

Organized Crime and Terrorism

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introductory remarks

Terrorism and organized crime are regarded by the researchers as the most serious delinquencies in the contemporary world. However, only a negligible number of researchers have managed to make specific insights into the available intersections between the vicious natures of both phenomena. In other words, terrorism and organized crime, being separate types of illicit activities, are regarded by certain scholars as reciprocal.

Thus, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) are disposed to think that organized crime and terrorism are similar in some respects. Taking into consideration the suggested feasibility of Grabovsky and Stohl's approach to the issues of terrorism and organized crime, it should be asserted that the present study is going to follow the author's way of thinking in order to verify the existence of linkages between terrorism and organized crime. Moreover, the current independent research is conceived to detect those ties between the analyzed phenomena that the previous authors have ignored. Also, the most appropriate methodology is deemed to provide sufficient furtherance on the road towards the scientific success.

1.2. Theoretical framework

The core purpose of the current study lies in the exploration of relationship between organized crime and terrorism. Moreover, the present research is conceived to clarify both separate and joint menaces of terrorism and organized crime to the present world. To elaborate further, there will be evaluated in the current research both theoretical and practical implications of anti-terrorist policy measures in order to expand criminology empirical and theoretical domain. Hence, the thesis statement needs to be formulated as follows: *There is an undeniable interplay between terrorism and organized crime, which is dictated by common requirements for prosperity and survival.* In order to augment the coherence and logical

consistency of the study appropriate research objectives must be elaborated. The research objectives should be enumerated as follows:

- To expound on both theoretical and practical dimensions of the phenomenon of terrorism.
- To explicate the phenomenon of organized crime in its relation to terrorism.
- To examine the nexus between terrorism and organized crime.
- To investigate the implications of anti-terrorist policies, as well as their secondary impacts on organized crime.

Also, the success of the present study highly depends on the proper answers to the research questions, which must be specified as follows:

1. Is there a direct nexus between organized crime and terrorism?
2. What types of organized crime are compatible with terrorist activities?
3. Are there sorts of organized crime stringently focused on the attainment of political spoils or achievements beside the profit-making activities?
4. What are benefits in the cooperation between organized crime and terrorist organizations?

Apart from the above, the current study is going to test the following research hypotheses: a) Organized crime and terrorism intersect only if interdependent interests between two types of illicit organizations emerge; b) The transition from organized crime to terrorism, and vice versa, is possible only if the “status quo” of previous activities changes; c) There are no universal panacea against terrorism and organized crime and, therefore, each emergent threat requires individually elaborated countermeasures.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introductory remarks

The core significance of the present chapter lies in its capability to demonstrate all relevant to the research objective opinions, approaches, and judgments of previous authors. However, the current chapter is not composed merely to depict the already comprehended findings in respect of terrorism and organized crime, but rather to attain the research objectives by means of the critical evaluation of the secondary data.

Furthermore, the available researches are considered to be helpful in grasping the meaning of the terms. However, it should be taken into consideration that the review of existent publications is a secondary data collection method. Therefore, the method of literature review, being insufficient for the ubiquitously valid and reliable study, is going to be supplemented by appropriate primary data collection method, described in the chapter “Methodology”.

2.2. Terrorism

2.2.1. *Definition of terrorism*

First and foremost, it might be appropriate to note that there are a large number of various definitions of terrorism. Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) give preference to the determination of terrorism as “an act or threat of violence to create fear and/or compliant behavior in a victim or wider audience for the purpose of achieving political ends” (p. 5).

Also, according to the U.S. Code the concept of terrorism is associated with premeditated, politically motivated violence, which is conducted against noncombatant targets by subnational groups of clandestine agents (U.S. Code Title 22, Ch.38, Par. 2656 f(d)). The aforesaid definition of terrorism accentuates on the following characteristics of the phenomenon: a) - the politically motivated deliberate actions; b) - the actions are directed

against noncombatant targets; c) - the actions are performed by sub-national groups of clandestine agents.

To put it briefly, the US Code does not recognize any other motivation of terrorism with the exception of political. It means that each terrorist act is conceived to deliver a peculiar message in order to incite the players in the domain of politics to either perform certain actions or refrain from conducting specific deeds. In the context of the second particularity of terrorism, a mental note should be made that the US Code confines the range of targets of terrorists by noncombatants only. Hence, it follows that any politically motivated action, which is conducted against combatants is not recognized as a terrorist act.

Furthermore, the U.S. Code prescribes that terrorist's acts are performed exclusively by sub-national groups of clandestine agents. Taking into consideration the aforementioned constituent of the US legal definition of terrorism, it is possible to notice that the US Code does not admit the possibility of the terrorist's acts conducted by lone perpetrators. According to the US statutory law, a terrorist act may be conducted by a group of people only. Moreover, the aforesaid groups of people must consist of clandestine agents, who are well-disguised in order to surpass the law-enforcement and security agencies.

In view of the above, the legal definition of terrorism, which is available from the US Code, is insufficient for the comprehensive evaluation of its characteristics. To elaborate further, it should be noted that there is a large number of various definitions of terrorism in the domain of international law and politics.

For instance, United Nations Security Council Resolution 1566 offers the definition of terrorists' acts as "criminal acts", particularly against citizens, which are committed with the intent to inflict death or serious bodily injury, or capturing of hostages, aiming to ignite a "state of terror" in the general public or within a particular group of persons, and to incite the

authorities to do or to abstain from doing any act (UN Security Council Resolution 1566, 2004).

Taking into account the characteristics of terrorism, which are expressed in the aforesaid definition, it should be conceded that the international apprehension of the term is much wider than that in the US Code. Thus, the principal disparities between the already analyzed definitions lie in the fact that the UN Convention does not confine the range of targets affected by terrorists' acts. The convention prescribes that terrorism particularly, but not exclusively, strikes against citizens.

In contradistinction to the international conception of terrorism, the US Code constricts the targets of terrorism to noncombatants only. In this light, the acts of violence against military men are not considered to be terrorists' acts according to the US Code, which evinces one of the drawbacks of the legal statute.

Nevertheless, both definitions condemn the existence of terrorism in all forms. Also, in both documents terrorism is defined as a politically motivated violence, which makes terrorism extremely threatening not only to individual humans, but also to the stability in political systems and global community. In order to grasp the salient features of terrorism, a more profound analysis is required.

2.2.2. Theoretical and practical dimensions of terrorism

Investigating the nature of terrorism, it is possible to agree with Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) that terrorism is a rather ancient phenomenon, which is enrooted in the history of human civilization. According to the author, the phenomenon of "crime", which is frequently used correlatively with the notion of terrorism, is much more contemporary concept than terrorism itself.

The authors reckon that crime is purely social and political compound, which depends on the capabilities of authoritative prescription of law (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 4).

As far as the problem of terrorism is concerned, it might be appropriate to note that various countries define terrorism differently. Notwithstanding this, it is still possible to discern forms of terrorism and evaluate the dimensions of each form. According to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), contemporary terrorism manifests itself predominantly in such forms as bombing, kidnapping, and assassinations (p. 36). In the context of the first form, it is possible to notice that explosives are usually positioned and detonated “when distributed by the victim” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 36).

Furthermore, there are several ways the bomb to be activated. For example, the bomb may be set off by a timing device. Otherwise, the bombs may be detonated by triggering a remote control. In this case, the construction of bombs may be very simple including a mobile phone as its constituent. Besides, the researchers accentuate on an alternative method of bombing - the direct bearers of bombs as suicide bombers (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 36).

The destructive capabilities of suicide bombers may be dramatically exemplified by the events of 9/11 attacks, in which the aircrafts have been hijacked and subsequently used as flying bombs against prominent or densely populated targets. A mental note should be made that the menace of the aforesaid type of bombing lies in the potentiality of suicide bombers to reach the target as tightly as possible, which inevitably causes a large-scale damage.

Additionally, it is possible to give prominence to such hazardous type of bombing as the use of chemical, biological, or radiological weapons, as well as the phenomenon of “cyber-terrorism”, which imposes threats of terrorists’ attacks by means of the malicious use of the Internet and computer technologies.

As far as cyber-terrorism is concerned, it might be relevant to claim that each attack against a governmental or major commercial website must manifest the previously analyzed salient features of terrorism in order to be qualified as such. In determining the nature of

cyber-terrorism, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) make use of Professor Dorothy Denning's elaborations that cyber-terrorism is "unlawful attacks against computers, networks and the information stored therein when done to intimidate or coerce a government or its people in furtherance of political or social objectives" (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 38). In this light, Denning's definition of cyber-terrorism helps to discern the phenomenon from other cyber-crimes. Assuredly, the distinguishing features of cyber-terrorism lie in its political motivation, coupled with the intention to intimidate or coerce either a government or its people. This notwithstanding, some researchers believe that the threats of cyber-terrorism are exaggerated (Lachow and Richardson, 2009).

To elaborate further, the researchers are disposed to think that targeted assassination as the second widely spread form of terrorism, has always been a well-recognized tactic of terrorist groups for many centuries (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 36). In this sense, the standard victims of target assassinations are senior public officials, as well as the representatives of law-enforcement agencies and military personnel.

In such a manner, it should be clarified that the related kidnapping is frequently regarded as a common tactic of terrorism, as well as a separate form of the phenomenon. Geographically, the technique of kidnapping is frequently practiced in diverse locations, such as Pakistan, Colombia, Mexico, Somalia, Afghanistan, and Philippines. Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) are prone to believe that there can be several motives for kidnapping: a) - the intention to gain ransom for the promotion of other terrorists' operations; b) - to capture hostages in order to "extract concessions from an adversary"; c) - to make a psychological effect (p. 37).

As far as the third motive is concerned, it might be appropriate to note that the distribution of beheadings of kidnapping victims around the globe via the Internet inevitably makes an appalling psychological impact on the targeted audience.

Apart from the above, it should be conceded that terrorism is practiced not only by a group of people but also by lone individuals. According to Grabovsky and Stohl's considerations, it is possible to discern a wide range of motives, which incite persons and groups of persons to commit terroristic acts. To all the intents and purpose, the most popular impetuses to terrorism may be explicated as follows: a) - a generalized protest; b) - a desire for revenge in response to an apprehended injustice; c) - an incentive to change the political regime, or d) - an aspiration to assert a sense of manhood in a "disempowering world" (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 37).

Taking into consideration the above-mentioned examples of motives which drive the perpetrators to commit terroristic acts, it should be elucidated that contemporary forms of terrorism are frequently provoked by the dissatisfaction over the presence of occupational foreign forces in the homelands of terrorists. For instance, Osama bin Laden has unambiguously expressed outrage at the presence of US forces in Saudi Arabia, the Islam's country of origin (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 37).

To generalize, it should be remarked that the aforementioned dimensions of terrorism give birth to the discussion of levels, in which terrorism functions. However, the significance of such discussion requires the creation of a separate element of the research. Thus, the peculiarities and reciprocities between state terrorism and international level of terrorism are going to be discussed in the following subsection.

2.2.3. State Terrorism versus International terrorism

The issue of state terrorism is very profound, whereas the term of "state terrorism" is not well-discussed in the contemporary literature. According to the researchers, the essence of state terrorism is genuinely variegated (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 37). The fact is that particular states are prone to engage in terrorism in order to restrain their own citizens, or to

attain certain political aim in relation to another state, or to gain a specific political purpose *vis-à-vis* some non-state group.

Taking into account Grabovsky and Stohl's reflections on the phenomenon of state terrorism, it should be construed that the first version of state terrorism implies the infliction of harm, both physical and psychological, by state authorities on the citizens of the same country. The aforesaid type of terrorism manifests itself as a stringently national violence, which takes place within the borders of one state. The historical cases of such acts may be exemplified by the terror in the Soviet Union, Saddam's Iraq, and Ottoman Turkey *etc.* The distinctiveness of the first type of state terrorism lies in the character of terrorists' measures, which are conducted by the state within its borders and against its citizens.

As far as the second and third types of state terrorism are concerned, it might be appropriate to note that a state may be involved in terroristic acts, which are conducted against the citizens of another state, or the members of a non-state group. Also, the researchers emphasize the variability of state complicity in terrorism.

Thus, according to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), state can be involved in terroristic acts through the actions of either state employees or private contractors, or private citizens, who are encouraged or assisted by the state (p. 37). Hence, it follows that state terrorism implies either direct actions or indirect actions of the state, which may be legally qualified as terroristic acts.

To elaborate further, state terrorism must be distinguished from international terrorism. In order to evaluate the dimensions and functionality of state terrorism, the phenomenon of international terrorism must be analyzed in detail.

Broadly speaking, international terrorism should be regarded as the terrorists' practices in a foreign country, practiced by terrorists who are not the native to that state. In this connection, it is prudent to suggest that salient features of international terrorism are

approachable by way of analyzing international terroristic groups as non-state actors in the domain of international politics (Shanty and Mishra, 2007, pp. 342-345).

Theoretically, a lone perpetrator is incapable to plan, get supplies, and perform terroristic acts in the territory of a foreign country without diligence furtherance. In other words, only a group of people may become an actual threat in the area of international terrorism. Moreover, the superiority of non-state terroristic groups over lone terrorists is dictated by the necessity to have a well-ramified organizational links in various countries, as well as to maintain global financial networks (Shanty and Mishra, 2007, pp. 345).

In view of the above, it is possible to notice that international terrorism is much more complicated level of terrorism than state terrorism. However, in order to make certain conclusions about the nature of both levels of terrorism, a comparative analysis must be conducted. Due to the comparative analysis, it is possible to outline the most apparent similarities and discrepancies between state terrorism and international terrorism:

- State terrorism is perpetrated either directly or indirectly through private persons, or latently, by official authorities of a particular state, whereas international terrorism is usually represented by non-state terroristic groups or non-governmental organizations.
- The acts of state terrorism are frequently conducted by a state in its territory and against its citizens or non-state groups. Contrary to state terrorism, international terrorism is always practiced by non-state players in the territory of one or more foreign states. Also, the targets of international terrorists may particularly include state officials.
- State terrorism is both financed and supported by state authorities. As for international terrorism, sometimes, the funds for international terrorists' activities may be obtained by non-state terroristic groups from disposed countries.

However, international terroristic organizations are usually capable to support themselves independently. International terroristic entities exploit various illicit methods of accumulating funds, including their engagement in criminal activities, as well as the cooperation with organized crime.

More detailed examination of the nexus between terrorism and organized crime is available in the next sections of the literature review.

2.3. Organized crime

2.3.1. Definition of organized crime

As far as organized crime is concerned, it might be appropriate to note that this term is consistent with the general definition of crime beyond controversy. Thus, according to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), crime is a relatively modern concept. At ancient times, the phenomenon of crime is not existent because of the natural state of people's inhabitation, in which all disputes are resolved by means of physical force and customs.

However, it should be conceded that the evolution of societies into human civilizations makes the rules, regulating behavior of people being more formal and strict (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 4). The transformation from the natural liberty to stringent rules of behavior should be associated with the formation of states and development of law. Hence, it follows that only law, as a state or inter-state system of formal and obligatory norms, particularly defines what actions are socially acceptable ones and what behaviors are crimes.

Therefore, from the legal point of view, the concept of "organized crime" must be understood as "a widespread group of professional criminals who rely on illegal activities as a way of life and whose activities are coordinated and controlled through some form of centralized syndicate" (Wild, 2006, p. 192). The aforesaid widely accepted definition of

“organized crime” emphasizes the following characteristics of the phenomenon: a) - a highly proliferated group of criminals; b) - the illicit members of organized crime are professional criminals; c) - illegal activities of the group are the main means of subsistence for its members; d) - the group is highly structured, being controlled in a manner of the centralized syndicate.

As far as the first element of the definition is concerned, it should be clarified that organized crime is always a group of people with a well-elaborated structure and control. Thus, the prosperity and success of organized crime is utterly dependent on the ability of its members to organize a hierarchical entity. In the context of the second salient feature of organized crime, it should be expounded that only expert and specialist in criminals with a certain level of criminal experience and record are allowed to participate in organized crime, because the aforesaid form of criminal subsistence neither tolerates amateurs nor accepts occasional people.

To continue, the third element of the definition implies that criminals take part in organized crime with the primal intention to sustain their existence in the society exclusively by means of organized crime. It means that organized crime does not function as a temporary group of perpetrators who are gathered for a single purpose. Finally, the fourth constituent of the definition states that organized crime is controlled and governed similar to centralized syndicates. The aforesaid method of administration is presumably the most suitable in ensuring the integrity and efficiency of organized crime.

Robert Hanser, Kaine Jones and Walonda Wallace (2008) offer another batch of simple definitions of organized crime. Thus, according to Larry Siegel, organized crime should be apprehended as “the ongoing criminal enterprise groups whose ultimate purpose is personal economic gain through illegitimate means” (Hanser *et al.*, 2008, p. 10). In view of the above, organized crime is defined from economical perspective as a conglomerate of

business entities, which are established predominantly for the purpose of personal enrichment.

Furthermore, Alan Block and William Chambliss approach to organized crime as to “those illegal activities connected with the management and coordination of racketeering and the vices, particularly illegal drugs, illegal gambling, usury, and prostitution” (Hanser *et al.*, 2008, p. 10). The aforesaid definition of organized crime is conceived to delineate the phenomenon through the specification of particular crimes.

Additionally, the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI), in defining the concept of organized crime, takes into consideration any group of some formalized structure, “whose primary objective is to obtain money through illegal activities” (Hanser *et al.*, 2008, p. 10). Therefore, the FBI gives prominence to the salient features of organized crime, such as formalized structure of a group, primary objective of gaining profit, and unlawful means of enrichment.

Apart from the above, it should be explicated that organized crime manifests itself as the most complex as well as one of the most dangerous form of criminal activities alongside with terrorism. This notwithstanding, the United States and international community are reluctant to recognize the phenomenon of “organized crime” as a separate kind of criminal offences. Thereby, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) ascertain that many activities of organized crime are deemed to be “violations of conventional criminal law” and should be regarded as “ordinary offences” (p. 29).

Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) emphasize the most disputable feature of organized crime - its manifold nature. To be precise, organized crime is not a criminal offence according to traditional legal conceptions, but a combination of various offences. Thence, the aforesaid peculiarity distinguishes organized crime from terrorism. In contrast to organized crime, terrorism is defined by criminal and international laws as an independent crime.

Also, it might be appropriate to note that the definition of organized crime as a synthesis of different criminal offences gives birth to the obstacles on the road towards the quantification of the phenomenon. It is very difficult to quantify organized crime due to its sheer diversity. Thus, the researchers assay that the concept of organized crime comprises numerous offences, such as piracy, people smuggling, manufacturing and proliferation of drugs, and others (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 30).

All things being considered, it is possible to presuppose that a mere definition of organized crime is insufficient for the formation of a profound comprehension of the phenomenon. In this connection, a thorough clarification of both theoretical and practical dimensions of organized crime must be performed next.

2.3.2. Theoretical and practical dimensions of organized crime

Continuing the discussion, it is reasonable to make a categorization of various types of activities, which are comprised by the concept of organized crime. According to Ruggiero (2008), organized crime may be classified as predatory, parasitic, and symbolic (p. 35).

The explanation of the aforementioned types of organized crime is justified by the necessity to evaluate the nexus between organized crime and terrorism, which is going to be detected in the following sections of the present study. Hence, Ruggiero's first category of organized crime should be construed through the causation theories concerning "notions of strain, subculture, or relative deprivation" (Ruggiero, 2008, p. 35).

In other words, the theoretical dimensions of the predatory organized crime imply that the individuals or groups of persons, who share socially acceptable goals but possess no legitimate means to attain them, will inevitably retreat to illicit means of "deviant adaptation" (Ruggiero, 2008, p. 36).

It is reasonable to agree with Ruggiero's emphasis on the issue of "deviant adaptation", because his judgment corresponds with the general characteristic of organized

crime as a conduct of illegal activities with the primal intent to satisfy particular needs and necessities of personal subsistence. Hence, it follows that the factor of “deviant adaptation”, which is inherent to predatory organized crime, can comprehensively explain the motives of people to participate in organized crime.

To elaborate further, the parasitic form of organized crime may be juxtaposed with “service-providing organization” (Ruggiero, 2008, p. 36). To put it briefly, the essence of the parasitic form of organized crime lies in its ability to adjust to the requirements of business environment, providing goods, trust, and protection.

That is parasitic organized crime may be characterized as a separate private industry, which aims at filling the economical gap being left by ineffective state. In this sense, it should be conceded that parasitic organized crime is very efficient and proliferated in those countries, in which state authority is weak, incapable to regulate economical processes and has no power to resist deviant influences (Ruggiero, 2008, p. 36).

In such a manner, it should be asserted that symbiotic forms of organized crime are the most threatening and latent. Briefly speaking, symbiotic organized crime overlaps with entrepreneurship, when criminal enterprises gain access to the legitimate economy and official political arena. According to Ruggiero (2008) the fundamental prerequisites to symbiotic organized crime consist in the particularities of subculture, strain, differential association, and the “inadequacy of the state or the lack of proper entrepreneurial culture” (p. 36).

After the principal categories of organized crime having been analyzed, it is prudent to ascertain the scientific approaches to the causes of the phenomenon. In this connection, Ruggiero (2008) starts the discourse about organized crime by claiming that one of the most apparent preconditions to organized crime, detected by Lombroso, is a long-term existence of the wicked organizations, such as the Mafia and Camorra (p. 36). The aforementioned factor

of long-term existence implies that the monotonous reiteration criminal acts changes the nature of such acts transforming them into a custom and subsequently into a norm.

Lombroso's revelations create reasonable grounds for the supposition that the more time organized crime functions, the more enrooted and powerful it is.

To continue, Ruggiero (2008) is prone to believe that Lombroso is correct in his investigations of a substantial causality between organized crime and inadequate government. The aforesaid cause of organized crime implies that the governments, which rule in unjust manner, facilitate the creation of the sense of grievance among people, and, therefore, some groups of people seek to perform and implement their own justice. In this case, the activities of organized crime are justifiable from the common perspective of the populace.

Another batch of scholars expounds on the causes of the emergence of organized crime by means of the notion of social disorganization. In other words, according to Chicago School theorists, the emergence of organized crime is connected with two reciprocal circumstances. On the one hand, the deterioration of informal social control leads to the formation of organized criminal entities. On the other hand, the emergence of analogous "social and cultural enclaves" fosters the process of criminal organizing (Ruggiero, 2008, p. 37).

Taking into consideration the above-mentioned twofold approach to the issue of organized crime, it should be explicated that the decrease in informal social control is truly responsible for the development of organized crime. The fact is that the prosperity of organized crime depends on the ability of society to control the social environment and prevent the adoption of anti-social behaviors there. If citizens fail to control the environment they are living in, then criminals will experience the lack of restraints for the formation of their own structural society. In this sense, Fernandez-Montalvo, Echeburua and Amor (2005) assay that "the men in the community program group" is more conflictive and emotionally

unstable respecting the control of anxiety, jealousy, and anger, than the imprisoned women (p. 164). The aforesaid findings create reasonable grounds to presuppose that the illicit entities, which are dominated by men being more prone to violence and irrational threats.

Apart from the above, a group of researchers believes that the decision to commit serious crime is often dependent on psychopathic traits. Men's psychological behaviors differ from those of women's beyond controversy (Echeburua, Fernandez-Montalvo, and Amor, 2006). However, the psychopathic traits sharpen the already available differences.

The researchers have found that the most distinguishable tendency to commit violent re-offences is presented in the persons with personality disorders and/or substance abuse, whereas non-violent re-offences have not been detected by the scholars (Stadland, Kleindienst, Kroner, Eidt, and Nedopil, 2005, pp. 89-97). Hence, it follows that violent recidivism is more predictable than non-violent re-offences. This knowledge facilitates the investigation of factors affecting personal decisions to participate in organized crime. That is, personal mental disorders and substance abuse should be evaluated in conjunction with traditional incentives to commit serious crimes, such as predatory, parasitic, and symbiotic.

To elaborate further, it should be presupposed that the essential peculiarities of organized crime can not be understood in the framework of theoretical approaches to the phenomenon only. Thus, practical dimensions of organized crime need to be disclosed next.

Thus, according to Deflem (2006), in practice, the specificities of organized crime are always predefined by the features of the society or a group (p. 100). Therefore, analysis of the organization of the criminal society is the key prerequisite to the apprehension of practical dimensions of organized crime. In this light, various criminal organizations have different hierarchical structure. Mafia, for instance, consists of families. Therefore, the family structure of mafia helps to identify that the peculiarities of social interaction, role-taking, and joint actions are similar to those existent in big families.

In a like manner, the examination of the organization of the gang assists in the process of understanding the actions of a gang member, which are frequently motivated by the desires to achieve respect, reputation, and protection, as well as the gang's role within the structure of society (Deflem, 2006, p. 100). Assuredly, the practical dimensions of gangs as organized crime may be reduced to actual plans, behaviors and deeds of their members.

When all things are considered, it is possible to make a generalization. The points of the generalization should be enumerated as follows:

- Organized crime is a very complex and profound phenomenon, which has the direct nexus with the level of social of social development in the state.
- According to Ruggiero (2008), there are three main categories of organized crime: predatory, parasitic, and symbiotic ones.
- The emergence of organized crime is connected with various factors, such as social inadequacies, deviant adaptations, strain, grievances, insufficiency of social control, weaknesses of state power, *etc.*
- Practical dimensions of organized crime are approachable through the diligent analysis of the structure and role of members of specific criminal organizations.

2.3.3. State organized crime versus transnational organized crime

According to Don Liddick (2008), organized crime should be analyzed on two levels - national (state) and multinational (p. 1). As far as the former is concerned, it might be appropriate to note that the state level of organized crime is represented by gangs and other criminal organizations, which conduct their illicit activities in the territory of one state only. The fact is that the most powerful criminal organizations prioritize the way of international criminal practices, rather than local criminal offences.

However, some illicit organizations do not seek to extend their business to the international level. Moreover, they feel themselves comfortable in their cities, territories, or

regions. Nevertheless, even national criminal organizations are sometimes involved in multinational criminal activities due to the necessity of dealing with foreign partner, or laundering their illicitly gained profits abroad.

To all intents and purposes, in the international level, there is a wider range of possibilities and advantages for illicit business than in the national level. Thus, the pursuit of benefits, such as profit and power, is the key precondition to the proliferation of multinational organized crime (Liddick, 2008, p. 1).

In this light, Liddick (2008) reckons that transnational crime can be found in almost every geographical region of our planet. The ability of the organized crime to destabilize state economies is practiced through the following measures: the restraints of trade, functioning of various black markets, illegal trade in arms, tax evasion, trafficking of people, drugs, or other contraband, *etc.*

Also, Liddick (2008) is disposed to think that the intensification of transnational criminal activities in the contemporary world is affected by different factors. To all the intents and purposes, the core prerequisites to the proliferation of organized crime need to be identified as follows: a) - economic liberalization and globalization; b) - restrictive provisions of prohibition laws, which foster illicit trade; c) - the increasing worldwide demand for illegal goods and services; d) - shortcomings of states and civil wars (Liddick, 2008).

All things being considered, the relationships between national (state) organized crime and transnational (global) organized crime should be generalized as follows:

- State organized crime, being confined within a single state or a particular intrastate territory, is not potent enough to affect global processes, whereas transnational organized crime is a menacing phenomenon, which is enrooted in the multiplicity of countries.

- Multinational organized crime is more structured and organized than state organized crime, which is dictated by the primary objective to gain profit from various criminal activities, such as money laundering, trafficking of people, illegal drugs, and goods, functioning of various black markets, fraud, *etc.*
- The proliferation of transnational organized crime is dependent on global processes as well as on gaps in international regulation and policies, including restraints of trade, prohibition laws, liberalization of global economy, *etc.* In contrast to multinational organized crime, state organized crime predominantly depends on the processes being existent within the borders of a particular state.

In the final analysis, it should be presupposed that, in the international level, the nexus between terrorism and organized crime is the most apparent. However, the aforesaid presupposition must be substantiated with relevant facts and scientific evidence, which are going to be researched in the following section.

2.4. Nexus between terrorism and organized crime

2.4.1. Prerequisite factors establishing the nexus between terrorism and organized crime

The preliminary investigations have outlined the salient features of such phenomena as organized crime and terrorism. However, the principal purpose of the present study lies in the determination of possible linkages between the aforesaid phenomena. It should be conceded that the relevance of the preliminary sections of this work is enormous. The preliminary discoveries and clarifications are likely to supplement the ongoing investigation of the nexus between organized crime and terrorism.

In view of the above, the initial level of correlations between organized crime and terrorism lies in prerequisites to the possible interchange between two phenomena. First and

foremost, Granovsky and Stohl (2010) emphasize the augmenting linkage between transnational criminal networks and global terrorism networks.

To put it briefly, criminals and terrorist are eager to engage in a wide range of similar activities, including money laundering, smuggling, and bank robberies. Moreover, terroristic groups may engage in joint criminal activities with organized crime in order to sustain their professional existence (Grobavsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 71). However, the main purpose of the current subsection is to investigate preconditions to the cooperation between organized crime and terrorism and delineate the actualities of such cooperation.

In this light, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) support the stance that terroristic groups frequently convert themselves into criminal organizations “and vice versa” (p. 76). It means that, for some reason, the leaders of terrorism may decide to engage in certain criminal activities. On the other hand, organized crime may temporary follows the way of terrorism for some reason. The aforesaid transformations between terrorism and organized crime may be exemplified by the Abu Sayat Group (ASG), the initially terroristic organization in the Philippines.

The peculiarity of the ASG lies in the fact that it has been established as a terroristic organization with the clear political purpose of creating a separate state for the minority Muslims of the Philippines (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 76). However, since 1998, the group has taken part in a large number of ransom-motivated kidnappings. It means that the political identity of the groups has altered - from political acts of terror to the quest of profit.

The above-mentioned transformation in the ASG synchronizes with the death of their leader Abdurajik Abubakar Janjalani in 1998. Also, after Janjalani’s death, many criminals have occupied the main leadership positions. In this connection, there are reasonable grounds to assert changes in the ideological compound, as well as disposition of criminal leaders, constituent the prerequisite to a transition from terrorism to organized crime.

To continue, the aforesaid situation around the ASG may be supplemented with the example of the Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan (IMU). According to the researchers, the IMU has experienced the same process of metamorphosis, from politically motivated terrorism under the banner of Islamic revolution, to the criminal activities of the drug trafficking and “control of smuggling routes in the region” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 76).

Apart from the above stated one, it might be relevant to note that the cases of transition from organized crime to terrorism are also available. This type of transformation may be exemplified by D Company under the leadership of Dawood Ibrahim. Initially, the aforesaid organization has been a drug dealing entity in Mumbai, India. Later on, the organization has enlarged to become a principal criminal organization in the Indian subcontinent.

However, the tensions between Indian Muslims and Hindus, as well as the destruction of Babri Mosque in the city of Ayodhya, has incited Ibrahim to organize the 1993 bombing in Mumbai, killing 257 people (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 77).

In view of the above, it is possible to manifest the truth of the statement that ideology is a very strong prerequisite to the interchange between terrorism and organized crime. In other words, the emergence of political or religious ideological conceptions underlies the transition from organized crime to terrorism, whereas the vanishing of political or religious motivations converts a terrorist group into criminal organization, which aims at gaining profits in order to satisfy the material needs of its members.

To elaborate further, it should be clarified that the issue of ideology is not the sole precondition to the interchange between terrorism and organized crime. In some cases, organized crime is put into practice terrorist techniques, which assist in the process of reaching their illicit objectives.

The actual implementation of terrorists' violence may be exemplified by the mafia assassinations of Judges Falcone and Borsellino with the help of enormously massive bombs, devised not only to kill two human targets but also to intimidate the public authorities of Sicily (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 77).

This example truly demonstrates that criminal organizations are prone to use terrorists' tactics in order to deliver political messages and eliminate obstacles on the road towards their prosperity, profitability, and security. Thus, another prerequisite to the linkage between organized crime and terrorism is in the threat of a state prosecution.

Furthermore, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) discover another precondition to the interplay between organized crime and terroristic organizations - the nature of criminal networks. According to the authors, networks should be apprehended as provisional, emergent, flexible, dynamic, and entrepreneurial structures "which often arise out of exchange relationships among organizations" (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 79).

The key peculiarities of the networks lie in their global dissemination and transnational potentialities. Moreover, networks, as temporary alliances, among various illicit organizations foster partnerships between organized crime and terrorism, because of the possibility to satisfy each other's needs without being interdependent.

Likewise, the issue of trust is one of the most valuable factors in establishing links between organized crime and terrorism. According to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), each type of clandestine organization, including terroristic groups and organized crime, makes big efforts to avoid penetration and survive in this world (p. 83). Hence, it follows that without sufficient amount of trust the interrelation between organized crime and terroristic groups is impossible.

To sum up, the major preconditions to the interchange between organized crime and terrorism are the following:

- *Ideological issue.* The mergence of either political or religious aspirations inside organized crime inevitably triggers the transition from a mere money-motivated functioning to politically or religiously motivated struggles. Contrariwise, the fade away of political or religious impetus is likely to foster the conversion of the terroristic organization into a mere criminal entity.
- *Threat of state prosecution.* The Sicilian case manifests the truth of a statement that the threat of prosecution may drive organized crime towards the implementation of terrorists' techniques in order to intimidate the authorities and guarantee security and safety of the criminal way of life.
- *Criminal networks.* The nature of criminal networks encourages both criminal organizations and terroristic entities to cooperate and satisfy reciprocal needs without losing their integrity and independence.
- *Trust.* The interchange between organized and terrorism is impossible without a sufficient amount of trust. Therefore, trust is a very important prerequisite to the interactions between organized crime and terrorism, which evinces the mutual aspiration to avoid penetration and survive in the underworld.

2.4.2. Actuality of the interrelated coexistence of terrorism and organized crime

After the prerequisites to the interchange between organized crime and terrorism having been evaluated, it seems prudent to designate the actual reciprocities between two types of illicit activity. Also, it should be conceded that, in various regions of the world, the ties between criminal organizations and terroristic groups are different.

Thus, taking into consideration Western European region, it should be clarified that organized crime poses a substantial menace to public authorities there. Also, Western European organized crime tends to undermine lawful commerce throughout the region (Liddick, 2008, p. 1). The most noticeable organizations of the region are of Italian origin.

However, the nexus between terrorism and organized crime in Western Europe is derived from the activities of Jamaican Yardies and the Russian Mafia, in particular.

The fact is that Jamaican Yardies control the drug trade in England with help of automatic weapons, which are provided by the Russian Mafia (Liddick, 2008, p. 1). In this light, it is apparent that the illicit activity of drug dealing is connected with the unlawful trade of arms.

Moreover, Liddick (2008) reckons that organized crime of Russian and Eastern Europe is responsible for the flourishing of illicit sex trade and the smuggling of nuclear materials “into Germany, known as the hub of nuclear terrorism” (p. 1). Therefore, in Europe, the relationships between organized crime and terrorism originate from illicit trafficking of firearms and nuclear material by criminal organizations for the purpose of terrorist groups, in particular.

To elaborate further, it might be appropriate to note that the Asian region demonstrates the most diverse linkages between organized crime and terrorism. Traditionally, Asia is the homeland for the Islamic terrorism and extremism. Also, global criminal organizations actualize their activities in Asia as well. Thus, Myanmar organized crime is responsible for the production of heroin, which is supplied to drug markets in Australia, Europe, and North America. In like manner, China Triad’s organizations establish one of the largest criminal networks in the globe, with more than 100,000 members (Liddick, 2008, p. 2). The core activities of the Chinese criminal syndicates lie in weapons trafficking, credit card fraud, money laundering, drug trafficking, software piracy, and alien smuggling. The aforementioned activities of China’s triad may coincide with the interests of Islamic terroristic organizations of the region.

To continue, Japanese organized crime group is among the most powerful ones in the world. Thus, Yakuza is infamous for money laundering, illegal gambling, gun-running,

extortion, loan sharking, and trafficking of methamphetamine (Liddick, 2008, p. 2). The cooperation between the Japanese gangs and terroristic groups is possible in such domains as trade of weapons and money laundering.

In view of the above, it should be noticed that, during the past twenty years, the connections between terrorist and criminals have intensified (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 72). The augmentation of the correlation between illicit business and politically motivated violence originates from the realities of both phenomena. Thus, it is possible to grasp that the lines between terrorists and criminals are frequently obscured. At first glance, both criminals and terrorists may implement the same tactics of violence. However, the scholars differentiate between the violence, which is practiced by terroristic groups, and the violence, which is employed by criminal organizations.

According to the scholars, criminals employ violence for the purpose of accomplishing tactical objectives in pursuit of monetary rewards, whereas terrorists use violence in order to achieve political surrender of their enemies. Moreover, terrorists aim at intimidating governments in order to obtain political rewards, whereas criminals seek financial benefits or protection by intimidating or coercing public authorities.

Comparing the realities of organized crime and terrorism, it should be emphasized that both types of organizations prefer discrepant approaches to their primal adversaries. Thus, criminal organizations aggrandize their chances of survival by bribing public officials. Such a policy provides organized crime with more predictable foe in the face of a state government. In contrast to criminal organizations, terroristic entities do not seek to maintain stable relationships with governments by placating public officials.

Terrorists aim to overthrow the governments and seek weak unstable political regimes, which are incapable to put up a diligent resistance (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 72). Hence, it follows that criminal organizations give preference to a parasitic way of

subsistence, which implies the exploitation of society and political power to the benefit of organized crime. On the other hand, terrorists are not disposed to appease public authorities. Contrariwise, terroristic organizations praise every possibility of challenge.

However, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) find an exception to the ubiquitous confrontation between terroristic organizations and state governments - the linkage between Al Qaeda and the Taliban in pre 9/11 Afghanistan (p. 74). According to the researchers, the specificity of the aforementioned exception consists in the fact that Al Qaeda has been focused on the terrorism outside the borders of Afghanistan and has made use of symbiotic rather than rival interchange with the Taliban governance (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 74).

Also, Grabovsky and Stohl's revelations concerning the exception of Al-Qaeda may be supplemented with the assertion that the Taliban has been a criminal government itself, carrying out such illicit activities as the trafficking of drugs, trade of weapons, and kidnapping.

Notwithstanding the fact that the aforementioned assertion may be deemed disputable from the perspective of political sovereignty, the apparently criminal nature of the Taliban facilitates the comprehension of the bonds between the terrorist organization of Al-Qaeda and the fundamentalist government of pre-9/11 Afghanistan.

Continuing the discussion of actual facts and conditions of terrorism and organized crime, it is possible to cognize that both types of illicit organizations, either criminal or terroristic ones, are interested in the concealment of all traces of their activities. Thus, both terroristic groups and criminal entities prefer secrecy in respect of the sources of the assets they have at their disposal, because "a 'money trail' trail may be a very convenient way for governments to track them down" (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 74).

Aside from the above, undisputable reciprocities between organized crime and terrorism may extend to more profound intersections. That is, in some situations, organized

criminals become true terrorists. Such incarnation may be exemplified by the functioning of drug gangs in Colombia and Mexico. In the context of Mexican drug business, it should be elucidated that, since 2008, more than sixty police officers have been killed in Ciudad Juarez, Mexico by drug trafficking groups.

The core motive of such murders has laid in the criminals' efforts to initiate the resignation of the chief of police (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 78). In this case, Mexican drug gangs manifest itself as a criminal network, which employs politically motivated violence against state and municipal officials.

To continue, the intersections between criminal and terroristic organizations are visible in various levels of integration. On the one hand, illicit organizations may successfully be engaged in vertical integration, which is required by their activities in the domain of trafficking.

On the other hand, illicit entities may choose to emphasize their horizontal extension, in which they seek for new lines of business (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 78). The disposition to integration manifests the capability of the organizations to adjust to a changing environment by exploiting new types of technologies in order to foster the attainment of their organizational goals. In this case, an illicit organization is required to give up old ways of entrepreneurship in order to avoid hazards.

When all the things are considered, Mincheva and Gurr (2010) make attempts to generalize all actualities of joint terroristic and criminal alliances by way of comprehensive theorizing. Thus, the scholars assay that the connections between terrorists and criminals may be motivated by four factors: ideological, pragmatic, predatory, and opportunistic interdependence (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 82).

In the context of the first factor, it should be clarified that the intersections between two types of illicit organizations may be incited by ideological objectives and unlawful

economic activities, which are undertaken in order to sponsor political programs. As far the second factor is concerned, it is possible to notice that, in some terrorist organizations a financial goal becomes the major objective, while political goals are not abandoned.

Furthermore, the third factor manifests the complete fading away of the political militants' agenda, being substituted for the entirely material gain. Finally, the factor of opportunistic interdependence, asserting the coexistence between political goals and material gain, provides reasonable grounds for the emergence of a political-criminal hybrid (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 82). In this light, the most visible example of opportunistic interdependence is a variety of ethnic Albanian factions.

In the final analysis, the actualities of the nexus between organized crime and terrorism may be summarized as follows:

- In Western Europe, organized crime intersects with terrorism predominantly in the following domains: a) - trafficking of nuclear materials from Russia to Germany; b) - trade in firearms; c) - drug dealing.
- In Asia, the interchange between organized crime and terrorism is visible in the following areas: a) - money laundering; b) - trade of weapons.
- The reality of correlations between organized crime and terrorism may be explicated by the disposition of organized crime to employ the tactics of terrorists' violence in certain cases. However, the violence of terroristic organizations differs from the terrorists' violence of criminal organizations. The core discrepancies may be found in the motives and frequency of violence.
- There is a disparity between organized crime and terrorism in the attitude to state adversaries. On the one hand, organized crime seeks to bribe and appease public authorities in order both to have a predictable adversary and

to ensure the long-term survival. On the other hand, as the rule, criminal organizations are prone to favor each possibility of confrontation with public authorities, seeking no state protection or lenience.

- The example of a partnership between Al-Qaeda and the Taliban government of Afghanistan evinces the linkage between non-governmental terroristic network and the “criminal” government, which is motivated by the common feeling of enmity with regard to the USA and its allies.
- The interactions between organized crime and terroristic organizations are demonstrated by mutual aspiration towards the concealment of the traces of criminal activities. The emphasis on the secrecy is very substantial among various types of illicit entities, either terrorist or criminal, because the failure to hide the “money trail” may facilitate the governmental authorities to track them down.
- Also, terroristic and criminal organizations are interrelated during their engagement in either vertical or horizontal integration. The issue of integration is frequently motivated by the necessity to adjust to new environmental and governmental challenges.

2.4.3. Benefits of the cooperation between terrorist and criminals

Continuing the research, it should be presupposed that intersections between criminal and terroristic organizations are possible because of the existence of certain benefits, which make the illicit activities equally advantages for both parties. Therefore, the principal objective of the current section lies in the determination of such benefits. Besides, a mental one not should be made that, sometime, the cooperation between organized crime and terrorism may be disabled by certain unfavorable conditions and limitations. Thence, the current section is also conceived to disclose the predicaments of such cooperation.

Elaborating on the first objective, it might be appropriate to note that a benefit of cooperation between terrorism and organized crime originates from the principles of networks. According to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), both terroristic groups and criminal organizations look forwards to exploiting “new communication technologies and global mechanisms for finances, and like many other organizations have made use of the principles of networks” (p. 78).

Hence, it follows that the benefits of the technological progress may incite the cooperation between two types of illicit organizations in order to make use of those benefits. Moreover, the researchers give prominence to the phenomenon of illicit networking. In order to affirm the beneficial nature of unlawful networks, the principles of networking must be elucidated next.

In this sense, the Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) assay that illicit networks are provisional, emergent, dynamic, flexible, and entrepreneurial structures, which are frequently given birth by the interchanging correlations between illicit organizations (p. 79). In most cases, the illicit networks function within cross-national boundaries. It means that the illicit networks are inherent to international terroristic entities and transnational criminal organizations. Usually, the networks are less hierarchical than traditional organizations.

The aforesaid nature of illicit networks augments the level of coordination, rather than subordination between the members of the network and, thus, makes the cooperation much more beneficial. Various illicit organizations pursue different purposes by taking part in networks. Nonetheless, all of them, by participating in networks, deem it wise to employ short-term strategies only.

The priority of short-term strategic alliances is justified by the intrinsically discrepant characters of criminal and terroristic organizations. However, the short-term cooperation may be bilaterally beneficial. On the one hand, criminals may offer the terroristic specific

furtherance, such as financial transaction services, illicit issuing of travel documents, unlawful supply of weapons, safe houses, information, *etc.* On the other hand, criminal organizations are likely to gain profits from dealing with terrorists.

To elaborate on the issue of networking, it is possible to notice that the success of cooperation between terrorists and criminals is highly dependent on the complementary factors of such alliances. Notwithstanding the inherent disparity between terrorist tactics and criminal activities, the reciprocal benefits are usually guaranteed by the similarity of complimentary factors. In other words, terrorists and criminal may achieve benefits from the cooperation if their alliances are accompanied by “the same suppliers, means of transport, infrastructure and source of income” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 82).

Likewise, the necessity to take refuge in locations free from law enforcement and security agencies makes the interplay between terroristic entities and criminal organizations apparent. The benefit of cooperation between organized crime and terrorists lies in the fact that the former may supply the latter with shelter, protection, and disguise in order to earn profit. On the other hand, the latter may allow organized crime to carry out a safe illicit business in the territories, controlled by the terrorists.

In summary, the core benefit of cooperation between organized crime and terrorism lies in the mutual realization of their separate objectives.

2.4.4. Effects of terrorism and crime on societies and international community

Above all things, it should be presupposed that terrorism and organized crime make large-scale impacts on social relations. In order to substantiate the aforesaid presupposition a diligent analysis of relevant cases must be conducted. Thus, the vicious nature of organized crime, as well as adjustable essence of terrorism may be particularly exemplified by the problem of stolen goods markets. The phenomenon of stolen goods markets is twofold. On the one hand, it evinces the negative consequences, which are caused by organized crime. On

the other hand, it creates possibilities for both terroristic' groups and criminal organizations to supply their illicit activities with necessary equipment. According to Michael Sutton (2010), stolen goods markets correlate with a wide range of criminal and market-related problems, such as burglary, robbery, general theft, illicit drugs, prostitution, human trafficking, children's pornography, pirated software, music, and film media, fake goods, illicit diamonds, endangered species, illicit antiques, art, and cultural artifacts, and illicit firearms (p. 2).

Hence, it follows that all prohibited goods and services become available due to the existence of illegal markets. In this sense, Sutton (2010) reckons that the functioning of stolen goods markets inflicts a number of harms on societies and international community. Also, the researcher is prone to believe that certain local stolen goods markets are tied with "larger and more sophisticated criminal enterprises" (Sutton, 2010, p. 3).

Therefore, in Sutton's opinion, those who purchase in stolen goods markets give rise to demand for the personal victimization and sustain the victimization of other people. Besides, taking into account the lower pricing at stolen goods markets, it should be asserted that the aforesaid markets undercut profits and narrow business for those vendors who trade legally.

Furthermore, the operation of stolen goods markets decreases "business investment, population stability, and growth necessary for local economies to thrive" (Sutton, 2010, p. 3). It is possible to consent with the aforesaid statement. Actually, the fear of crime diminishes potentialities of the regions and districts, in which stolen goods markets function. These administrative units suffer the deficiency of a legal enterprising, which is inherently capable to augment the stability and prosperity there. Also, the decreasing rates of law-abiding population in the neighborhoods with stolen goods markets prevent local economies from the development.

Moreover, Sutton (2010) assays that the areas with stolen goods markets demonstrate the disposition of illegal merchants not to resort to law and to settle their disputes through violence. In this connection, it should be inferred that the functioning of stolen goods markets, as well as the existence of other illicit markets, not only causes substantial losses in state economies but also encourages the proliferation of violence and delinquency in certain administrative units.

As the foregoing discussion must suggest, organized crime and terrorism also make negative psychological influences on national societies and international community. In some cases, even the media is skillfully manipulated by criminals and terrorists with the purpose to facilitate a dissemination of fear. Thus, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) examine that the role of the media in fostering a climate of fear is predefined by its functions.

That is, in contemporary democratic societies, the core function of the media lies in the conveyance of unbiased and fresh information. In other words, the media informs the citizens about “the matters of public policy” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 107). Besides, the media is also aims at making money for their proprietors. The researchers are prone to believe that news coverage of terrorism and counterterrorism is frequently unbalanced and irrational. Thus, the unreliability of media material lies in journalistic conventions, based on biased official comments.

To sum up, the media plays twofold role in fostering the climate of fear, *i.e.* on the one hand, the perpetrators may use media channels for the delivery of their demands and threats, whereas, on the other hand, the journalists, who convey biased information about terroristic acts and organized crime, foster the proliferation of fear among the masses.

All things being considered, the effects of terrorism and organized crime on individuals, societies, and global community may be generalized as follows:

- Physical extermination of people, as well as the destruction of property, is the most visible effect of terrorism and organized crime.
- Infliction of bodily and mental harm is another impact of terrorism and organized crime on individuals.
- Huge economic losses, which originate from the functioning of multiplicity of illicit markets, including stolen goods markets, is an undeniable effect of organized crime.
- Proliferation of fear, instability and violence due to the existence of biased coverage of terrorism and organized crime.

2.4.5. Anti-criminal measures and counter-terroristic policies

According to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), state responses to terrorism and organized crime are divergent and may include various measures, such as imprisonment and assassination (p. 87). Also, the researchers fancy that some counter-terroristic and anti-criminal techniques may achieve astonishing success, whereas others are doomed to failure.

Additionally, it should be noticed that a large number of measures generate mixed results, which evince that certain objectives are attained but not the others. Finally, there is the category of measures, which give birth to “adverse unintended consequences”, or, in other words, to undesirable outcomes (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 87).

In this sense, a proper identification and evaluation of different counter-terroristic measures will inevitably foster the apprehension of the weakness inherent to terrorism and organized crime. On the other hand, an accurate specification of the vulnerabilities of both terroristic entities and criminal organizations will assist in the elaboration of more advanced and effective measures against the future threats.

Taking into consideration the aforementioned introductory remarks, it is prudent to start the explication of state responses to organized crime and terrorism with the analysis of

military counteractions. These counteractions may be exemplified by two types of state policy: “The War on Drugs” and “The War on Terror” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 88). Assuredly, the practice of military counteractions against organized crime and terror is justified with a very high level of threats derived from these two phenomena.

However, the policy of violent counter-measures is not deprived of side-effects. In the first instance, it should be conceded that governments are prone to overstate the hazards originating from terrorism and organized crime. According to the researchers, contemporary democracies, which seek to take organized crime and terrorism under control, encounter two major challenges.

On the one hand, democratic governments have to guarantee that their anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures are consistent corresponding in degree with “the objective severity of the threat” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 88). In this connection, it should be construed that every counteraction must be adequate to the targeted action. Democratic authorities should think twice before employing aggressive methods of response, which are traditionally practiced in anti-democratic states.

As far as the second challenge to contemporary democracy is concerned, it is possible to agree with Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) that the values of human rights and the rule of law must not be violated by the governmental responses to criminal and terroristic threats.

However, some governments are indulged in avoiding legal predicaments concerning the prosecution of terrorists and criminals. For instance, the United States frequently captures persons suspected in terrorism beyond the frontiers of the country. The aforesaid persons are suspended either by host governments or US special agents. The most visible advantage of such procedures lies in the fact that the captured persons are neither prisoners of war, who might be protected under the Geneva Conventions, nor ordinary criminals, who might be entitled to the protection under the US Constitution (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 89).

Notwithstanding the legality of the aforementioned tactical maneuvers, the Bush administration has also been blamed for direct violations of law. Thus, its war on terror has resulted in a number of dubious actions, including the employment of “coercive interrogation techniques that amounted to torture, and widespread interception of telecommunications without warrant” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 90). In this light, it should be asserted that state responses to organized crime and terrorism may be very questionable and contradictory.

To elaborate further, the second type of responses to the threats, which are derived from organized crime and terroristic organizations is the policy of law enforcement. Thus, contrary to military actions, the policy of law enforcement neither emphasizes the use of violence nor involves military actions. To put it briefly, the core essence of law enforcement strategy consists in the policing responsibilities of specially created agencies, which function on local, national, or international levels.

In the context of law enforcement activities, there is one noticeable impediment which hampers the efficient implementation of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures. In other words, the lack of diligent cooperation among various law enforcement agencies facilitates the successes of terroristic organizations and criminal entities.

The scholars assay that the problem of cooperation may be explicated by the deficiency of communication, when competencies for law enforcement is distributed horizontally and vertically within superfluity of separate structures (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 90). As the result, different jurisdictions prevent law enforcement agencies from the employment of stringent and coordinative actions against the perpetrators.

Apart from the above, it should be noticed that the essence of law enforcement has substantially been changed after the terrorist acts of 9/11. Thus, Gregg Barak (2009) argues that the contemporary police are engaged in fighting terrorist now (p. 103). From the scientific point of view, such transitions in the role of the police are very dubious. The

researchers assert that modern forms of law enforcement absorb more and more military functions. Hence, it follows that the social functions of enforcing laws is being currently substituted by the military objectives to eliminate the enemy.

The aforesaid contemplations may also be supplemented with the facts about the changing role of the FBI. Also, Gregg Barak (2009) claims that the FBI, being formerly conceived to enforce domestic laws, “now has field offices all around the world, in such notable places as Afghanistan, Indonesia, and Uzbekistan” (p. 103). The author’s reflections on the transitions in the domain of law enforcement, as well as the actual amendments to the domestic law enforcement legislation, create reasonable grounds to suggest that the contemporary situation around organized crime and terrorism is genuinely threatening.

Assuredly, the military character of contemporary law enforcement evinces the endeavors of state authorities to adjust to the menacing character of criminal and terrorists’ activities. However, it is impossible to predict whether the militarization and internationalization of law enforcement agencies will be harmless in the framework of democratic processes, which are constantly developing in modern societies.

Keeping on the research, it should be ascertained that the cooperation among law enforcement agencies of different countries is much more complicated than the coordination of responsibilities among national law enforcement units. Nevertheless, the international level of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic responses is the most important. According to Ferrell and Hayward (2004), approximately 3000 Al-Qaeda fighters have been incapacitated in the global war on terror, to a great considerable extent because of the efforts of intelligence entities in Pakistan, Jordan, Spain and other countries. It means that the issue of communication is enormously valuable.

However, Grabovsky and Stohl (2010) argue that communication problems, coupled with jurisdictional and legal inconsistencies, are still a significant handicap in “response to

crime and terrorism” (p. 92). On the other hand, a strict cooperation, in conjunction with the up-to-date intelligence, is capable to create a very substantial resistance against organized crime and terrorism. According to profoundness of the aforementioned problems it manifests itself as the inability of states with different political regimes and systems of law to elaborate common international responses with regard to certain issues of terrorism and organized crime. For instance, India and Pakistan fail to cooperate in the field of counter-terroristic measures because of the preliminary fears that the cooperation may inflict damage on national security (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 93).

To proceed further, another range of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic policies may be reduced to the strategies of prevention. In this sense, the relevance of prevention is justified with the necessity to diminish the probability of criminal or terroristic acts. The precise recognition of the necessity to reduce the likelihood of illicit actions incite state authorities to undertake the following measures: a) restrict the supply of motivated offenders; b) decrease the level of vulnerability of possible targets or victims; c) to extend the magnitude of “capable guardianship” (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 95).

As far as the first preventive measure is concerned, it should be clarified that the reduction of supply to motivated offenders imposes a continuous series of measures, ranging from soft to very hard ones. The aforesaid policies may be exemplified by the reduction of marginalized young people in the United Kingdom, who are potential recruits to criminal organizations or terroristic groups.

Additionally, policies of social exclusions have also been practiced in the United States and Western industrial countries. Thus, since the 9/11 attack, many nations have implemented the policy of social exclusions by tightening border control policies. In other words, it has become more difficult for students and other visitors to obtain entry visas.

In the context of the second range of preventive measure, it should be elucidated that the tightening of accessibility to targets or victims is considered by the researchers to be less productive. The core limitation of such an approach lies in its potentiality to reduce the extent of liberty of those people who are believed to be protected under the anti-criminal or counter-terroristic measures (Grabovsky and Stohl, 2010, p. 95).

Assuredly, it is impossible to erect perfect barriers capable to prevent the criminals and terrorists from penetrating their targeted zones. The fruitlessness of tightening the accessibility to targets and victims lies in the human factor. That is, criminals and terrorists are human beings, similar to their victims. Hence, it follows that the authorities are impotent to conduct total verification of each potential terrorist or criminal without infringing on human rights and liberties. Another problem lies in the inability of citizens to adjust to possible threats of terrorism. According to Morrison (2006), the contemporary menace of terrorism is not something that happens somewhere else and to someone else in “the safe distance over the horizon”. The true menaces of terrorism incite law enforcement and security agencies both to augment the protection their citizens and to withhold themselves from encroaching on civil rights and liberties.

Likewise, taking into consideration the third type of preventive measures, it might be appropriate to note that the enhancement of capable guardianship is deemed a rather advanced array of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures. According to Grabovsky and Stohl (2010), state authorities may increase the productivity of the measures by intercepting telecommunications in particular (p. 96). The interception of communications among citizens is regarded by the thinkers as an extreme manifestation of state power. The fact is that the interceptive actions may encroach on human rights and liberties similar to the previously delineated set of preventive measures.

In addition, it is possible to agree with some researchers that some contemporary policies on the prevention of crime and terrorism are doomed to failure because of their unsubstantiated character. According to Watts, Bessant, and Hil (2008), the core preventive function of criminology lies in searching and retrieving “the specific dispositional or causal factors leading to crime and delinquency” (p. 154). In this light, it should be explicated that only a comprehensive analysis of the factors leading to crime may provide the footing for the following preventive programs.

It follows that state authorities are required to base their programs of crime and terrorism prevention on the relevant achievements of criminology and other related sciences, such as sociology. According to Rhodes (2000), criminology, as the general study of crime, should be regarded as a subdivision of broader field of sociology than the study of collective conducts and behaviors (p. 29). It means that organized crime and terrorism, as the types of collective behaviors, are suggested to be investigated by way of sociological research as well. Criminology, in conjunction with sociology, will inevitably foster the understanding of the collective behavior within criminal organizations and terroristic groups and, therefore, will facilitate the process of prevention.

The relevance of sociology in the field of crime and terrorism prevention also is acknowledged by Shoham, Knepper, and Kett (2009). According to the researchers, crime is a phenomenon, which penetrates cultures of all racial, ethnic, and social layers. In this sense, the knowledge of social groups and its specificities, as well as the cognition of social behaviors and societal processes, is priceless for the domain of responses to organized crime and terrorism.

Apart from the above, it should be clarified that anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures may be reduced to various types of detention, confiscation of criminal assets,

witness protection, regulatory interventions, *etc.* In the international level, the biggest part of the aforementioned policies is connected with the existent international criminal law.

Thus, according to Mangai Natarajan (2002), the United Nations identifies nineteen separate types of international and transnational crimes, which require to be combated globally. These crimes particularly include the following illicit activities: money laundering, theft of art and cultural properties, terrorist acts, trafficking of exotic animals, arms, drugs and persons, theft of intellectual property, aircraft and land hijacking, sea piracy, computer crime, insurance fraud, trade in human body parts, environmental crime, infiltration of legal businesses, fraudulent bankruptcy, corruption and bribery of officials, *etc.* (p. 479).

In this light, it should be clarified that, in the international level, certain categories of international crime are prosecuted in the International Criminal Court. According to Gilbert (2006), the enactment of the Statute of the International Criminal Court in 1998 has set up the general jurisdiction of an international criminal tribunal to investigate and prosecute the crime, which are enumerated in article 5 (p. 1). According to article 5 of the Statute, the Court's jurisdiction is limited to the most serious crimes that concern the international community, such as genocide, crime against humanity, war crimes, and the crime of aggression (UN, 1998, article 5). In this light, Gilbert (2006) reckons that the provisions of the Statute may be suitable for the prosecution of transnational fugitive criminals in the International Criminal Court accused of committing the crime against humanity (p. 290).

After everything having been given due consideration, it should be generalized. The points of generalization may be enumerated as follows:

- Anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures are diverse. Some of them are more efficient and some are less effective.
- The military measures, such as “The War on Terror” and “The War on Drugs”, are frequently employed against the most serious criminal and terroristic threats.

However, contemporary democracies may encounter two major challenges by practicing military measures: a) inappropriateness between the seriousness of a threat and severity of the measures; b) possible infringements on human rights and liberties.

- Multiplicity of law enforcement policies constitutes another set of anti-criminal and counter-terrorist measures. The major drawbacks and gaps in law enforcement are an insufficient communication between law enforcement agencies as well as the lack of cooperation due to jurisdictional problems.
- International cooperation between states is another level of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures. Coordinated actions of two or more state are capable to fight the most serious threats derived from international terrorism and transnational organized crime. Nevertheless, both the lack of trust and security preoccupations is the main impediments on the road towards the enforcement of international law and order.
- Preventive measures, such as the restriction of supply of motivated offenders, decrease of the targets and victims' vulnerability, and capable guardianship are directed towards the most desirable consequences of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic activities. This notwithstanding, preventive measures are impotent to eliminate all threats on their preliminary stages because terrorists, as well as criminals, are the same people as their victims and, therefore, the restrictions regarding the potential perpetrators implies infringements on individual rights and liberties of other citizens.
- Other anti-criminal and counter-terroristic measures include various types of detention, confiscation of criminal assets, witness protection, regulatory interventions, *etc.*

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introductory notes

In the present chapter, the most relevant methods of research, which have been used in respect of the intersections between organized crime and terrorism and their core menaces for individuals, societies, and global community, are likely to be depicted, discussed, and justified. Moreover, it should be emphasized that the current chapter is conceived to expound on the relevance and potentialities of the chosen methods in both answering the research questions and testing the research hypotheses.

In this connection, the present chapter consists of three reciprocal parts: 1) - introductory notes; 2) - secondary data collection methods (the description and justification of the relevant secondary data collection methods); 3) - primary data collection methods (the interpretation and advocacy of particular primary data collection methods).

3.2. Secondary data collection methods

Above all things, it should be differentiated between primary data and secondary data. The principal discrepancy between two data collection designs lies in the sources of information. Secondary data collection methods rely on the previous researches and interpretations.

Such data is collected from secondary sources. Despite being less valuable and precise, secondary data collection methods are widely used in academic research. Moreover, the aforesaid data collection design has been implemented in the literature review through the evaluation of previous researches and findings. The conducted study has been grounded on the following theoretical methods (secondary data collection methods): analysis, synthesis, comparison, categorization, classification, review, and critique.

3.2.1. Analysis

It should be taken into consideration that analysis is a mental process, which includes the division of a relatively complex phenomenon, definition, or argument into smaller components in order to achieve more lucid and undisputed apprehension of it. In social research, analysis is an undeniable method, which is traditionally applied through the following sequence: 1) - data preparation; 2) - descriptive statistics; 3) - inferential statistics (Trochim, 2006).

As far as the first step of analysis is concerned, it should be elucidated that data preparation involves searching, selecting, checking, transforming, and structuring the research data. In the context of the second step, it should be claimed that the most salient features of the prepared data have been described next.

To elaborate further, the step of inferential statistics is designed to examine the research problems as well as to test the research hypotheses. At this stage, various inferences have been made from the previously described data which serves as the premises.

The method of analysis has been ubiquitously applied as a secondary data collection method. In the literature review, the concepts of organized crime and terrorism have been diligently researched by way of analyzing publications and findings of previous scholars. Thus, at the first stage, all the relevant material concerning the phenomena of the organized crime and terrorism has been prepared.

Furthermore, the cleared data about various dimensions of organized crime and terrorism has been described next. At this stage, it has become possible to grasp the most prominent characteristics of organized crime and terrorism, including the features of transnational organized crime and international terrorism. After the persistent analysis of previous researches appropriate inferences have been made.

3.2.2. Synthesis

The method of synthesis is indissolubly connected with the method of analysis. However, the implications of synthesis are totally opposite to those of analysis. Synthesis is designed to combine the individual elements, which are separated by way of analyzing, in order to develop something consistently new.

Also, the reciprocity between analysis lies in two constituents: on the one hand, synthesis is based on the results of a preceding analysis and, on the other hand, analysis may require the consequent synthesis in order to verify its results (Ritchey, 1996). Hence, the results of the literature review, obtained by means of analysis, have been verified through synthesis of various studies and approaches to the intersections between organized crime and terrorism.

3.2.3. Comparison

The method of comparison is widely used in various social researches aiming to detect and quantify the relationships between two or among more variables via observation, collation, and confrontation. Moreover, it should be asserted that the method of comparison incorporates two dimensions: retrospective and prospective.

Hence, retrospective comparative studies accentuates on the examination of events and conceptions, which have already taken place. Contrary to retrospective comparison, prospective studies always explore the phenomena from “present forward” (Carpi and Egger ND.). The method of comparison has been justified with the following arguments:

- The particularities of organized crime have been discerned from those of terrorism.
- Various types of organized crime and terrorism, such as mafia, transnational organized crime, international terrorism, have been compared with the purpose to

clarify the salient features of each type and understand their specific influence on individuals, societies and global community.

3.2.4. Categorization

Categorization is another important method, which is frequently applied in social research studies. The method of categorization may be defined as the process of study, in which “ideas and objects are recognized, differentiated and understood” (Miller, Vandome, and McBrewster, 2010). The most noticeable particularity of the method lies in its disposition to be essential in prognoses, inferences, and decision making process. In view of the above, it is possible to determine three kinds of categorization, which are originally elaborated by Plato.

The first sort of categorization is called classical categorization, which still relies on Plato’s theoretical framework. The second kind of categorization is dedicated to the matters of conceptual clustering. According to the researchers, conceptual clustering consists in the formulation of conceptual descriptions regarding classes first and in classification of classes next (Miller *et al.*, 2010). The third type of categorization is associated with the prototype theory.

To every intent and purpose, conceptual clustering should be regarded as the most applicable method of categorization in the following study. The applicability of the method may be justified with the requirement to explore the transition from organized crime to terrorism, and *vice versa*, as well as to detect the main intersections between terrorism and organized crime.

The issues of transformations and intersections have required diligent clustering and description of various types of organized crime and terrorist entities. Also, various types of threats imposed by organized crime on individuals, societies, and global community have been classified in accordance with the previously made descriptions.

3.2.5. Review

Review is an independent method of theoretical study, which has clearly manifested itself in the chapter dedicated to literature review. The method of review is purposed to provide the familiarization with the existing academic literature. In this connection, the method takes into consideration only that scientific literature, which concerns the predefined problems and research questions.

Nowadays, the process of literature reviews is facilitated by the development of ubiquitous electronic databases and on-line libraries (Marczyk, DeMatteo, and Fetinger, 2010). The undeniable relevance of the review resides in its capability to acquaint the researcher with contemporary scientific approaches. Also, the method of review has helped to represent the study as “an extension of that has previously been learned about a particular topic” (Maxfield and Babbie, 2011, p. 17). Review is conceived to augment the conducted research with inferences, which are made in respect of the previous researches.

3.2.6. Critique

The method of critique should be regarded as a systematic and progressive exploration of the original constituents of a phenomenon (Gasche, 2007, p.401). The method of critique has aimed primarily at strengths and limitations of the investigated material. Also, taking into consideration Gasche’s interpretation of the method, it is possible to notice that critique is both a systematic and progressive scientific design.

In the context of the current study, it might be appropriate to note that critique has been employed with the purpose to explore the phenomena of organized crime and terrorism in the framework of their constituents and relations. As the progressive method, critique has helped to construe the temporal dimensions of organized crime and terrorism as well as the stable ties and intersections between them. All things being considered, the method of

critique is the very profound design, which is justified with its inclination towards the in-depth examination of the research problems.

3.3. Primary data collection methods

To elaborate further, it should be stated that primary data collection methods compose another set of the research methodology. The key superiority of primary data collection methods consists in their capability to attain more precise and undisputed results.

Moreover, primary data collection methods are used to enhance validity and reliability of the research findings. Traditionally, such methods are divided in quantitative research methods and qualitative research methods.

Taking into account emergent factors, such as the necessity to achieve a deep understanding of the researched issues, and the possibility to trade detail for generality, it has been decided to use qualitative research methods. Therefore, the current methodology is grounded on the qualitative research method of case study.

3.3.1. Case study (qualitative research)

The method of case study is such a qualitative research design, which involves a profound investigation of one or several cases. In order to grasp the peculiarities of the method the differentiation between the terms “case” and “case study” needs to be made. In this light, the concept of case embodies a specific person, material object, or occurrence (Yin, 2009).

On the other hand, the idea of case study is explicated as a qualitative research design, which is directed towards the formation of better understanding of the case by making appropriate inferences (Yin, 2011).

Additionally, it might be relevant to note that the most noticeable characteristic of case study consists in its methodological reliance on the evidence, which is retrieved from a

single case. Moreover, case study is potent to elucidate features of broader set of cases by analyzing only one consistent case (Gerring, 2007).

As far as the current research is concerned, it should be asserted that case study is a justifiable method beyond controversy. The conducted research has disclosed very profound and controversial issues, which are related to organized crime, terrorism, and the nexus between them. Thus, the issue of transition has been one of the most urgent problems in the accomplished study.

The concept of transition implies a reciprocal substitution, whereas the notion of transformation means certain changes in the domain of organized crime and terrorism. Therefore, the unique cases of organized crime, coupled with the contemporary cases of terrorism, have been investigated in a complex manner. The analyzed cases include the following illicit organizations: Al-Qaeda, Jamaican Yardies, Russian Mafia, China Triad's organizations, Yakuza, Colombian and Mexican drug gangs, *etc.*

Moreover, it should be elucidated that the method of case study has helped to examine transformations, transitions and impacts of organized crime and terrorism on each other as well as on social processes around the globe.

Due to the fact that there is no standardization of case study procedures, each research is predestined to be unique and specific (Trochim, 2006). In the context of the conducted research, the study of individual cases of organized crime and terrorism has been employed in the following sequence: a) - search and retrieval of the cases; b) - examination of the case salient features; c) - comparison with other cases; d) - establishment of appropriate inferences and their extension to the broad set of relative cases.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The conducted study has reached the following results:

- The most comprehensive definition of terrorism has been found. Thus, according to the U.S. Code the concept of terrorism is associated with premeditated, politically motivated violence, which is conducted against noncombatant targets by sub-national groups of clandestine agents.
- The most popular impetuses to terrorism include a generalized protest, a desire for revenge in response to an apprehended injustice, an incentive to change the political regime and aspiration to assert a sense of manhood in a “disempowering world”.
- The core discrepancy between state and international terrorism lies in the fact that state terrorism is perpetrated, either directly, or indirectly through private persons, or latently, by official authorities of a particular state, whereas international terrorism is usually represented by non-state terroristic groups or non-governmental organizations.
- The most comprehensive definition of organized crime has been found. It implies that organized crime is “a widespread group of professional criminals who rely on illegal activities as a way of life and whose activities are coordinated and controlled through some form of centralized syndicate” (Wild, 2006, p. 192). The conducted research has verified the aforesaid definition of the concept as true.
- Organized crime is a very complex and profound phenomenon, which has the direct nexus with the level of social of social development in the state.
- According to Ruggiero (2008), there are three main categories of organized crime: predatory, parasitic, and symbiotic ones.
- The emergence of organized crime is connected with various factors, such as social inadequacies, deviant adaptations, strain, grievances, insufficiency of social control, weaknesses of state power, *etc.*
- Practical dimensions of organized crime are approachable through the diligent analysis of the structure and role of members of specific criminal organizations.

- State organized crime, being confined within a single state or a particular intrastate territory, is not potent enough to affect global processes, whereas transnational organized crime is a menacing phenomenon, which is enrooted in the multiplicity of countries.
- Multinational organized crime is more structured and organized than state organized crime, which is dictated by the primary objective to gain profit from various criminal activities, such as money laundering, trafficking of people, illegal drugs, and goods, functioning of various black markets, fraud, *etc.*
- The proliferation of transnational organized crime is dependent on global processes as well as on gaps in international regulation and policies, including restraints of trade, prohibition laws, liberalization of global economy, *etc.* In contrast to multinational organized crime, state organized crime predominantly depends on the processes being existent within the borders of a particular state.
- The emergence of either political or religious aspirations inside organized crime inevitably triggers the transition from a mere money-motivated functioning to politically or religiously motivated struggles. Contrariwise, the fading away of political or religious impetus is likely to foster the conversion of the terroristic organization into a mere criminal entity.
- The Sicilian case manifests the truth of a statement that the threat of prosecution may drive organized crime towards the implementation of terrorists' techniques in order to intimidate the authorities and guarantee security and safety of the criminal way of life.
- The nature of criminal networks encourages both criminal organizations and terroristic entities to cooperate and satisfy reciprocal needs without losing their integrity and independence.

- The interchange between organized and terrorism is impossible without a sufficient amount of trust. Therefore, trust is a very important prerequisite to the interactions between organized crime and terrorism, which evinces the mutual aspiration to avoid penetration and survive in the underworld.
- The reality of correlation between organized crime and terrorism may be explicated by the disposition of organized crime to employ the tactics of terrorists' violence in certain cases. However, the violence of terroristic organizations differs from the terrorists' violence of criminal organizations. The core discrepancies may be found in the motives and frequency of violence.
- There is a disparity between organized crime and terrorism in the attitude to state adversaries. On the one hand, organized crime seeks to bribe and appease public authorities in order to have both a predictable adversary and to ensure the long-term survival. On the other hand, as the rule, criminal organizations are prone to favor each possibility of confrontation with public authorities, seeking no state protection or lenience.
- The example of a partnership between Al-Qaeda and the Taliban government of Afghanistan evinces the linkage between non-governmental terroristic network and the "criminal" government, which is motivated by the common feeling of enmity with regard to the USA and its allies.
- The interactions between organized crime and terroristic organizations are demonstrated by mutual aspiration towards the concealment of the traces of criminal activities. The emphasis on the secrecy is very substantial among various types of illicit entities, either terroristic or criminal ones, because the failure to hide the "money trail" may facilitate the governmental authorities to track them down.

- Also, terroristic and criminal organizations are interrelated during their engagement in either vertical or horizontal integration. The issue of integration is frequently motivated by the necessity to adjust to new environmental and governmental challenges.
- Physical extermination of people, as well as the destruction of property, is the most visible effect of terrorism and organized crime.
- Infliction of bodily and mental harm is another impact of terrorism and organized crime on individuals.
- Huge economic losses, which originate from the functioning of multiplicity of illicit markets, including stolen goods markets, are an undeniable effect of organized crime.
- Proliferation of fear, instability and violence due to the existence of biased coverage of terrorism and organized crime.

CHAPTER V DISCUSSION

The conducted research has manifested itself as a very profound theoretical evaluation of different publications on terrorism and organized crime. Taking into consideration all used resources, it should be claimed that Grabovsky and Stohl's publication on the nexus between terrorist and organized crime is considered to be the most comprehensive approach to the investigated issues. Also, the most valuable inferences have been made from Grabovsky and Stohl's premises.

Apart from the above, it might be appropriate to note that the theoretical dimensions of organized crime and terrorism have been comprehensively evaluated by virtue of Ruggiero's considerations. The author's classification of predatory, parasitic and symbiotic forms of organized crime has helped to expand the apprehension of the phenomenon. To elaborate further, it should be elucidated that a special emphasis has been laid on legal definition of the concepts of terrorism and organized crime.

The significance of legal provisions, specifying what terrorism or organized crime is, lies in their official character. Also, the legal definitions of the terms help to enhance the understanding of anti-criminal and counter-terroristic policies.

Besides, it should be claimed that the conducted research is not devoid of limitations and gaps. Thus, the most noticeable shortcoming of the performed investigations consists in their incapability to delineate various impediments and predicaments on the road towards the interplay between terrorism and organized crime. A diligent evaluation of the obstacles, preventing the cooperation between terroristic groups and criminal organizations might have aided states in the elaboration of more efficient counter-measures against both types of illicit activities.

CHAPTER VI: CONCLUSIONS

After everything having been given due consideration, it should be generalized that there is a true linkage between terrorism and organized crime, which is ignited by the necessity to survive and thrive in a challenging global environment. Thus, the thesis statement has been followed and tested as true. Also, the research objectives have been achieved completely:

- Both theoretical and practical dimensions of the phenomenon of terrorism have been explicated.
- The phenomenon of organized crime has been evaluated in its relation to terrorism.
- The nexus between terrorism and organized crime has been ascertained.
- The implications of anti-terroristic policies, as well as their secondary impacts on organized crime have been depicted.

Also, the success of the conducted study has been augmented by the proper answers to the research questions.

Apart from the above, the conducted study has verified the research hypotheses as true: a) Organized crime and terrorism genuinely intersect only if interdependent interests between two types of illicit organizations emerge; b) The transition from organized crime to terrorism, and *vice versa*, is possible only if the “status quo” of previous activities changes; c) There are not any universal panacea against terrorism and organized crime and, therefore, each emergent threat requires individually elaborated countermeasures.

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