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The role of the uniformed public services in the public security system

Introduction

The origins of the army go as far as the creation of the first countries. Over the centuries, the army has taken various forms and sometimes has been used to perform different roles. As a rule, these forces have held two functions: external, and internal. The external role was perceived as a guarantee of the territorial integrity of the state, or as a tool for conducting conquests and expansion, while the internal role was considered through the prism of using the army to secure internal peace, and a way of repression against the dissatisfaction and disobedience of the local community. However, along with the growth of civilisation, the increase in awareness of the value of human life, and a sense of integration in addition to maintaining nationwide peace), the social demand for ensuring public security has increased. When in 1374 the Krakow City Council adopted the fire protection imperatives in the Kingdom of Poland for the first time, there were no preventive measures that would immediately halt the spread of the element. In the seventeenth century, the first professional guards were created in Europe, and from the eighteenth century on, the first police formations were launched as state bodies, not so much for repression as for safeguarding public order.[1]

With time, however, it was indispensable to set up specific structures to carry out, for example, mountain rescue operations, to combat cross-border crime, to manage all types of operational activities, or to deal with border protection. An

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[1] *Historia Straży Pożarnej*, https://www.straz.gov.pl/panstwowa_straz_pozarna/historia_strazy_pozarnej [accessed: 17.02.2020].

immediate response conditioned their professional mission to crises, usually unpredictable and violent. Therefore, highly organised and professional structures, specific social groups functioning in the public security system were called uniformed public services, and research in this area carried out in Poland, also remaining in the sphere of sociologists' interest, began to be termed the sociology of dispositional groups. According to Jan Maciejewski,

> sociology of dispositional groups is a field of sociology about organised structures prepared for rapid response, which are created in the military, paramilitary or civilian systems in order to perform specific functions related to the prevention of various dangers that threaten the communities or the society and the resources of the country as well as attempts aimed at overcoming these dangers.[2]

In this paper, the author acknowledges the fact that currently a wide spectrum of complementary layout of subsystems – organised into a security system and a multitude of external factors that condition the organisation of system components, including the need to address various threats – leads to a situation where the systemic approach promoted by some scientists seems to holistically organise the issue of public security.[3]

Systems approach in sociological theories

Although the term 'system' is sometimes ambiguously referred to as 'layout', 'compilation', 'ensemble', or 'an entirety of parts', systemic research implies "no discipline barriers or latitude in applying knowledge and techniques accumulated in one field to problems occurring in another field, or in recognizing that two different fields are, in fact, one contact field."[4] Therefore, it is believed that the methodological orientation constructed in this way is the result of the necessity to start a theoretical debate on all the specific determinants, as well as the structural and functional complexity within the issue subjected to scrutiny.

Ancient thinkers were the first to offer an insight into the essence of systemic problems: Aristotle and Plato noticed the difference between the 'whole' and the 'part', or the 'state' and the 'states'. In the thirteenth century, Saint Thomas Aquinas looked into the connections between the structural elements of being. In the nineteenth century, August Comte conducted his research of human societies, which was later labelled sociology. Ultimately, however, the precursor of the system theory is Ludwig von Bertalanffy, an Austrian biologist and philosopher. According

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[2] J. Maciejewski, *Grupy dyspozycyjne. Analiza socjologiczna*, 2nd, revised and extended edition, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2014, p. 56.

[3] M. Stochmal, *Państwowa Straż Pożarna w systemie bezpieczeństwa państwa. Studium socjologiczne*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2015, pp. 32–33; J. Ziarko, 'Podejście systemowe w badaniach bezpieczeństwa organizacji', *Bezpieczeństwo. Teoria i Praktyka*, 2019, No. 4, pp. 19–20.

[4] J. Gierszewski, 'Model bezpieczeństwa społecznego na tle teorii systemów', *Colloquium*, 2013, No. 2, p. 66. Cited in W. Gacparski, 'Teoria systemów', in *Filozofia a nauka. Zarys encyklopedyczny*, Wydawnictwo Ossolineum, Warszawa 1987, p. 696.

to the General Theory of Systems, formulated in the 1930s, interactions – also known as transformations – occur between open systems, within them, and in the external environment. The general system theory, in his opinion, "is a general science of 'whole-ness,'"[5] because regardless of the defined components of natural, socio-cultural or technical systems discussed by von Bertalanffy, there are "models, principles, and regulations" that occur notwithstanding their types and borders.[6]

Based on these achievements, initially developed on the basis of biology, exact sciences or cybernetics, and the further promotion of the General Theory of Systems, carried out through the activity of the Society for General Systems Theory founded by the biologist in 1954, in the 1950s the need to undertake systemic analysis began to be recognised within social sciences. As part of sociology, further implications of the development of an interdisciplinary methodological approach to the field were made by American scientist Talcott Parsons, the globally acknowledged founding father of the theory of social systems.[7] Parsons argued that "the concept of a system is so basic that at the higher levels of theoretical generality there can be no science without it."[8] Besides, he believed that systems were closed given the significant differences between them. Each time, however, the system refers to societies as a whole, and at the core of their functioning lies the necessity of survival – in line with sociological functionalism. An immanent feature of the social system is its organisation and structuring – among the critical subsystems, he distinguished, in particular, economics (increasing income), as well as the subsystem of achieving goals (determined by the political power and the ability to social mobilisation), the integration subsystem (recognised by the influence of solidarity of the society), as well as the pattern cultivation and removing tensions subsystem, based on the idea that cultivating patterns were conducive to resolving tensions. Therefore, according to Parsons, there is a connection between social personality, the shared norms, values, and shaping social structure.[9] By negating Talcott Parsons' achievements, German sociologist Niklas Luhmann has also contributed to the analysis of the system theory. He recognises society as autopoietic – i.e. reproducing its elements through its own elements – and self-referential, or self-organising – i.e. concerning the whole – into a system structure composed of subsystems, including politics, law, economics, science, and others. According to Luhmann, society can organise, coordinate, plan, and manage systemic space. Therefore, the system should not be equated with the external environment when the entities

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[5]   L. von Bertalanffy, *General System Theory: Foundations Development, Applications*, George Braziller, New York 1968, p. 37.

[6]   *Idem*, 'The History and Status of General Systems Theory', *The Academy of Management Journal*, 1972, Vol. 15, No. 4, pp. 407–411.

[7]   According to Jacek Tinnenbrun, even two theoretical models. Cf. J. Tinnenbrun, 'Niektóre zagadnienia teorii systemu społecznego Talcotta Parsonsa. Próba krytyki z pozycji materializmu holistycznego', *Ruch Prawniczy, Ekonomiczny i Socjologiczny*, 1980, No. 2, p. 313.

[8]   *Ibidem*, p. 310. Cited in T. Parsons, 'The Point of View of the Author', in: M. Black (ed.), *The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons*, Prentice-Hall, New York 1961, p. 337.

[9]   T. Parsons, N.J. Smelser, 'Funkcjonalne zróżnicowanie społeczeństwa', in A. Jasińska-Kania et al. (eds.), *Współczesne teorie socjologiczne*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar, Warszawa 2006, pp. 390–391; J.M. Klinger, *Social Science and National Security Policy, Deterrence, Coercion, and Modernization Theories*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York 2019, pp. 123–124.

included in the structure of the system set its boundaries and fulfil their functions. For these entities, verbal messages play an major role, as they concern both the exchange of intra-structural and environmental information, thanks to which the social system is not given once and for all, but rather undergoes change and adapts to the prevailing conditions.[10]

One cannot deny the fact that the views of some proponents of the system theory have met with severe criticism, such as Talcott Parsons' concept, which has been undermined very openly since the 1970s in connection with scientists' opposition to the recognition of coherence in the social system at the micro and macro levels. It is also hard to imagine that functional diversity in society is based on the principles of hierarchy due to the horizontal ordering of all its elements or compositions, as proved by Niklas Luhmann. A different interpretation – and one that is possibly closer to contemporary international systems – has been offered by Polish sociologist Florian Znaniecki, who claims that the relatively isolated social system consists of parts at the top of the hierarchy – e.g. politics – and subordinated to them, and the links between them lead to the creation of a specific system structure.[11] Despite the highlighted example of negation, the achievements of Niklas Luhmann seem today to be important from the point of view of social system theory, in particular the scientific view, which looks at the complexity of social space planning and places emphasis on systemic interdependence (Talcott Parsons).

Systemic approach and public security

Arguably, classifying and categorising the concept of security raises several doubts, as the need for broadly understood the idea of freedom from threats concerns the entire spectrum of system elements: from the individual to the state, and even to the international environment. Also, the diversity of values that require special protection – such as e.g. sovereignty and integrity of the state, health, the life and property of citizens – have resulted in the indispensability to separate security sectors, including the political, military, social, economic, cultural, and/or ecological sector. For this ensemble, according to Stanisław Koziej, the national security system remains "the whole of the forces, resources, and resources allocated by the state to carry out security tasks, organised, maintained and prepared for these tasks. It consists of a management system and a number of executive subsystems."[12] The state, understood as a complex social organisation, also fulfils its obligations regarding the appropriate response to both exogenous, i.e.

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[10] K. van Assche, G. Verschraegen, 'The Limits of Planning: Niklas Luhmann's Social Systems Theory and the Analysis of Planning and Planning Ambitions', *Planning Theory*, 2008, Vol. 7, pp. 263–268.

[11] F. Znaniecki, *Społeczne role uczonych*, Wydawnictwo PWN, Warszawa 1984, p. 521. Cited in D. Chmielewski, *Społeczno-kulturowy obraz regionu Warmii i Mazur. Ujęcie systemowe*, doctoral dissertation, Olsztyn 2011, p. 26.

[12] S. Koziej, 'Bezpieczeństwo: istota, podstawowe kategorie i historyczna ewolucja', *Bezpieczeństwo Narodowe*, 2011, Vol. 18, No. 2, p. 32.

the external, and endogenous, i.e. internal threats,[13] and, therefore, organises their individual recognition system.

On the whole, the way in which public security is ensured is still determined by the institutional and political organisation of the state, i.e. the separation of the administrative apparatus and highly specialised institutions or agencies, as well as subordinate forces and resources geared towards counteracting challenges, risks, or threats. The effectiveness of their functioning is favoured by the possibility of cooperation between public authorities and appropriate inclusion of a vast array of uniformed public services that operate in separate domains, such as e.g. military, paramilitary, or civil areas.[14] While specialised units of the armed forces are maintained in the military system, in the paramilitary system public or police forces are responsible for public security and order. In the structure of the civil system operate, among others, emergency services, and, as volunteers, members of specialised volunteer associations, such as e.g. the Tatra Volunteer Ambulance Service. It should also be noted that the above have been structured within relevant subsystems. When the borders of the armed forces were reduced to appropriate types that would fulfil specific functions, such as land forces, navy or aviation, they were further divided, in accordance with the jurisdiction, into individual organisational units, such as e.g. fleets, brigades, or divisions. For example, the Tatra Volunteer Ambulance Service branches out into several regional groups.[15]

With the above in mind, the system approach to security will allow to determine the functions, properties, interactions of related elements together, their importance in relation to ensuring social security, or the social position itself. According to Jan Maciejewski, "a system approach allows one to connect mutually complementary systems of different order while taking into account the specificities of each of them."[16] In addition to testing the feedback process between the given systems, or a system and its external environment (determining the edge elements of input-output), one has the possibility to explicate a variety of intra-system interactions, such as the relations between individual elements, such as e.g. the supervisor-subordinate system structure, understood as the specificity of the system and its configuration, as well as the complexity of roles, staff policies, or predispositions that pave the way to career opportunities.[17]

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[13] D. Borowska, 'Modelowe ujęcie paradygmatu bezpieczeństwa narodowego', in J. Maciejewski, M. Zawartka, S. Fiodorów (eds.), *Globalne i lokalne perspektywy bezpieczeństwa państwa*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2018, pp. 116–121; J. Gierszewski, *op. cit.*, p. 66.

[14] J. Maciejewski, *op. cit.*, pp. 49–59.

[15] *Ibidem*.

[16] *Ibidem*, p. 56.

[17] K. Świderski, *Uwarunkowania społeczne kariery zawodowej oficerów Wojska Polskiego. Studium socjologiczne*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2015, pp. 17–22; H.M. Blalock Jr., A.B. Blalock, 'Toward a Clarification of System Analysis in the Social Sciences', *Philosophy of Science*, 1959, Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 84–89; J. Gierszewski, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

Uniformed public services: typology, functions, characteristics

The specificity of the uniformed public services that function in a society rests heavily on their hierarchy and the professionalisation of their behaviour patterns. This means that they are subjected to certain order and discipline towards political decision-makers or superiors in accordance with their service, and they have to wear uniforms, thus holding "segmental social roles."[18] The primary goals of these services include counteracting or eliminating the consequences brought by threats to the life, health and property of citizens, or public order. Therefore, the most significant advantage of multitudinous qualified groups of this category remains the defence and protection nature and their constant readiness to undertake, sometimes extreme interventions, i.e. their availability to perform, in the narrow sense of the term, special activities in accordance with the relevant authorisations, as well as much broader regular activities.[19] As has already been mentioned, the initially organised social forces were formed as part of the military and paramilitary system, and with time also to include civilians too.[20]

Military system

The military social system includes, among others, the army, including the Military Counterintelligence Service, and the Military Intelligence Service, the Military Police, the Intelligence Agency, the Government Protection Bureau, and other specialised forces. The tasks of these fully uniformed public services belong to the broadly understood state defence mechanisms and the support for internal security.[21]

A particularly important component in the military social system is the army. The end of World War II forced the army to adapt to global transformations. This gave rise to major changes in the perception of the already mentioned external function, as the security of a given country does not always depend on the size of its army. An essential role in the modern world is given to collective principles, which are to oversee international security by resolving the conflicts that threaten the possible outbreak of war. The adopted philosophy of building mutual trust measures requires states to submit to international control so as to comply with the accepted army-related restrictions, mutual notification of ongoing manoeuvres and exercises, revealing troop dislocation patterns, and consulting partners on the elimination of military incidents. At present, the internal function of the army has also disappeared in favour of using the armed forces to assist in the liquidation of natural disasters or cataclysms. In the emerging

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[18] Z. Zagórski, *Społeczeństwo transformacyjne. Klasy i warstwy Polski postkomunistycznej*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 1997, p. 25.

[19] J. Maciejewski, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

[20] M. Stochmal, *Państwowa Straż Pożarna…*, p. 40.

[21] J. Maciejewski, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

models of democratic states, power began to come from citizens through democratically held elections, which brought about the trend to limit the role of the military in making political decisions. It is clear to see how much their role has currently been reduced to counselling.[22]

The current submission of the armed forces to civilian control does not mean direct acquisition of the command of existing types of troops and their training. Civilian and democratic control over the army implies the subordination of the army to democratically elected political authorities of the state. Political decisions that concern state defence mechanisms are made for the sake of the security of the country and society. At the same time, the responsibility for training subordinate soldiers and armies lies with the commanding staff.[23]

It is also important to note that the reduction of the army's personnel, especially in the case of information and industrial states, results from the imposition of new tasks on the armed forces. The necessity to participate in missions outside the country, including their high level of difficulty and the use of increasingly technologically advanced equipment, mean that the armies of the countries of this civilisation circle have gradually become professional armies. Currently, almost all armies of NATO members are either standing professional armies or are undergoing professionalisation.[24]

Paramilitary system

In information societies with a high degree of prosperity, however, it is clear to see a reluctance to increase expenditure on the armed forces caused by a general dislike of violence – the pressure of citizens to reduce the risk of military operations and, thus, to conduct them with maximum losses. There is also resistance to the creation of professional armies, perceived as a mercenary army. One can notice a departure from the model of the mass civil army, based on general enlistment – i.e. the general duty to defend one's own country – in favour of a small professional army based on voluntary enlistment, which also coincides with the need to organise a paramilitary or civil system and, thus, use social potential in the "self-organisation of security."[25]

In the literature on the subject, there are discrepancies between the classification of paramilitary and pro-defence organisations. According to *The Lexicon of Military Knowledge*, pro-defence organizations include paramilitary

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[22] B. Balcerowicz, *Siły zbrojne w państwie i stosunkach międzynarodowych*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Scholar, Warszawa 2006, pp. 21–28.

[23] W. Zaborowski, 'The Nature of Civilian and Democratic Control Over the Armed Forces', *Zeszyty Naukowe WSOWL im. gen. T. Kościuszki*, 2016, No. 4, pp. 106–109.

[24] M.K. Ojrzanowski, 'Transformacja polskich sił zbrojnych – miara sił na zamiary', *Rocznik Bezpieczeństwa Międzynarodowego*, 2013, Vol. 7, pp. 80–84.

[25] D. Duda, U. Soler, 'Organizacje paramilitarne wsparciem bezpieczeństwa społeczności lokalnych na przykładzie Polski i Ukrainy', in *Globalne i lokalne…*, pp. 330–331; A. Sokołowski, 'Działalność polskich organizacji paramilitarnych', *Studia z Zakresu Prawa, Administracji i Zarządzania*, 2015, Vol. 8, p. 164.

organisations, so the former has a broader meaning. Still, others, like e.g. General Bogusław Pacek, admit that pro-defence organisations can be called paramilitary at the outbreak of a conflict and their subordination to a supreme power, like e.g. the army.[26] Therefore, all

> activities that imitate the functioning of regular armed forces by non-actors are considered paramilitary. This affects the perception of 'paramilitary' phenomena, from police formations with a militarised character to the individual actions of individuals. All these manifestations and activities share one common quality – they are all linked by organisational imitation and military equipment.[27]

Although paramilitary groups are entities that imitate the military – for instance, government institutions and its auxiliary forces, such as the Police, the Central Anti-Corruption Bureau, the Internal Security Agency, the Prison Guard, the Fire Department, the Railway Police, and others – acknowledging the division of Adam Sokołowski, within the paramilitary social system, non-governmental pro-defence social organisations should also be distinguished. These include the Scouting Association of the Republic, and the Polish Scouting and Guiding Association,[28] the Shooting Association, ZS "Strzelec" OSW, the League of National Defence, and many others. When government institutions are part of the administrative structure responsible for the internal security of the state and public order, the concept of non-governmental pro-defence organisations applies to paramilitary (formal or informal) organisations – organisations of former professional soldiers, veterans organisations, shooting clubs, training groups for jumpers and commandos or those that offer training in rescue operations, associations of youth or adults, willingly participating in meetings that are run to prepare people to defend their country in the spirit of patriotism.[29]

Civil system

Within the civil system, an invaluable link in ensuring security are professional groups that undertake humanitarian tasks, i.e. help in times of crisis – such as e.g. natural disasters or other environmental threats – or during war and in times of

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[26] *Leksykon wiedzy wojskowej*, Wydawnictwo Ministerstwa Obrony Narodowej, Warszawa 1979, p. 288; A. Szwed-Walczak, Ł. Lewkowicz, Ł. Jędrzejewski, *Bezpieczeństwo Europy – bezpieczeństwo Polski*, Vol. 3: *Organizacje paramilitarne we współczesnym świecie*, Wydawnictwo UMCS, Lublin 2016, pp. 13–14.

[27] A. Sokołowski, *op. cit.*, p. 154.

[28] Qualifying for the paramilitary social system of the Scouting Association of the Republic or the Polish Scouting and Guiding Association gives rise to many doubts. The advocates of this approach admit that members of scout organisations improve a set of military crafts that in case of necessity can be used for military action. P. Soloch, P. Żurawski vel Grajewski, Ł. Dryblak, *Organizacje pro-obronne w systemie bezpieczeństwa państwa. Charakterystyki wybranych armii państw europejskich na tle armii polskiej*, Instytut Sobieskiego, Warszawa 2015, pp. 20–23.

[29] *Ibidem*, pp. 10–11; Z. Ludziejewski, 'Świadomość zbiorowa zagrożeń, poczucie bezpieczeństwa a grupy dyspozycyjne' in *Globalne i lokalne…, op. cit.*, p. 240.

peace. They also protect people, property, public buildings, including critical infrastructure and cultural goods.[30] An example that shows their functioning within the state administration, in local government structures or private units that do not conduct military and paramilitary activities and are still responsible for securing social existence can be found in the emergency services: Medical Emergency Services, Air Medical Service, Electric or Gas Emergency Service, Water and Sewage Emergency Service, or, as noted by Ryszard Bełdzikowski, in the tax administration or tax control administration, which has all the powers to supervise financial security and detect tax-related crimes.[31]

A significant support for the civil system are also groups organised on the basis of volunteer recruitment, including volunteer rescue groups, a case in point being the Tatra Volunteer Ambulance Service, the Water Volunteer Ambulance Service, the Volunteer Fire Brigade, or other services that provide help in life-threatening situations. The voluntary involvement of local communities, along with an array of private projects aimed at counteracting or removing the effects of disasters and accidents, is an epitome of the growing responsibility of the civil environment for the organisation of initiatives for collective security. This proves the growing awareness of the fact that each individual or group can indeed be co-responsible for raising the level of social security. Therefore, as a rule, the directions of the activities undertaken relate to the local level and include both rescue and protective activities, as well as various social activities, including those performed in the field of education.[32]

Conclusions

The practical nature of the knowledge gained in the field of functioning of disposable groups includes, first, pointing out their social activity in the area that is essential for the existence of human communities, i.e. security. It also results from the approximation of the phenomenon of social bonds in the context of threats and the use of potential (professionalism) - psychophysical and psychosocial predispositions of employees or officers of the uniformed public services.[33] Therefore, it is impossible to disagree with Juliusz Piwowarski that employees of the services discussed are required to use human capital (skills, knowledge, experience), and social capital (mediation skills, communication, acting in accordance

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[30] *Section 137 of the General Defence Obligation of the Republic of Poland Act of 21 November 1967*, Dz.U. 2004, No. 241, item 2416, as amended, http://prawo.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/DocDetails.xsp?id=WDU20042412416 [accessed: 18.03.2020].

[31] J. Maciejewski, *op. cit.*, p. 72; R. Bełdzikowski, 'Administracja skarbowa jako cywilna grupa dyspozycyjna. Aspekty prawne i socjologiczne', in J. Maciejewski, M. Stochmal, A. Sokołowska (eds.), *Grupy dyspozycyjne w systemie współpracy transgranicznej na rzecz bezpieczeństwa*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2015, pp. 45–48.

[32] J. Maciejewski, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

[33] M. Stochmal, 'Socjologiczna recepcja zagrożeń ujawnianych w krajobrazie społecznym', in J. Maciejewski, M. Stochmal, Z. Ludziejewski (eds.), *Grupy dyspozycyjne wobec zagrożeń bezpieczeństwa państwa*, Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Wrocławskiego, Wrocław 2016, p. 31.

with the system of values).[34] This remains of key importance, as the provision of qualified assistance requires special skills to operate under time pressure, in difficult and conflict situations both in peace – to ensure security and public order, remove facility failures, environmental contamination, the effects of the negative impact of forces of nature, to organise warning systems – as well as during war – to guarantee integrity and sovereignty, provide medical care for victims and protect public buildings and/or other state resources.[35]

It is also worth noting that there are carefully selected groups within the army, the police, and even the customs services – i.e. special forces – assigned to such tasks. Their core activities rest on an adequate level of self-control, self-discipline, and the ability to react without delay. The high expectations that are set for these formations stem from the social role they hold, the necessity for rapid evacuation, the rebound of hostages, activities within the limits of counter-terrorism (combating terrorism also physically, kinesis), preparation of ambushes or precise attacks and strikes.[36] Their elitism is, therefore, associated with their being subjected to rigorous exercises, conducive to professional training using deadly weapons, also in life-threatening commandos.

Therefore, because disposition groups face many challenges in the next decade of the twenty-first century, the efficiency of the functioning of the already discussed security system components will continue to result from the ability of their cooperation in the military, paramilitary and civil systems. Nevertheless, the complexity of threats posed to the contemporary non-security environment leads to a situation in which, among the new challenges, unknown crises appear. One example concerns the specialisation of individual groups and the need to include, in addition to the counter-terrorism or anti-terrorism activities mentioned above, being actively involved in the digital dimension, such as detecting attempts to manipulate public opinion using social networking sites.

The recent events related to the spread of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic have meant that, in addition to the extremely severe epidemiological situation paralysing the whole world, in the sphere of security, the essence, and importance of the availability of the uniformed public services has been prioritised even more strongly. In Italy, the Police and the Carabinieri keep patrolling the streets of towns and cities, enforcing the ban on leaving homes without a grounded reason, the government protects overcrowded hospitals and announces support in the form of army health personnel and plans to create two field hospitals run by the military.[37] In the United Kingdom, policy makers have announced a higher

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[34] J. Piwowarski, 'Prolegomena do socjologii jednostek specjalnych – na kanwie teorii grup dyspozycyjnych Jana Maciejewskiego', in *Grupy dyspozycyjne w systemie współpracy transgranicznej…*, *op. cit.*, p. 254.

[35] T. Olejarz, 'Obrona cywilna w systemie obronny państwa', *Modern Management Review*, 2014, Vol. XIX, No. 21 (2), p. 67.

[36] J. Piwowarski, *op. cit.*, p. 263.

[37] V. Saini, *Coronavirus: Lessons from Italy*, https://euobserver.com/coronavirus/147753 [accessed: 18.03.2020].

level of readiness to mobilise as many as 10,000 soldiers, sailors, and airmen.[38] The number of people infected, or potentially infected, by coronavirus is also on the increase in Polish hospitals. The Police, the Army, the Gendarmerie, the State Fire Service and the Territorial Defence Forces have all been called to support the Border Guard in border protection and body temperature control of the persons authorised to enter Poland. When the Police enforce the quarantine order, the Territorial Defence Army or the Volunteer Fire Brigade offers help in providing medicines or food to people who are particularly vulnerable to the effects of virus infection. Professional activities and cooperation in the field of human resources and rented equipment, resulting from, among others the state of epidemiological threat introduced in Poland and the Regulation of 15 March 2020 on restoring full border controls, it requires an extremely important social component, which are discussed groups of continuous availability and the ability to quickly make decisions, resulting in the simultaneous exposure of the health of employees and their close relatives. What is extremely important to note is the fact that when one of these components is disturbed, such as the necessity to isolate the medical personnel infected with coronavirus, it will be a severe destabilising factor. Further reports on the infection of doctors, paramedics, nurses as well as members of the Polish Territorial Defence Forces, as well as other European services fighting the virus day in day out, will result in a significant strain on defence capabilities.

In connection with this mode of continuous readiness and fluidity of dangerous events, the system approach will allow researchers to see the presence of variables that have a major impact on the functioning of the system, leading to the identification of both the source and the object or the degree of impact of threats. However, this diagnosis will not apply to the system imbalance analysis. Therefore, it is assumed that since the start of the study, the relations are not significantly modified, and the system remains "relatively stable."[39] Also, the disadvantage of the system perspective is the lack of adaptation of the conceptual apparatus to contemporary diagnoses of the public security system. The categories proposed by Ludwig von Bertalanffy, Talcott Parsons, or Niklas Luhmann, such as 'compositions' or 'elements', seem inadequate without mentioning, among others the term 'social group.'[40]

Nevertheless, the exploration of the system boundaries, to which disposition groups undoubtedly belong, and the environment, the analysis of system coordination, the interdependence of elements or subsystems allows one to explore the highly complicated system, taking the desired methodological approach from the point of view of security, including social security.

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Natalia Sienko

Rola grup dyspozycyjnych w systemie bezpieczeństwa publicznego
Streszczenie

Celem artykułu jest podkreślenie roli grup dyspozycyjnych, wyspecjalizowanych w utrzymywaniu bezpieczeństwa i porządku publicznego. Istotną część pracy stanowi analiza wyodrębnionych obszarów: militarnego, paramilitarnego czy cywilnego, których współistnienie sprzyja prawidłowemu włączeniu omawianych grup do systemu bezpieczeństwa publicznego. W związku z powyższym autorka uznaje, że pożądaną postawę metodologiczną stanowi systemowe podejście do bezpieczeństwa, rozumiane jako eksploracja granic systemu i otoczenia, analiza koordynacji systemu, współzależności elementów czy podsystemów, pozwalająca na eksplikację wysoce skomplikowanego układu.

Słowa kluczowe: grupy dyspozycyjne, system bezpieczeństwa publicznego, systemowe podejście do bezpieczeństwa

The role of the Uniformed Public Services in the public security system
Abstract

The goal of this paper is to emphasise the role of the Uniformed Public Services, which specialise in maintaining security and public order. An important part of the paper is made up of the analysis of a variety of separate areas – such as military, paramilitary, and civilian – whose coexistence favours the correct integration of these groups into the public security system. In light of the above, the it has been acknowledged that the desirable methodological approach to apply in the paper is a systems approach to security, understood as the exploration of system and environment boundaries, the analysis of system coordination, and the interdependence of elements or subsystems. All these approaches allow to explicate a highly complex system.

Key words: Uniformed Public Services, public security system, systems approach to security

Rolle der Bestimmungsgruppen im System der öffentlichen Sicherheit
Zusammenfassung

Das Ziel des Artikels ist die Betonung der Rolle der in der Aufrechterhaltung der Sicherheit und der öffentlichen Ordnung spezialisierten Bestimmungsgruppen. Ein wesentlicher Teil des Artikels ist die Analyse der bestimmten Gebiete: des militärischen, paramilitärischen oder zivilen, deren Koexistenz dem ordnungsgemäßen Anschluss der besprochenen Gruppen dem System der öffentlichen Sicherheit beiträgt. Im Zusammenhang damit anerkennt die Autorin, dass die geforderte methodologische Grundlage ein Systemansatz zus Sicherheit bildet, was als Exploration der Grenzen des Systems und der Umgebung, Analyse der Koordinierung des Systems, Wechselbeziehung der Elemente oder Subsysteme verstanden wird. Das läßt das hoch komplizierte System erklären.

Schlüsselwörter: Bestimmungsgruppen, System der öffentlichen Sicherheit, Systemansatz zur Sicherheit

Роль групп реагирования в системе общественной безопасности
Резюме

В статье рассмотрена роль групп реагирования, привлекаемых к обеспечению общественного правопорядка и безопасности. Важной частью исследования является анализ военной, военизированной и гражданской составляющих этого рода групп, позволяющих на их правильное использование в системе общественной безопасности. Автор подчеркивает значение системного подхода к проблемам безопасности. Такой подход подразумевает исследование границ системы безопасности и окружающей среды, анализ координации системы, взаимозависимость элементов или подсистем, позволяющая объяснить действие системы в целом.

Ключевые слова: группа реагирования, система общественной безопасности, системный подход к безопасности