Wilson and Kelling's (1982) famous study 'broken windows' should be mentioned. In this, Wilson and Kelling reveal the importance of maintaining public order by stating that toleration of high levels of disorder results in crime. Later known as the 'broken windows theory', the study has received a great deal of attention and has become a main idea for many different crime control policies. For example Corman and Mocan (2002) indicate that former New York City mayor Rudolph W. Guiliani in a press conference on February 24, 1998, stated that:

> … We have made the "Broken Windows" theory an integral part of our law enforcement strategy. This theory says that the little things matter. As James Q. Wilson describes it, "If a factory or office window is broken, passersby observing it will conclude that no one cares or no one is in charge. In time, a few will begin throwing rocks to break more windows. Soon all the windows will be broken, and now passersby will think that, not only no one is in charge of the building, no one is in charge of the street on which it faces. So, more and more citizens will abandon the street to those they assume prowl it. Small disorders lead to larger ones, and perhaps even to crime."… There's a continuum of disorder. Obviously murder and graffiti are two vastly different crimes. But they are part of the same continuum, and a climate that tolerates one is more likely to tolerate the other.

In reflecting on this, Harpold (2000) comments that police agencies are aware of the fact that when broken windows remain unfixed, crime problems left untreated fester and develop into cancer. Yet, just as doctors can detect cancer early and prevent it from spreading, police can work in communities to influence the variables that threaten community pride and self-esteem. Hence, the importance of community and police partnership and also of the COP.

Bayley and Shearing (1996) correctly argue that informal agencies and societies rely on maintaining order, which, among others, include parents, churches, employers, spouses, peers, neighbours and professional associations, help to reduce crime and increase trust in police forces. Rosenbaum and Lurigio (1994) point out that, to create cooperative partnerships with the community, the police need a better understanding of the social forces that influence citizen participation in community life. It should be noted that the development of partnerships with other city agencies is viewed as increasingly important to the implementation of effective solutions to neighbourhood problems. Establishing working relationships with these service providers allows COP officers to give residents information about both social and crime-related issues (Baranyk, 1994).

The evidence seems to be strong that before starting COP in a certain area, police departments should establish strong relations with the residents to find long-term solutions to the local crime problems by dealing with the causes. Both in the planning and the implementation stages, 'communication' enables residents to be involved in decisions and participation to satisfy their needs (Duffee *et.al*., 1999). In this respect, one of the basic principles of the COP is to get 'the facts' from citizens by establishing healthy relations and persuading them to cooperate with police officers, otherwise, without adequate information, police will encounter difficulties and obstacles to finding effective solutions to crime and crime-related issues (Trojanowicz & Kappeler, 1998). Furthermore, the community's knowledge is identified by Burton *et al*. (2004) as a vital resource that broadens new strategies for police departments. Moreover, Meliala (2001, p. 99) states that "the more the police deal with people face-to-face, the more they have to build up the relevant ability to understand them as objects of policing in order to achieve the target of policing".

From a different perspective Bayley and Shearing (1996, p. 588) address the importance of the willing participation of the public. He continues that "police should transform communities from being passive consumers to active co-producers of public safety". The work of Sagar (2005) reveals that eagerness to share information with police officers helps people to feel valuable and respected in relation to the collaboration process. Moreover, Bennett and Flavin (1994) state that neighbourhood meetings, citizen councils, and community surveys provide significant citizen input

which addresses their needs and expectations (Bennett & Flavin, 1994). Evans (2007) emphasises that strong and confidential relationships develop when residents are aware of their preferences and their concerns are handled by the police officers in the first place. Contrarily, disconnection between the police and the community lead to adverse effects to COP activities (Skogan, 1990).

4.8. A CASE IN WELL-KNOWN PRACTICE: CHICAGO'S ALTERNATIVE POLICING STRATEGY (CAPS)

Chicago's COP program was launched on April 29, 1993. CAPS, (Chicago's Alternative Policing Strategy) was tested in five police districts to redefine and design new programs that facilitate the identification and resolution of neighbourhood problems locally (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997). Later, following successful implementation in those five districts, the program was broadened to take in all of Chicago (Skogan *et al.*, 2004). Many researchers have evaluated CAPS, making it one of the most extensive studies researched on COP in the world.

The COP program of Chicago involves some rules:

i.   The entire patrol division and the city were to be involved in the program. The program includes all organizations: detectives, narcotics divisions, and tactics.

ii. The program is carried out with permanent officers on regular shifts, since, in order to develop perfect relationships with the community, the same officers have to stay in one place to show to residents that they are trustworthy and reliable.

iii. Extensive training is given to both officers and supervisors. Since training is a vital part of the program, both supervisor and officer have to understand the aim of the program; otherwise it will inevitably fail.

iv. Residents are expected to take an active role in the problem. One of the main goals of the COP is 'to achieve success'. It depends on co-operation with community, and public and private agencies. Residents encourage meetings with police to exchange information and tackle neighbourhood problems effectively.

v.   A crime-mapping system and computer technology are used for the beat duties and tactical operations for special squads. Cell phones and other technological devices have also contributed to COP studies (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997).

Finally, both police and citizens play major roles in identifying and prioritizing problems, and bring community resources to bear in solving them. Not only municipal services but also the majority of the Chicagoans are aware of the city-wide COP program and they are familiar that this program is not only the police department's program (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997).

In the CAPS program, every aspect of COP philosophy and strategies, such as citizen involvement, building collective efficacy, community support, and perceptions of personnel and public, are carried out elaborately, as discussed below.

Citizen Involvement: In Chicago the police are dedicated to collaborating with residents, sharing information with them and handling their problems decisively. In fact, Chicago Police Department's mission statement asserts that

> … the Department and the rest of the community must establish new ways of actually working together. New methods must be put in place to jointly identify problems, propose solutions, and implement changes. The Department's ultimate goal should be community empowerment (Lovig &Skogan, 1995, p.2.).

Sadd and Grinc (1994) state that the police and the citizens work together to develop solutions to local problems in COP. In point of fact, to improve the relationships with citizens, specific beats are allocated in each district across the city. Each district meets with superior officers to discuss local problems and their solutions (Skogan *et. al*, 1999).

Before CAPS, officers were not assigned to a beat on a regular basis they just responded to 911 calls. However, after CAPS, Chicago's 25 police districts were divided into 279 beats. Beat meetings were regular and open to the public and their main purpose was the improvement of police-public plans to handle local problems. From the side of the citizens, they learned who was on duty in their district and the police learned who the positive people in their district were (Skogan, 1998). Residents

were instructed by television, which became the basic communication source of information about CAPS (Skogan *et al.*, 2004).

Building Collective Efficacy: Collective efficacy in COP is described as mutual confidence and eagerness to sustain public order. From a theoretical perspective, collective efficacy is known as informal social control evaluated as a main way of sustaining public order (Skogan *et al.*, 1999). The importance of collective efficacy was explained by Father Michael Pfleger of St. Sabina's Church on Chicago's South Side in August 1998 at Chicago's National Conference on COP, as follows:

> We must recognize that we are a disconnected society. A few years ago, hundreds of elderly people died in a Chicago heat wave. But it was not the heat wave that killed them, it was disconnectedness. There was a time when neighbours knew one another and actually checked up on each other. Bodies were not left alone like this. Parenting classes used to take place over the backyard fence, in the neighbourhood, on the lawn.
>
> It used to be that there was at least one neighbour who kept a close look out on kids and always knew what they and everyone else in the neighbourhood was up to. We called this Nosy Neighbour Syndrome. Though kids dread the NNS neighbour, we need them; they are sorely missed. Neighbourhoods would be much safer places. The only solution is coming together… Gangs are very together, but we don't talk to the neighbour next door.

CAPS developed a project to establish collective efficacy in the community. The project is defined as community mobilization project and its main task was training community members to solve problems in their neighbourhoods in collaboration with their local beat officers and city service agencies. Chicago's community mobilization project is directed by two teams of community organizers and involved 29 city-hired organizers working in 58 targeted beats (Skogan et al., 1999). From citizen perspective, they were aware of the importance of the neighbourhoods, since their property values and quality of life mainly dependent on the neighbourhood-safety problems. Therefore, "COP makes sense because residents have a firsthand understanding of community problems; they are often described by police as the 'eyes and ears' of the community (Skogan *et al.,* 1999, p.40).

Skogan *et al*. (2004) noted that COP sustained significant improvements over a ten-year period in Chicago. During this time, fear of crime, changes in gun availability and drugs markets reduced sharply. The 'beat meetings' held in each neighbourhood

continued to solve local problems and besides under the concept of 'partnership', some protocols were developed with main city institutions to deal with problems handled at community beat meetings.

Overall, the COP effort in Chicago has successfully worked, as the 'CAPS' as a programme changed resident's perceptions of police. In general, public opinion of the police improved increasingly from the advent of the implementation of program in 1993. Furthermore, the residents perceived that the frequency of social disorders had declined, and they reported more positive evaluations of the police (Skogan *et al*., 2004). The majority of Chicagoans rated the police positively on three measures: demeanour, responsiveness, and performance (Skogan, *et al.,* 2002).

Consequently, on this basis it may be inferred that CAPS is the only model of an effort to put COP strategy into practice across an entire police department, which came to be known as the community's program, representing a commitment by the city's political leaders and taxpayers, as well as other agencies with continuous broad support (Skogan *et al*., 2004).

4.9. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN COP IN THE UK

With the implementation of COP in Britain since the last three decades, in 2003 the Home Office decided to launch a new program aimed at 'reducing crime' and 'fear of crime' through 'high visibility policing' termed as: "Reassuring Policing" (RP). This was first implemented in Surrey region and the Metropolitan Police and particularly focused on the 'signal crimes' perspective as developed by Martin Innes (Tuffin *et al*., 2006).

'Reducing fear of crime' and application of 'broken windows theories' were the most influential ideas and practices in the field of criminal justice since long. However, apart from these practices, Innes (2004) suggested that 'signal crimes perspectives' should be developed as a meaningful strategy to handle crimes issues. In addition, he pointed out that "the signal crimes perspective provides an innovative way of looking at how crime and disorder is defined and rendered meaningful by people in their everyday lives…" (Innes, 2004, p.352). He also concluded that anti social behaviour such as vandalism of boxes, bus shelters should be seen as a signal to a community

that they are under threat. As 'signal crime' is the central concept of RP, its other primary objectives were outlined by Millie and Herrington (2005, p.43) as follows:

- To reduce crime
- To reduce fear of crime
- To increase public confidence in the police
- To increase community efficacy
- To improve intelligence gathering
- To reduce anti-social behaviour

Furthermore, they defined the key three components of RP as: 'visibility', 'familiarity' and 'accessibility'. In the light of these developments, a new policing unit participated in the UK Policing Service known as Police Community Support Officers (PCSOs) in particular to implement and pursue the key strategies of RP (NPIA, 2008).

After successful implementation of the RP and its positive perceptions among the residents, the UK government launched a new initiative defined as Neighbourhood Policing (NP) as an extension to the RP program. NP primarily deals not only with reduction in 'signal crimes' but also enhances perceptions about community safety. The overall objective (of the NP) is "to have dedicated police resources for local areas and for police and their partners to work together with the public to understand and tackle the problems that matter to them most" (Tuffin *et al*., 2006, p. i).

Consequently, it should be noted that the UK Police force put efforts into providing better policing services to the communities whom they serve under different titles such as 'Community Policing', 'Reassurance Policing' and 'Neighbourhood Policing'.

4.10. CONCLUSION

This chapter began with a brief overview of the recent history of policing in general and community policing in particular. Then it identified the differences between traditional policing and COP. In addition, the well known COP program CAPS was evaluated in detail with its components. Moreover, the main concepts of COP such as police culture, organizational issues and community involvement examined in details.

CHAPTER 5:

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF POLICE IN TURKEY

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The chapter begins with a brief overview of the history of Turkish Police starting from the ancient 'Seljuklu' era, to 'Ottoman Empire' and the modern 'Turkey'. It will then go on to provide a summary of organizational structure of Turkish Police, its duties and functions particularly focusing on the education and training system of contemporary Turkish Police. In addition, it examines the transformation of Turkish Police with COP program and also highlights the impact of EU accession process in this transformation. Moreover, successfully implemented COP program are provided from Provincial Police Departments.

5.2. DEFINITION OF POLICE

Since their first appearance on the area of the history and especially after being organized as states, Turks have always prioritized maintaining peace and public order in the society and created significant organizations to achieve this goal. Analyzing characteristics of Turkish nation, it is observed that they have taken significant steps in regard to establishing and maintaining public order and security in the society in order to prevent damage or harm that might incur on life or assets of the people as well as being dependable and protagonist and defender of the truth (Sahin, 2004).

The term police is generally defined as an organization, mission or staff in foreign literature (Aydin, 1996); however, the term police represent in Turkish security system as people responsible for establishing public order and security and implementing the rules in the country (Sarikoyuncu, 1993).

In this respect the definition and duties of police defined in Law numbered 2559 'Law for Duties and Powers of Police' (P.V.S.K.) in Article 1 as:

> "The Police protect the public order, peace, security, savings and homes of individuals, as well as the life, chastity and good security of the public. They

assist those in need of help, needy children, the incapacitated and the weak. They fulfil tasks as vested on them by laws and codes of rules".

After providing definition and duties of TNP, the following parts will address the structural changes of policing passing from different stages in Turkish history; particularly beginning from Ancient Turks period to today.

5.3. POLICE IN ANCIENT TURKS

Despite the fact that police service primarily emerged inside the militaristic structure and revealed militaristic characteristics, ancient Turks always prioritized home land security in any State established throughout the history and developed special organizations to ensure the security and peace at home (Alyot, 1947; Vural, 1970). Former Turks used to use the terms '*yargan*' or '*targan*' meaning the police in contemporary context (Birinci, 1978; Oztuna, 1992). The word *yargan* referring to police, executioner and detective also represented a rank (Orkun, 1938).

The term *Subashi*, meaning police commander, is traced to the documents of VIII century (Sokullu and Akıncı, 1990). Seljuk Bey, the founder Great Seljuki Empire, was a *subashi*. Dynasties appeared after collapse of Anatolian Seljuki State also called military commander *subashi* (Ortaylı, 1979; Eraslan & Metin, 1984). Playing an important role in terms of history of the police and dealing with law enforcement services in various forms, we observe that *subashi* rank served as security organization responsible for establishing and maintaining public order and security in former Turkish society (Alyot, 1947; Sertoğlu, 1986).

Public order and security used to be established based on the laws in former Turks. Among the ancient Turkish laws containing such provisions and reaching today, we can count Oghuz Customs of Oghuz Khan, Ulug (Noble) Laws of Genghis Khan and Umurun Tuzcukat (Okcabol, 1940, p.17).

5.4. POLICE ORGANIZATION DURING OTTOMAN EMPIRE

For establishing and maintaining public order and security in the society, Ottoman Empire primarily modelled ancient Turkish states and homeland security was handled as a militaristic issue; however, expansion of the Empire's borders and rapid

population growth required establishing a specialized security organization equipped with professional knowledge and skills (Çadırcı, 1997, p. 317). Upon declaring independence of Ottoman State, Osman Bey, the founder of the State, firstly established organizations for security and public order in form of *kadi* and *subashi* (Sahin, 2004).

The roles and responsibilities of *subashi* were restructured according to Turkish customs and traditions. In respective period, *kadis* (Muslim judges) acted as civilian authority for the districts while the same role was played by *sancakbeyi* (governor of Sanjak) in sub-provinces and *Beylerbeyi* (governor of cities) in provinces. *Kadi* used to deal with administrative and judicial works in districts and *subashis* used to serve as police commander in addition to their service as military commander and they used to ensure enforcement of the rules awarded by the *kadis* (Alyot, 1947).

Acting as a major ruler in cities dealing with administrative, judicial, municipal and police affairs, the *kadi* (Muslim Judge) served as district governor, mayor and police commander as he also used to carry out investigations (Alyot, 1947; Ortaylı, 1979). Being responsible for enforcing the verdicts and instructions of the *kadi*, the *Subashis* were primary assistants to Ottoman *kadi* through serving as judiciary police on one hand and a senior security rank on the other (Ortaylı, 1979).

Upon growth and enlargement of Janissary organization, public order and security issues of Istanbul became the primary responsibility of *sadrazam* (grand vizier) and janissary agha (contemporary chief constable) the troops of the militaristic guilds of *Bostanji*, *Gebeji* and *Topchu* (artilleryman) patrolled in Istanbul streets to establish security and public order (Cufali, 2002, p.20). Achieving great successes and making great contribution to development of the state during expansion period, "*guild of Janissary*" created big problems in later periods and changed their original and noble principle "*Guild is for the state*" with "*state is for the guild*"(Karal, 1988, p.7).

Recognized as a source of problem in the eyes of the public and the government, the guild of janissary was abolished with Imperial Order of Mahmud the Second on 17 June 1826 and an army was formed under the name 'Asakir-i Mansure-i Muhammediye' (*Victorious Armies of Mohammed*) (Shaw,1983; Bernard, 1993,

p.80; Ahmet Cedet Paşa, 1994). Fundamental changes took place in Ottoman Empire after abolishment of Guild of Janissary including also security services. Starting from year 1926, new organizations were formed in Istanbul under the names of 'Asakir-i Muntazama-i Mamure' / *Regular Army Troops* and 'Asakir-i Muntazama-i Hassa' / *Army of Specialist Forces* and 'Asakir-i Redife'/ *Army of Ex-Serviceman* was formed in 1834 in some provinces of Anatolia and Rumeli. The management of these armies was under the responsibility and authority of *Serasker* (contemporary Minister of Defence of Head of General Staff) and the authorities of Janissary Chief were vested to this new militaristic post (Kolluk hizmetleri, 1972).

In the Tanzimat-i Hayriye period, ministry of the interior 'nezaret-i dahiliye' was created in 1836 to control the provincial and local administrations and police forces and responsible from the appointment, promotion, inspection and regulation of all bureaucrats and police chiefs as well (Shaw, 1976).

5.4.1. First Police Organization Declaration in 1845

Even though abolishment of Janissary Guild largely solved internal civil disorder in Ottoman Empire and a police regulation was declared on 20 March 1845 for establishing a new organization under the name 'Police' for the first time and a Police Organization was found under 'Tophane-i Amire Musiriyeti' (Alyot, 1947; Gülmez, 1983).

In 1846, a new decree was declared stating that the police services caused the *Serasker* 'Contemporary Head of General Staff' neglecting his primary military roles and responsibilities and new positions independent from the *serasker* were formed being 'Chief Constable' and 'Vice Chief Constable' responsible for enforcing and performing police services (Cufali, 2002, p.22). Said organization was abolished in a very short time period and replaced with 'Divan-i Zaptiye' / *Council of Police* and 'Meclis-i Tahkik' / *Council of Investigation*. Thus, security affairs of the cities were enforced by 'Zaptiye Mesuriyeti' / *Marshalcy of Police*. Respective period continued till 1879 when 'Zaptiye Mesuriyeti' was abolished and 'Zaptiye Nezareti' / *Police Office* (may also be called *ministry*) was formed covering only the tasks and responsibilities of the police (Egm, 2009).

Abdulhamit II, separated police forces into Ministry of Police 'Zabtiye Nezareti' inspired from the French police model. Not only Istanbul but also all large cities and rural police services were controlled under one unit (Shaw, 1976).

Thus, Police and Gendarmerie forces separated permanently. Founded in year 1845, Police Organization continuously developed and enlarged with the regulations enacted primarily in 1867 and 1879, then in 1881- 1886- 1898 and 1907 (Egm, 2009).

5.5. SECURITY ORGANIZATION AFTER 1923

Start of Republic administration period also brought new development and modernization waves and initiatives in Security Organization of the country as it was the same in almost every field of state administration (Yasar, 1997).

In parallel with administrative separation introduced with 1924 Constitution, 'Provincial Police Directorates' started to appear in each province and the security services in sub-provinces were withdrawn from gendarmerie and given to the police; thus, Police organization entered into a period of continuous development. (Okcabol, 1939). Police Organization completed its structuring in all provinces by 1950s and also created its branches in sub-provinces (Çufali, 2002, p.27).

Law numbered 2559 *Law for Duties and Powers of Police* (P.V.S.K.) was enacted on 4 July 1934 which defined the missions and authorities of the national police under a dedicated law (Kızılkaya & Sönmez, 2004).

On 4 June 1937, *Law for the Turkish National Police Organisation (E.T.K.) numbered as 3201* was enacted and put into force. This law reorganized Directorate General of Security, its rural branches in accordance with the scientific and technical requirements (Alyot, 1947).

Law No 3201 also underlined the requirement of the education and training of the law enforcement personnel. In addition to police schools providing education and training only to police officers in some provinces, a 'Police Institute' was founded in Ankara as defined under regulations on police schools which was enacted based

on Law No 3201 to educate and train middle and senior rank managers for police organization (Alyot, 1947).

Whereas the 'navigation/ traffic regulations' issued on municipal level remained insufficient for solving the traffic problems, Highway Traffic Law no: 6085 was enacted and put into force in 1953. Amended in accordance with the contemporary conditions, respective law was amended with Law No: 2918 on 13 October 1983 (Kızılkaya & Sönmez, 2004).

Furthermore, 'The Public Police' was formed under the Law No 654 enacted on 15 July 1965. The formation of Public Police was abolished under Law No 2696 enacted on 01 January 1983 and more equipped and modern 'Riot Police Units' were formed in order to undertake the missions of the Public Police.

'Special Operations Units' were formed on 16 June 1985 to prevent terror events created by separatist, destructive and regional flows and to organize sudden intervention and raid in the event that Turkish or foreigners are taken as hostage by or in the event that a bus or plane or other vehicles of transportation are hijacked by the terrorists (Sahin, 2004). Special Operations Units transferred into 'Special Operations Department' under the Ministerial Decree enacted on 14 July 1993 (Kızılkaya & Sönmez, 2004).

In 1970s, comprehensive reorganization activities started in Security Organization which was established in 1930s in today's contemporary understanding. Changing and reorganization requirement was also felt for central and rural branches of the police in order to keep pace with socioeconomic and political developments in the country. After 12 September 1980, major changes and renovations were performed in organization of the national police as well as various legislations passes for modernization and reorganization of the organization and to eliminate any gap or missing in the legislation or operations. Respective developments were a part of administrative reforms carried out throughout the country after September 12 events. The structure of Ministry of Interiors was completely renewed and Directorate General of Security which is organized under the Ministry was no exception (Kızılkaya & Sönmez, 2004).

In addition to reform carried out in the Central Police Organizations, the major changes also took place in Provincial Police Organizations after 1980's, which resulted in further police structures as follows (Aydın, 1996, p.53). These are:

i. Motorcycle policing team providing 'Public Order' called as "Dolphins"
ii. Motorcycle policing team organizing 'Traffic' called as "Falcons"
iii. Highway Police
iv. School Police
v. Marine Police
vi. Under Water Police (Diver Police)
vii. Tourism Police
viii. Mounted Police
ix. Central Police Units.

5.6. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF TNP

TNP administrative system shaped according to French Police administration system like other institutions which influenced from French system such as Gendarmerie and Civilian Administration system in Turkey. This approach offers that Police are responsible from urban areas which mean residential places, while other law enforcement unit Gendarmerie are responsible from the rural areas. However, both these units are accountable to the MoI affairs in terms of their tasks and duties. As a matter of fact *E.T.K (3201) Article 1* has highlighted this issue as follows. The MoI Affairs is responsible for ensuring public peace and security. They do fulfil these tasks through the TNP and Gendarmerie Headquarters within the framework of its laws (Cerrah, 2007).

In addition, TNP organizational structure has divided into two categories. These are central and provincial organizations. The central organization fulfils their duty under Directorate General of Security. The central organization consisted of three main divisions (See Appendix A for Organizational Chart of TNP). These are: 'Head of Inspection Commission', 'Legal Advisory', and 'Head of Departments'.

The provincial organisation operates under the command of provincial Police Directorates who has also responsible from the sub provincial directorates, town

sergeants in sub provinces, and other policing units. However, provincial police departments initially accountable to civilian administrators like Governors in cities, and District Governors in towns.

Provincial organizations composed of 81 Directorates of Provincial Police, 751 Police Directorates of Towns affiliated to Provinces, 22 Border Gates Police Directorates, 18 Free-Zone Police Stations, and 834 Police Stations in 81 Provinces (Osce, 2010)

E.T.K (3201) Article 11 has regulated the relationships among these units. According to article 11 GDTNP is authorised to make direct communications with the provincial police organization, and provincial police directorate is authorised to make direct communications with the police organisation in the provinces, concerning about policing incidents and other management procedures.

5.6.1. Staff and Duties

TNP which is established in 1845 has ruled according to some specific laws and regulation that organize its administrative structure. In this respect, there are professional degrees and titles which provide their task under the chain of command effectively in TNP (See Appendix B for Ranks, Titles, and Tasks in TNP).

In addition, the table below illustrates some of the main ranks of the TNP personnel and their numbers in total.

Table 5.1: Personnel Information (Rank)

Rank	Total
Chief of Police	3.888
Superintendent	3.422
Chief Inspector	1.835
Inspector	2.733
Sergeant	2.248
Police Officer	181.673
District Watchmen	5.094
Public Servant	11.234
Totally	**212.127**

Even if TNP has more than 200 thousand personnel, it is remained below the targeted personnel because of the population which is steadily grown up in Turkey (Egm, 2010a). Thus, TNP which is one of the big organizations in Turkey have missions and visions statements showing its purpose and aim of the organization.

5.6.2. Mission of TNP

The mission of TNP is: To contribute protection of fundamental rights and freedoms of the individuals, creating and maintaining an environment where the society enjoys a peaceful life in a peaceful and secure atmosphere in line with the pillars and reforms of Ataturk within the principles of secular and social state of law, based on rule of law, respect for human rights and impartiality and in the light of the laws and universal values.

In addition to mission statement, TNP have vision statement which tells its main strategy and direction (Egm, 2010).

5.6.3. The vision of TNP

The vision of TNP is: To be a model security organization that deters those trying to break the order, peaceful and secure environment in the society; that arrests those committing such crimes quickly together with all evidences; that contributes creating public security policies and that vaccinates trust with its contented staff and human oriented quality services (Egm, 2010).

5.6.4. Duties

According to *E.T.K (3201) Article 8* TNP has divided into three sections regarding to duty they carry out. These are: 'Judicial Duties', 'Administrative Duties', and 'Political Duties'. In *article 9* these duties are defined in details.

5.6.4.1. Administrative Duties

Administrative police task is described in *E.T.K (3201) Article 9- A* as "ensuring social and general order". The main objective of administrative police is to take preventive and persuasive law enforcement duties. In necessary situations, they

implement legal forces to prevent the criminal activities. In addition, they inhibit dishonourable attitudes and behaviours which is not acceptable in society. Moreover, they detain people who disturb the public peace, catch people who carry unlicensed weapons, and take the necessary measures to prevent crime in public places.

5.6.4.2. Political Duties

According to definition given in *E.T.K (3201) Article 9- B,* The political police is responsible for affairs connected with general security of the state. Their main duty is to focus on threat against to general security of the country. They monitor the illegal organization who plans to destroy the democratic order and territorial integrity of country.

5.6.4.3. Judicial Duties

The main concern of judicial police is to collect and protect evidence, catch criminals and investigate crimes. As it is stated in *E.T.K (3201) Article 9- C,* Judicial police work under the under the authority of prosecutors. Even if judicial affairs are carried out by judiciary police, other police forces also liable to assist them if any demand requested from Public Attorney. On the other hand, in police organization structure there is no separation between administrative and judicial police. Thus police working on judicial affairs still accountable to its police superiors *(E.T.K (3201) Article 10).*

5.6.5. Education and Training

Education and training terms are frequently used in the same meaning. However it is necessary here to clarify exactly what is meant by police 'education' and 'training' in the TNP. According to definition provided by, Pagon *et al.* (1996, p.556) 'Police education' is a "process of imparting or acquiring general or particular police-related knowledge that leads to obtaining a certain degree" (*e.g.,* high school diploma, associate degree, professional higher education degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree). In normal standards education runs more than one year. On the other hand, they described 'Police Training' "as a process of imparting or acquiring particular knowledge or skills necessary for police work that does not lead

to any kind of degree, but might (or might not) end with some form of certificate". In general, the lengths of police training programs are less than police educational programs.

After highlighting the differences between training and education terms, they applied into the TNP as follows. Both Training and education programs are run by the Department of Education which is operating under the umbrella GDTNP and by Police Academy. The Police Academy offers three education and three training programs. These are:

i. Police College (high school to serve as a source for Police Academies; 4 years)

ii. Undergraduate Education (Police Professional High Schools. Their education period is 2 years. There are 25 police professional high schools in nationwide);

iii. Bachelor's Degree Education (Security Sciences Institute; 4 years);

iv. Postgraduate Training (Security Sciences Institute. The duration is four semesters to get Master's degree);

v. Training at State Higher Educational Institutions in Ankara; and

vi. Management Training (Security Sciences Institute;

vii. Higher Level Management Training for Third Degree Chief Superintendents and

viii. In-service Mid-Level Management Training for Chief Inspectors (Caglar, 2004; TNPA, 2010).

In addition to above police education and training programs there are also institutions which provide specific courses to experts for a short time periods such as Turkish Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (TUBIM), the Crime Investigation and Research Education Centre (SASEM) and the Turkish International Academy against Drugs and Organized Crime (TADOC).

After giving a brief overview of the recent situation of the TNP education and training system the following part will examine each educational institution in details.

5.6.5.1. Police College

Police College established on June 15, 1938 by the directives Ataturk. They performed their training program as a high school level education in Anittepe Ankara. The legal basis for establishment of the college depended on the Police Act No 3201. Article 19: "Police College was founded as a high school to serve as a source for Police Academies affiliated with the Ministry of National Education curricula under the umbrella of TNP Organization where official uniforms are a must".

Police College give its first graduates in 1941 however, because of various reasons it was closed in 1950. After 8 years, it was considered that police college graduates were more successful in policing profession, so their training was re-started in 1958.

The main mission of the Police College defined as educate students who are devoted to Ataturk's principles and reforms and who are also embraced Turkish spiritual, cultural and humanitarian values, love their country and are aware of their duties and responsibilities for the good of their state, and their police organization with respecting human rights, and freedom (Police College, 2010).

The second Police College was opened in Bursa in 2005 by Cabinet Decision No 2004/7935 in 19.09.2004 and education began in 2005. The school gave their first graduates in 2009 with 73 students passing to Police Academy.

Therefore, as it is stated by Alyot (1947) the Police College has been evaluated as a first home in the police organization which provides not only general knowledge but also discipline and policing training.

5.6.5.2. Police Academy

The Police academy was founded on 6 November 1937 in accordance with Article 18 of the Act 3201. Initially it started as a one-year-in service-training institute of higher education to educate the senior constables. Within this line, the Education and Training Council of the Ministry of National Education offered two year training

program in 1940 than later it is turned into three-year education program in 1962, and from 1984 it started to give a four-year undergraduate program under the name of Turkish National Police Academy (TNPA). Within the scope of Police Higher Education Act 4652 issued on 25 April 2001, Police Academy turned into a university by establishing new institutions: Institute of Security Sciences, Faculty of Security Sciences, and 20 Police Vocational High Schools (TNPA, 2010).

In addition, there were also six research divisions about: 'International Terrorism', 'International Security', 'Criminal Justice', 'Crime Researches', 'Transportation Security', and 'Security Strategies Administration' established under the umbrella of these institutions (TNPA, 2010).

Faculty of Security Sciences provides students from different sources which are; College graduates, high school graduates, vocational high school graduates and students from abroad. After passing Turkish proficiency the foreign students allowed to start their education. There are more than 200 foreign students enrolled from different regions of the world and these regions are: Albania, Azerbaijan, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Georgia, Jordan, Kyrgyzstan, FYRO-Macedonia, Moldavia, Mongolia, Palestine, Northern Cyprus, Turkmenistan and Sudan (TNPA, 2010).

There are two types of training took place in TNP. One of them is in-service training program which is run by Education Department and the other one is professional training provided by Police Academy. The Police Academy arranged their academic circular according a university standard which is also appropriate to the policing work itself (Caglar, 2004).

With this highlighting, the subject areas within the curriculum of the Police Academy offer to the students are as follows: 'Law' (private and special); Police Administration& Management; Police Related subjects (shooting); Crime &Criminology; and General Courses (languages). Here are the some taught courses provided for the students in four year time listed as follows: 'Introduction to Policing Profession', 'Economy',' Sociology', 'Informatics Technologies', 'Applied Behavioural Sciences', 'Political Institutions', 'Turkish Language', 'Foreign Language', 'Weapon Training and Shooting', and 'Principles of Ataturk and History of Revolution'. 'Human Rights', 'Citizenship Law', 'Traffic Management and

Control', 'European Union Law', 'Foreigners Law', 'Criminal Law', 'Criminal Court Law', 'Venue Investigation', 'Criminology', 'Organised Crimes', 'Investigation and Correspondence Techniques', 'Discipline Law', 'Scientific Research Methods', 'Fraud and Financial Crimes', 'Terrorism' and Police-Public Relations'.

Given that the brief history and education system of Police Academy, there are also some basic requirement to become a student in both Police Academy and in Police High Schools. In this respect, Caglar (2004) has classified these requirements into six categories: 'Citizenship', 'Age', 'Education', 'Height', 'Health Standards and Appearance', and Background Investigations.

Citizenship. One of the most significant requirements for recruitment in Police Academy is citizenship. Since the nature of police work requires loyalty and commitment to your country and political system. The officers who have citizenship behave without any prejudice against citizens and carry out their duty equally.

Age. The minimum age limits both Police Academy and Police High Schools are consistent with the age 18 which people get their legal rights like; voting.

Education. Students who have graduated from Vocational High Schools and Commerce and Tourism High Schools and students of foreign origin admitted to Police Academy as a student.

Height. Every officer representing the whole police organization should have certain lengths. Thus, it is found out by law that the minimum height of candidates in the Turkish police organization at 1.65m for women and 1.67m for men. There are also some restrictions on age and weight differences according to body mass index.

*Health Standards and Appearance***.** Being healthy and physical appearance are very important factors in performing policing work. Thus, every police must have health certificates from the authorized hospital before starting its education. In addition before accepted as a student a committee consisting of senior officers interviewed with the applicants to make sure they are capable of doing policing work and whether the applicant will be a good representative of police organization and give a positive image of police to the public.

Background Investigations. The last but the most important requirement is the investigation period. Thus, Caglar (2004) mentioned the special situation of background investigations in policing job. As a matter of fact this investigation was a kind of insurance which provide accurately selection of police staff.

5.6.5.3. Police Vocational High Schools

Police Vocational High Schools are performing under the umbrella of Police Academy since 25th, 2001. The length of education is two years and the same recruitment procedures applied to candidate students for all police schools in the country. There are 25 police schools located in different cities across Turkey. The following table listed the Police Vocational High Schools in alphabetic order:

Table 5.2: Police Vocational High School

NO	NAME OF HIGH SCHOOL
1	A. Gaffar OKKAN Police Vocational High School
2	Afyon Police Vocational High School
3	Aksaray Police Vocational High School
4	Balikesir Police Vocational High School
5	Bayburt Police Vocational High School
6	Elazig Zulfu AGAR Police Vocational High School
7	Erzurum Police Vocational High School
8	Erzincan Police Vocational High School
9	Gaziantep Police Vocational High School
10	Hatay Police Vocational High School
11	Kastamonu Police Vocational High School
12	Kayseri Police Vocational High School
13	Kemal SERHADLI Police Vocational High School
14	Kirikkale Police Vocational High School
15	Kirsehir Police Vocational High School
16	Konya Eregli Police Vocational High School
17	Malatya Police Vocational High School
18	Nazilli Police Vocational High School
19	Nigde Police Vocational High School
20	Rustu UNSAL Police Vocational High School
21	Samsun 19 Mayis Police Vocational High School
22	Siirt Police Vocational High School
23	Sukru BALCI Police Vocational High School
24	Trabzon Police Vocational High School
25	Yozgat Police Vocational High School

Source: (Turkish National Police, 2010).

In addition to these schools, there are total of nine Police Vocational Education Centres (POMEM) across Turkey to provide professional police education to Turkish

Police organization. Police Vocational Education Centres accept students who have at least four year higher education degree. These centres are illustrated as follow:

Table 5.3: Police Vocational Education Centres

NO	NAME of CENTRES
1	Arnavutkoy POMEM
2	Etiler POMEM
3	Adile Sadullah Mermerci POMEM
4	Bornova POMEM
5	Eskisehir POMEM
6	Cankiri POMEM
7	Merzifon POMEM
8	Aydin POMEM
9	Bilecik POMEM

Source: Turkish National Police / Education Department, 2010)

There is also one more issue which should be addressed under the topic of Education in TNP is 'International Education'. According to Civil Servants Law No. 657 to 78th, 79th and 80th articles highlighted regulations and requirements of civil servants to do their Masters and PhD degrees abroad.

These opportunities were undertaken by TNP and they started to send their staff since 1999 by starting short term training and Masters Degree then after PhD Degree. Thus, it can be concluded that 'International Education' is an important component to help transforming of TNP and also plays a key role for Turkish Police preparation to EU membership particularly on human rights, terrorism and organized crimes issues. In this respect, TNP found out Master and PhD topics by taking account the needs of police in Turkey.

These subjects are: 'Community Based Policing'; 'Management Information Systems'; 'High Technology Crimes'; 'International Terrorism and Human Rights'; 'Combating illegal migration'; 'Corruption and White Collar Criminal Investigation'; 'Prevention of political violence'; 'Social Psychology'; 'Crime Analysis'; 'Sociology of Crime and Criminals' / 'Psychology'; 'Witness Protection'; 'Police and Human Rights'; 'Police Management'; 'Police Management and Organization'; 'Police Performance Assessment'; 'Financial Crime'; 'Organized Crime'; 'Crime Scene Investigation';

'Criminology'; 'Geographical Information Systems' and 'Urban Management'; 'Child Delinquency'; and 'Forensic Science'.

After addressing the history of TNP, its functions, duties and education system, the second part of this chapter will highlight the needs for transformation In TNP with particularly focusing on COP implementations.

5.7. TRANSFORMATION of TNP

Transformation of an organization is inevitable. However in policing, officers create their own values and culture to exclude themselves from the outside world (Allen, 1997). This view is supported by Kiely and Peek (2002) who write that Police officers generally joined forces at the early ages and spent most of their time within the police environment which shaped their attitudes and knowledge according to the current police task and principals. In addition, Sarre (1997) discusses the challenges and difficulties of convincing police officers to abandon their past tasks and habits. Thus, a solution has been suggested by Breci (1997) that Police Departments are the main responsible body for the motivation of the officers and prepares them to adopt new values in the transiting period.

With these general highlighting, TNP entered the transformation process in 1983 which is 2 years after the military coup in 1981. The main goal of the Ozals' government was to eradicate the impact of the military coup on the institutions and modernize them with new administrative and economic reforms. In this respect, TNP has made considerable changes with internal amendments particularly in the education field to prevent human right violations. In addition, they have reorganized their organizational structure and much more attention was given to the decentralization.

Furthermore, the major changes have started with full membership application to EU in Turkey. Being a candidate country, TNP has taken major steps to provide alignment in policing issues. Firstly, TNP focused on the national program adoptions of the Acquis (NPAA) programs which are designed to support reforms in Turkey. It is clear therefore that EU has been instrumental in the transformation of various aspects of the Turkish police. From this perspective, the EU provides funds to

candidate countries to strengthen the capacity of institutions and to enhance their capabilities. Therefore, the expectation is that these projects will play vital role for the accountability and transparency of the TNP. Further impacts of the projects are to help to transformation of policing; particularly with 'Community Police' applications, which has currently considerable effect on the changing environment of policing in Turkey.

5.7.1. Shift Towards to COP

The ideology of the COP goes back to Ancient Turkish times, i.e. before the 10th century. Turks have always prioritized prevention of acts and behaviours considered tort or crime in the society through taking measures before committing crime and unearthing the perpetrator in case of a crime committed. When a house or caravan was raided in a neighbourhood or village or a theft was committed in the district, the criminal(s) would be arrested and the damages and losses redressed (Alyot, 1947, p.11)

If the criminal(s) could not be arrested, the damages or losses would be paid by the residents of the quarter or village. As seen, Turks always felt a shared responsibility for prevention of crimes and arresting the perpetrators. Thus, every individual felt personal responsibility for alertness and fight against the crime and criminals. Each resident is, in a way, obliged to help the police/ law enforcement forces as much as possible and alleviate the burden on the shoulders of the law enforcement bodies (Alyot, 1947, p.11).

After giving a brief overview of how COP principles were embraced by Turks in the past, it will be better to address how it is started in Turkey. COP strategies and tactics have been implemented as a useful philosophy in many police forces in the world since 1980's. Thus, it has been explored by TNP that many democratic countries police organizations perform this new way of policing successfully.

In this respect, from the beginning of the 2000s, the philosophy and implementation of COP was paid special attention with the objective of implementing TNP. However, it has started officially in 2005, which was followed by another circular by the MoI (circular no: 49) dated on 31/05/2006 updated the previous circular and established COP as unit under the umbrella of Public Order Department in TNP.

These projects are: *Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the TNP 2003*

At the same time, EU Harmonization project 'Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the TNP' carried out with Spain's relevant institutions with the aim of: 'Increasing the accountability, efficiency and effectiveness of the TNP in the discharge of its responsibilities in respect of the enforcement of law in accordance with democratic principles'. One of the main components of the project was 'COP' program in Turkey. This component provided the introduction of COP to Turkey then organized its establishment and development.

After the execution of all activities under community police component, MoI has made decision to initiate COP program following 10 most important cities in June 15, 2006. These are: Adana, Ankara, Antalya, Bursa, Diyarbakir, Erzurum, Istanbul, Izmir, Kayseri and Trabzon".

In addition, after the following targets have been reached in above cities, COP program extended over more 15 cities in March 15, 2007. These cities are: Balıkesir, Kocaeli, Tekirdağ, Adıyaman, Osmaniye, Mersin, Konya, Denizli, Manisa, Çorum, Samsun, Rize, Malatya, Van and Batman.

Implementation of COP took serious attention by citizen and also made significant contribution to the image of the police in the society. After these favourable important developments, the MoI gradually spread the implementation of the program nationwide. In this respect, COP was launched further 26 cities' police departments in 2008: Edirne, Çanakkale, Sakarya, Aydın, Muğla, Kütahya, Eskişehir, Kırıkkale, Bartın, Isparta, Niğde, Kırşehir, Amasya, Tokat, Giresun, Sivas, Kahramanmaraş, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Mardin, Siirt, Şırnak, Bitlis, Elazığ, Erzincan and Kars.

It is commonly agreed that COP program provided both police and citizen satisfaction in general. Thus, it has extended to more 30 City Police Department from April 2009. These cities are: Afyonkarahisar, Ağrı, Artvin, Ardahan, Aksaray, Bayburt, Bolu, Burdur, Bilecik, Bingöl, Çankırı, Düzce, Gümüşhane, Hakkâri, Hatay, Iğdır, Kastamonu, Karaman, Karabük, Kırklareli, Kilis, Muş, Nevşehir, Ordu, Sinop, Tunceli, Uşak, Yalova, Yozgat and Zonguldak.

As of 2009, COP has been implementing in all 81 Police Province Departments.

5.7.2. Establishment of COP

COP was established in two main structural bodies as the Central and Provincial organizations.

Central Organization

A new service unit has established and assigned with dedicated personnel under Department of Public Order of Directorate General of Security in order to monitor provincial practices, to detect any problem and communicate to the competent authorities, to develop the services and have an influence of the implementation, to establish coordination. This unit also runs secretariat services of Central Monitoring and Assessment Council of COP Officer (CMAC) Services (COP Standards & Applications, 2009).

Provincial Organization

COP Branches or Offices are organized in provincial and sub-provincial Directorates of Security in order to coordinate, arrange, direct and analyze COP services in accordance with the provisions of this Standard.

In line with the requirements of the Standard, at least one person is assigned as head of division among the police inspector who received training of 'Trainers for Police COP Implementation' upon recommendation of the provincial directorates. Provincial Executive Council (PEC) for COP is established in order to implement the practices of COP program in pilot provinces (COP Standards & Applications, 2009).

5.7.3. Principles of COP

COP services are provided within the framework of following basic principles:

    i.   To adopt COP as basic approach in mission and to expand it to the entire policing duty,

ii.   To be always in the community and completely open for communicating with the community,

iii.   To encourage the community for involving in security services,

iv.   To cooperate with the members of the community,

v.   Giving direction to the security services in line with the demands of the community

vi.   To try to minimize feeling of insecurity and fear for crimes in the community and to design and deliver services in line with this goal,

vii.   To provide equal and impartial service to everybody without any discrimination,

viii.   To adopt and maintain impartial approach in provision of the services,

ix.   To develop awareness of the individuals for undertaking/ feeling personal responsibility in enforcement of the security services (COP Standards & Applications, 2009).

5.7.4. Personnel Selection and Working Hours

Volunteers applying to COP, as police officers need to have the following qualification and competence requirements;

i.   Working for at least 12 months in the Police profession as of date of application,
ii.   Having a clear registry record for recent 3 years,
iii.   Having a driving licence for any class,
iv.   Being a volunteer to serve as a COP officer and applying in written.

The candidates applying for selection of COP program need to have the following qualifications;

i.   Acquired skills for perception and expression,
ii.   Representative skills,

iii.   Judgement and reasoning in cases,

    iv.   comprehension skills ; reading, describing or expressing in a verbal or

            non-verbal format,

    v.   Communication skills and body language.

In addition to qualification criteria for selection of the personnel, other personal
features of the individuals, demographic and cultural structure of the province are
taken into consideration.

No other mission can be imposed on COP officers other than those defined under this
Regulation unless there is a mandatory case concerning overall security. Working
conditions are closely relevant to provision of effective services; therefore, the
authority tries to improve respective conditions.

In the event of being assigned for a mandatory case concerning general security, COP
officers do not wear their special uniforms but wear their causal cloths. COP officers
cannot work more than eight hours in a day (COP Standards & Applications, 2009,
p.99).

5.7.5. Training in COP

Training in COP has given under three sub-categories. These are: 'Basic Training',
'In-service Training' and 'Informatory Training'.

Basic Training: Police officers who did not receive basic COP training cannot be
assigned as COP officers. Basic Training circular, training topics and length of
training is determined by GDTNP. The key courses for COP officers can be listed as
follows: 'Principles of COP', 'Local responsibilities in crime prevention', 'Fear of
Crime', 'Communication with local authorities', 'Public Psychology',
'Communication with Media', 'Citizen involved Programs', 'Police Ethic', 'Using
Crime Data Analysis' 'Human Rights', and 'Police Culture'(COP Standards &
Applications, 2009).

In-service Training: The main objective of in-service training is to keep COP staff's
knowledge updated and renew them with the new developments. In-service training
courses are provided every four months and the duration and topics are found out by

GDTNP. The core courses given in in-service training are: 'Concept and Development of COP', 'Basic and Supportive Principles of COP Approach', 'Communication Techniques and Public Relations', 'Holistic Approach in COP Program', 'Police Ethic and Human Rights', 'Importance of COP program against Combatting Crime'. All courses are provided in theoretical basis and each of them lasts at least two hours (COP Standards & Applications, 2009).

Informatory Training: The primary goal of informatory program is to create awareness of COP program for other Police units and inform them the main target and goal of the program. Therefore, within the scope of informatory training program following courses are provided. These are: 'Concept and Development of COP', 'Basic and Supportive Principles of COP Approach', 'Structural Development of COP in Turkey', 'Responsibilities of Other Police Units while performing COP Program', 'Importance of COP program against Combating Crime', 'Application of COP in the world and In Turkey'(COP Standards & Applications, 2009).

In addition to above training courses, three study visit programs took place to England, Spain, and Belgium in order to see implementation of COP program in these countries.

5.7.6. Legislations about COP

COP services are executed in accordance mainly with 2559 numbered the *Law for Duties and Powers of Police* (P.V.S.K.) which is put into effect since 1934. Legal regulations that lay basis for COP studies in the PVSK have been listed below:

Article 1- The Police protect the public order, peace, security, savings and homes of individuals, as well as the life, and general security of the public. They also helped people who need helps like children and weak people.

Article 2- This article highlights public safety task of police which is the main concern of COP program. This task has divided into two: A) To prevent acts that do not comply with laws, statutes, regulations, Government order and public order under the umbrella of this law. B) To undertake tasks written in the Code of Criminal Procedure and other laws regarding an offence committed.

The following articles; 11, 12, and 13 addressed the problems and establishment of public order in the society. In this respect, **Article 11** states that police inhibit those contravening decency laws in displaying attitudes and behaviours that are dishonourable and not acceptable in society. In addition, Police may prohibit those harassing children, girls and women and young men in any way, promoting or encouraging bad habits. Furthermore, Police may cease the continuation of producing and selling audio and visual materials with a message against decency.

Article 12 mainly focused on entrance of drinking places such as bar, casino, night clubs and other similar places. According to this article, Police prohibit those below 18, regardless whether they are joined by a parent or a legal guardian, from entering these places where alcohol is served.

Article 13 organized the Police arrest warranty. This article also supports ensuring social order which is explained in sub articles. However, only which is directly associated with COP program listed here. These are: Police detain people who disturb the public peace or cause a scandal or those attacking others, and those continuing such acts despite warnings and those attempting to attack others and fight against each other.

Article 14 concerns ensuring the protection of the peace and tranquillity of people. According to this article, Police detain people who disrupt the peace of the residents after midnight both inside and outside residential places in provinces and towns. In addition, those who do not obey Police directives are prosecuted in accordance with article 546 of the Criminal Code.

Article 19 regulates the duties of the police concerning general order. This article has been applied to situations where Police ensure order in the streets, squares and other places open to the public, and ban individuals driving transportation vehicles in breaking of the traffic rules while inebriated or in a way that disturbs the order of traffic or endangers the security of others.

Article 20 regulates the duties of the police concerning emergencies situations. According to this article, Police enter both public and business places in order to

prevent the continuation of an offence, including in cases where help is sought or dangers such as water flooding and drowning are reported.

In addition to PVSK, there is also the *Law for the Turkish National Police Organisation (E.T.K.) numbered as 3201* directly dealing with policing job. There are two related articles which concerns COP practices mentioned below: **Article 1** regulates that the Minister of Internal Affairs is responsible for ensuring public peace and security. They fulfil these tasks through the Turkish National Police Organisation. **Article 16** arranges the structure of Central, Provincial and Overseas Organizations of the TNP.

Apart from the PVSK and ETK, there are other laws related to COP programs. These laws can be listed as follows:

    i.   1982 Constitution of the Republic of Turkey

    ii.   5442 numbered Provincial Administration Law

    iii.   4320 numbered Law Concerning the Protection of Families

    iv.   5395 numbered Law of Child Welfare

    v.   Regulations of Police Powers

    vi.   Decisions of the EU, EC, and UN Concerning Suppression of Crimes (COP Standards and Applications, 2009, p.89).

5.7.7. Implementation of COP in Cities

In this part, successful COP implementation case studies are provided from provincial Police Departments in Turkey. These police departments are: Adiyaman, Antalya, Balikesir, Diyarbakir, Bursa, and Konya. In addition, these departments are also among the 16 cities where data is obtained from for the empirical part of this study.

5.7.7.1. Adiyaman Police Department

In Adiyaman, COP unit run a local project "Establishing Local Football Teams and Local leagues" which is funded by voluntary sponsors, Police officers working in

COP units, local headmen and volunteer physical training teachers. The project length was 5 months started in 02.07.2008 and completed by 01.12.2008 (COP Standards & Applications, p.189, 2009).

The main aim of the project was: To initiate studies for founding football teams and creating a football league in quarters to avoid young people in 14- 18 age group from bad habits, to prevent being drifted to the crime, to protect them against harmful substances, to encourage and direct them for sporting, to help them growing as responsible and helpful individuals for their families and entire community.

Through the projects following results have been achieved:

i.   At the beginning of the project, there were 28 smoker football players in the teams; however, 19 of them have quitted smoking during the league.

ii.   300 young people have been reached via face to face meetings for supporting them in regard to growing as self confident individual who is helpful to his/her family and community, resistant against the negative sides of the life, with courage and skills for solving the problems and capable of making good choices in life.

iii.   Numerous students have also been reached who used to totally indifferent to schooling and courses which were on the verge of breaking their family ties and struggled to create awareness on those young people.

iv.   This project has helped increasing the trust of the youth and people of Adiyaman against to public authorities.

v.   This project has also helped eliminating stress of the students who are a part of intensive schooling life at least one day in a week (COP Standards & Applications, p.194, 2009).

Various social and cultural events have been organized for the footballers and their families after the league matches and this practice still continues.

5.7.7.2. Antalya Police Department

Antalya COP unit implemented several projects successfully and two of them are evaluated in details. These are: 'Neighbourhood Watching Project' and 'Safe Schools Project'.

Neighbourhood Policing Project: In villages and especially in small settlements neighbourhood relations are very important for social solidarity. In this closest social environment, neighbours just come after family solidarity. However, in today's world rapid urbanization and the changing of business environment adversely affect neighbourhood relations. In this respect, the primary goal of this project is;

    i.   To increase feeling of security and local sharing in a particular region,

    ii.   To promote being more precautious,

    iii.   To expand the feeling a part of the community,

    iv.   To improve environmental conditions,

    v.   To prevent crime,

    vi.   To help the police in discovering the crime and criminals,

    vii.   To alleviate unreasoned fear of crime,

    viii.   To improve ties between the police and community. (Antalya Police Department, 2010).

In the scope of the project following activities have been carried out. These are: 'Determination of the implementation areas', 'Hidden Camera Shots', 'Organizing meetings with Residents', 'The Invisible Pen Practice', 'Footprint Application', 'Ringing Practice', 'Crime Prevention Videos', 'Distribution of Brochure and Flyer'. Among these activities three of them examined with their results (Antalya Police Department, 2010).

Distribution of Brochures and Flyers: Citizens were informed about crime statistics in their area. To date, 237978 pieces informational posters, brochures and stickers

were distributed by giving message of "in order to help you please inform us in advance".

Ringing Practice: It was detected by police that the main reason of thefts which occurred in day time is that the residents open the building's main door to anybody who says I am electrician, dealer or *etc*. Thus, these suspicious people could easily get into the buildings. In this respect, COP officers who were patrolling in these areas rang the building's main door to raise the awareness of residents, 'do not open the door without asking who they are'.

In the first application 3500 doorbells were rung. 60% of residents opened the door without asking who was there. 30% of them asked who was there; however they opened the door even when they did not know the person ringing. Only 10% asked who was there and did not open the door.

After resident informed by COP officers to be more careful about the suspicious people who want to enter the buildings and how to behave against them, one week later in the second application in the same area, the residents who opened the door without asking anything decreased from 60% to 10%.

Crime Prevention Videos: Eight 'Crime Prevention Clips' prepared about pick pocketing and stealing from home crimes. These clips were published in local TV station to raise the awareness of residents against these types of crimes (Antalya Police Department, 2010).

Safe Schools Project: The main goal of this project is set up school liaison officers from police officers as a (Police brother and Police sister) in central schools in Antalya province. These liaison officers' contacted the school principals directly to handle problems which occurred in the schools quickly. In addition, students canalized social and sports activities to keep away from bad habits (Antalya Police Department, 2010).

Within the scope of the project, 118 elementary schools, 17 high schools in total 135 schools attended to this project. In addition, 28 police supervisors, 82 Police sister and

79 Brother Police, in 189 policemen served as school liaison officers. Their main duty can be defined as follows:

  i. Provide secure and peaceful environment for the training and education

  ii. Protect students from harmful habits, violence and violent incidents

  iii. Help students to provide traffic safety

  iv. Ensure coordination between the police and school principals (Antalya Police Department, 2010).

5.7.7.3. Balikesir Police Department

Balikesir COP unit also carried out successful projects cooperating with local institutions. In this respect, Project "S.İ.M.G.E" is considered one of the well-known studies of COP unit in Balikesir. The Turkish term "S.İ.M.G.E" has referred to 'training of young people prone to commit crime'. Thus, the main aim of this project is raising social awareness against young people who prone to commit crime by educating them with local organizations support (Balikesir Police Department, 2010).

The primary objective of this project is rehabilitation of 20 young people between 15-20 years of age and who left the school, who committed crime before or inclined to commit a crime. Under the coordination of the Balikesir Police Department local institutions also participated the project. These institutions are: 'Balikesir Municipality', 'The Provincial Directorate of Education', 'The Provincial Directorate of Labour' and 'Internet Cafe Association members' (Balikesir Police Department, 2010).

There are many activities carried out within the project and a couple of them can be listed as follows:

  i. Theoretical lectures given in the public education centre in the mornings and in the afternoon practical training provided for how to use internet and computer regularly.

  ii. Participants' lunch and transportation expanses paid by the Balikesir Municipality.

iii.   Track suits and sport shoes are regularly provided to participants by the COP unit for sport activities under the supervision of police physical education staff.

iv.   On a regular basis, indoor football matches and picnics are organized.

v.   Visits to participants' families organized to check it out their lives styles and trying to identify the problems if they have. In addition, social relations tried to establish between families and police departments (Balikesir Police Department, 2010).

At the end of the 6 months, the project was closed by a ceremony participating with City Governor, City Mayor, Head of Police Department, Chief Public Prosecutor and young people families. Successful young people have been awarded by a certificate.

5.7.7.4. Diyarbakir Police Department

Diyarbakir COP unit heavily focused on to develop mutual respectful relationships with citizen and particularly with children. In this respect, they have carried out activities mostly trying to show the positive image of police. Thus, the key projects and activities can be listed as follows: "Kinder Garden School Visits", "School Reports Day", "Library for All Schools", "Condolence Visits to Residents", "Let's go to Cinema and Theatre" (Diyarbakir Police Department, 2010).

Kinder Garden School Visits Project: The main aim of the project is to increase communication between police and the children who are 5- 6 year's ages. In this context, the main duty of COP unit is to develop sensitive and respectful relationship with children by describing them Police profession and giving them the feeling that we are also someone living together.

School Reports Day Project: Successful primary school children were awarded by a gift at the end of year in Diyarbakir province.

*Library for All Schools***:** Diyarbakir Police Department has initiated a project with the aim of enhance the school libraries by providing new books. In addition, schools who do not have libraries were found out and new libraries were established in these

schools. Throughout this project, 21,000 books gathered from 29 publishers and new libraries were also opened by ceremony participating with local institutions managers.

Condolence Visits to Residents: One of the most significant traditions of the region is paying condolence visits to people houses. Diyarbakir COP Unit organizes condolence visits to people's houses to offer condolences and let people know "they can be contacted for help".

Let's go to Cinema and Theatre Project: Free Cinema and Theatre activities have been held to primary school children to provide them an enjoyable day every weekend. The other primary goal of this activity is to develop better police-children relationships (Diyarbakir Police Department, 2010).

5.7.7.5. Bursa Police Department

Bursa COP unit carried out a project with the name of 'Victim Support project'. This project was undertaken to contact crime victims in a short time and provide them moral support. In addition, Police inform the victims what procedures have been followed by Police about the incidents they had (Bursa Police Department, 2010).

In addition, the COP staff responsible for implementation of the project received special education at the Uludag University on the topics of 'Human Rights', 'Communication Techniques', 'Body Language', 'Fear of Crime', 'Community Psychology' and 'Public Relations' (Bursa Police Department, 2010).

COP staff contacted with victims, and they tried to find out the answer to question "what security measures should have been taken before you became a victim". Furthermore, they provided expertise view about incidents and legal advisory and psychological support. In this way, especially in the repeated incidents such as *theft from home*, significant decreases were observed (Bursa Police Department, 2010).

Consequently, it was identified by the interview done by citizens face to face, they satisfied from the project. In addition, this project made several contributions to the police-public relations.

5.7.7.6. Konya Police Department

COP Unit in Konya embraced two mission statements for their work. These are: "Let us think together, decide together, and succeed together". The other one is "We are here for you". In this respect, various social events and activities have been carried out by the COP unit. Some of them can be listed as follows: 'School Activities', 'Rehabilitation of ruined Places', 'Meetings with Apartment Residents', 'Providing support to Elder people and Victims', 'Awareness of citizen against COP program and distribution of Brochures' (Konya Police Department, 2010).

COP implementation was started in 2007. Initially, 25 pilot areas found out and for each areas one police officer appointed as a COP contact person. Their main duty is to contact citizens directly and listen to their complaints and try to resolve the problems with the relevant institutions, acting as a bridge between parties (Konya Police Department, 2010).

According to case studies provided from the above cities, it can be inferred that successful implementations can be used to develop new projects for other cities' COP programs. The above 6 cities were among the first 10 cities, in which COP was introduced 5 years ago. Currently, it has been implemented in all 81 cities since 2009. Finally, these results also confirm that how COP program embraced both by police and citizen side.

5.8. CONCLUSION

Initially, this chapter has addressed first the history of Turkish Police starting from the 'Seljuklu', 'Ottoman Empire' and 'Turkey'. Then it examined organizational structure of police, its duties and functions. Finally, it went on the both national and international education and training system of Turkish Police. In the second part, this chapter has given an account of transformation of Turkish Police with particularly focusing on COP program and also highlighted the impact of EU membership in this process. Furthermore, successful COP implementation from Provincial Police Departments highlighted the achievement of program in Turkey.

The next chapter takes the discussion further by directly investigating the direct impact of the EU accession process on the transformation of TNP and particularly on the development of COP in Turkey.

CHAPTER 6:

TURKEY'S EU ACCESSION PROCESS AND ITS IMPACT ON TNP

6.1. INTRODUCTION

While Turkey has been going through the accession process, both potential membership and the accession process itself have had implications for the TNP, which is the main concern of this research. This chapter, therefore, aims at providing a contextualization of the research by presenting the developments in EU institutionalization in general and also developments in Turkey's relations with the EU and the EU accession process.

The chapter begins with a brief overview of the history of the EU and its institutions. It will then go on to provide a summary of Turkey's accession process by examining the current accession process and moreover; reforms and harmonization packages passed from TGNA in general. In addition, it examines the adaptation process of the TNP in preparation for EU membership. One part of the data, which consists of seven questions dealing with EU harmonization projects and their effect on the TNP, examines laws and the amendments in those laws.

Furthermore, the second part of the chapter will address the adaptation process of the TNP with EU harmonization police projects'; particularly focusing on the implementation of COP in Turkey is evaluated in detail.

6.2. HISTORY OF THE EUROPEAN UNION

The idea of the EU has been discussed extensively, from various aspects, over the years in terms of European unity, European federation, European movement and a European army (El-Agraa, 2007). The idea of EU can be traced back to the 15th century; Henry IV of France highlighted the importance of establishing a great republic by bringing the divided kingdoms and principalities together (Nicoll & Salmon, 1994). In this respect, Churchill, was one of the first people to call for the necessity of a 'United States of Europe'. He argued that only a united Europe could guarantee peace. His famous speech in Zurich in September 1946 at the Hague

Conference, addressed the elimination of the European ills of nationalism (Nicoll & Salmon, 1994; Dinan, 2004). Political and economic union were eventually developed after World War II.

After World War II, Germany was destroyed and divided into four parts; thus the landscape of Europe changed dramatically. Not only did it face newly-established Russian dictatorial threats but it also sought economic revitalization, political stability and military security (Dinan, 2004; El-Agraa, 2007). The United States provided financial help, under the Marshall Plan, to accelerate economic recovery for the EU countries and established a security umbrella with the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) which was signed in Washington in 1949 (Dinan, 2004).

The European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), which was influenced by the French Foreign Minister Robert Schuman's proposals (later called the Schuman Plan) was established on 18th April 1951 with the Treaty of Paris by six members: Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and West Germany (Nicoll & Salmon, 1994; Karluk, 2002). However, although the European Community emerged as an economic based institution in 1950 the real purpose which brought them together was security and political issues (Calingaert, 1996). The core result of the treaty was that it was the first movement to bring six European countries together, even in a limited economical integration (El-Agraa, 2007).

The same six countries, in order to bring about deeper integration between, them signed the Treaties of Rome in 1957, creating the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (EURATOM). The treaty covered not only provisions for a custom union, a common commercial policy, a common transport policy, competition policy, and macroeconomic policies, but also established an assembly, council, commission, and court. The most important consequence of the treaty was that it brought about closer relations for deeper integration and the development of a common market between the members (Dinan, 2004; El-Agraa, 2007).

The institutions of the EEC, ECSC and EURATOM merged to form a single structure EC (European Communities) in 1967. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom in

1971 and Greece in 1981 joined the European Community. Portugal and Spain joined in 1986 and they became twelve members (Schildhaus, 1989).

After 1985, European Community members emphasized the importance of institutional reforms with rapid technological change and a new era of globalization. Therefore, to abolish the trade barriers for the common market they signed the "Single European Act" (SEA), which came into effect in 1987. Its objectives were: to extend the powers of the Community regarding social policy, research, and environment and to establish immense legislative programs involving the adoption of hundreds of directives and regulations (Bermann, 1988; Dinan, 2004). The SEA, as highlighted by Moravcsik (1991), was divided into two reform packages. The first part of the reform package incorporated 279 proposals to ensure the free movement of goods, persons, services and capital. The second part of the reform package covered procedural improvement in the organizational structure of the EC and the Council of Ministers.

Reforms which started with SEA continued with the Maastricht Treaty, also known as the Treaty of EU (TEU), signed in Maastricht on 7 February 1992 and brought into force on 1 November 1993. It was one of the greatest milestones and a new stage in European integration (Dinan, 2004). In this treaty, in Title I Article A they defined themselves as a "EU, hereinafter called 'the Union'. This Treaty marks a new stage in the process of creating an ever closer union among the peoples of Europe, in which decisions are taken as closely as possible to the citizen" (Maastricht Treaty, 1992).

The principal objectives of the Treaty of Maastricht (EU) were;

  i. To strengthen the democratic legitimacy of the institutions;
  ii. To improve the effectiveness of the institutions;
  iii. To establish economic and monetary union;
  iv. To develop the Community's social dimension;
  v. To establish a common foreign and security policy (Maastricht Treaty, 1992a).

One of the most important results of the Maastricht Treaty was the achievement of Economic and Monetary Union which was launched in 1988; with a special committee in the European Council chaired by EC Commission President Jacques

Delors to develop a policy to change from the European Monetary System (EMS) to the Economic and Monetary Union (EMU) (Grieco, 1995). Thus, the Treaty of Maastricht confirmed the freedom of capital movement and the convertibility of currencies (Laursen, 2003). Apart from the single currency, member countries targeted the new European Central Bank, less inflation and budgetary deficiencies (Knapp &Wright, 2006). Moreover, Gilbert (2003, p. 219) stated that the Maastricht Treaty provided significant changes in the Union which he defined as an "entirely new kind" with institutional innovations which would lead to greater influence on world politics.

The Maastricht Treaty accepted three pillars and established relations between them. The first pillar covered the EEC, ECSC and EURATOM Treaties, officially described as the "European Community", the second pillar dealt with foreign and intergovernmental security policy procedures of European Political Co-operations, and the third pillar concerned the field of Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) (Duff, *et al.,* 1994). The third pillar was based on police and judicial cooperation: illegal immigration, asylum policy, drugs trafficking, international crime, control of external borders, customs co-operations (Dinan, 2004).

A European Council was held in Copenhagen just after Maastricht in June 1993 to evaluate the applications of Central and Eastern Europe countries wishing to attain EU membership. Member countries developed some political and economical conditions for the candidate countries to become full members as follows:

i.   stability of institutions guaranteeing democracy, the rule of law, human rights and respect for and protection of minorities;

ii.   the existence of a functioning market economy as well as the capacity to cope with competitive pressure and market forces within the Union;

iii. the ability to take on the obligations of membership including adherence to the aims of political, economic & monetary union (Dinan, 2004, p.273).

In 1995, Austria, Finland and Sweden joined the EU and the number of member countries reached 15. On reaching 15 members the EU continued their pursuit of institutional, domestic and intergovernmental reforms with the Treaty of Amsterdam,

which was signed on 2 October 1997. This treaty amended the previous treaties and came into force on 1 May 1999 after being ratified by the fifteen member states under their respective constitutional procedures (Amsterdam Treaty, 1997). Moravcsik and Nicolaidis (1999) state that the Amsterdam Treaty primarily deals with foreign policy, internal security and immigration powers and parliamentary powers. In terms of parliamentary powers; qualified majority voting was extended, votes among members were reallocated and the numbers of the commissioners were reduced (Crombez, 2001; Dinan, 2004). In the fields of JHA, the need to establish an area of freedom, security and justice was identified and political commitment was provided to achieve significant movement in cooperation between the judicial and police organizations of member states (Dinan, 2006). The Amsterdam Treaty extended Common Foreign and Security Policy (CFSP) instruments to improve its success by decision-making, representation, planning and analysis and the budget instruments (Dinan, 2006). Moreover, the EU members defined policies to execute in all areas of CFSP. The main points of the polices were to promote international cooperation, to develop democracy and respect for human rights, to safeguard common values and fundamental interests, to strengthen the security of the union and its members in all ways (Eliassen,1998, p.77).

On 26 February 2001, the Treaty of Nice was signed which mostly addressed the same issues included in the Amsterdam Treaty. The innovations mentioned in the Amsterdam Treaty were transferred to the Nice Treaty with some additional small changes (Falkner, 2002).The previous treaties were revised in certain key areas, like size and composition of the Commission, weighting of votes in the Council, extension of qualified-majority voting, and enhanced cooperation (Baldwin & Widgren, 2004 ; Dinan, 2004).

On 1 May 2004 ten more countries joined the Union: Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia. However, deficiencies in some areas prevented the EU from becoming more effective in world politics. Thus, some amendments followed the Intergovernmental Conference (IGC). The Treaty establishing a "Constitution for Europe" was adopted by the European Council in Rome on 29 October 2004 (Dinan, 2006). It was signed by the representatives of the Twenty-Five, in the same room where the Treaties of Rome had

been signed by the six founding Member States. The main objectives were; to make the EU's institutions more efficient and more transparent to European citizens (European Navigator, 2010). Two more countries from Eastern Europe - Bulgaria and Romania - joined the EU on 1 January 2007 and the number of Union members reached 27. The last treaty, the Treaty of Lisbon, amending the Treaty on EU and the Treaty establishing the European Community, was signed in Lisbon on 13 December 2007 and came into force on 1 December 2009. The main objectives of the Lisbon treaty were;

    i.   A more democratic and transparent Europe

    ii.   A more efficient Europe, with simplified working methods and voting rules

    iii.   A Europe of rights and values, freedom, solidarity and security, promoting the Union's values

    iv.   Europe as an actor on the global stage, which will be achieved by bringing together Europe's external policy tools, both when developing and deciding new policies (Lisbon Treaty, 2007).

Moreover, under the Treaty of Lisbon, the Presidency of the European Council came into force on 1 December 2009, as a stable, full-time function.

6.3. TURKEY AND ACCESSION TO THE EU

The importance of Turkey's accession to the EU was referred to by the Turkish Foreign Minister and former Head Negotiator Babacan (2004, p.4) as the "second largest wave of modernization after the reforms carried out by the founding fathers of the Republic". Indeed, Turkey is a country born after the collapse of the Ottoman Empire in 1923, which has a highly geostrategic position in the world. Thus, the U.S and the EU evaluated this issue accordingly. From the U.S perspective, Turkey is Muslim and also a secular democratic state, with the second largest military within NATO and a strategic location to Europe, the Caucasus, the Middle East, and the Mediterranean and Russia (Rabasa & Larrabee, 2008). From the EU perspective, Turkey is a big market, a reliable western ally, and has a great geostrategic position toward to the Balkans, the Middle East and Russia (Dinan, 2006). Both the US and the EU give more priority to the stability of the Balkans which directly concerns the

Europe`s security. Moreover, it is a country which holds a different religious and ethnic identity which "represents a unique version of a secular state approximating a Western-style democracy" (Önis, 1995, p.50).

Turkey's desire to be a member of the EU can be traced back to the Ottoman Empire's westernization reforms realized in the late 18th and the 19th centuries. After the French revolution took place in 1789, the westernization movement accelerated in Turkey (Bozdaglioglu, 2003). According to Lewis, (1961):

> The French Revolution was the first great movement of ideas in Western Christendom that had any real effect on the world of Islam, finding a ready welcome among Muslim leaders and thinkers, and affecting to a greater or lesser degree every layer of Muslim society (p.53).

Müftüler-Bac (2000) claimed in her article 'through the looking glass: Turkey in Europe', that the Turks have accepted themselves as a part of Europe geographically since the eleventh century and economically since the sixteen century. In fact, at the Paris conference in 1856 European countries emphasised that Europe's stability and welfare heavily depended on the Ottoman Empire's territorial integrity and independency (p.27). In the nineteenth century, Turkish reformers struggled to set up the legislative and administrative structure of the European countries, mainly to transfer the European law and judiciary system to the Ottoman Empire (Lewis, 1961; Howard, 2001).

After the Turkish Republic was established in 1923 by Kemal Ataturk, the founder of modern Turkey, pointed out that "Turks, [we] have always consistently moved towards the West, in order to be a civilized nation, there is no alternative". Thus, westernization reforms took place as a main objective of the Turkish Republic in advance (Onis, 2003). At that time, sociologist Ziya Gokalp evaluated the Turkish westernization effort from different perspective saying, "I am of Turkish race, Islamic religion and western civilization" (Karal, 1981, p. 27).

Following Ataturk's death in 1938, Turkey continued the quest to modernize the country and signed a tripartite agreement with Britain and France in 1939 followed by the Council of Europe in 1949 and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) in

1952; and became an associate member of the European Economic Community (now the EU) in 1963 and a participating Western EU (WEU) associate member in 1991 as well as other Western political and economic organizations (Bozdaglioglu, 2003). In fact, the Turkish President Abdullah Gül (2005) pointed out that NATO, Council of Europe, OECD, and other international organization membership shows that Turkey feels she belongs to the West and western orientation. Clearly, western orientations continued without any interruption after the Second War and became a permanent modernization project for the young Turkish Republic (Sander, 1998).

In 1959, Turkey applied for association to the European Economic Community. However; the application was rejected because of the economic difficulties in the Turkish economy. On September 12, 1963, Turkey and the EU signed the Ankara Agreement, which defined its associate member status (Bozdaglioglu, 2003) and recognized Turkey as suitable for membership. Furthermore, Commission President Sir Walter Hallstein announced that "Turkey is a part of Europe" (Müftüler & Bac, 1998). Indeed, the Ankara Agreement was evaluated as a temporary stage in the transition to full membership (Önis, 1995). Furthermore, Ilkin (1990) defined the agreement as 'historical' referring to it as "the most permanent and productive step in Turkey's efforts of the last 150 years to westernize and become an equal member of the western world" (p. 36); however, the military coup which took place in 1960 temporarily froze Turkey's relations with the EU (Sahinoz, 2000).

In 1964 the Ankara Agreement came into force. The Additional Protocol including the regulations on Customs Union was signed in Brussels in 1970 and approved and implemented in the Turkish Grand National Assembly in 1971 (Muftuler & Bac , 2000). At that time, Turkey was preparing to apply for full membership to the European Community; however a military coup took place on 12 September 1980 resulting in the country missing a historical opportunity for membership (Eralp, 1993). The members of the coup d'état declared that they were forced to take over the administration with the aim of "freedom of the people, ensuring the security of life and property and the happiness and prosperity of the people, ensuring the prevalence of law" (as cited in Ahmad, 1993, p. 181).

After Ozal came into power in 1983 with neoliberal economic policies, his main goal was not only to eradicate the impact of the military coup on the institutions and in

people's minds but also to accelerate Turkey's accession to the European Community as a full member (Müftüler & Bac, 1997). In 1987, Turkey officially applied for full membership of the European Community. In December 1989, the European Commission disapproved Turkey's application for full membership and did not propose to launch accession negotiations because of the Kurdish problem, the .disputes with Greece, the Cyprus problem and lack of respect for human rights (Muftuler & Bac, 2000).

The EU, however, accepted a Customs Union Agreement (CUA) instead of starting accession negotiations with Turkey. The Council announced its decision on Turkey in the European Union Association, No. 1/95, in 1995. It was approved by the European Parliament in December, and finally the customs union agreement came into effect in January 1996 (Hale & Avci, 2001). The importance of this agreement in the EU is that Turkey is the only country which is not a member but has a customs union agreement (Muftuler & Bac, 2000). Thus the CUA was criticized by some economists in Turkey since it has its own legal characteristics and independent existence from the EU; on the other hand Erdogdu (2002) argues that the CUA allows Turkey to compete in the world economy and develop its economic structure.

Following the CUA, Turkey continued to pursue the full membership process. However, at the Luxemburg summit in December 1997, Turkey did not count as a candidate country in the context of enlargement. Turkey responded to the decision very severely by holding political dialogues and freezing all communications with the EU (Müftüler & Bac, 2000). A leading Turkish intellectual Prof. Dr. Toktamis Ates criticized this decision saying: "We do not deserve this much abuse and insult. We should demonstrate that despite all the problems we have, we can still make it by ourselves" (as cited in Bozdaglioglu, 2003, p.85). Responding to the debate by taking a Turkish-centred position Larrabee & Lesser (2003) stated that the "EU's rejection of Turkey's candidacy was unfair and reflected an inherent bias against Turkey on cultural and religious grounds" (p. 51). The Turkish Prime Minister did not attend the first European conference which took place in London in 1998, preferring to visit some Asian countries (Erdogdu, 2002).

Eventually, at the Helsinki summit in December 1999 the commission recommended that Turkey be given 'candidate status' on the basis of the same criteria as applied to

the other candidate states, stating that Turkey would benefit from a pre-accession strategy to stimulate and support its reforms (Sedelmeier & Wallace, 2000).Therefore, Turkey was accepted officially as a candidate country four decades after its application to the EEC in 1959 (Tekin, 2008). The council emphasised that a precondition for opening accession negotiations was compliance with the political criteria of Copenhagen, with particular reference to the issue of human rights (Presidency Conclusions, Helsinki European Council, 10–11 December 1999). Although Turkey was accepted as a candidate country, the starting date of the accession negotiations still remained unclear among the 13 candidate countries (Park, 2000).

At the Nice summit in December (7-9) the EU council ratified the Accession Partnership Document (APD) for Turkey. It highlighted short- and medium-term priorities, paying attention to the Copenhagen criteria for membership (Larrabee & Lesser, 2003). In the political criteria the APD mainly focused on citizenship rights and the elimination of human rights violations (Önis, 2003). Nice was the first summit Turkey took part in as a full member candidate at the EC meeting. The EC requested that Turkey submit its program for adoption of the *acquis*, basing it on the Accession Partnership (Erdogdu, 2002). Moreover, a monitoring mechanism was established to check the progress according to Accession Partnership Document objectives (Larrabee & Lesser, 2003).

After the approval of the Accession Partnership by the Council, Turkey declared its own program "The Turkish National Program for the Adoption of the Acquis" (NPAA) on 19 March 2001 (Hoekman & Togan, 2005). At the Laeken summit in December 2001, all candidate countries' opening negotiations dates were specified as the end of 2002 except Turkey (Erdogdu, 2002).

Political developments in Turkey at the beginning of the new century brought new actors onto the political stage. Consequently, a change of government in Turkey in 2002 with these new actors provided a much-needed new approach to the relationship with the EU and greatly improved its prospects through the EU membership. Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdogan pushed through numerous economic and social reforms (Dinan, 2006). Moreover, national elections which took place in November 2002, and the Copenhagen Summit which was held in December 2002 changed

Turkey's political and economic destiny. In the national elections, the Justice and Development Party (AKP) received 34.2 percent of the vote and gained 356 seats in the TGNA. Following the elections, the government focused on obtaining a definite date from the EU at the Copenhagen summit the following month. Eventually, it was declared that accession negotiations between the EU and Turkey would start without delay on the condition that Turkey fulfilled the Copenhagen criteria (Keyman & Önis, 2004).

However, Germany and France had been against Turkey's membership from the outset. France in particular saw itself as 'the driving force', 'the maker' of the European project and idea (Weiss, 2002). Karlsson, (2009) quoted Charles de Gaulle´s speeches against Turkish membership date from January 1963, as follows:

> They are not only Europeans; they do not have the will to take part in the European integration project. Their membership will derail the European project; USA and NATO are behind their membership application. The country is too big. It will bring the institutional system out of balance. Their agricultural sector is not compatible with the common agricultural policy (p.9).

Moreover, in 2002, French President, Giscard d'Estaing, proclaimed that accepting Turkey into the EU "would be the end of the European Union because 'its capital is not in Europe and 95 percent of its population lives outside Europe. It is not a European country." (Giscard d'Estaing, Le Monde, 9 November 2002; Negrine, 2008). In 2000, Turkish Prime Minister Bulent Ecevit criticised the French and German prejudgment against Turkey. According to him "the little Europe model of Jacques Delors and Helmut Kohl idea will not go further beyond the Christendom" (Müftüler & Bac, 2000, p.29).

The current Turkish Prime Minister, Recep Tayyip Erdogan addressed the importance of Turkey's membership in to the EU saying, "Accepting a country that has brought together Islam and democracy will bring about harmony between civilizations" otherwise it confirms EU itself as Christian Club (Erdogan, 2004; Negrine, 2008). Despite Turkey's current and previous Prime Ministers' determined speeches the German leader Angela Merkel and the French president Nicolas Sarkozy have similar

ideas against Turkey's membership as an "Asian country" or offering "privileged partnership" status (Önis, 2006).

In the long run, the Commission rewarded the Justice and Development Party (AKP) government effort with a recommendation to the European Council to open negotiations with Turkey in October 2004 (Dinan, 2006). Before the Copenhagen summit, the German newspaper Süddeutsche Zeitung, which has a daily circulation of 443.000, printed an interview with Recep Tayyip Erdogan dated 12 December, 2002 about Turkish membership. The journalist Christiane Schlötzer defined Recep Tayyip Erdogan as Ankara's new strongman who ensured his continued success by stressing his insistence on membership negotiations and giving permission for comprehensive reforms in Turkey. After the victory of the AKP in the 3 November election, Schlötzer addressed his 14 EU countries and US visitors to try to influence the European Commission's decision to start negotiations as soon as possible before the Copenhagen Summit (Schlötzer, 2002). In October 2004, Olli Rehn, Commissioner for Enlargement, delivered a speech on future relations between the EU and Turkey in Istanbul.

He emphasised that a new chapter of the European integration process with Turkey should be opened, which would be lengthy and complex, requiring skill, stamina and imagination. He continues his speech saying, "If we undertake this journey together, the potential benefits at the end of the road would be highly significant. The EU would include a strong, stable and democratic Turkey, thus contributing to its own security and stability" (Rehn, 2004). He concluded his speech with the remarks of the former President of Finland, Martti Ahtisaari:

Turkey's accession would offer considerable benefits both to the European Union and to Turkey. For the Union, the unique geopolitical position of Turkey at the crossroads of the Balkans, the wider Middle East, South Caucasus, and Central Asia and beyond, its importance for the security of Europe's energy supplies and its political, economic and military weight would be great assets. Moreover, as a large Muslim country firmly embedded in the European Union, Turkey could play a significant role in Europe's relations with the Islamic world (Rehn, 2004).

After the Commission's Report and Recommendation on Turkey's application, Romano Prodi, President of the European Commission, gave the reasons why the Commission recommended the opening of negotiations with Turkey on accession to the EU in December 2004. Firstly, he dealt with the Commission's task which was to analyze, as objectively and precisely as possible, Turkey's application according to whether the criteria were being met. Second, he drew up a recommendation to the Council on the basis of this examination. Finally he declared:

> The Commission's response is "YES". That is to say, "its response as regards compliance with the Criteria is positive and it recommends opening negotiations. However, it is a "QUALIFIED YES" that is accompanied by a large number of recommendations on following up and monitoring the situation in Turkey, and some specific recommendations on the conduct of negotiations (Prodi, 2004).

Prodi summarized Turkey's commitment in terms of reaching reform targets, particularly organization of democracy in Turkey which would lead to the expected level required by European standards and the Copenhagen criteria. He concluded his speech with the potential benefits of Turkey's membership in the EU and repeated the message of the founding fathers of Europe and "the project of disseminating the values of peace, security, democracy and cooperation throughout our continent and among our peoples and nations" (Prodi, 2004).

However, Jacques Chirac, the French President, stated that the opening of these negotiations did not mean membership, the road is long and it would be difficult for Turkey to fulfil all the conditions required for joining Europe. He highlighted that this process would possibly take ten or fifteen years and it would be impossible to predict the outcome of these negotiations in advance. He obviously emphasized that if Turkey was unwilling to meet the reforms, the Union would then set up a strong enough link with Turkey that was not membership (Chirac, 2004).

On the other hand, Josep Borrell Fontelles, President of the European Parliament declared that negotiations with Turkey had been opened on the basis of "without undue delay". He announced the result of the vote, which was 407 votes in favour and 262 against. He underlined that Parliament roundly rejected any Plan B, any

'privileged partnership' and any other alternative to full membership, the objective of opening negotiations is full membership (Fontelles, 2004).

In addition to Fontelles, Tony Blair, the then British Prime Minister, emphasised the historic decision to opening negotiations with Turkey as a hugely important and welcome moment for Europe. He not only addressed Turkey's strategic importance to Europe, the Middle East, central Asia and the Balkans but also its growing economy which is a market of 70 million people, with imports of over 40 billion Euros worth of goods from the EU each year. He also stated the belief that "there is some fundamental clash of civilisations between Christian and Muslim" are totally wrong. He went on to speak in the House of Commons with religious faiths to work on the common ground together. Thus, he saw Turkey's membership as fundamentally important for the future peace and prosperity of Britain, Europe and the world. He summarized the reform packages as "constitutional reform, bringing the military under civilian control, improving minority rights, abolishing the death penalty, significantly improving freedom of expression, liberalising the economy and reforming the penal code" passed from the TGNA in the last two years with great effort from the current government Justice and Development Party "AKP" and its leader Recep Tayyip Erdogan (Blair, 2004). Furthermore, Hill (2002) highlighted the importance of the European enlargement two years ago in his article by addressing the citizens of EU saying they should:

> decide whether they need collectively to be a major actor in world politics like the United States, with all the advantages and disadvantages that implies, or whether they are willing to settle for an EU near the centre of a network of international processes but without the ability to have a decisive impact on matters affecting security and the pattern of international order. It is not mere chance that this potentially explosive issue has barely surfaced thus far. The progress of enlargement, however, will bring it inexorably into the open (p.104).

The screening process was eventually launched in October 2005 in Luxembourg and full membership accession negotiations were opened with Turkey. In the screening process period, each candidate country has to classify the areas of the *acquis* in which progress needs to be made in order for the legislative systems of the candidate

countries to be compatible with EU regulations. These areas are divided into chapters which are negotiated on an individual basis. The screening process for Turkey covered 35 chapters as follows: Free Movement of Goods, Freedom of Movement of Workers, Right of Establishment and Freedom to Provide Services, Free Movement of Capital, Public Procurement, Company Law, Intellectual Property Law, Competition Policy, Financial Services, Information Society and Media, Agriculture and Rural Development, Food Safety, Veterinary and Phytosanitary Policy, Fisheries, Transport Policy, Energy, Taxation, Economic and Monetary Policy, Statistics, Social Policy and Employment, Enterprise and Industrial Policy, Trans-European Networks, Regional Policy and Coordination of Structural Instruments, Judiciary and Fundamental Rights, Justice, Freedom and Security, Science and Research, Education and Culture, Environment, Consumer and Health Protection, Customs Union, External Relations, Foreign, Security and Defence Policy, Financial Control, Financial and Budgetary Provisions, Institutions and Other Issues (Abgs, 2009).

The current situation in the accession process is that: one chapter has been opened and provisionally closed; 11 chapters have been opened and are still ongoing; nine chapters of screening reports were approved at the EU Council with benchmarks; nine chapters of draft screening reports are to be approved at the EU Council; two chapters are waiting to be opened, and one chapter of screening reports have not yet been drafted (Abgs, 2009).

6.4. THE IMPACT OF EU PROCESS: REFORMS AND HARMONIZATION PACKAGES

During the accession process Turkey had to comply with the *acquis communautaire* to adopt and implement the Copenhagen criteria. In this respect, Turkey passed EU Adaptation Laws (Avrupa Birliği Uyum Yasasi) and amendments from the Turkish parliament accordingly. After Turkey's candidacy was introduced at the Helsinki summit in 1999 and the European Commission announced the Accession Partnership document in 2000, the Turkish side adopted the application, coordination and monitoring of the National Program of Turkey based on the accession partnership document in March 2001 (Aydin & Keyman, 2004).

The first and most important changes in Turkey's constitution were passed in October 2001 as Law no: 4709, accepted on 3 October and published in the Official Gazette on 10 October 2001. It consisted of 34 amendments which were the main issues in terms of fulfilling the Copenhagen criteria. It covered; fundamental rights and freedom of expression, the freedom and security of the individual, the freedom of residence and movement. Moreover, the composition of the National Security Council (NSC) was changed and the number of civilians was increased. To prevent torture, holding time of those captured and arrested in the investigation period was arranged according to the EU criteria.

In January 2002, the new Civil Code was put into effect which arranged gender equality, the rights of children, the protection of the poor and the activities of associations and charities. Following constitutional change, the TGNA passed nine EU Adaptation Law packages starting on the 6 February 2002.

6.4.1.1. The First Harmonization Package

The first harmonization package law no 4744, was which put into effect on 19 February, 2002, made changes to the Criminal Procedure Code: articles 107 and 128; State Security Courts Law: 16; Anti-Terror Law: articles 7 and 8 and Turkish Criminal Code: articles 159 and 312 (Official Gazette, 2002).

The main changes brought about by this package were: freedom of thought and expression were expanded and pre-trial detention periods were reduced from seven days to four days. The relatives of detained persons were promptly notified of detention and the possibility to have a lawyer at any time was introduced.

6.4.1.2. The Second Harmonization Package

The second harmonization package law no 4748 was adopted and put into effect on 9 April, 2002. The second package amended the Press Law, articles 16, additional articles 1, 2; Law on Associations, articles 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12, 34, 38, 43; State Security Courts Law, article 16; the Act on Civil Servants, article 13; the Province Governance Law, article 29; The Law on the Organization, Duties, and Competences of

Gendarmerie, article 9; The Political Parties Law, articles 101, 102, 103 and the Law on Assembly and Marches, articles; 9, 17, 19, 21(Official Gazette, 2002a).

In the context of freedom of expression, "prohibited language" concepts were removed from press laws. And laws on political parties were amended as follows: instead of closing political parties permanently, deprivation of state aid, in part or in full, were introduced and the term "focus", which is used as a reason for closing political parties, defined clearly. Restrictions regarding meetings and demonstration marches were reduced. Moreover, the compensation for torture and ill-treatment ruled by the European Human Rights Court had to be paid by the officer responsible for committing the crimes. Restrictions on freedom to establish associations with regard to purpose were reduced. The restrictions on use of certain names and languages other than Turkish by associations were simplified.

6.4.1.3. The Third Harmonization Package

The third harmonization package Law no: 4771 came into force on 9 August, 2002. It amended: Press Law, articles 5, 21, 22, 24, 25, 30, 31, 34, and additional 3; Criminal Procedure Code, articles; 327, 335; Law on associations, articles 11, 12, 15, 39, 40, 45, 46, 47, 56, 62, 73; Law on Legal Procedures, articles; 445 and 448; Law on the Establishment and Broadcasting of Radio and Television Channels, articles 4 and 26; Act on the Duties and Competences of the Police, articles; 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, and additional 3; Law on Assembly and Marches, articles 3 and 10; Turkish Criminal Code, article 159; Law on Foundations, article 1; Decree Law on the Establishment and Duties of Directorate General for Foundations, article; 3; Law on Free Zones, provisional Article 1 and Foreign Language Education and Teaching Law, articles 1, 2 (Official Gazette, 2002b).

With the third package; the death penalties under various laws were changed to life imprisonment. Some changes took place on the Duties and Powers of the Police law compatible with the EU *acquis*. The third reform package had a great significance, not only abolishing the death penalty, allowing broadcasting in different languages and improving human right issues but it also made a positive contribution to the European Commission before a decision was taken about Turkey at the Copenhagen summit (Erdemli, 2003).

Most of the foreign press announced this event to their clients as important news. German television channel ARD stated that Turkey planned comprehensive reforms for freedom and democracy. They continued that these new reforms introduced the abolition of capital punishment, provided more rights to minorities, and strengthened the rights of citizens. In addition German daily news, *Berliner Zeitung* assessed the TGNA decision as a "big step towards the EU". The Greek newspaper, *To Vima* called the Turkish decision a "Historical Turkish decision" and the Iranian newspaper, *Tahran,* evaluated this news saying, "Turks are knocking EUs door". Finally, France's *Le Monde* newspaper announced that "Turks are awaiting a nice gesture from the EU" (Byegm, 2010).

6.4.1.4. The Fourth Harmonization Package

The fourth harmonization package law no 4778 was adopted and put into effect on 11 January, 2003. With this package, significant changes took place in terms of increasing freedom of association and deterring against torture and ill-treatment. It amended the: Record of Convictions Law, articles 5, and 8; Act on Press, article 15; Criminal Procedure Code, article 316; Law on Establishment, Duties and Trial Procedures of Juvenile Courts, article 34; Act on Stamp Tax, additional;. Law on Associations, articles 5, 6, 11, 12, 16, 18, 44; State Security Courts Law, article; 16/4; Act on Petition, articles 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8; Law on Human Rights Breach Investigation Boards, article 7; Law on Municipality Governments, article 8; Act on Prosecution of Civil Servants and other Public Employees, article 2; Act on Deputy Elections, articles 7, 11, 39; State of Emergency Act, article 3-c; Political Parties Law, articles 8, 11, 66, 98, 100, 102, 104, 111; Turkish Criminal Code, article 245; Turkish Civil Code, articles 91, and 92 and Law on Foundations, article 1 (Official Gazette, 2003).

With the fourth package, torture and ill-treatment punishment given to civil servants by the trial are not converted into fines and cannot be postponed. Human Rights Investigation Commission response times to applicants were reduced from three months to 60 days. The closure of political parties was made more difficult. A number of changes took place concerning the Act on Associations and the Civil Code. Associations would be required to use only Turkish in their official works with other languages allowed for other works. Legal persons were allowed to become members of associations. Relations of local and foreign associations' external activities were

amended in the civil Code. Barriers to community foundations owning property were removed.

6.4.1.5. The Fifth Harmonization Package

The fifth harmonization package Law no 4793 came into force on 4 February, 2003. It amended: Provisions on retrial and on the freedom of association Act, No. 4771 provisional Article 2; Code of Criminal Procedure, articles 327, 327a, and 335; Law on Associations, article 82; Law on Legal Procedures, articles 445, 445a 447 and 448 (Official Gazette, 2003a).

The scope of laws dealing with associations was expanded. It also amended the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Code of Civil Procedure introduced with the third package which was concerned with retrial on the basis of European Court of Human Rights decisions.

6.4.1.6. The Sixth Harmonization Package

The sixth harmonization package, Law no 4928 was put into effect on 19 July, 2003 and announced important changes. It amended the: Record of Convictions Law, article 9; Act No. 477, article 1-A; Act changing Criminal Procedure Code & State Security Courts Law, article 31; State Security Courts Law, article 16; Administrative Courts Procedure Act, article 53, provisional article 5; Act on Housing, additional article 2; Population Law, article 16; Law on the Establishment and Broadcasting of Radio Stations and Television Channels, articles 4, 15, 32, and provisional article 10; Act on Elections, article 55a, 149a; Act on Cinema, Video and Musical Works, articles 3, 6, 9; Anti-Terror Law, article 1, 8, 10; Turkish Criminal Code, articles 453 and 462; Law on Foundations, article 1 (Official Gazette, 2003b).

A number of amendments took place concerning the establishment and broadcasts of radio and television stations with this package. Anti-Terror Law article 8 was removed in the context of freedom of expression. Restrictions on giving names to children were reduced. The broadcasting restrictions during the election period were reduced from seven days to 24 hours. The National Security Council (NSC) representative was removed from the Cinema, Video and Music Inspection Board.

6.4.1.7. The Seventh Harmonization Package

The seventh harmonization package Law no 4963 came into force on 7 August, 2003. It amended the: Act on the Establishment and Trial Procedures of Military Courts, article 11; Act on Ministries, Chart no.1; Code of Criminal Procedure, additional article 7; Establishment, Duties and Trial Procedures of Juvenile Courts, article 6; Law on Associations, articles; 1, 4, 8, 10, 16, 17, 31, 38, and 83; Law on the National Security Council, articles 4, 5, 9, 13, 15, 19 and provisional article 4; Law on Supreme Council of Public Accounts, additional article 12; Anti-Terror Law, article 7; Law on Assembly and Marches, articles 15, 16, 17, 18, 19; Turkish Criminal Code, articles 159, 169, 426, 427; Turkish Civil Code, articles 56, 64, 66, 82, 94; Decree Law on the Establishment and Duties of Directorate General for Foundations, additional article 3; Law on Foreign Language Education and Teaching, article 2 (Official Gazette, 2003c).

Establishing Association rights were expanded. The Law on the National Security Council and the Secretariat General of the NSC was amended and civilians could be assigned to the NSC General Secretariat. "Cooling People from military service" crimes were tried in civil courts instead of military courts. The crime of openly insulting Turkishness, the Republic, people in government and the military or security forces of the state was reduced from one year to six months and expressions of thought for the purpose of criticism would no longer incur penalties. Private courses were allowed for the Turkish citizen to learn different languages and dialects for their daily usage. Investigations and prosecutions for the offence of torture were to be handled with priority and urgency. The Juvenile Courts age limit was increased from 15 to 18.

The Turkish Parliament adopted its Constitution on 7 May 2004. The death penalty was abolished and all the articles referring to the death penalty were amended and death penalty expressions were removed from the constitution. The State Security Courts were abolished. Women and men were given equal rights and the State had to supervise the putting into practice of equality. The Higher Education Council representative from the General Staff was removed from membership.

6.4.1.8. The Eighth Harmonization Package

The Eighth Harmonization Package law no: 5218 was put into effect on 14 July, 2004. It amended: Turkish Penal Code, articles 11, 12, 13, 17 43, 47, 50, 51, 54, 55, 58, 59, 61, 62, 64, 65, 66, 70, 73, 82, 102, 112, 118, 125, 126, 127, 129, 131, 133, 136, 137, 146, 147,149, 156, 285, 286, 296, 301, 302, 303, 305, 407,450, 451, and 463; Criminal procedure Act, articles 110, 283, 305, 421; Law on forestry, article 110; Law on Execution of Punishment, articles 1, 2, 19, and additional 2, provisional 11, and 12; Law on the Prevention of Public Security, article 1. Establishment of Juvenile Courts, Duties and Trial Procedures of the Law, article 12; Anti-Terror Law, article 17; Gallipoli Peninsula Historical National Park, article 6; Law Relating to Changes in Various Laws, article 1 and provisional article 1; Railways Procedure law, articles 1 and 2; Protection of minors from harmful publications Law, article 2; Higher Education Law, article 6; Law on wireless communication, article 6; Establishment of radio and television rights Law, article 6; Lawyers law, article 65 and additional article 3 (Official Gazette, 2004).

A number of amendments took place to the Turkish Penal Code. The selection of one member of the Higher Education Council by the General Staff was repealed. The nomination of a member of the Supreme Board for Radio and Television by the Secretariat General of the National Security Council was repealed. The selection of one member of the competent board by the National Security Council was repealed.

6.5. FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO TURKEY

The preceding section summarised the reform packages undertaken by Turkish governments since the beginning of the accession process. However, changes as requested by these packages required financial assistance so that the expected outcomes could be fulfilled. It is therefore important also to highlight the financial assistance given to Turkey over the years by the EU to undertake these reforms.

Financial cooperation between Turkey and the EU can be divided into four periods:

      i.   Prior to the Customs Union (1964-1995)

     ii.   The MEDA Programme (1996-2001)

iii.   Pre-accession financial assistance programme (2002-2006).

iv.   IPA "The Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance" (2007- ongoing)

6.4.2.1. Prior to the Customs Union (1964-1995). Within the framework of the four Financial Protocols, the Supplementary Protocol and the Special Aid Package, the main target of the program were to improve Turkey's social and economic development. The majority of the package consisted of low interest credits such as 927 million euro and 78 million euro as grants. In total Turkey received ECU 1, 05 billion from the EU (Istanbul, 2010).

6.4.2.2. Customs Union and The MEDA Programme (1996-2001). In accordance with the Turkey-EU Association Council Decision No 1/95, Turkey benefited from EU budgetary sources and EU credit and grants under programmes allocated for the Mediterranean countries (Ikv, 2010). The Euro-Mediterranean Partnership was established in 1995 with the Barcelona Declaration in the Mediterranean Region and 12 Mediterranean countries were members of the Partnership: Algeria, Turkey, Egypt, Malta, Morocco, the Palestine Administration, Lebanon, Jordan, Israel, Tunisia, Cyprus and Syria (Delegation of EU, 2009).

During this period 768 million grants were provided under Budget Support, MEDA and Administrative Cooperation Fund but Turkey benefited only 52 million euro because of Greece's veto (Ikv, 2010).

6.4.2.3. Pre-accession financial assistance programme (2002-2006)

After confirmation of Turkey's candidacy at the Helsinki Summit, financial assistance to Turkey was transferred to a single framework and solely focused on the Accession Partnership priorities starting from 2002. In order to coordinate the financial assistance system, new structures were established with regard to usage of the aid effectively. Thus, the EU developed a decentralized management system (DIS) and transferred part of its responsibilities to the European Commission's Representation in Turkey whereas the commission kept the final responsibilities under the EC treaties (EC Representation, 2003).

Turkey developed the necessary structures to implement the funds provided from the EU commission. Key actors of the programs were as follows. The National Aid

Coordinator (NAC) responsible for the accession process and the appropriate use of the funds. The State Minister in Charge of EU Affairs was designated as the NAC. He was responsible for the preparation and coordination of the annual financial programme, collaboration with the NAO and the relevant Ministries. The National Authorising Officer (NAO) has the overall responsibility for the financial management of the funds. The Undersecretary of the Treasury was designated as NAO and the Central Finance and Contracts Unit (CFCU) which is responsible for the overall budgeting, tendering, contracting, payments, accounting and financial reporting of all procurements through the EU funds work as an independent body but has administrative responsibilities to the NAO (EC Representation, 2003).

According to Council Regulation (EC) No 2500/2001 on 17 December 2001, concerning pre-accession financial assistance for Turkey, it was highlighted in article 2 that; "Turkey is a candidate country destined to join the Union on the basis of the same criteria applied to the other candidate countries and…, will benefit from a pre-accession strategy to stimulate and support its reforms". Therefore with this regulation Turkey received EU financial aid under the pre-accession financial assistance programme between 2002 and 2006. The total allocation was 1.321m euro and it is demonstrated in the table below.

Table 6.1: Pre-Accession Financial Assistance Programme

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
■ 1,321m. Euros	127	144	250	300	500
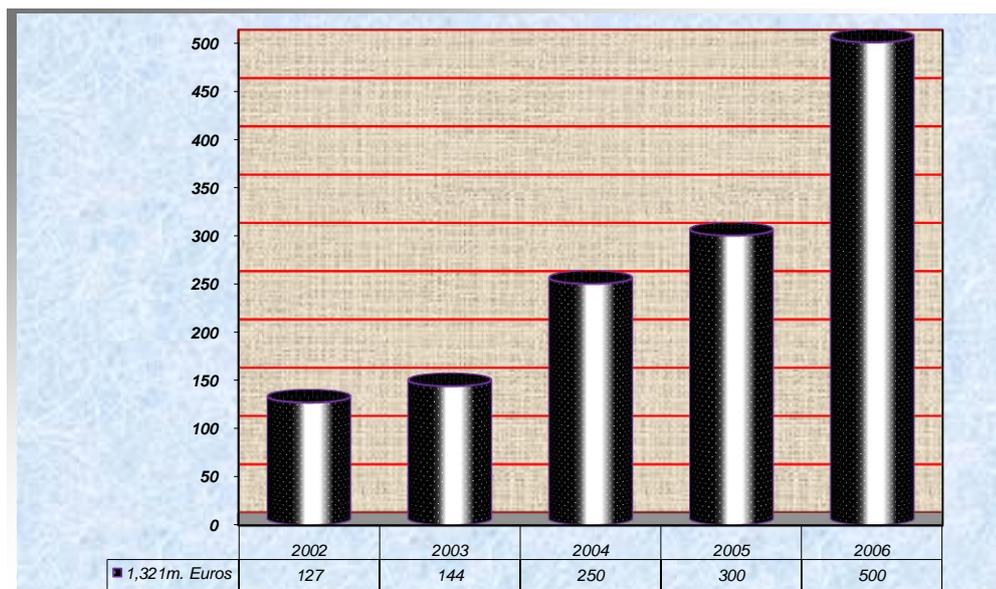
After completion of the pre-accession finance assistance program between 2002 and 2006, a new program was launched under the Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance (IPA).

6.4.2.4. IPA (The Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance)

 The IPA based on Council Regulation (EC) No 1085/2006 was established on 17 July 2006. The main aim of the program was addressed in articles 1 and 2. To improve the efficiency of the Community's External Aid, a new framework for programming and delivery of assistance was envisaged under the Treaty on EU Article 49, which stated that "any European State which respects the principles of liberty, democracy, respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms and the rule of law may apply to become a member of the Union". It is also emphasized that candidate countries should receive continuing support in their efforts "to strengthen democratic institutions and the rule of law, reform public administration, carry out economic reforms, respect human as well as minority rights, promote gender equality, support the development of civil society and advance regional cooperation as well as reconciliation and reconstruction, and contribute to sustainable development and poverty reduction focusing on the adoption and implementation of the full *acquis communautaire*" (Ipa, 2009).

The IPA was launched at the beginning of 2007 to provide nearly €11.5 billion to both candidate and the potential candidate countries for the period 2007–2012. It was planned as a compact package for use by the mentioned countries' citizens directly. The distribution of the IPA was as follows:

Table 6.2: EU Financial Assistance under IPA

Countries	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2007-2012
Croatia	141.2	146.0	151.2	154.2	157.2	160.4	910.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	58.5	70.2	81.8	92.3	98.7	105.8	507.3
Turkey	**497.2**	**538.7**	**566.4**	**653.7**	**781.9**	**899.5**	**3.937.4**
Albania	61.0	70.7	81.2	93.2	95.0	96.9	498.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	62.1	74.8	89.1	106.0	108.1	110.2	550.3
Kosovo	68.3	184.7	106.1	67.3	68.7	70.0	565.1
Montenegro	31.4	32.6	33.3	34.0	34.7	35.4	201.4
Serbia	189.7	190.9	194.8	198.7	202.7	206.8	1.183.6
Multi-country support	109.0	135.7	160.0	157.7	160.8	164.2	887.4
TOTAL	**1.218.4**	**1.444.3**	**1.463.9**	**1.557.1**	**1.707.8**	**1.849.2**	**9.240.7***

*Million Euros
Source: (Ipa, 2009).The Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance program, 2009

Thus it can be concluded from the table that more than 1/3 of the fund **(3.937.4)** was allocated to Turkey because of the population size and absorption capacity of the country. European Commission President, Jose Manuel Barroso, addressed the importance of the IPA programs in his speech given to the Turkish parliament in Ankara, saying, "It is fundamental that people in the EU and in Turkey get to know each other better. We need to further support a genuine civil society dialogue between the business community, trade unions, cultural organisations, universities, think tanks and NGOs" (Barroso, 2008).

The management and implementation of the IPA are run under the Multi-Annual Indicative Financial Framework (MIFF) which allocates the budget for four years. The following table illustrates the allocations of the budget by components for each year as a reference indicative financial framework.

Table 6.3: Multi-Annual Indicative Financial Framework in Turkey for 2007–2010

Component	2007	2008	2009	2010
Transition Assistance and Institution Building	252.2	250.2	233.2	211.3
Cross-border co-operation	6.6	8.8	9.4	9.6
Regional Development	167.5	173.8	182.7	238.1
Human Resources Development	50.2	52.9	55.6	63.4
Rural Development	20.7	53.0	85.5	131.3
Total	**497.2**	**538.7**	**566.4**	**653.7***

*Million Euros
Source: Miff (2008) Multi-Annual Indicative Financial Framework in Turkey

The Multi-Annual Indicative Financial Framework (MIFF) for the Instrument of Pre-Accession Assistance (IPA) is proposed by the Commission in accordance with Article 5 of the IPA Regulation (EC) 1085/2006. MIFF is a fundamental IPA document for allocating aid to each beneficiary country under relevant components with annual reviews. Thus, it is provided in Turkey according to the five IPA components (Miff, 2008).

Component I: Institution Building

The main objectives of this component are to meet the Copenhagen political criteria by supporting public institutions to adopt and implement EU law. Moreover, it helps to improve the EU-Turkey Civil Society Dialogue between organizations in Turkey in different sectors with their counterparts within the EU by providing technical assistance, training of staff, and infrastructure. The majority of IPA aid was allocated to this component to foster Turkey's membership to the EU (Mipd, 2008).

Table 6.4: Component I (Transition Assistance and Institution Building)

Political Criteria	15-25%
Acquis Implementation	45-65%
Civil Society Dialogue	20-30%
Supporting programmes	3-5%

Table 6.4 illustrates that approximately half the institutional component is covered by *acquis* implementation which is concerned with: agriculture and food safety; justice, freedom and security mostly border management; migration and visa policy; and international cooperation among law enforcement agencies (Mipd, 2008). Most of the JHA funds are provided under component I; sections of political criteria and *acquis* implementations sections.

Component II: Cross-Border Co-operation

This component supports not only cooperation between Turkey, Bulgaria and Greece but also Turkey's Black Sea basin programme under the European Neighbourhood and Partnership Instrument (ENPI). The focal expectation is to promote good neighbourly relations, strengthen co–operation in border areas between countries and establish collaboration to tackle common challenges like protection of environment, natural and cultural heritage and to take necessary steps against drug trafficking and organized crimes (Mipd, 2008).

Table 6.5: Component II (Cross-Border Co-operation)

Turkey – Bulgaria	21-22 %
Turkey – Greece	35-36 %
Turkey – Cyprus	3-4 %
ENPI Black Sea multilateral Sea Basin prog.	10-11 %
other ENPI and ERDF programmes	27-29 %

TNP conducted several harmonization projects to introduce better border management policies and new visa regulations were implemented which were compatible with the EU member states. These projects will be addressed in detail under the harmonization process of the TNP chapter. Apart from the institutional building and cross-border cooperation programs which provide funds particularly for political criteria, justice and policing issues the other three components cover regional development, human resource development and rural development issues. These components are discussed accordingly.

Component III: Regional Development. The Regional Development component took the second greatest budget after the institution building component under the IPA. Its main goal is to reduce the gaps between Turkey's regions. This component operates three programmes: environment, transport, and regional competitiveness. The environment programme mainly supports waste water and solid waste management, air quality, and renewable energy sectors. The transport programme deals with the railway, roads, maritime and multi-model transportation sectors. The Regional Competitiveness program gives priority to the improvement of business investment and environment, industrial parks, urban development, regional infrastructure, and the promotion of technological resources (Mipd, 2008).

However, Turkey's highly-centralized structure, which comes from its foundation, is a huge obstacle for the regional development programme (Ertugal, 2002; Lagendijk *et al.,* 2009). In this respect, Turkey adopted the "Establishment of Development Agencies, Coordination and Duties Act" in January 2006. The first article of the act outlines the aim of the regional development agencies as; "to enhance cooperation between public sector, private sector and civil society agencies for the appropriate and efficient use of the provided resources through national development program accordance with the principles and policies prescribed in the regional development" (Official Gazette, 2006).

Component IV: Human Resources Development. This component strongly supports employment, education, social inclusion and technical assistance accordingly. The main objectives are: to attract and retain more people in employment. Its second objective is to enhance investment in human capital which is, basically, targeting the increase of girls' enrolment rates in schooling and provide better vocational and

technical education. The other objective is to promote an inclusive labour market with opportunities for disadvantaged people and the last one is technical assistance (Mipd, 2008).

Component V: Rural Development. This component supports rural development. According to the Council regulation (2006) No 1085/2006 the Rural Development Component prepares the candidate countries for "the sustainable adaptation of the agricultural sector and rural areas and to the candidate countries' preparation for the implementation of the *acquis communautaire* concerning the Common Agricultural Policy and related policies".

Therefore, 50 % of the funds are allocated to contribute to the modernisation of the agricultural sector. This program runs under the IPA Rural Development (IPARD) Programme for Turkey. The main objectives of the IPARD are: improving market efficiency and implementing community standards like; meat, milk, fruit and vegetables, fisheries, food safety, veterinary and phytosanitary. The other objective is to support the preparation of local rural development strategies with training and technical assistance (Ipard, 2007).

After highlighting the importance of financial assistance provided to Turkey over the years, the following section will address one of the main policies of the EU which is JHA issue particularly focusing on Police cooperation's in the EU.

6.6. JUSTICE AND HOME AFFAIRS IN THE EU

One of the main policies of the EU is to develop the member states' general welfare with overall security (Dinan, 2006). However, it is interesting that the first cooperation between member states dealing with internal security developed in the 1970s against the threat of terrorism in Western Europe. Both Germany and the United Kingdom drew attention to the growing problem of terrorism and how to tackle it more efficiently (Occhipinti, 2003) after hostage-takings and particularly the killings at the 1972 Munich Olympic games (Fijnaut, 1992). After this development member countries came to agree with the "exchange of information about terrorist organizations; and the equipment and training of police organizations, in particular in anti-terrorist tactics" (Boer & Wallace 2000, p.494). Thus, the European Council

created the 'Trevi' group in 1975 which brought justice and interior ministries under a security framework (Anderson, *et al.,* 1994; Dinan, 2006). The Trevi group was supervised by senior officials from the twelve interior ministries and dealt with illegal immigration, organised crime, and provisions for the establishment of Europol (Anderson, *et al.,* 1994). Another important development took place under the umbrella of the Trevi framework in 1986 as an ad hoc group mainly dealing with immigration and border control issues. However, three member states; Britain, Ireland and Denmark did not fully subscribe the ad hoc group (Dinan, 2006).

During this period, for deeper integration, first Germany and France abolished all border regulations between them under the Schengen agreement which took its name from a small town in Luxembourg (Dinan, 2006). Under the Schengen convention a number of related laws, relating to: police cooperation, judicial cooperation, the Schengen Information System (SIS), visas, illegal Immigration, and Asylum were put into effect in January 1990 (Walker, 1998). The Schengen convention not only abolished the internal borders between participating states providing their citizens free movement, but also enhanced the exchange of information between police services, cross-border surveillance, and information exchange via central law-enforcement agencies (Council EU, 2009). On the other hand, Ireland and United Kingdom did not abolish border regulations with member states but they agreed to take part in other aspects of Schengen convention like police cooperation and (SIS).

JHA issues started with Trevi groups and were followed by the Schengen convention, but there was still no legal basis regarding any multilateral treaties in EU (Weidenfeld, *et al.,* 1997). In addition, concern about uncontrolled immigrations and the unification of Germany made it essential to review Schengen objectives and incorporate them into the Maastricht Treaty (Dinan, 2006).

6.6.1. The Maastricht Treaty (Third Pillar)

The Maastricht Treaty created a new EU consisting of three pillars. The first pillar regulated the EEC, ECSC and EURATOM Treaties, the second pillar dealt with foreign and security policies and the third pillar (Title VI) included JHA issues (Duff, *et al.,* 1994). The JHA concept was clarified by Occhipinti (2003); 'justice' indicates collaboration on both civil and criminal matters, and 'home affairs' terminology from

the United Kingdom which signifies internal security at national level. Starting from the Maastricht treaty JHA issues were assessed under a separate pillar. Thus, a new committee was established from senior state officials to coordinate and prepare the council meetings. Moreover, nine areas were listed as a 'common interest', in particular the free movement of persons and intergovernmental cooperation as follows: "asylum, the crossing of external borders, immigration, combating drug addiction, combating fraud on an international scale, judicial cooperation in civil matters, and judicial cooperation in criminal matters, custom cooperation and police cooperation" (Dinan, 2006, p.566).

Following dealing with the criminal justice topic in general, In particular the police cooperation purpose was stated in the treaty as "preventing and combating terrorism, unlawful drug trafficking and other serious forms of international crime, including, if necessary, certain aspects of customs cooperation, in connection with the organization of a Union-wide system for exchanging information within a European Police Office "Europol" (Maastricht Treaty, 1992, article K.1).

The other main issues addressed in the Treaty on EU about JHA were as follows; Article K.2 focused on European Convention on Human Rights and the Geneva Convention on the status of Refugees. Article K.3 concerned the usefulness of collaboration to take the form of joint positions and joint actions, promotion of cooperation among member states. Article K.4-6 arranged the establishing of a Coordinating Committee of senior national officials and their voting rules and responsibilities against both the Commission and Parliament. Article K.7 addressed the closer cooperation regarding JHA among smaller groups attributed to the Schengen Convention. Article K.8-9 organized administrative and operational expenditure and the general budget in this field (Maastricht Treaty, 1992, article K.2-9).

Recent developments concerning JHA caused member states to expand EU security perspectives by improving effectiveness and accountability of the third pillar (Walker, 1998). On this basis, Boer and Wallace (2000) state that delays and short-comings in implementing intergovernmental decisions at national level make it crucial to arrange coordination between ministers and executive bodies of member states within EU regulations.

Therefore, considerable changes took place in the Amsterdam Treaty in 1997. The most significant change was related to the purpose of the third pillar, the activities of which restricted police and judicial cooperation in criminal matters (Dinan, 2006). According to new regulations, border controls, visas, asylum, refugees, immigration issues moved to the first pillar. Walker (1998) assessed these new arrangements in the Amsterdam Treaty as a step toward establishing an Area of Freedom, Security and Justice (AFSJ). On the other hand, cooperation of the police with the judiciary in criminal matters was enshrined in the Title IV, while the Schengen Acquis was added to the subsequent treaties. It can be concluded that the most important change to have taken place in the Treaty of Amsterdam was shifting of some areas of JHA affairs to the First Pillar known as "Community Pillar" and in particular applying the Community method (Lavanex, 2010).

Following the Amsterdam Treaty, member countries made a decision on the necessity of a special meeting on JHA. Thus, EU leaders held a meeting in October 1999 in Finland devoted solely to JHA issues (Dinan, 2006). In addition, Boer and Wallace (2000) drew attention to the fact that the Tampere Communiqué introduced series objectives, including "measures on the management of migration flows, mutual recognition of judicial decisions, better access to justice across the EU, and closer cooperation against crime, and also directives against racism, xenophobia and other forms of discrimination" (p.517). As a matter of fact, the Tampere summit created new objectives in JHA issues, predominantly on a common asylum and immigration policy, judicial cooperation 'Eurojust' and the fight against terrorism and organized and transnational crimes (Dinan, 2006).

The Scoreboard monitoring process began with the Tampere program and would last from 1999 to 2004. According to the Scoreboard monitoring process JHA issues were evaluated under seven sections: 1. A common EU asylum and migration policy; 2. A genuine European area of justice; 3. Union-wide fight against crime; 4. Issues related to internal and external borders and visa policy; 5. Citizenship of the Union; 6. Cooperation against drugs; and 7. stronger external action (Occhipinti, 2003).

However, unexpected terrorist attacks on the United States on 11 September 2001 impeded the implementation of the whole program (Elsen, 2007). Due to the incomplete Tampere program, member states decided on the necessity of a new

program for the JHA regarding the recent terrorist attacks in the US and Madrid in 2004. In addition to the EU treaties, several member states established intergovernmental groups at the ministerial level to find immediate solutions in the fields of counter –terrorism, organized crimes and migration. On this account, in 2003 the interior ministers of Germany, France, Italy, UK and Spain created a group known as G-5. After Poland's participation into the group this became the G6. The primary objective of G-6 is to meet twice a year at the ministerial level to handle the above mentioned issues. Lately, the G-6 expanded its cooperation and came to be known as the 'future' group. Another group which was established among Austria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia in 2000 was called the 'Salzburg Forum'. Like the G-6, they were also represented at the ministerial level with the same aims and purposes. By 2006 Romania and Bulgaria had also joined the group (Lavanex, 2010)".

In addition to intergovernmental cooperation among the member states, EU leaders agreed on The Hague Programme which covered a five year period, from 2005 to the end of 2009 (Dinan, 2006). The general objective of the Hague program was: to improve; "common capability of the Union Member States to guarantee fundamental rights, to fight organized cross-border crime and repress the threat of terrorism, to realize the potential of Europol and Eurojust, to carry further the mutual recognition of judicial decisions, to regulate migration flows and development of a Common Asylum System" (Hague Programme, 2004, p.3).

The Commission set out policy guidelines and practical objectives to review the progress of The Hague program. The first assessment report on the implementation of the Hague program was reviewed on June 2006, the second in July 2007 and the third annual report took place in July 2008 (JHA, 2010)

Before starting the implementation of The Hague program, the pillar division under the JHA was abolished by the Constitutional Treaty (CT) in October 2004. The new title was "Area of Freedom, Security and Justice" (Carrera & Geyer, 2007).

Due to rejection by France and Netherlands of the CT in 2004, changes proposed in the JHA took place in the Lisbon Treaty in 2007. The remarkable impact of Lisbon Treaty on the JHA field was abolishment of the pillar structure of EU legislation. In

addition, Qualified Majority Voting (QMV) was proposed through a normal EU legislative procedure. As a result, the structure of the JHA was changed where the European Court of Justice (ECJ) covered wider responsibility on the JHA issues particularly in regards to policing and criminal law for a transitional period of five year (Cini *et.al,* 2010).

Consequently, it must be concluded that EU members continued to work toward the best policy for JHA and the Europeans still pursued "more Europe not less" in this sensitive area under entirely democratic inspection (Dinan, 2006).

6.6.2. Police cooperation's in the EU

The question of why European member states needed to collaborate on policing issues is answered by Occhipinti (2003) who highlighted the difficulties of combating particularly transnational organized crime, terrorism and international drug trafficking. Thus, member states first established the Trevi group (which later became Europol) in 1975, to tackle criminal issues effectively.

6.6.2.1. Europol. The German Chancellor, Helmut Kohl, proposed to create a new policing unit for the EU which was similar to the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) in the US (Hall *et al.,* 1999). Europol was confirmed at a European Council meeting in Luxembourg in June 1991 and put into effect in the Treaty on EU in February 1992.

Initially, the objective of the Europol was carried out with limited operational capacity as the Europol Drugs Unit (EDU) fighting against drug-related crimes, as they had limited staff from member states and their duty was restricted to supporting criminal investigations without any arresting power (Europol, 2009; Biegaj, 2009). After The Europol Convention in October 1998, Europol launched its activities in July 1999 (Deflem, 2006; Europol, 2009). In addition to the main goal of Europol which is defined in article K.1 of the Maastricht Treaty (1992) as " preventing and combating terrorism, unlawful drug trafficking and other serious forms of international crime… for exchanging information within a European Police Office". Europol also maintains law enforcement activities of the member states in terms of illicit drug trafficking; illicit immigration networks; terrorism; forgery of money (counterfeiting of the euro)

and other means of payment; human trafficking (including child pornography); illicit vehicle trafficking; and money laundering (Europol, 2009). Moreover, article 2 of the Europol Convention in 1998 redefined Europol's roles to cover the investigation of forms of serious international crime and terrorism activities where "two or more Member States are affected by the forms of crime in question in such a way as to require a common approach by the Member States" (Boer, 2002, p. 104). In order to enhance cooperation between member states Europol also supports activities according to Article 3 of the Europol Convention (2000) as follows;

     i.   to facilitate the exchange of information between member states

     ii.   to obtain, collate and analyze information and intelligence

     iii.   to notify the competent authorities of the member states without delay of information concerning them and of any connections identified between criminal offences

     iv.   to aid investigations in the member states by forwarding all relevant information to the national units

     v.   to maintain a computerised system of collected information allowing data to be input, accessed and analyzed.

From the administration aspect, Europol is responsible to the Council of Ministers for JHA. The Council not only arranges and approves Europol's budget of but also appoints its director and deputy directors (Boer, 2002). From the cooperation and coordination aspects; each member state has to establish or designate a national unit to carry out the Europol tasks (article 4), and each national unit must second at least one liaison officer to Europol (article 5) Europol Convention (2000).

Turkey and Europol signed a cooperation agreement at the TNP Headquarters in Ankara on 18 May 2004. The expectation was that this agreement would improve cooperation between law enforcement bodies in order to combat; organized crime terrorism, drugs, counterfeiting, illegal migration, trafficking in human beings, stolen vehicles and financial crime issues. After the agreement, Europol's director highlighted Turkey's geopolitical position to prevent serious crimes and also stated the importance of the exchange of personal data to develop better police cooperation in Europe. In addition, the agreement (article 3), identified cooperation objectives as follows: Exchanging strategic and technical information of mutual interest;

exchanging law enforcement experience including the organization of scientific and practice-oriented conferences, internships, consultations and seminars; exchanging legislation, manuals, technical literature and other law enforcement materials; and training (Europol, 2009a).

Europol was initially created as a bureau under the Interpol department in 2002 with the approval of the MoI and was expanded and became a second Ministerial Decree in 2003. After the Europol agreement was signed between Turkey and Europol the name of the department was changed to Interpol-Europol-Sirene department. The main task of the Turkish Europol unit is that it "ensures the strategic and technical cooperation with Europol, conducts studies to further the level of cooperative efforts and follows all developments and changes within the Europol organization" (Interpol-Europol, 2010).

6.6.2.2. Cepol. The developments in the Tampere program in 1999 led to a renewed interest in the training and education of police personnel for JHA by member states. They commenced a study on creating European Police College (CEPOL) to train senior officers to boost cooperation between member states' police forces (Occhipinti, 2003). The term (CEPOL) is usually referred to by the acronym of its French name, "College European de Police". In the Council decision (2000/820/JHA) to establish (CEPOL) its main objectives were identified as follows;

> i.   to increase knowledge of the national police systems and structures of other Member States, of Europol and cross border police cooperation within the EU;
> ii. to strengthen knowledge of international instruments, in particular those which already exist at EU level in the field of cooperation on combating crime;
> iii. to provide appropriate training with regard to respect for democratic safeguards with particular reference to the rights of defence;
> iv. to encourage cooperation between CEPOL and other police training institutes.

Although CEPOL was established by Council Decision 2000/820/JHA, it was not a legal body. Thus it was approved by Council Decision 2004/566/JHA that CEPOL

"be given the legal and contractual capacity available to legal persons". In addition, the amended Council Decision 2004/567/JHA declared that CEPOL is located in Bramshill, United Kingdom, with a permanent Governing Board and Secretariat to assist its administrative tasks. From 1 January 2006, CEPOL started to operate as an agency of the EU (Cepol, 2009).

 The need and aim of CEPOL is highlighted by Durmaz (2007) as "harmonized European space for Police education dealing with domestic and transnational crime control and law enforcement" (p .87). As a result, CEPOL has built up strong relations among the member police forces and is still striving to create a EU police culture to handle policing issues more efficiently (Occhipinti, 2003). In this respect, more than 100 courses and seminars are arranged every year on relevant issues to all member police forces by CEPOL (Cepol, 2009).

The Turkish police are belong to CEPOL and they hosted the 10th External Relations Meeting of CEPOL in the Conrad Hotel, in Istanbul in July 2009. Moreover, they have taken part in seminars financed by CEPOL and the European Commission's Directorate General for Justice, Freedom and Security under the framework program "Prevention of and Fight against Crime" to share experiences about organized crime, COP implementations and learning environment issues (Disiliskiler, 2010).

Apart from Europol and Cepol, there are several other institutions which deal with internal and external security issues in the EU, such as: The International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL), the European Anti-Fraud Office (OLAF), EU Police Mission (EUPM), Integrated Civil Police Force for the EU (EUCIVPOL) and the Central European Police Academy (CEPA). Each of them is addressed accordingly.

6.6.2.3. Interpol. The International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL) was created in 1923 and is located in Lyon, France. It has 188 members and more than 80 bureaus in each country. They are heavily focused on four main policing fields which are: secure global police communications services, operational data services and databases for police, operational police support services and police training and development. Their main task is to "facilitate […] cross-border police co-operation, and supports and assists all organizations, authorities and services whose mission is to

prevent or combat international crime" (Interpol, 2009). The main problem of police forces in member states is the need for a body which coordinates international assistance and provides exchange of criminal data in Europe. Thus for many years "Interpol has served as a means of information pooling for European criminal investigations." (Occhipinti, 2003, p. 29)

In Turkey, an Interpol department was established to deal solely with transnational crime issues at the headquarters of the Turkish Police in Ankara. Their motto is "For fighting against international crime and criminals; co-ordination at home, co-operation in the world" (Interpol- Europol, 2010). Turkey has been a member of Interpol since 1930 and its first unit was created as an 'Interpol division' in 1972 and later became an 'Interpol department' in 1988 and finally, following the approval of Turkey's candidacy by the EU, it became an 'Interpol- Europol department'. Their core duty is outlined as follows;

> i. Establishing the widest possible international police cooperation against criminals with the member countries of the Interpol Organization,

> ii. Providing legal and technical infrastructures in coordination with relevant institutions for achieving full participation and membership to European Police Organization-Europol (Interpol- Europol, 2010).

6.6.2.4. Olaf. The European Anti-Fraud Office (OLAF) was established in 1999 and is situated in Brussels. Initially, it was a Unit for the Co-ordination of Fraud Prevention (UCLAF) in the 1980s and later became the OLAF. The main goal of the OLAF is defined as "to protect the financial interests of the EU and fight against fraud, corruption and any other irregular activity, including misconduct within the European Institutions" (Olaf, 2009).

OLAF scrutinizes candidate countries' financial control policies according to chapter 32 (financial control) to ensure that they have the necessary administrative structure to combat with fraud. Therefore, Turkey has nominated the Prime Minister's Inspection Board (PMIB) as the central contact point for OLAF (Olaf, 2009a). In addition TNP

established a National Central Office (NCO) as a contact point to provide information exchange between Turkey, the European Commission and the EU member countries. Their main task is concerned with currency counterfeiting, particularly euro counterfeiting. In 2009, Turkey hosted the OLAF South East Euro Conference in Istanbul to prevent euro counterfeiting in different countries (Interpol- Europol, 2010).

6.6.2.5. Eupm. The EU Police Mission (EUPM) is another important organization in the JHA "which assists local authorities in planning and conducting major and organised crime investigations, in contributing to an improved functioning of the whole criminal justice system in general and enhancing police-prosecutor relations in particular" (EUPM, 2010). TNP officers are deployed under the EU Police Mission in Bosnia Herzegovina and in Macedonia to strengthen police accountability and support the fight against organised crime.

6.6.2.6. Eucivpol. The Integrated Civil Police Force for the EU (EUCIVPOL) was established according to the EC decision in Helsinki in 1997.Their main duty is to establish temporary police forces to handle specific problems faced by member states police organizations for a short time period (Jean, 2002). The Turkish police is one of the main participating police forces in the EU. In fact, 63 TNP officers are currently deployed in Kosovo to support peace operations and establish a secure environment and they are the first among the European countries and third in the world in terms of deployment rate.

6.6.2.7. Cepa. The Central European Police Academy (CEPA) was established in1992 with eight member states: Austria, Germany, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia, Switzerland and the Czech Republic. Its secretariat is located in Vienna. They are heavily concerned with transnational crime, economic crime, environmental and organized crimes. In addition, they have striven to establish networking within the member police forces at operational level (Holm & Osland, 2000).

From the candidate countries' point of view, they have encountered some obstacles to aligning with the EU member states law enforcement system since law enforcement bodies like Interpol, Europol, and other institutions have bilateral arrangements which put candidate countries in a difficult condition to comply with all of them. The second obstacle is the Schengen *acquis* system which updates itself constantly according to

changing situations. However, candidate countries do not take part in the decision making process of Schengen *acquis* in the candidacy period. Thus, their concerns are not handled by member states sufficiently. The third is the established informal communication system in EU police forces. However, candidate countries do not have the opportunity to take part in these systems before obtaining membership (Anderson, 2002).

After mentioning the history and main institutions in the EU particularly with JHA policing issues, the second part of this chapter will identify impacts of the projects on the TNP for EU membership with the objective of responding to one of the research questions of this research for which primary data was also collected.

6.7. TNP HARMONISATION PROCESS TOWARDS MEMBERSHIP

Continuing the previous discussion on the financial help and support of the EU in the Turkish accession process, this part will address the adaptation process of the TNP for EU membership with the objective of responding to one of the research questions of this research for which primary data was also collected.

The expectation is that with EU harmonization, police projects will improve the quality of policing and the system of justice in Turkey. These projects will show the Turkish Police's implementation capability and its potential for success in the adaptation period. Finally, the harmonization project on the implementation of community policing in Turkey is evaluated in detail.

During the candidacy process, Turkey has taken major steps to provide alignment in policing issues. Firstly, the TNP focused on the National Programme for the Adoption of the Acquis (NPAA) which is designed to support reforms in Turkey. The EC highlighted the necessary implementations and alignments to prepare Turkey for membership in accession partnership documents published in 2001, 2003, 2006, and 2008. The main objectives of these national programs were to identify Turkey's needs and priorities according to Accession Partnership Document (APD) and Progress Reports published by the EC regarding JHA.

Turkey continued to strengthen and improve the capacity of its law enforcement institutions to bring them in line with those of EU member states. In this respect, several laws dealing with policing issues were amended during this period. These were; the Law on Associations, the Anti-Terror Law (TMK), the Turkish Penal Code (TCK), the Law on Police Duties and Powers (PVSK), the Law on the Trial of Civil Servants, the Code of Civil Procedure, the Law on Assembly and Demonstration Marches, and the Judicial Records Law.

In addition to amending laws, harmonization projects funded by the EU played a vital role in the accountability and transparency of the TNP. Harmonization project topics were established according EC priorities in JHA, such as administrative reforms, border controls, visa regulations, human rights issues, corruptions money-laundering, drug trafficking and police forensic capacity.

The following table depicts implemented EU projects concerned with policing activities in Turkey.

Table 6.6: TNP Related EU Projects

No	Project Name (Completed)
1	Strengthening police forensic capacity
2	Improvement of statement taking Methods and Statement taking rooms in the Republic of Turkey
3	Support for the development of an action plan to implement Turkey's integrated border management strategy
4	Support for the development of an action plan to implement Turkey's asylum and migration strategy
5	Establishment of national drugs monitoring center (Reitox focal point) and implementation of national drug strategy
6	Strengthening the fight against organized crime
7	Strengthening the accountability, efficiency and effectiveness of the Turkish National Police
8	Strengthening the fight against money laundering
9	Strengthening institutions in the fight against human trafficking
10	Strengthening the fight against money laundering, financial sources of crime and the financing of terrorism
11	Development of a training system for border police
12	An Independent Police Complaints Commission & complaints system for the Turkish National Police and Gendarmerie
13	Visa policy and visa practice
14	Strengthening of capacity for the interdiction of drugs in rural areas
15	Supporting Turkey's efforts to combat human trafficking and promote

	access to justice for all trafficked persons
16	Support to the Turkish Police in enforcement of intellectual and industrial property rights (IPRs)
	Ongoing Projects
17	Support in setting up an asylum and country of origin information (COI) system'
18	Support in detailing and implementing the Action Plan on integrated border management
19	The establishment of reception, screening and accommodation centres for refugees/asylum seekers
20	Support for Turkey's capacity in combating illegal immigration and establishment of removal centres for illegal immigrants
21	Strengthening the Turkish National Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug addiction
22	Strengthening the investigation capacity of Turkish National Police against organised crime
23	Implementation of a Training System and Facility for Border Police
24	Strengthening the police forensic capacity (follow-up)
25	Improving the skills of forensic experts
26	Action plan for integrated border management -Phase 2
	Project Fiches Prepared But Not Contracted Yet
27	Project to improve the Implementations Regarding Use of Force and Arms by Police
28	Biometric identity verification system
29	Developing bomb data, research and training centre of National Police
30	Police digital radio communication system (TETRA)
31	Strengthening the capacity against cybercrime
32	Increasing institutional capacities of organizations tasked and authorized with law in the field of witness protection at national and international levels

After listing all policing project activities, the following section will particularly addresses the COP project, which is one of the main tenants of this study, is evaluated in details.

Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the TNP (Project Number: TR 0301.01): The partner of this project was Spain, its duration was 24 months and the total budget was €2,100,000. The main objective was "the accountability, efficiency and effectiveness of the Turkish National Police in the discharge of its responsibilities in respect of the enforcement of law in accordance with democratic principles and having regard for the Human Rights of all citizens".

Within the scope of the project, expected results were achieved by five components: Component 1: development of a corporate plan for the reorganization of the service, Component 2: community police, Component 3: development of police training programs in line with Current EU Practices, Component 4: development of police personnel systems in line with current EU practices, Component 5: practical programs in human rights.

Component 2, COP, which is one of the main concerns of this study, started with this project in Turkey. First of all, in order to see the general way of policing, an expert group examined the current situations and needs, and developed a strategy they would follow during the implementation period. Thus, in collaboration with Spanish experts, TNP gave priority to the following items through the project: dissemination of community police philosophy nationwide, a feasible development of pilot experiences and the training of police in at least ten cities

With this in mind, the COP was launched in the ten most important cities, namely Adana, Ankara, Antalya, Bursa, Diyarbakir, Erzurum, Istanbul, Izmir, Kayseri and Trabzon, with new uniforms, modern communication means and functional police facilities.

After implementation the impacts of the COP were seen at different levels such as: police level, social level, media level and international level in Turkey. The impact of the COP at different levels has been addressed in detail in the earlier chapter on Policing in Turkey.

After the execution of all activities under the community police component, the following targets were reached: COP was introduced to the TNP; community police units were established under the Public Order Department in the TNP; the Community Police Handbook was established and is in use; citizen participation programs have been developed; COP has been included as a course in the Police Academy and Vocational Police High Schools curricula. Moreover, within the scope of the project, study visits to EU Member States' police forces in Spain, Belgium and the United Kingdom were implemented for practical training, and best practices in COP.

6.8. CONCLUSION

This chapter started by reviewing the literature about the history of the EU and its main institutions. After that, it went on to summarise Turkey's accession process from the outset by examining the current accession process. Then we turned our attention toward the question of how the reforms and harmonization packages passed from TGNA and their likely effects on Turkey. In 2003, Turkey's Prime Minister in 2003 and the current president of Turkey, Abdullah Gul, announced that "these Reforms were being carried out for the sake of the people, not for the sole purpose of joining the EU" and he continued "we aimed to respect human rights and raised level of democratic standards […] anyway because the Turkish people deserve them" (Avci, 2003).

In addition, the financial assistance given to Turkey over the years was highlighted in detail. In the final part, the JHA and police cooperation in EU member states was discussed with a particular focus on Europol and Interpol, and their relations with Turkey's counterparts. From Turkey's point of view, Europol, Interpol, and other relevant member states' police bureau's were established to combat mainly international crime issues more effectively.

With Turkey's accession process, as discussed above, the relationship between EU institutions and Turkish Police was enhanced; in addition the EU has been instrumental in the transformation of various aspects of the Turkish police. In particular, the financial support provided by the EU accession process has been an important aspect of training Turkish Police in various specific areas. Furthermore, in the second part, EU harmonization, police projects discussed particularly; the implementation of COP in Turkey evaluated in detail.

After discussing the conceptual issues related to policing in general, and presenting the developments related to TNP, and also identifying the impact of the EU accession process on TNP, the following chapter aims to provide a theoretical framework in explaining the transformation has taken place in TNP over the years.

CHAPTER 7:

EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN TURKEY: EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study is to find the effectiveness of COP from the perception of police officers. This chapter is the first empirical chapter based on the analysis of a questionnaire schedule, as mentioned in detail in Chapter 3. The questionnaire survey was conducted in various cities in Turkey to gather primary data for this study. The perceptions of the participant police officers of 15 variables were measured on a Likert-type scale. In the analysis of the data, as presented in this chapter, factor analysis was used to identify the variables that can be combined under respective components, *i.e.* go together, with the objective of developing composite measures. In the process, hence, a dependent variable was created, which we have called 'effectiveness of COP' (eff.com.pol). The major independent variable included in the analysis is the impact of European Union (imp.of.eu), which was constructed using the same technique.

By examining the selected demographic and experiential variables, age, years in law enforcement, education, separate special unit, permanent beat, department size, city population and their regional location were also included to determine what levels of effectiveness of COP may be expected in the view of the police officers on the ground.

7.2. FACTOR ANALYSIS

Factor analysis was first established by Thurstone (1931), who defined it as a technique to reduce the number of variables in a systematic manner with the objective of establishing a more systematic relationship between them. To get the best representation of the main variables as a summary, principal component analysis is used, hence the data reduction nature of factor analysis. Futch *et al.* (1982, p. 25) illustrate that PCA is the fundamental concept, which provides "a direct linear transformation of the data into factors which account for maximum amounts of the variance and reduce the complexity of multivariate data". The primary step suggested by Field (2005) before conducting factor analysis is to determine the sample size. In

terms of effectiveness of the factor analysis, the literature states that around 300 cases are sufficient for the applicability and reliability of the data, which is consistent with the current data in this study. In addition, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p. 588) recommend the following regarding sample size: "50 cases is very poor, 100 is poor, 200 is fair, 300 is good, and 500 is very good".

In this study, factor analysis is used to construct a strong scale for both dependent and independent variables for the development of regression analysis. The initial step when using factor analysis is to find out whether the data is applicable to factor analysis.

7.3. VARIABLES

Table 7.1: The Dependent and Independent Variables of the Study

Dependent variable	Independent variables
Effectiveness of COP policing	Impact of EU
	Fear of crime
	Demographic and experiential variables
	Organizational variables

7.3.1 Dependent Variable

The main dependent variable of the study developed from the second part of the survey which was designed according to statements is the perception of COP programs in the eyes of police officers. The questions cover the basic tenets of the COP Program including: environmental problems, patrol, citizen-police relations and cooperation, fear of crime, organizational commitment and perceptions of the non-community police officers.

The dependent variable, namely effectiveness of COP (eff.com.pol.), consists of eight variables. These variables are: "The citizens feel more positive towards the police than before COP was implemented"; "The potential for physical conflict between citizens and police has decreased"; "Cooperation has improved between citizens and

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police"; "Citizens have increased efforts to improve the community"; "Citizens' attitudes toward the police have improved"; "My agency has been doing COP all along"; "Citizens are more likely to provide information to the police"; "On my beat, citizens' calls for service have increased". The above questions included five response categories according to the Likert scale: Strongly Disagree =1, Disagree =2, Do not know =3, Agree =4 and Strongly Agree =5.

In order to check if the data has the potential for factor analysis, first of all Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were used to check the applicability of the variables, as depicted in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for Effectiveness of COP

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.884
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Sig.	0.000

It should be noted that for factorability, the sampling adequacy of KMO measures must be greater than 0.5 for acceptable factor analysis and the significance level of Bartlett's test of sphericity should be less than 0.05. It should also be noted that Kaiser (1974) states that for efficient results the KMO measure should be between 0.7 and 0.8 and values between 0.8 and 0.9 are very good. On the other hand, Child (2006) states that the KMO measure result should be about 0.5 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity which is the same as the chi-square test should show a significant level (p=0.000) to provide no problems for the correlation of the variables and confirm the existence of common variance.

As can be seen in Table 7.2., The KMO measure is 0.884 which is higher than the critical value and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant, showing full statistical significance at (p=0.000) value. This result provides evidence for the factorability and practicability of the variables. Therefore it can be concluded that factor analysis is appropriate for this data.

After confirmation of the strength of the relationship among variables, the variables were put into the analysis for factor extraction. Kaiser's Criterion which was proposed

by Kaiser (1960) is accepted as a general, widely-used technique to illustrate the factors extractable from the analysis and gives the results of eigenvalues, the percent of variance and the cumulative variance of the factor, which they account for.

In order to obtain the relevant factors, orthogonal rotation methods were used. Normally, there are five orthogonal rotation methods: equamax, orthomax, quartimax, parsimax, and varimax. Varimax rotation is the most common one and is used in principal component analysis to maximize the sum of the variance. Abdi (2003) states that varimax rotation allows each variable to connect with one factor to develop a linear combination to measure the same concept. Moreover, Hair *et al*. (2006) suggest that varimax rotation enables the simplification of the factor matrix and helps to maximize the sum of the variances of loadings.

Table 7.3: Factor Analysis of Effectiveness of COP

Item	Factor loading
Citizens' attitudes toward the police have improved	0.816
The potential for physical conflict between citizens and police has decreased	0.764
Citizens are more likely to provide information to the police	0.751
Citizens feel more positive towards the police than before COP was implemented	0.731
Cooperation has improved between citizens and police	0.731
On my beat, citizens' calls for service have increased	0.727
Citizens have increased efforts to improve the community	0.614
My agency has been doing COP all along	0.541

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization,

From the above graph we can see that the highest factor loading value is 0.816 and the lowest value is 0.541. Thus, it can be concluded that there are no important

differences between the highest and lowest factor values which is appropriate to the main aim of the factor analysis method.

In addition to factor loading, there is another critical value which has to be checked to see the differences between each component. Each component represents the distribution of the variance after the varimax rotation.

Table 7.4: Total Variance Explanation of Effectiveness of COP

Component	eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	5.026	30.134	30.134
2	1.426	11.008	41.142
3	1.076	8.287	49.429
4	1.026	7.598	57.027

The four extracted variables explain 57.02 percent of the total variance, which is rather good for social science related topics. The first factor which is used as a dependent variable in the study of effectiveness of community policy (eff.com.pol.) contributes 30.13 percent of the variations, the second 11.00 percent, the third 8.28 percent and the fourth factor 7.5 percent. The factor with the highest eigenvalue (5.026) which comprises eight variables (dependent variable) is in line with conceptual framework of the study.

Following factor analysis one more test was conducted to assess the reliability of the new variable with Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is one of the most common and simple reliability statistics; it was introduced by Cronbach in 1951 (Cronbach, 1951). In fact, it is not just a statistical test to provide the consistency of the data; Hatcher (1994) defined it as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the 'underlying construct'.

So, reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was run to see whether these eight variables can measure the same underlying construct, 'perceived effectiveness of COP', in an efficient manner. George and Mallery (2003, p. 231) developed a scale

for Cronbach's alpha results as; "> .9 Excellent, > .8 Good, > .7 Acceptable, > .6 Questionable, > .5 Poor, and < .5 Unacceptable".

Table 7.5: Cronbach's Alpha of Effectiveness of COP

Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
.853	8

The result in Table 7.5, shows that the magnitude of internal consistency (alpha coefficient) suggests a high level of reliability (alpha coefficient =.853). Finally, after all these statistical measurement, these variables were re-coded and added with transfer-compute and sum up expressions. As a result, the new dependent variable "eff.com.pol" was created. After constructing a new dependent variable using the factor analysis method, the independent variable, 'impact of the European Union', was constructed with the same technique.

7.4. CONSTRUCTING THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

7.4.1. Importance of the EU as an Independent Variable

'Importance of EU' was created as one of the five independent variables. Factor analysis was used again to cluster and identify the variables that go together and develop composite measures. In the construction of this new variable, the following variables were subjected to factor analysis process: "Turkey becoming a member of the EU would provide more effective policing strategies"; "EU harmonization projects have improved policing in Turkey"; "EU harmonization projects are compatible with the organizational realities and priorities of the Turkish National Police"; "In the field of policing, EU harmonization projects conjure up human rights issues and an image of Turkish National Police"; "The EU-supported COP project has had a positive impact on policing in Turkey". This questionnaire item or the variables included five response categories according to the Likert scale: Strongly Disagree =1, Disagree =2, Do not know =3, Agree =4 and Strongly Agree =5.

Table 7.6: (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for "Impact of EU"

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.758
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Sig.	0.000

In repeating the process, as before, first factorability of the variables was examined. As can be seen in Table 7.6, the KMO measure is 0.758 which is a very good result and indicates the factorability of the variables. This is proved by Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, which is statistically significant (p=0.000). The significance level indicates that there is no problem with the correlation of the variables and the results confirm the existence of common variance therefore it can be concluded that factor analysis is appropriate for this data.

Table 7.7: Total Variance Explanation of Impact of EU

Component	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	2.899	36.25	36.25
2	1.253	23.06	59.31

As can be seen in Table 7.7, two extracted variables explain 59.31 percent of the total variance. The first factor which is used as an independent variable in the variable 'imp.of.eu.' contributes 36.25 percent of the variance, and hence is the main variable. The factor with the highest eigenvalue (2.899) which comprises five variables (independent variable) is in line with the conceptual framework of the study.

Table 7.8 furthers the analysis by providing the factor analysis results with the factor loadings.

Table 7.8: Factor Analysis: Impact of the EU

Item	Factor Loading
EU harmonization projects are compatible with the organizational realities and priorities of TNP	0.792
EU harmonization projects have improved policing in Turkey	0.789
Turkey becoming a member of the EU would provide more effective policing strategies.	0.778
EU harmonization projects conjure up the human rights issues and image of TNP	0.625
The EU-supported COP project has had a positive impact on policing	0.513

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization,

Furthermore, to ensure the reliability of the data, reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was conducted to see whether these five variables are measuring the same underlying construct, namely 'importance of EU'.

Table 7.9: Cronbach's Alpha Impact of the EU

Cronbach's Alpha	No of items
.772	5

The magnitude of internal consistency in the form of Alpha Coefficient suggested a high level of reliability (alpha coefficient =. 772). These variables were recorded and added with transfer-compute and sum up expressions, which resulted in the creation of a new independent variable 'imp.of,eu'.

7.4.2. Fear of Crime

Fear of crime is the most influential variable for the implementation of the COP program, as this directly appeals to people's sense of security and hence can help with

the acceptance of COP. In this study, 'fear of crime' is calculated according to a Likert type scale: 'Strongly Disagree =1', 'Disagree =2', 'Do not know =3', 'Agree =4' and 'Strongly Agree =5'.

In addition to the above main independent variables, there are also thirteen demographic and organizational variables used as independent variables. These are as follows:

7.5. DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Gender, age, years of experience, job considered specifically COP, months of experience as COP officer, highest level of education and rank.

7.6. ORGANIZATION VARIABLES

Being a volunteer or assigned community police officer, assigned to a particular geographic area or beat, proportion of time spent doing COP or traditional police work, awareness of how this implementation is launched, regional location, department size and city population.

7.7. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND ANALYSIS

After defining the derivation of the dependent and main independent variable using factor analysis technique in the previous section, this part illustrates the descriptive statistics of demographic and organizational variables in detail. Descriptive analysis provides not only useful information on the variables but also enables the researcher to check if the research questions can be explained by the variable. This implies univariate analysis.

As it is highlighted in Chapter 3, the sample of this study consisted of 290 law enforcement officers from 16 cities in Turkey within the COP unit and simple random sampling method was utilized. Thus, the specific pattern of 'effectiveness of COP' implementation was evaluated among the police officers working in COP units. Officers on duty were asked to fill out the questionnaire by themselves and return it to an administration unit for collection. The response rate was 94 % percent.

Table 7.10: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

(Sampled Police Officers)

	N	Percentage
Gender		
Male	265	(95.0)
Female	14	(5.0)
Age		
Up to 25	40	(14.3)
26 to 33	180	(64.5)
34 to 41	55	(19.7)
Over 42	4	(1.4)
Years of experience		
Up to 5 years	49	(17.6)
6 to 10 years	54	(19.4)
11 to 15 years	143	(51.3)
More than 16 years	33	(11.8)
Job considered specifically COP		
Yes	224	(80.3)
No	52	(18.6)
Months of experience as COP officer		
Up to 5 months	20	(7.2)
6 to 10 months	25	(9.0)
11 to 15 months	63	(22.6)
More than 16 months	169	(60.6)
Level of Education		
High school (police school)	63	(22.6)
University degree	216	(77.4)
Rank		
Police officer	277	(99.3)
Supervisor	2	(0.7)

DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAM

	N	Percentage
Type of appointment		
Volunteer	227	(81.4)
Assigned	52	(18.6)
Type of beat		
Particular area	237	(84.9)
Ordinary beat	40	(14.3)
Proportion of your work		
COP	241	(86.4)
Traditional policing	37	(13.3)
Aware of launching COP by EU projects		
Yes	269	(96.4)
No	9	(3.2)

Total number: 279

As can be seen in Table 7.10., 95 percent of the respondents are male police officers, indicating the dominance of males in the police force. In terms of age, 14.3 percent of the respondents are less than 25 years old, and 64.5 percent of them are between 26 to 33 years old, and 19.7 percent are between 34 to 41 ages, finally 1.4 percent are more than 42 years old. Regarding years of experience, 14.3 percent of the respondents have less than five years experience in policing, 19.4 percent have between 6 to 10 years of policing experience, 51.3 percent, which is slightly more than half, have between 11 to 15 years policing experience and 11.8 percent of them have more than 16 years of policing experience.

As also depicted in Table 7.10, the majority of the police officers, 80.3 percent report that their job is considered as specifically COP and 18.6 percent report that their job is not considered as specifically COP. According to the results in terms of experience in months as a COP officers, 7.2 percent have less than five months COP experiences, 9.0 percent have between six to ten months experience of COP, 22.6 percent have between 11 to 15 months of COP experience, and more than half of the officers (60.6 percent) have more than 16 months of COP experience. In addition, rank was also included in the questionnaire; however it was not included in the analysis since only two out of 279 respondents were supervisors; and hence there was not any significant difference in the ranks of the participants.

As regards the education of the sampled police officers, as demonstrated in Table 7.10., 22.6 percent have a (police) high school education and 77.4 percent of them have a university degree.

Concerning the description of the program topic, a large number of the COP officers (81.4 percent) indicated that they volunteered for the program and 18.6 percent of them stated that they were assigned as a COP officer. In addition, 84.9 percent of the COP officers stated that they were assigned for a particular beat while working in the shift and 14.3 percent of them stated that they were assigned for an ordinary beat.

Regarding the proportion of time spent on COP, 86.4 percent of them identified themselves as dealing with COP implementation while on duty and 13.3 percent of them identified themselves as dealing with traditional police work while on duty.

As an important aspect of this study, an inquiry was also made to measure COP officers' perceptions in relation to the inception of the COP in Turkey. The majority of the participants 96.4 percent were aware that the COP program was launched as part of the EU harmonization project titled 'Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the Turkish National Police' while only 3.2 percent of them did not know how it started in Turkey.

Table 7.11: Characteristics of Participating Cities

	N	Percentage
City Size (population)		
Up to 1.000.000	55	(19.7)
1.000.001 to 2.000.000	87	(31.2)
More than 2.000.001	137	(49.1)
Police Department Size (police officers)		
Up to 2000 police officers (Small departments)	33	(11.8)
2001 to 4000 police officers (Medium size police departments)	79	(28.3)
More than 4001 police officers (Large police departments)	167	(59.9)
Region		
Marmara	107	(38.4)
The Mediterranean	56	(20.1)
The Black Sea	10	(3.6)
Central Anatolia	49	(17.6)
East Anatolia	22	(7.9)
South East Anatolia	18	(6.5)
The Aegean region	17	(6.1)
Total number: 279		

In further profiling the data, Table 7.11, depicts the characteristics of cities from which the sample COP officers were taken. It shows the population of the cities in the survey and the size of the departments (number of sworn COP officers) which participated in this survey. In addition, it illustrates the regional distribution of the participants. Almost half of the sampled officers 49.1 percent are based in cities with populations of more than 2.000.000, 31.2 percent from cities with populations of 1.000.001 to 2.000.000, and 19.7 percent are based in cities which are defined as small cities with populations of less than 1,000,000.

According to department size of the COP unit across the cities, 33 COP officers (1.8 percent) who participated in the survey are from small police departments; 28.3 percent are from medium size police departments and 167 officers, *i.e.* more than half of the respondents 59.9 percent were from large police departments.

Concerning geographical region; the highest participation is from Marmara with 107 officers, which comes to 38.4 percent of the sample, as the Marmara region is the most populated in the country. The second highest participation is from the Mediterranean region with 20.1 percent. Other regional participations are as follows: Central Anatolia with 17.6 percent, East Anatolia with 7.9 percent, South East Anatolia with 6.5 percent, the Aegean region with 6.1 percent and the minimum participation was from the Black Sea region with 3.6 percent.

The second part of the survey focused on the perception of COP programs according to the police officers and is made up of 15 questions on a Likert scale question basis. The answers given in this section can be considered as effectiveness of the COP in Turkey. Table 7.12 reports the descriptive statistics.

Table 7.12: Effectiveness of COP

Dimension	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	S.D
Citizen positive towards police	276	1	5	4.52	.657
Agency doing COP all along	276	1	5	4.36	.901
Citizen-police cooperation	276	1	5	4.33	.725
Citizens' attitudes toward police	276	1	5	4.28	.685
Citizens provide information	276	1	5	4.28	.659
Calls for service have increased	276	2	5	4.22	.729
Problems reduced	276	1	5	4.19	.690
Citizen police conflict decreased	276	1	5	4.19	.760
Fear of crime	276	1	5	3.94	.876
Crimes against persons	271	1	5	3.90	1.273
Citizens' efforts increased	276	1	5	3.89	.765
Physical environment improved	276	1	5	3.77	.871
Changes in crime rate	275	1	5	3.59	1.453
Intelligence evaluated by COP off.	276	1	5	3.43	1.290
Perception of non-com.pol.off.	275	1	5	3.03	1.258

The statements in Table 7.12 were developed according to the basic tenets of COP applications in order to measure the perceived effectiveness of the program in Turkey. It can be concluded that a high score of **4.00** and more than **4.00** mean values indicate that police officers support the basic tenets of the programs. However, a mean value of around and lower than **3.00** indicates the officers disagree about the program.

According to the results depicted in Table 7.12, 15 variables, which measure the effectiveness of COP, the higher mean scores mainly, belong to the variables which deal with citizens. As can be seen, the highest mean value is **4.52** for the statement 'Citizen positive towards police'; 'Citizen-police cooperation' variable scored **4.33;** 'Citizens provide information and 'citizens' attitudes toward police' both scored **4.28;** and 'Citizen police conflict decreased' and 'Problems reduced' variables both scored **4.19** mean value**.** In terms of effectiveness of COP, these results are rather encouraging with 'citizen-related variables' scoring the highest mean values. Following citizen's variable other highest mean values in the ranking are: 'Agency doing C.P all along' with mean value of **4.36;** and 'calls for service have increased' scored **4.22** mean value.

Perceptions of the respondents regarding the 'non-com.pol.off' variable scored the lowest mean value of **3.03.** In addition, 'intelligence evaluated by COP' scored **3.43;** 'changes in crime rate' scored **3.59** and 'physical environment improved' scored **3.77.**

The remaining variables scored mean values very close to **4: '**fear of crime' scored **3.94**, 'Crimes against persons' **3.90**, and 'Citizens' efforts increased' **3.89** mean value.

7.7.1. Training

The third part of the survey deals with the level of training for COP. Training is measured by a number of questions covering; training hours provided by the organization, format of the training and who taught the classes. Furthermore, the training period is measured according to 'before assigned as a COP officer' or 'after assigned as a COP officer'. The final part, containing 13 questions related to training programs or subjects, attempted to measure the issues related to training received for COP. It measured how the organization provided intensive and effective training to the special COP officers unit. It is hypothesized that the level of training within police departments is associated with the achievement of the program.

Table 7.13: Descriptive Statistics of Training Variables

	N	Percentage
Training hours (total)		
Up 40 hours	14	(5.0)
41 to 80 hours	207	(74.2)
81 to 120 hours	26	(9.3)
More than 120 hours	10	(3.6)
Missing value	22	(7.9)
Formats of the training*		
Mandatory in-service	113	(40.5)
Basic academy	222	(79.6)
Roll-call training	78	(28.4)
Who taught the classes*?		
Agency trainers	122	(43.7)
Trainers from other agencies	150	(53.8)
Immediate supervisors	211	(75.6)
Experienced police officers	50	(17.9)
Community specialists	152	(54.5)
Others	15	(5.4)
Training before or after assignment		
Before assignment	153	(54.8)
After assignment	110	(39.4)

*Officer attends more than one format
of training classes

According to the training hours; 74 percent of the COP officers received between 41 and 80 hours training. The remaining distribution is as follows: 9.3 percent received between 81 and 120 hours, 5 percent received up to 40 hours and 3.6 percent received more than 120 hours training.

Formats of the training are evaluated under three components: mandatory in-service, basic academy, and roll-call training. These components are measured according to officers' attendance of them. Basic academy is the most attended component since 79.6 percent of the respondents participated in this program while 40.5 percent attended in-service training and 28.4 percent attended roll-call training.

As regards the trainers conducting the training sessions, 75.6 percent indicated that it was their immediate supervisors; 54.5 percent stated that trainers were community specialists; 53.8 percent stated that training was provided by others with close links to the community specialists; 43.7 percent indicated agency trainers. 17.9 percent stated that experienced police officers conducted the training sessions and lastly 5.4 percent cited 'others' as the trainers.

It should also be noted that 54.8 percent of the participants received the initial training before being assigned as COP officers, while 39.4 percent did not receive any training before being assigned as COP officers.

Table 7.14: Descriptive Statistics on the Received Training Programs

Courses	Number taking courses	Percentage
COP philosophy	260	(93.2)
Communication skills	240	(86.0)
Ethics	231	(82.8)
Problem solving	229	(82.1)
Using crime data	220	(78.9)
Crime prevention	217	(77.8)
Citizen involvement programs	213	(76.3)
Local responsibilities in crime prevention	186	(71.5)
Victim rights	187	(67.0)
Cultural diversity	185	(66.3)
Communication with local authorities	177	(63.4)
Time management	174	(62.4)
Others	37	(13.3)

As can be seen in Table 7.14, 93 percent of the participating officers took part in the 'COP philosophy' program and 86 percent participated in 'communication skills program'. These are followed in ranking by 'ethics', 'problem solving' and 'using crime data' programs. The least attended programs were 'time management' with 62.4

percent, 'communication with local authorities', 63.4 percent, 'local responsibilities in crime prevention' with 71.5 percent and 'victim rights' with 67.0 percent.

The fourth part of the data consists of seven questions dealing with EU policing implementations and their effect on the Turkish National Police. Some questions highlight the importance of EU harmonization projects conducted by the Turkish National Police, including 'implementation of COP in Turkey', and perception of their possible outcomes on the police organization. In this section, seven questions were asked on the Likert scale question basis, and the descriptive results of these are reported in Table 7.15.

Table 7.15: Impact of EU

Dimension	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D
Becoming a member of EU provided effective policing	269	1	5	4.28	.893
COP projects transforms TNP	269	1	5	4.19	.760
COP projects improved policing in Turkey	269	1	5	4.06	.935
EU projects improved policing	269	1	5	4.04	.976
COP projects provide positive perception	269	1	5	4.04	.843
EU projects conjure up the human rights and image of TNP	269	1	5	3.68	1.008
EU projects compatible with TNP priorities	269	1	5	3.46	1.156

Turkey is going through a profound change on its way to becoming a member of the EU and policing issues are particularly significant in the changing nature of the country. Therefore, in order to reflect on the accession process and its impact on the TNP, these seven statements, as depicted in Table 7.15, aim to measure the perceived impact of the EU programs in Turkey. It can be concluded that a mean value of more than 4 indicates that police officers favour the application of the EU programs; however mean values of around and lower than 3 indicate that officers disagree about the impact of the program.

According to the results depicted in Table 7.15, the highest mean, **4.28**, is scored by the statement 'becoming a member of EU provide effective policing', which is followed by 'COP projects transforms TNP' with a mean value of **4.19**; 'COP projects improved policing in Turkey' with a mean value of **4.06**; 'COP projects provide positive perception' and 'EU projects improved policing variables' both scored the same mean value of **4.04**. It can therefore be concluded that in relation to these five statements, participating COP officers have a positive attitude towards the EU process in terms of its positive impact on the values and system. The remaining variables, which have mean values of lower than 4 are: 'EU projects conjure up human rights and image of TNP' with a mean value of **3.68;** and 'EU projects compatible with TNP priorities' scored a mean value of **3.46.** It should be noted that this indicates a paradox; as the participating COP officers, while they are supportive of the EU process and its impact on the TNP and policing in general, when it comes to political aspects of the country and the value systems of the TNP they do not show the same positive or supporting attitudes towards the consequences of the process. Thus, in relation to the impact of the EU on the working mechanism of the TNP participants expressed support; however, when it comes to the traditional values of the TNP they are not necessarily supportive of the EU process.

7.8. CONCLUSION

This chapter endeavoured to explain how the dependent and independent variables were constructed. In addition, it has illustrated the central importance of descriptive statistics of demographic and organizational variables in detail, which not only provides useful information on the variables but also enables the researcher to check whether the research questions can be explained by the available variables.

In the next chapter, regression analysis is utilised to locate the determinants of the effective COP in Turkey nationwide.

CHAPTER 8:

LOCATING THE DETERMINANTS OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY POLICING IN TURKEY: REGRESSION ANALYSIS

8.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this research is to examine the perceived effectiveness of COP at individual level and to discover the determining demographic and experiential variables along which levels of effectiveness of COP may be expected according to the opinions of the police officers on the ground.

To reiterate, the current study is based on a survey consisting of 290 law enforcement community police officers from 16 cities across Turkey. Therefore, the descriptive statistics and their results have been evaluated using bi-variate analysis in the previous chapter. In this chapter, regression analysis is utilised to examine police officers' perceptions in determining the significant variables on the effectiveness of COP nationwide.

8.2. DEFINING THE MODEL

It should be noted that regression analysis is a statistical tool, which was invented by Sir Francis Galton in 1889 while examining the relationship between body size of fathers and sons. According to his results, the size of the son regresses towards the mean. Thus, he called his method regression (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989; Gujarati, 2003).

In common definition, multiple regression evaluates the contributions of each independent variable to explain the variation that has taken place in the dependent variable, and it deals with numerous variables while taking into account (or controlling for) the effects of each of the other independent variables (Mosteller and Tukey, 1977; Neter *et.al*, 1985; Rabe *et al*., 2007). It is commonly known that regression is a powerful tool for summarizing the nature of the relationship between

variables and for making predictions of likely values of the dependent variable (Bryman and Cramer, 1999, pp.191-192).

The dependent variable in this study is the 'perceived effectiveness of COP', which is developed by using factor analysis in creating a strong dependent variable and its ordinal by ranking from 1 to 5. Ordinal ranking scale is quite good for measuring a dependent variable.

As regards the independent variables in this study, the following variables have been selected: 'EU effects'; 'fear of crime'; 'education'; 'years of experience'; 'age'; 'considered specifically COP'; 'volunteer or assigned'; 'particular geographical area or beat'; 'the role of the COP in overall policing' measured as the 'Proportion of COP/Traditional Policing', 'hours of training' measured on interval scales, ordinal scales and with dummy variables.

Regression analysis is expressed through a particular form, which is as follows:

$$y = a \mp \beta_1 x_1 \mp \beta_2 x_2 \mp \beta_3 x_3 \mp ... \mp \beta_n x_n \qquad (1)$$

Where;

Y = the dependent variable;

X = the predictor variable;

a = the intercept, or the value of Y when X is zero

β = the slope, or the value that Y will change by if X changes by 1 unit (Muijs, 2004 p.162).

In the equation 1, β value represents the standardized partial regression coefficient and tells us the mean change in the response variable and its increases by one unit while all other variables hold constant. It is known as a beta (β) coefficient (Rabe *et. al.*, 2007; Muijs, 2004). Mainly, the β value is a measure of how strongly each independent variable influences the dependent variable. β coefficients vary between a lower value of -1.0 and an upper limit of $+1.0$, with the valence indicating the direction of the relationship between the focal independent variable and the dependent variable (Brace *et al.,* 2002).

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The second important indicator for successful regression measurement is the goodness-of-fit measure, namely R^2, which measures the correlation between the observed value and the predicted value of the criterion variable. R^2 is the square of R and symbolizes the portion of the total variance of the response variable that is explained by the explanatory variables (Muijs, 2004; Rabe *et al.,* 2007). The value of R^2 varies between 0 (no variance explained) and 1.0 (100% of the variance explained) (Neter *et al.,* 1985; Rabe *et al.,* 2007). R^2 value gives the most useful measure of the success of the model by explaining the total variation observed in the dependent variable, however sometimes it is corrupted by additional but unnecessary variables to show a higher R^2 value which is not theoretically compatible with the significance of the study (Brace *et al.*, 2002).

Some potential problems may be encountered during regression analysis such as multicolinearity and heteroskedasticity. Simply defined, collinearity means that regressors are highly correlated and detected between two or more independent variables. Moreover, strong linear dependence can also lead to collinearity problems, which impede the contribution of each independent variable to the model. It is assessed by the variance inflation factors (VIF) for each of the explanatory variables. These are shown as:

$$VIF(x_i) = \frac{1}{1 - R^2}$$

Where VIF (x_i) is the variance inflation factor for explanatory variable x_i and R^2 is the square of the multiple correlation coefficients obtained from regressing x_i on the remaining explanatory variables (Brace *et al*., 2002; Rabe *et al*., 2007). Chatterjee *et al.* (2006) mention the following rules to identify collinearity problems: values larger than 10 give evidence of collinearity and a mean of the VIF factors considerably larger than one indicates collinearity.

In the first run of regression analysis, a serious problem was detected. Dummy variables, created to represent the region where the participating police officers work, are highly correlated both with each other and with other independent variables. Thus, multicolinearity and heteroskedasticity problems were seen to exist.

As a solution two models were created to obtain statistically significant and logical results. The first model attempted to measure 'Regression Analysis of Effectiveness of COP by main independents and individual level predictors'. The second model measured 'Regression Analysis of Effectiveness of COP on Organizational Level Predictors'.

After dividing independent variables into two groups according to their types, the first model was run using multiple regression analysis. However, high correlation was detected between the 'months of experience of COP' and 'years of experience in policing' variables. It was also impossible to estimate their individual regression coefficients reliably, as they have the same information and explain the same part of the variation in the dependent variable. Thus, the 'months of experience' variable was dropped from the model due to information provided from the theoretical basis.

In the second run of the model, it is seen that, the distributions of the variables are normal and the relationships between the dependent variable and the independent variables are linear according to scatter-plot matrix. Variables are also checked for multicollinearity and heteroskedasticity.

Table 8.1: Collinearity Statistics of model I

Predictors	Tolerance	VIF
EU Effects	.931	1.074
Fear of crime	.903	1.107
Hours of Training	.966	1.035
Education	.963	1.039
Years of experience	.451	2.225
Age	.446	2.240
Volunteer or assigned	.890	1.124
Particular area or beat	.904	1.106
COP/Trad.Pol	.859	1.165

As can be seen from Table 8.1 there is no multicolinearity problem detected in the equation. In addition, two variables were not included in the equation. These were: 'gender' and 'rank'.

Regarding the 'gender' variable, 265 of the respondents 95 percent were male police officers, and just 14 of them 5 percent were female officers, which is not sufficient to get logical results from this variable. In addition, the 'rank' variable, which is expected to measure the acceptance of COP at the different rank levels, was not included in the equation either, because although 279 respondents completed the questionnaire 277 of them 99.3 percent were police officers and only two of them 0.7 percent were superiors.

8.3. RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS

After checking whether both the dependent and independent variables were appropriate for regression analysis, Table 8.2 presents the results obtained from the 'analysis of effectiveness of COP using the main independent and individual level predictors.

Table 8.2: Regression Analysis of Effectiveness of COP by (main independent and individual level predictors)

Variables	Coefficient	Stand. Error	Signf.
Main Independent			
EU effects	.364	.073	.000
Fear of crime	2.717	.297	.000
Training hours	.007	.008	.334
Individual Level			
Age	-.020	.115	.860
Education	.890	.614	.048
Years of experience	.189	.112	.027
Volunteer/ Assigned	1.755	.741	.019
Particular/Random Beat	1.392	.750	.065
Considered COP	1.692	.843	.046
	22.218	3.520	.000
Constant			
Adjusted R- square	.478		

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Regression analysis is used to define the relationships between dependent and independent variables. Hence, Table 8.2. provides statistical analysis of nine predictors: 'EU effects', 'fear of crime', 'training hours', 'age', 'education', 'years of experience', 'volunteer or assigned', 'particular or random beat', 'proportion of COP to traditional policing.' In the equation, the β coefficients not only describe the relationship of each independent variable with dependent variable but also show the direction of the relationship - whether it is positive or negative. Standard errors tell us the sampling distribution of a statistic and also illustrate how much sampling fluctuation occurred.

The adjusted R^2 provides us with the scale of variance explained by regressors on the dependent variable. Thus, it can be concluded that adjusted R^2 value of the equation is **.478** which is **48** percent which implies that the model has a moderate level of a good fit to data.

According to the results:

EU variable has **.364** coefficient value and is also statistically significant **(p=0.000).**

Fear of crime coefficient value of (**2.717**) and is statistically significant (**p = 0.000**).

Training hours is not statistically significant at **p = .334, which is** higher than 0.005.

Age with **p = .860** is also not statistically significant.

Years *of* experience has coefficient value of **.189, and** is statistically significant at **p=0.27**.

Education has a coefficient value of **.890**, and is statistically significant at **p=0.48**.

Volunteer or Assigned variable has the coefficient value of **.1755** and is also statistically significant **at p=0.19**.

Particular or Random Beat has the coefficient value of **1.392;** however it has slightly higher than 0.005 significance value at **.065**, so it is not statistically significant.

Proportion of COP to Traditional Policing variable has the coefficient value of **.1692** and is also statistically significant **at p=0.46**.

According to the results obtained, six variables are statistically significant. These variables are: 'EU', 'fear of crime', 'years of experience', 'volunteer or assigned', 'education' and 'proportion of COP to traditional policing ', which have effects on the dependent variable, while the other three variables are not statistically significant 'training hours' 'age' and' particular or random beat' and have no significant effect on the dependent variable.

In addition to the results shown in Table 8.3.1, the following equation shows the relationship between the dependent and independent variables in an equation.

EFF.COP Predicted = *22.218 + (.890) Education + (0.189) Years of Exp.+ -(.020) age + (1.812) Considered cop +(1.755) Volunteer/assigned + (-1.392) Particular or random beat +1.692 (Cop or Trad.pol)+ (Fear of crime)2.717+ .364 (Eff. of EU) +(0.007) Training hours*

(2)

Unlike the tables, this equation shows us the results in a different way. These estimates show the amount of increase in Effectiveness of COP scores (EFF.COP) that would be predicted by a 1 unit increase in the predictor which means all the other independent variables remain constant.

Taking the education variable as an example, it would mean that for one unit increase in EFF.COP, education would increase by .890 units while all other independent variables would hold constant.

In the second model, regression analysis of 'effectiveness of COP on organizational level predictors' is measured. The main aim of this model is to check the acceptance of COP applications in each region. In addition, organizational variables are tested to see their influence on the dependent variable. In doing so, dependent and independent variables are checked to establish whether they are appropriate for regression analysis. It should be noted that the process indicated no problem.

The initial results from collinearity statistics of the second model are presented in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3: Collinearity Statistics of Model II

Predictors	Tolerance	VIF
City Size (population)	.652	1.620
Department size	.637	1.569
The Black Sea	.828	1.208
Central Anatolia	.891	1.122
East Anatolia	.611	1.638
Southeast Anatolia	.825	1.211
The Aegean	.848	1.180
The Mediterranean	.910	1.099

As can be seen from Table 8.3., for nominal independent variables, like *Region* variable, which is represented on two levels, it is better to create multiple different dummy variables. The simple formula of creating a dummy variable is *k-1,* where k is the number of levels for the variable, implying that 1 is less than the original variable. In our data set, region has seven sub-categories. Consequently, we will have **7-1= 6** dummy variables.

In this respect, six dummy variables were created. These are: 'the Mediterranean', 'the Black Sea', 'Central Anatolia', 'East Anatolia', 'Southeast Anatolia', and 'the Aegean region'. Each region is coded with 1 and 0 depending on where the respondents are from. It should be noted that by definition, Marmara Region is excluded as a reference variable. This is because it is very common to exclude the biggest group in the variable; and since Marmara is the biggest region, it was excluded to observe the differences in other groups.

Table 8.4 depicts the results obtained from the Analysis of Effectiveness of COP by Organizational Level Predictors.

Table 8.4: Model II Regression Analysis of Effectiveness of COP on Organizational Level Predictors

Variables	Coefficient	Stand. Error	Signf.
Independent			
City Size (population)	-1.236	.568	.030
Department size	.607	1.201	.238
Regions			
The Black Sea	4.109	1.781	.022
Central Anatolia	.407	1.407	.074
East Anatolia	3.920	1.401	.006
Southeast Anatolia	.390	1.382	.778
The Aegean	3.192	1.370	.021
The Mediterranean	-.057	886	.949

As can be seen in Table 8.4, four variables were statistically significant which implies having significant impact on the dependent variable. The other four variables are not statistically significant and hence they do not have any significant effect on the dependent variable. These variables are listed below with their statistical values:

City Size has **-1.236** coefficient value and is statistically significant **(p=0.30).**

Department size is **.607**, however, it is not statistically significant **(p = .238).**

The Black Sea is statistically significant **(p=.022)** higher than 0.005 and it has **4.109** coefficient value.

East Anatolia is also significant **(p=.006)** and its coefficient value is **(3.920).**

Central Anatolia is not statistically significant with a value of **p=.074.**

Southeast Anatolia is also not statistically significant with a value of **p=.778.**

The Aegean is statistically significant **(p=0.21)** and has **3.192** coefficient value.

The final variable, *the Mediterranean*, does not have significant value **(p=.949)**.

8.4. CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides an account of and the reasons for the use of regression analysis and their appropriateness to this study. Two models have been established according to variables types to cover every aspect of COP implementation in Turkey.

The first model aims to establish the effectiveness of COP with nine individual level variables to show which one has a significant effect on the dependent variable. In addition, the second model tries to determine the acceptance of COP applications in regional locations and organizational variables were also tested to see their influences on the dependent variable.

In the first model six variables have a significant relationship with the dependent variable while the other three variables are not statistically significant and no significant effect on the dependent variable is seen. In this model, contrary to expectations the most interesting findings were that 'Particular Beat' and 'Training Hours' are not statistically significant to the effectiveness of COP.

In the second model, four variables were reported as statistically significant which means they have a significant impact on the dependent variable and the other four variables are not statistically significant.

Consequently, the findings and their implications will be evaluated in the next chapter with the established hypothesis.

CHAPTER 9:

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the results reported in the previous chapters. The aim of the collected data was to test a number of hypotheses derived from the research questions with the objective of accepting or rejecting the perceptions of COP officers toward this new way of policing in Turkey. In this respect, the key findings are examined according to the four research questions and twelve hypotheses and the analysis is provided in the following sections.

9.2. TESTING THE HYPOTHESES AND REFLECTING ON THE FINDINGS

The aim of this section is to interpret the results of the study through the research questions developed in the first chapter, for which some of the research questions are discussed through the hypotheses developed in the research process.

9.2.1. Factors Contributing to the Implementation of COP in Turkey

The third research question, namely 'What elements help to facilitate the implementation of the COP program in Turkey?' is aimed at locating the factors facilitating the implementation of the COP programme.

This research question was examined in Chapter 5 by addressing the history of the TNP, its functions, duties and education system, highlighting the needs for change in the TNP, particularly focusing on COP implementation. In addition, in the innovation theory chapter, 'Organizational Commitment' and 'Governmental Commitment' factors provide social, political and economic rationale for the implementation of COP effectively nationwide. The significance of these factors is also shown in the empirical findings established in Chapters 7 and 8.

9.2.2. EU Accession Process and the Implementation of COP in Turkey

The impact of the EU accession process on Turkey's implementation of the COP is also investigated in this study. For this, Research Question 4 was developed as presented in Chapter 1: 'To what extent do aspirations towards joining the European Union motivate the efficient implementation of community policing practices in Turkey?'

This research question was addressed in Chapter 6 'Turkey's EU Accession Process and its Impact on TNP'. Chapter 6 aims to provide a contextualization of the research by presenting the developments in EU institutionalization in general and also developments in Turkey's relations with the EU and the EU accession process and highlights the adaptation process of the TNP in preparation for EU membership. One part of the data, which consists of seven questions dealing with European Union harmonization projects and their effect on the Turkish National Police, examines laws and the amendments to those laws. In addition a brief summary is provided of reforms and harmonization passed by the TGNA in general. It should be noted that such discursive findings support the position that the EU accession process should be considered an important factor in the emergence and expansion of COP in Turkey.

Moreover, in responding to this research question, in the empirical analysis an independent variable was constructed using factor analysis: 'Importance of the European Union', which consists of five variables. The construction of the variable is detailed in Table 7.6: (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for 'Impact of EU', Table 7.7: Total variance explanation of 'Impact of EU' and Table: 7.8. Factor Analysis: 'Impact of the EU'.

It should be noted that using confirmatory factor analysis is very common in police studies, particularly for creating new variables which are meaningful theoretically (King 1998; Maguire 2003). Furthermore, a hypothesis was created to measure the effect of this new variable related to the EU membership on a dependent variable. Therefore, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_{01}. *Implementation of the European Union accession process and policies will be positively related to the effectiveness of the COP program.*

According to the results obtained from the regression analysis of Model 1, as depicted in Table 8.2, it can be clearly concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between implementation of EU and effectiveness of the COP program which has .364 coefficient value and is also statistically significant at (p=0.000) level. Therefore, the results of the testing of this hypothesis support the idea that the EU accession process is positively related to the effectiveness of the COP program in Turkey.

As was evaluated in detail in the EU-related chapters, the EU membership process will change the environment of the country, particularly in the fields of justice, security and human rights. Therefore, COP officers strongly agreed that pursuing membership will provide effective policing opportunities and they are aware that the COP program started as an EU project in Turkey.

9.2.3. Police Officers' Perceptions of COP

As police officers are the main participants in the COP, their perception and acceptance is crucial for the efficient implementation of the programme. Therefore, Research Question 1 (What is the nature of the perceptions of police officers toward community policing?) is aimed at measuring and revealing their perceptions.

This research question particularly focuses on the 'effectiveness of COP according to police officers' perceptions in Turkey' which is the main theme of this study. Therefore, eight hypotheses were created to measure the individual level and to discover the determining demographic and experiential variables along which levels of effectiveness of COP may be expected according to the opinions of the police officers on the ground.

H_{02}: There is a positive relationship between reducing fear of crime and effectiveness of community policing in Turkey.

The findings in the regression analysis of Model 1 in Table 8.2 demonstrate that the null hypothesis is accepted and the alternative hypothesis is rejected, since it has a significant value at p=0.000 level and also has 2.717 coefficient value. The results of this hypothesis show that there is a strong positive relationship between fear of crime and effectiveness of COP in Turkey.

The findings in this hypothesis have been validated by previous studies which show that COP implementations have a significant impact on reducing the fear of crime (Mastrofski, and Greene, 1993; Skogan 1994; Skogan and Hartnett 1997; Reisig *et al*, 2004). In addition, a review by Sadd and Grinc (1994) found that the police were more likely to believe that the COP programme had reduced fear of crime in the target areas than residents.

H_{03}: Officers with higher education levels are more likely to have a positive perception (acceptance) of the effectiveness of community policing than other officers.

In responding to this hypothesis, the results of the regression analysis of Model 1 in Table 8.2 show that officers with higher education levels are more likely to have a positive perception of the effectiveness of COP than other officers. The education variable has a significant value at p=0.048 level and also has a .890 coefficient value. This means that as education level increases the effectiveness of COP activities increases. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that education develops officers' capacity and perception to adopt COP (Trojanowicz *et al*., 2002), which could explain why higher education can result in higher level of acceptance.

H_{04}: There is a significant relationship between the age of officers and the positive perception (acceptance) of community policing.

The regression analysis Table 8.2 suggests that the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. The significance level p=.860 is higher than the critical value of 0.05, implying that this variable is not statistically significant.

This study result reveals that young police officers may think that COP is not a real policing job. They would prefer to work in other units such as terrorism, organised crime and intelligence departments.

H_{05}: Individual training hours are positively related to effectiveness of community policing.

Contrary to expectations, this hypothesis did not find a significant relationship between hours of training and effectiveness of COP. Therefore the regression analysis

in Table 8.2 shows that the Training Hours variable's significance level (p= .334) is not statistically significant.

Training in COP is provided by agency trainers (sworn officers); trainers from other agencies; experienced police officers; immediate supervisors and community specialists. It is understood that there are some deficiencies in terms of developing COP programs compatible with the core principles and strategies of COP which provide the necessary motivation for effective program performance. It should also be noted that the chosen trainers must be experts in their areas.

H_{06}: *Volunteer officers have higher levels of positive COP perception (acceptance) than assigned officers.*

Consistent with findings of the regression analysis in Table 8.2 the study found that those who volunteer for COP activities are more likely to perceive a positive relationship than the officers who are assigned as COP officers. This variable is statistically significant at p=0.019 level with the coefficient value of 1.755.

The present findings seem to be consistent with the research of Sadd and Grinc (1996) and Skogan (2004) as they also found that COP units are dominated by, usually volunteer, special units, therefore officers enjoy the status of being in these units.

H_{07}: *Experienced officers have higher levels of positive COP perception (acceptance) than junior officers.*

The regression analysis shown in Table 8.2 indicates that experienced officers will have higher levels of COP acceptance than junior officers. The coefficient value is .189 and it is statistically significant at p=0.027).

The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Lurigio and Skogan (1994) who also found that officers in their 50s were more favourable than officers in their 40s, 30s and 20s and this continued accordingly.

H_{08}: *Officers patrolling in a permanent area have higher levels of positive COP perception (acceptance) than officers patrolling in a random area.*

In responding to this hypothesis, the results of the regression analysis of Model 1 shown in Table 8.2 indicate that officers patrolling in a permanent area are more likely to have positive perceptions of effectiveness of COP than those patrolling in a random area. This variable has a statistically significant value at p=0.032 level with the coefficient value of 1.392.

This is in agreement with Cardarelli *et al.*'s (1998) findings which also showed that permanent beat is a key indicator showing the applicability of the COP program in the departments. In addition, from police officers' perspectives, they are able to detect the problems which occur on their beat quickly and find appropriate solutions before coming across the same problem again.

H_{09}: *Officers who consider their job as COP work have higher levels of positive perception (acceptance) of the effectiveness of COP than officers who consider their job as traditional policing work.*

The regression analysis results depicted of Model 1 in Table 8.2 indicate that officers who consider their job as COP work are more likely to have a positive perception of the effectiveness of COP than those who consider their job as traditional policing work. This variable has a statistically significant value at p=0.046 level with the coefficient value of 1.692 indicating the explanatory strength of the variable.

This expected result may be explained by the fact that COP officers volunteer to serve for this program and they are also aware of the strategy and philosophy of the program which makes them more compatible with the practice and implementation.

9.2.4. The Impact of Organisational Level on the Effectiveness of COP

In addition to some of the external factors, such as the EU process, internal organisational structure also has an impact on the effectiveness of COP. For this reason Research Question 2 (How is organizational structure related to effectiveness of community policing?) was developed with the objective of determining the impact of organisational level on the effectiveness of COP.

Organizational structure is defined according to the population of the cities, the size of the departments (number of sworn COP officers) and regional participation in the

study. Consequently, an additional model was formulated to check regional and organizational differences to see their influences on the dependent variable. To operationalize, the following hypotheses were developed:

H_{010}: *There is a positive relationship between department size and the effectiveness of COP.*

This study did not find any significant relationship between department size and effectiveness of COP. Therefore the regression analysis results in Table 8.4 show that the Size of Department variable's significance level (p= .238) is not statistically significant. Therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted, implying that there is no positive relationship between these two variables.

Limited and bi-directional previous results are available regarding department size and the effectiveness of COP. In this study, there is no significant relationship detected.

H_{011}: *There is no relationship between regional locations and the effectiveness of COP.*

As previously mentioned, six geographical regions are covered in this study. Looking at the impact of region on the effectiveness of COP, three regions were found to be significant and the other three regions showed no significant relationship with dependent variable.

The Black Sea region with p=.022, the East Anatolia region with p=.006, and the Aegean region with p=.02 emerged as the statistically significant variables. However, the South East Anatolia region (with p=.778), the Central Anatolia region (with p=.074) and the Mediterranean region (with p=.949) values do not have a significant relationship with the effectiveness of COP.

This means that officers working in the East Anatolia region, the Black Sea region, and the Aegean region are more likely to have a positive perception of the effectiveness of COP than those who work in the South East Anatolia region, the Central Anatolia region, and the Mediterranean region. This result supports the theory that there is no relationship between the locations of the regions and effectiveness of COP, since the

Black Sea region is located in the north, the Aegean region is located in the west, and the East Anatolia region is located in the eastern part of Turkey, thus displaying no general pattern.

In general, therefore, it seems that the COP program has been embraced by different regions of Turkey and regional differences have no great impact on the program. These results are also consistent with those of Zhao (1996) which found no differences by region in terms of external change toward COP.

H_{012}: *There is a positive relationship between city size (population) and the effectiveness of COP.*

In responding to this hypothesis, the results in model 2 regression analysis in Table 8.4 indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between city size and the effectiveness of COP, at p=.03 level. However, the nature of the relationship is not positive as the coefficient value is -1.236. This implies that officers working in small cities are more likely to have a positive perception of effectiveness of COP than those who work in large cities.

In reviewing the literature, there is no consistent result available between city size (population) and the effectiveness of COP. In fact, this relationship was investigated in depth by King (1998) on 432 of the largest U.S police agencies and no association was detected.

9.3. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

After the hypothesis testing stage, the main key findings are stated in this section, as follows: A major contribution of the research finding is that COP officers strongly support the program and they have positive perceptions of it. Considering these results, it would be possible to extend the implementation of COP-related programs in the coming years. Thus, this research will serve as a basis for future studies and concentrate on further effective COP initiatives.

With regards general positive perception of COP program by officers, the current research also contributes to the theoretical and conceptual framework of the innovation theory applied on the TNP. The conceptual framework constructed under

the main pillar of innovation theory indicates that, enough support is provided by both GDTNP and the MoI. In addition, theoretical findings suggest a role for 'Political Commitment' in terms of promoting 'local support' and 'incentives' to better implementation of COP nationwide.

The present study also provides additional evidence with respect to Turkey's EU membership. The majority of the participating COP officers are in support of the EU process while just one variable "EU projects compatible with TNP priorities" scored a very low value which indicates that COP officers generally expressed their support of the EU process however they do not fully agree that these projects reflect TNP priorities. Since these projects have been prepared without considering the real needs of police organization in Turkey, they primarily concern the EU's political concerns.

Taken together, the findings of this study identified the perception of police officers of this new way of policing, namely, "COP", in the changing environment of Turkey, particularly in the police organization, through possible EU membership.

9.4. REFLECTING ON THE VALIDITY OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In addition to the research questions and hypotheses, a conceptual model has been constructed to demonstrate the dimensions and activities of the structural changes taking place in TNP with the innovation theory's main principles. Therefore, the design of this study is also guided by relevant knowledge from innovation theory which is consistently compatible with the variables used in the empirical section.

Innovation theory aims to establish a conceptual theoretical framework by addressing the roles of 'individual', 'organizational' and 'governmental' factors to support the above research questions and hypotheses and to make them theoretically meaningful. As the findings of this research indicate, innovation theory is used to explain the transformation that has taken place in TNP in its evolvement towards COP. Thus, this research provides a number of theoretical contributions and practical applications of the innovation theory.

It can, therefore, be concluded that the primary emphasis of 'individual commitment' is to highlight the following variables: 'volunteering'; 'age'; 'education' and 'discretion', in order to answer Research Question 1: ('What is the nature of the perceptions of officers toward community policing') and relevant hypotheses.

The other parameter, 'organizational commitment', which focuses on 'training' 'media', 'support of the chief' and 'more police officers', responds to the 'organisational commitment' aspect of the innovation theory and Research Question 3 ('What elements help to facilitate the implementation of the community policing program in Turkey') and relevant hypotheses.

The final parameter of the innovation theory, namely 'governmental commitment', is responded to through the variables generated by Research Question 4 ('To what extent do aspirations towards joining the European Union motivate the efficient implementation of community policing practices in Turkey') and Research Question 2 ('How is organizational structure related to effectiveness of community policing') and the relevant hypotheses. Consequently, variables such as 'collective decision'; 'local support'; 'regulations' and 'incentives' explain how important it is to establish a new idea in an organization. With this, the third aspect of the innovation theory is also validated by this study.

In concluding, it can be argued using the empirical evidence that innovation theory can be utilised to render a theoretical meaning to the findings of this study. Thus, this study also validates the usefulness of a particular theory, namely innovation theory. In doing so, while on the one hand this study benefits from innovation theory, on the other hand it also provides an opportunity for the innovation theory to be tested and validated, thereby contributing to the literature.

9.5. POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has produced significant findings in its attempt to locate important factors determining the effective implementation of COP in Turkey. The findings are expected to shed further light on policy dimensions of the COP programme in the country, but could also help to shape the future directions related to COP. Thus,

based on the results, the following recommendations are offered for the policy makers and technocrats:

i. COP should be embraced from the bottom and at administrative level in the TNP organisation.

ii. More female police officers should be hired to identify the concerns of women in the community.

iii. Trainers should be chosen from experts in their areas who have complete knowledge of the core principles of the COP program.

iv. Training programs should be provided to other officers to raise the awareness and importance of the COP program.

v. The skills of COP officers should be better utilized for Community Development initiatives to provide strong, permanent relationships.

vi. COP strategies should be expanded and updated regularly to respond to the needs of citizens effectively.

vii. Community leaders, businessman, and other agency executives should be identified to obtain their support for the COP program.

viii. A public awareness programme should be undertaken to increase the impact of COP programme.

9.6. FUTURE RESEARCH

Given the fact that Turkey lacks research in this field, this study has aimed to provide useful information to policy makers, particularly TNP supervisors. The findings of this study have a number of important implications for future developments. The most important ones are listed as follows:

First, further work needs to be done to see the organizational effectiveness of COP in Turkey, since this study has primarily focused on the individual effectiveness of COP rather than organizational effectiveness. Therefore, police administrators' perceptions and acceptance of COP implementation is crucial.

Secondly, future research should address fully the perceptions and acceptance of COP implementation of female officers, implying that gender should be considered as an important variable. In addition, the results of the current research do not reveal the

female officers' views clearly due to the fact that male respondents seem to be heavily dominant in this research. Therefore, future research should aim also to address other police officers and female police officers' perceptions of the COP program which would provide a more representative sample. Thus, further studies, which take these variables into account, will need to be undertaken.

Thirdly, whilst this study has confirmed that COP officers have positive perceptions of the program, further experimental investigations need to be undertaken with citizens to identify their satisfaction and views on the program, as this is an essential part of the entire process.

Fourthly, in addition to demographic variables considered in this study, such as age, educational level, rank, and years of experience, other factors have to be taken into account in analysing the effectiveness of COP, such as 'officers prejudices' and 'cultural beliefs'. Therefore, further research might explore the existing police culture in TNP and its effects both on police officers and the COP program. It would be essential to investigate the effects of cultural beliefs and officers' prejudices for the long-term successful implementation of the COP program in Turkey.

9.7. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Similar to any other study or research, this research faced certain limitations both theoretically and empirically.

From the theoretical viewpoint, innovation theory does not explain all aspects of the COP program and also does not provide explanations for organizational and environmental factors which influence the success of the program. Consequently, there is a need to expand the dimensions of the innovation theory to provide a further dynamic model to internalise the omitted variables into equation.

From the empirical standpoint, no such empirical study has been conducted previously nationwide in Turkey. Therefore, in its conceptualisation, this study heavily benefited from the US- and EU-originated COP studies. In addition, due to limitation of the data set, COP has not been measured adequately. This study has only focused on individual perceptions and acceptance. However, COP has different

characteristics such as; partnership with community, decentralization, and crime prevention.

Lastly, it should be noted that the lack of national level data imposed limitations on this study. However, it is still believed that these limitations have not had a great impact on the results of this study, but may be considered important in verifying those results.

9.8. EPILOGUE

The aim of this research has been to identify the effectiveness of COP according to police officers' perceptions in Turkey through theoretical and empirical components. Thus, the main objective of the study was to examine the perceived effectiveness of COP at individual level and discover selected variables along which levels of effectiveness COP may be expected in the police departments.

From a theoretical perspective, innovation theory is considered to be an appropriate tool for the examination of COP and is therefore explored in detail. In examining the innovation theory, 'Organizational Commitment', 'Governmental Commitment' and, in particular, 'Individual Commitment', i.e. officers' perceptions and acceptance, are considered as components of the innovation theory. Therefore, a conceptual framework is established to determine how innovation theory can help us in terms of theorizing the implementation of COP ideas, principles, and values in TNP, and how TNP is appropriate as a possible alternative to the existing policing in Turkey.

From an empirical perspective, data was collected from 16 cities of the seven regions of Turkey with the aim of measuring the effectiveness of COP implementation, which has been implemented since 2005. Thus, by means of a questionnaire this research aimed to collect a large amount of information about the perceptions of police officers regarding this new way of policing. The sample size in this study, hence, consisted of 290 law enforcement officers participating from 16 cities in Turkey with the aim of collecting data from COP units of the TNP.

It can, thus, be concluded that this study has achieved its aims and fulfilled its objectives.

APPENDIXES

Appendix A: Organizational Chart of TNP
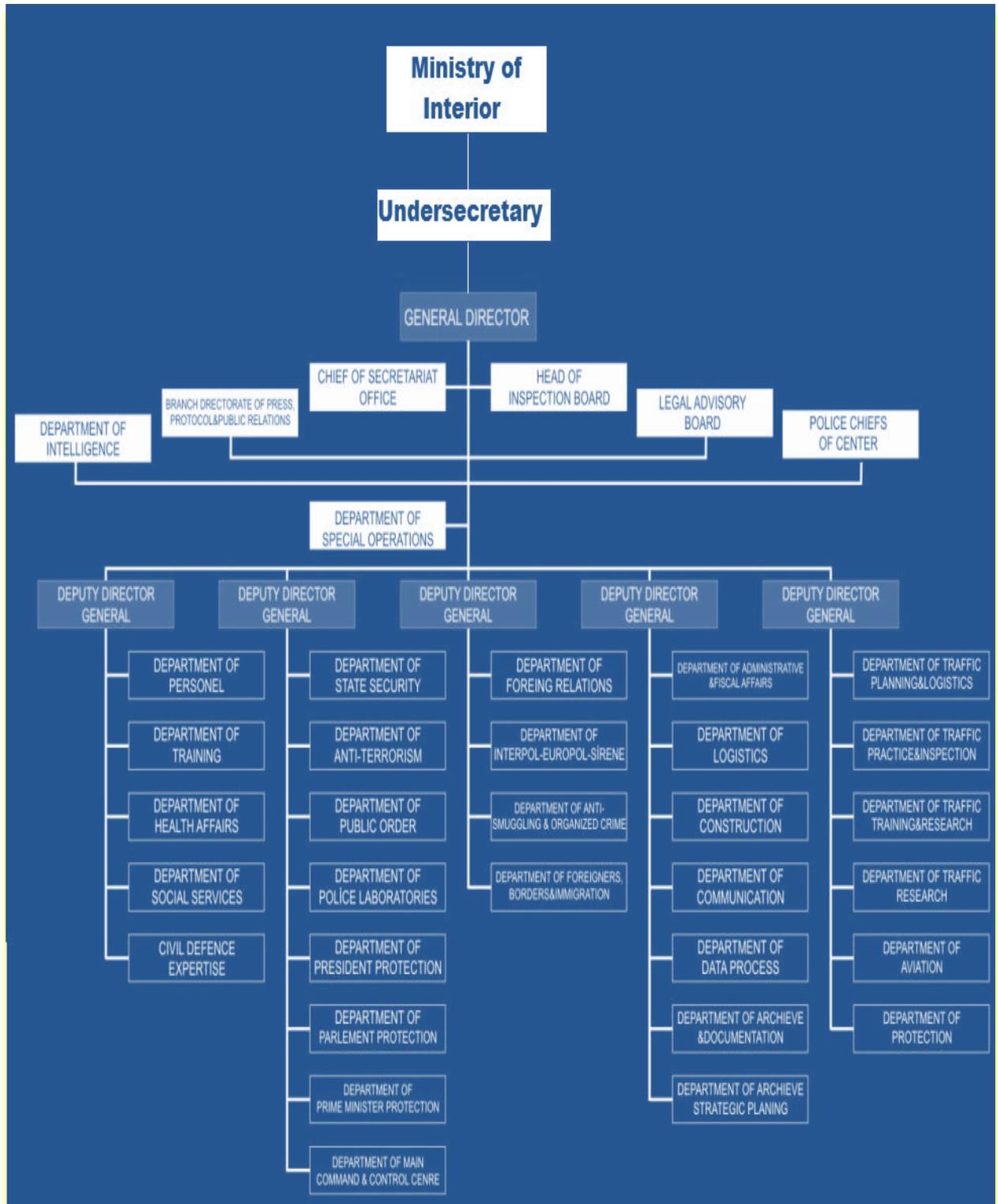
Appendix B: Police Ranks, Titles, and Tasks in the TNP

	Police Officer	The lowest rank in TNP is the Police Officer. Patrol officers, team members, security guards
	Deputy Inspector	Supervisors, Patrol Commanders, Chief of Bureau, Deputy Chief of Police Station
	Inspector	Team leaders, Chief of Patrol, Chief of Team, Chief of Bureau
	Chief Inspector	Head of Police Station, Chief of Bureau, Chief of Riot Police Group, Sub Provincial Inspector, Chief of Unit,
	Superintendent	Director of Police Centres, Director of Provincial Town Departments, Chief of Bureaus, Chief of Unit
	4th Degree Police Chief	Head of Sub-division, Legal Advisor, Police Chief of small towns
	3rd Degree Police Chief	Legal Advisor, Head of Sub-division, Police Chief of towns
	2nd Degree Police Chief	Assistant to Chief of Police, Administrative Inspector, Legal Adviser, Deputy Director of Police Training Centre, Deputy Director of Police College, Deputy Director of Police School, Deputy Head of Department
	1st Degree Chief of Police	Head of Department, Chief of the City Police, Primary Legal Advisor, Lecturer at Police Academy, Director of Police School, Director of Police College, Director of Prime Ministry Safeguard
	Security Director General	Chief of the Turkish National Police

Appendix C: Survey Approval Email

From: ICPSR User Support <icpsr-user-support@umich.edu>

Reply to: icpsr-user-support@umich.edu

To: maksoy@kent.edu

Date: Wed, Jul 16, 2008 at 3:28 PM

Subject: [Netmail] data 02798 Street-Level View of Community policing in the US, 1995 ISSUE=62031 PROJ=17

Mailed by: request.umich.edu

---------- When replying, type your text above this line ----------

Notification of Request Change

Project: ICPSR User Support

Request: [Netmail] data 02798 Street-Level View of Community policing in the US, 1995

Request Number: 62031

Description:

Entered on 07/16/2008 at 10:28:52 by Justin Ryan Noble:

Dear Murat,

There do not appear to be any copyright restrictions associated with the survey instrument for study number 02798, so yes, you may modify some sections of this study and use it in your PhD thesis. Nonetheless, please be sure to cite the study in your thesis from which you obtained the original survey instrument and explain how you modified the survey instrument for your research purposes.

Please let me know if you have additional questions.

Sincerely,

Justin Noble

Justin Noble, Research Technician Senior

National Archive of Criminal Justice Data

Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research

University of Michigan, 330 Packard St.

Ann Arbor, MI 48104, 734.615.7678

Appendix D: Survey Permission Letter (Turkish)

T.C.
İÇİŞLERİ BAKANLIĞI
Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü

Sayı : B.05.1.EGM.0.76.04.02.(31003).3929-4990   08/09/2008
Konu : Anket Çalışması.

ASAYİŞ DAİRESİ BAŞKANLIĞINA

657 sayılı DMK'nun 80. maddesine istinaden hazırlanan "Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik" hükümleri çerçevesinde 214179 sicil sayılı Emniyet Amiri Murat AKSOY'un anket çalışması talebine ilişkin dilekçesi ekte gönderilmiştir.

Adı geçen personelimize çalışmalarında gerekli yardımın sağlanması hususunda;

Gereğini arz ederim.

Doç. Dr. Recep GÜLTEKİN
Dışilişkiler Dairesi Başkanı
1.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

Ek : Dilekçe (1 Sayfa)

ASAYİŞ DAİRESİ BAŞKANLIĞI

16 Eylül 2008

AR-GE 39386

1425
10.09.08

191

Appendix E: Survey Approval Letter

T.C.
İÇİŞLERİ BAKANLIĞI
Emniyet Genel Müdürlüğü

E-POSTA EDİLDİ

Sayı :B.05.1.EGM.0.11.05.02/ 1425 _156.948

1 1 .0.2008/08

Konu :Anket Uygulaması.

İlgi :a)Dışilişkiler Dairesi Başkanlığı'nın 08/09/2008 tarih ve 3929-4990 sayılı yazısı.
b)Genel Müdürlük Makamı'nın 07/04/2007 tarih ve 857 sayılı oluru.

657 sayılı Devlet Memurları Kanunu'nun 80'inci maddesine istinaden yürürlüğe konulan "Yetiştirilmek Amacıyla Yurtdışına Gönderilecek Devlet Memurları Hakkındaki Yönetmelik" hükümleri çerçevesinde, yurtdışına gönderilen ve halen İngiltere'nin Durham Üniversitesi'nde **"Toplum Destekli Polislik ve Avrupa Birliği"** konusunda akademik çalışmalarını sürdüren 214179 sicil nolu Emniyet Amiri Murat AKSOY'un, il emniyet müdürlüklerimizin TDP birimlerinde görevli personele anket uygulamak üzere talepte bulunduğu ilgi (a) yazı ile bildirilmiştir.

Belirtilen esaslar dâhilinde görevlendirilen personelin, Teşkilatımız birimlerinde akademik amaçlı çalışma yapmaları ve bu kapsamda "anket, görüşme ve mülakat" gibi araştırma tekniklerini uygulamaları ilgi (b) Makam oluru (Ek 1) ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bu çerçevede; 2006-2007 yıllarında Toplum Destekli Polislik uygulaması başlatılan ve Ek 2'de isimleri belirtilen 16 ilimizde görev yapan, belirtilen sayıdaki personel tarafından Ek 3'te bir örneği gönderilen anket formunun doldurularak, **25/09/2008** tarihine kadar gönderilmesini rica ederim.
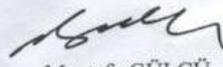
Mustafa GÜLCÜ
Emniyet Genel Müdür a.
Emniyet Genel Müdür Yardımcısı
1.Sınıf Emniyet Müdürü

EKİ :
Ek 1- İlgi (b) sayılı olur (1 sayfa)
Ek 2- Anketin yapılacağı iller ve
uygulanacak personel sayısı (1 sayfa)
Ek 3- Anket formu (4 sayfa)

DAĞITIM:
Adana, Adıyaman, Antalya, Balıkesir, Bursa,
Çorum, Diyarbakır, Erzurum, İstanbul, İzmir,
Malatya, Kayseri, Konya, Osmaniye, Samsun,
Tekirdağ.

İlkadım caddesi No:89 Dikmen 06100 ANKARA   Ayrıntılı Bilgi için İrtibat: M.DOĞAN
Tel:0 312 412 28 43-44 Faks:0 312 428 81 40
http//egm1adbmmb01/   Elektronik Ağ: www.asayis.pol.tr

Translation of the Approval Letter

TURKISH REPUBLIC
MINISTRY OF INTERIOR
General Directorate of the Turkish National Police

Number: B.05.1.EGM.0.11.05.02/1425-154948   Date: 11.09.2008

Subject: Data Collection

Murat Aksoy, Superintendent with organisation ID: 214179, is currently pursuing PhD studies in the U.K. and would like to obtain the necessary approvals in order to conduct a study of 'Community Policing and European Union' on the police officers currently working in COP units.

Upon receiving the request concerning data collection via survey by personnel pursuing their higher education abroad it is authorized from the General Directorate of Turkish National Police regarding the request for academic research.

In this respect, the Community Policing Implementation started in 2006-2007 which is listed in Annex-2 as covering 16 cities. Please have the required number of police officers fill out the sample survey questions and return to the head of department by 25/09/2008.

Approved
Mustafa GULCU
Deputy General Director
Assistant General Director
First Degree Police Chief

ANNEXES:
Annex 1. Approval Letter (1 page)
Annex 2. List of survey conducted cities and number of personnel (1 page)
Annex 3. Sample Survey questions (4 pages)

DISTRIBUTION TO CITIES: Adana, Adiyaman, Antalya, Balikesir, Bursa, Çorum, Diyarbakir, Erzurum, Istanbul, Izmir, Malatya, Kayseri, Konya, Osmaniye, Samsun, Tekirdag.

Appendix F: Survey Questions

SECTION I – DEMOGRAPHICS and DESCRIPTION OF THE PROGRAM

I would like to get some information both regarding the demographic and a description of the program from you, so could you please answer the following questions accordingly.

Section A: Demographic Information

1. Gender   M ()   F ()
2. Age? ……….
3. How many years of service have you completed as a police officer in the TNP? ....Years
4. Is your job considered specifically community policing? Yes __ (1) No (0)
5. How long have you been officially assigned as a community police officer? ......Months
6. What is your highest level of education?

(1) a. High school   (3) c. Masters Degree

 (2) b. University   (4) d. PhD

7. What is your rank? ……

Section B: Description of the program

8. Did you volunteer to be a community police officer or were you assigned?

       Volunteer (1) assigned (2) other (3)

9. Are you assigned to a particular geographic area or beat? Yes __ (1) No __ (0)

10. What proportion of your time do you spend doing community policing and what proportion traditional police work? T (1)   COP (2)

11. Do you know that the Community Policing Program was launched by the EU harmonization project titled "Strengthening the Accountability, Efficiency and Effectiveness of the Turkish National Police".

Yes __ (1) No __ (0)

SECTION II - EFFECTIVENESS OF COP

I will read statements which reflect perceptions of the Community Policing Program results for communities and police departments. Please indicate the response that most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Indicate whether you:

 (1) Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Do not know, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly agree

- **a-** The problems that citizens of the community care about most have been reduced.
- **b-** On my beat, the physical environments of neighbourhoods have improved.
- **c-** Citizens feel more positive towards the police than before Community Policing was implemented.
- **d-** The potential for physical conflict between citizens and police has decreased.
- **e-** Cooperation has improved between citizens and police.
- **f-** Perception of non-community policing officers improved after implementation of the program.
- **g-** Citizens have increased efforts to improve the community.
- **h-** Citizens' attitudes toward the police have improved.
- **i-** There is no significant change in the crime rate.
- **j-** My agency has been doing community policing all along.
- **k-** Citizens' fear of crime has been reduced.
- **l-** On my beat, the number of crimes against persons has not gone up or down since we started community policing.
- **m-** Citizens are more likely to provide information to the police.
- **n-** On my beat, citizens' calls for service have increased.

SECTION III – TRAINING

1. How many hours of training for Community Policing did you receive?

----

2. What formats did the training follow?

Positive Responses = (1)

Mandatory in-service ------

Basic academy ------

On-the-job training ------

Other:

3. Who taught the classes?

Agency trainers (sworn officers) …….

Trainers from other agencies ……

Experienced police officers …….

Immediate supervisor ……..

Community specialists ……..

Other ……..

4. Did you receive the majority of your training?

Before beginning your COP assignment? (1)After you began the COP assignment? (2)

If after, how many months after? ………

5. I am going to read you a list of training topics. Could you tell me which of these you have received training in for your community policing job? Please respond with "yes" or "no"

COP philosophy ……..   Using crime data………

Organizing the community ………   Communication skills ……..

Problem solving ……..   Ethics ……….

Time management ………   Victims' Rights

Crime prevention …………..   Cultural diversity ………..

Communication with local authorities….   Local non-police services…..

Citizen involvement programs ......   Others......

SECTION IV – EFFECTS OF EUROPEAN UNION

I would like to get some information about effects of **European Union** and EU **harmonization projects** on the Turkish National Police. Please indicate the response that most closely represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Indicate whether you: **(1) Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Do not know, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly agree**

1. Turkey becoming a member of the European Union would provide more effective policing strategies.

2. EU harmonization projects have improved policing in Turkey.

3. EU harmonization projects are compatible with the organizational realities and priorities of the Turkish National Police.

4. In the field of policing, EU harmonization projects conjure up human rights issues and image of Turkish National Police.

5. The EU supported Community Policing project has had a positive impact on policing in Turkey

6. The Community Policing project has helped to facilitate the transformation of the Turkish National Police's organizational structure.

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