

# TERRORISM, ORGANISED CRIME AND CORRUPTION NETWORKS AND LINKAGES

EDITED BY
LESLIE HOLMES

# Terrorism, Organised Crime and Corruption

Networks and Linkages

Edited by

Leslie Holmes

Professor, Department of Political Science and Deputy Director, Contemporary Europe Research Centre, the University of Melbourne, Australia

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## Abbreviations and Acronyms

ACC Anti-Corruption Commission
AFP Australian Federal Police
AML Anti-Money Laundering
ASEM Asia-Europe Meeting

ASIC Australian Securities and Investments Commission
ASIO Australian Security Intelligence Organisation

ATM Automatic Teller Machine AWB Australian Wheat Board

BBC British Broadcasting Corporation

BCCI Bank of Credit and Commerce International

B2B business to business

CCC Corruption and Crime Commission
CDPC (Committee on Crime Problems)
CEE Central and Eastern Europe

CEEC Central and East European country

CESAA Contemporary European Studies Association of Australia

CJC Criminal Justice Commission

CLERP Corporations Law Economic Reform Program

CMC Crime and Misconduct Commission
CMEA Council for Mutual Economic Assistance

CoE Council of Europe

CPI Corruption Perceptions Index

CTCU Counter-Terrorism Coordination Unit
CTED Counter-Terrorism Executive Directorate
EBBOY Encyclopaedia Britannica Book of the Year

EBRD European Bank for Reconstruction and Development

EC European Community
EEA European Economic Area
EFTA European Free Trade Area
ELN (National Liberation Army)
EMU Economic and Monetary Union
ESRs Eight Special Recommendations
ETA (Basque Fatherland and Liberty)

EU European Union

FARC (Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia)

Financial Action Task Force FATF FBI Federal Bureau of Investigation **FCPA** Foreign Corrupt Practices Act FDI Foreign Direct Investment FIG Financial and Industrial Group FIU financial intelligence unit FOZZ (Foreign Debt Servicing Fund) FRs Forty Recommendations Financial Services Authority FSA **FSB** (Federal Security Service) GDP Gross Domestic Product

GRECO (Group of States against Corruption)

HREOC Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission ICAC Independent Commission Against Corruption

ICV Islamic Council of Victoria

IFC International Financial Corporation IGO Intergovernmental Organisation

IL International Law

IMF International Monetary Fund
IMU Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan

IOU I owe you

IRA Irish Republican Army

ISPAC International Scientific and Professional Advisory Council

ITU International Telecommunication Union

JHA Justice and Home Affairs

JI Jemaah Islamiyah

KADEK (Freedom and Democracy Congress of Kurdistan)

KGB (Committee of State Security)

KOR (Committee for the Defence of Workers)

KYC Know Your Customer

MGC Multidisciplinary Group on Corruption

MLRs Money Laundering Regulations

MONEYVAL (Select Committee of Experts on the Evaluation of Anti-

Money Laundering Measures)

NATO North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NCCT Non-Cooperative Countries or Territories

NCTC National Counterterrorism Center

NFL National Football League

NGO Non-Governmental Organisation

NSCOC National Service for Combating Organised Crime

NSW New South Wales NT Northern Territory

OAS Organization of American States
OCC Official Corruption Commission

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OLAF (European Anti-Fraud Office)
OMRI Open Media Research Institute
OPI Office of Police Integrity

PCAI Parliamentary Commissioner for Administrative

Investigations

PHARE (originally) Poland and Hungary: Assistance for

Restructuring their Economies

PIC Police Integrity Commission
PKK (Kurdistan Workers' Party)
PRC People's Republic of China
PZU (Polish Office of Insurance)

QLD Queensland

RFE/RL OCTW Radio Free Europe/Radio Liberty Organized Crime and

Terrorism Watch

RICO Racketeer Influenced and Corrupt Organizations ROSC Report on the Observance of Standards and Codes

SA South Australia

SLD (Democratic Left Alliance)
STR Suspicious Transaction Reporting

SWB/EE Summary of World Broadcasts/Eastern Europe

TI Transparency International TNC Transnational Corporation

UK United Kingdom UN United Nations

UNODC United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime

UNSC United Nations Security Council

USA United States of America

VAT Value Added Tax

VCAT Victorian Civil and Administrative Tribunal

WA Western Australia

WMD Weapons of Mass Destruction WTO World Trade Organisation

#### Contributors

Mark DaCosta Alleyne is Associate Professor in the Department of Communication at Georgia State University, having moved there in 2005 from the University of California at Los Angeles. His publications include *Global Lies? Propaganda, the UN and World Order* (2003).

**Frank Bovenkerk** is Professor of Criminology at the Willem Pompe Institute for Criminal Law and Criminology at the University of Utrecht. Together with Michael Levi, he edited *The Organized Crime Community: Essays in Honor of Alan A. Block* (2006).

**Diana Bowman** is a Research Fellow in the Monash Centre for Regulatory Studies, Faculty of Law at Monash University. She has published in the areas of governing nanotechnology, public accountability, public—private partnerships, and utility regulation.

Bashir Abou Chakra is a practising lawyer in the Lebanese Lawyers' Bar Association in Lebanon. He has specialised in the internationalisation of crime and criminal justice. He is now also a Legal Consultant/Investigator for the Intellectual Property firm Saba & Co., whose mission is to combat organised piracy, fraudulent activities and counterfeiting (including smuggling of these), and infringements of trademarks and patents.

Adam Czarnota is Associate Professor in the School of Law and Co-Director of the European Law Centre, University of New South Wales, Sydney, and Senior Fellow at the Contemporary Europe Research Centre, University of Melbourne. Together with Wojciech Sadurski and Martin Krygier, he coedited Spreading Democracy and the Rule of Law? The Impact of EU Enlargement for the Rule of Law, Democracy and Constitutionalism in Postcommunist Legal Orders (2006).

Rémy Davison is Lecturer in International Relations in the School of Political and Social Inquiry and a member of the Global Terrorism Research Unit at Monash University. He is also a Fellow of the Contemporary Europe Research Centre at the University of Melbourne. His recent publications include *The* 

New Global Politics of the Asia-Pacific, co-authored with Michael Connors and Jörn Dosch (RoutledgeCurzon, 2004).

Maarten van Dijck is a Senior Researcher at the Tilburg University, the Netherlands and affiliated with the research project 'Assessing Organised Crime and Human Security in the Balkan Region'. He co-edited (with Petrus C. van Duyne, A. Maljevic, K. von Lampe and J. Newell) *The Organisation of Crime for Profit: Conduct, Law and Measurement* (2006).

**Petrus C. van Duyne** is Professor of Empirical Penal Science at the Tilburg University, the Netherlands. He initiated the annual Cross—border Crime Colloquia in Europe. Together with Michael Levi, he co-authored *Drugs and Money: Managing the Drug Trade and Crime Money in Europe* (2005).

George Gilligan is Senior Research Fellow in the Department of Business Law and Taxation at Monash University. He has taught at the University of Cambridge, Exeter University and Middlesex University in the UK, and La Trobe University, the University of Melbourne and Monash University in Australia. His most recent book is *Crime, Truth and Justice: Official Inquiry, Discourse, Knowledge* (2004, co-edited with John Pratt).

**Leslie Holmes** is Professor of Political Science, and Deputy Director of the Contemporary Europe Research Centre, at the University of Melbourne. His most recent book is *Rotten States?: Corruption, Post-Communism and Neoliberalism* (2006).

Pete Lentini is Co-Convenor of the Global Terrorism Research Unit, School of Political and Social Inquiry, Monash University. He has previously served Monash University as a Deputy Head and Head of the School of Political and Social Inquiry, and Associate Dean (Research), Faculty of Arts. Together with Marika Vicziany and David Wright-Neville, he co-edited *Regional Security in the Asia Pacific: 9/11 and After* (2004).

**Peter Shearman** was until recently Associate Professor of Political Science at the University of Melbourne and is now a Principal Fellow of the Contemporary Europe Research Centre. His most recent books are *European Security after 9/11* (2004), which he co-edited with Matthew Sussex, and *Australian Security after 9/11* (2006), co-edited with Derek McDougall.

Yuri Tsyganov moved to Australia in 1998 from Russia, where he had been a researcher at IMEMO, Russia's leading international relations institute attached to the Academy of Sciences. For several years after arriving in Australia, he conducted research into corruption in Russia and Central Europe at the University of Melbourne. He has recently taken up a public service position in Canberra, while retaining his Fellowship at the Contemporary Europe Research Centre. He is the author of Russian Policy Toward Northeast Asia: In Search of a New Approach (2003).

## Preface and Acknowledgements

Together with the Contemporary European Studies Association of Australia (CESAA), the Contemporary Europe Research Centre (CERC) at the University of Melbourne has been organising an annual international conference for many years. In the early 2000s, we decided to conduct an experiment; rather than focus on a given problem purely in the European context, we would compare the situations in Europe and Australia, with a view to identifying resonances and, in turn, being able to suggest areas in which either side could usefully learn from the other. This comparative approach proved to be a success; attendances at the conferences increased, and we were able to demonstrate to Australianists and Europeanists that they could often learn much of relevance from each other.

The present volume is based on the November 2003 annual CERC conference (though all papers were updated in 2005), at which we again adopted this comparative approach. The first versions of most of the chapters in this book were presented there. However, when we came to consider publishing a book based on the conference, it was soon agreed that there was an obvious hiatus; how could we publish a collection on terrorism, corruption and organised crime that did not include a chapter on US perspectives? At least since 11 September 2001 ('9/11'), terrorism had moved to the top of the international security agenda, and everyone was anxious to have as deep an understanding of it – including of its financing – as possible. I am very grateful to Mark Alleyne (at the time he was approached, of the University of California at Los Angeles, now of Georgia State University) for agreeing to produce a chapter at short notice on an American perspective on terrorism and an aspect of its links to corruption.

This volume considers the three types of crime both individually and in terms of bilateral and trilateral connections. As the editor, I consciously avoided insisting on a standardised format in each chapter, or on standardised definitions; while such homogeneity is sometimes appropriate, particularly in collections intended for use as textbooks, it can also stifle the creative approach. Moreover, diversity – allowing authors to seek their own paths – is often more enlightening than uniformity and tidiness. Given that so many of the terms used in this study remain contested, insistence on agreed definitions

would have been both artificial and misleading, since they could create a false impression of a higher level of consensus among analysts – even among the small number included in this volume – than really exists. While I tend to prefer deliberative to agonistic approaches to democracy, I accept that there are times when compromise – here referring to the use of agreed terms – can result in outcomes that not only suit none of the discursive participants, but also none of the observers.

Another point about terminology is that 'networks' is used here in the everyday sense of an interconnected group or system, not in the more technical sense used in network theory (diktyology) or its specifically social version, social network analysis. Unfortunately, many of the methods used by anthropologists, sociologists and other social scientists for analysing networks are not available for research into the types of phenomena studied in this collection, largely because of the secrecy surrounding them and the related difficulties involved in interviewing and observing members of criminal groups.

There are many individuals and organisations to thank for their assistance in bringing about the conference, and hence this book. First, I would like to thank all the contributors, some of whom came literally half way around the world to participate in our conference. Many of them would have been unable to participate had it not been for the generous funding provided by CESAA, the Global Terrorism Research Unit at Monash University, the National Europe Centre (Australian National University, Canberra) and the Royal Netherlands Embassy — to each of which I express my sincere gratitude. For invaluable administrative assistance, I wish to thank Dora Horvath, Zoe Knox, Suzy Mueller, Iva Pauker and Tony Phillips.

Leslie Holmes Melbourne

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#### 1. Introduction

#### Leslie Holmes

#### **GROWING AWARENESS**

On 27 July 2003, there was an attempted military coup in the Philippines. It was soon put down. But it is worth noting the principal reason given by the rebels for the uprising: they were protesting against corruption, and the close collaboration between corrupt officials (especially in the military) and terrorists (*Philippine Star* online, 31 July 2003, visited May 2005; *South China Morning Post*, 1 August 2003: 11). This identification of connections between corruption and terrorism in a specific context was relatively new. But even the recognition by governments and official agencies of the full significance – economically, socially, politically and in security terms – of organised crime and corruption, and of the connections between these, is relatively new. A few pieces of evidence will support this contention; the choice here is highly selective, since further examples are provided in subsequent chapters.

In April and May 1996, the then heads of the CIA (John Deutch) and the FBI (Louis Freeh) both warned the US Congress that Russian organised crime and corruption were already undermining the Russian system, and could pose a threat to the USA. Towards the end of that year, former CIA head James Woolsey claimed that officials in the Russian Ministries of Defence and the Interior were, ' ... very much in bed with Russian organized crime groups' (all from Webster 1997: esp. 3, 51). Shortly after this, in 1997, President Clinton became the first US president to recognise officially, publicly and explicitly the interconnectedness of corruption and organised crime. This was followed in May 1998 by the publication of the USA's first ever 'International Crime Control Strategy', which was the principal outcome of President Clinton's October 1995 Decision Directive 42, calling for a specific program to address the dangers of international crime to the USA. In this, it was argued that organised crime gangs and 'disreputable business interests sometimes aligned with them' use 'corrupt political connections' to avoid fair economic competition, and that 'Organized crime now uses bribery as one of its primary tools to establish front companies aimed at gaining control of legitimate businesses and penetrating the legitimate economy' (International Crime Control Strategy 1988: 18, 81). The US government had begun to recognise that official corruption (that is, committed by officers of the state) and organised crime feed off each other, and often work hand in glove. A prime example of this is people smuggling (usually referred to in official US documents as alien smuggling), which, together with its close relative human trafficking, could not occur on the scale it does globally were it not for corrupt officers of the state – particularly in customs, the police, and sometimes the military – colluding with criminal gangs to circumvent various states' and international laws.<sup>2</sup>

But awareness has been developing rapidly in recent years, and an increasing number of cases, and the ramifications of these, are being reported. In February 2005, for example, Australian authorities publicly announced their concern that Chinese crime gangs (misguidedly described in the media as Mafia) had been corrupting senior police officials in Papua New Guinea. Among the many negative implications of this were that this was further delegitimising a regime already suffering from a low level of popular support; this could lead to mass unrest and hence instability, with possibly profound knock-on security effects in the whole region. Another serious aspect of this, which could directly impact upon Australia, was the limited evidence that this collusion was facilitating people-smuggling and drug-trafficking (*The Age* [Melbourne], 19 February 2005: 1–2).

Even more recent than the official awareness of bilateral connections between organised crime and corrupt officials is the acknowledgement of either bilateral links between corrupt officials or organised crime gangs and terrorists, or trilateral ones between these three groups. The *International Crime Control Strategy* (1998: 17) referred to above acknowledged that terrorists sometimes use 'drugs trafficking and other criminal activities to finance their operations', and in this sense implicitly recognised some overlap between organised crime and terrorism. However, the often close and direct ties were yet to be acknowledged. Moreover, the USA's growing awareness of networks was well ahead of that of most other countries and international organisations. The situation changed dramatically following 9/11. A few examples of official recognition since September 2001 will highlight the fact that a rapidly growing number of governments and international organisations now acknowledge that connections can and do exist, and that they pose significant dangers.

3

Some 330 people, many of them children, were killed as a result of a terrorist hostage-taking exercise in Beslan, Northern Ossetia (Southern Russia) in early September 2004. Shortly after the incident, Russian Prosecutor General Vladimir Ustinov acknowledged that controlling terrorism in the future would be much more difficult than it should be because of so many corrupt Russian officials - particularly in the security forces - colluding with terrorists and/or crime gangs.3 A survey conducted by the Levada polling organisation in September 2004 revealed that more than 50 per cent of Russians believed that the Beslan incident had been possible largely because of corrupt officials. There were at least three significant ways in which corrupt officials were assisting terrorists. First and perhaps most obviously, they were allowing suspicious people through security checks in return for bribes. Second, they were selling arms on the black market. The final way was more indirect. According to President Putin's advisor on Chechnya, up to 80 per cent of the aid being allocated by the central Russian authorities to southern Russian regions was not reaching its intended destination - the poor of the region - because of corrupt officials. This sense of being forgotten or treated indifferently by Moscow was cited as a reason why more citizens would be attracted to terrorism than would otherwise be the case (Guardian, 17 September 2004: 19).5 Still in Russia, the Federal Security Service (FSB) reported in mid-2002 that the number of attempts by organised crime gangs to sell components for both chemical and nuclear weapons was increasing (cited from a Russian source in Curtis 2003b: 71). Clearly, a prime market for such components would be terrorist groups.

In February 2005, the Irish police announced that a number of arrests had been made in connection with a major bank robbery (£26 million or €38 million – at that time, the largest theft of cash in British history) committed in December 2004.<sup>6</sup> Whilst the direct involvement of the Irish Republican Army (IRA), a terrorist organisation, was still not proven conclusively at the time of writing, a member of Sinn Fein – the political wing of the IRA – was among those arrested. Indeed, the IRA has been described as 'Ireland's most proficient robber of banks' (*Washington Post* online, 18 February 2005, visited February 2005). The Irish police revealed that they considered this robbery to be part of a money-laundering operation. Moreover, a report released by the Independent Monitoring Commission in early February 2005 claimed that Sinn Fein had at least *sanctioned* a series of robberies in Ireland, including the major one in December (*BBC News* online, 10 February 2005, visited February 2005). Sinn Fein had just weeks earlier denied any involvement in the robbery, and had used its indignation as an excuse to withdraw its earlier offer of a