

# **Crime Prevention**

International Perspectives,  
Issues, and Trends



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# Crime Prevention

International Perspectives,  
Issues, and Trends

Edited by  
John A. Winterdyk



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*This book is dedicated to those willing to consider exploring and using crime prevention as a primary response model to addressing the complexities of crime and justice. This includes especially my former mentors who introduced me to the principles of crime prevention, my students, and those colleagues who have made the journey a little easier by their interest and intellectual challenges in my learning process.*



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# Foreword

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Prevention is perhaps one of the most difficult goals to achieve regardless of what field it is being attempted in, be it a physical field like engineering or a social one like health. However, for some fields, the idea of prevention is more familiar and its importance is more generally accepted than others.

For example, within engineering, it goes without question that a basic goal for the design and building of a bridge must be that it will be constructed in such a way as to prevent it collapsing under heavy use or in adverse weather conditions such as a flood. To achieve this preventive goal, engineers will study, estimate, and apply optimal strength and usage parameters in order to prevent the risk of an adverse outcome. As users of that bridge, we understand this and, for the most part, accept and trust this advice. More importantly, we expect that these calculations are done carefully and that appropriate preventive/safety measures are in place. In fact, we would be astonished and incensed if the safety of the public was compromised by these preventive measures not being undertaken.

Similarly, we are all familiar with the preventive messages coming from health experts about how to prevent and minimize our exposure to various forms of illness such as infectious diseases like hepatitis or polio, or lifestyle-related disease such as cancer or diabetes arising from obesity, now so common in the developed world. While some types of preventive health messages may often be more contentious or difficult to sell than others (e.g., an effective tobacco smoking cessation message may be more difficult to deliver than a message to promote the breast feeding of newborn children), there is usually a general acceptance of the legitimacy of the basis of the message (i.e., it is based on a scientific evidence) and its objectives are seen as desirable and beneficial from either a personal (e.g., the avoidance of an illness) or a public health/utilitarian perspective (e.g., reduced rates of illness in the community and associated costs), or both.

However, there are several other fields in which the prevention goal remains less well understood or generally accepted. As a result, these still struggle for the sort of political and community legitimacy and traction that some other fields enjoy.

Two quite closely related fields that typically experience this challenge are the prevention of alcohol and other drug-related harm and crime prevention. It has perhaps been my misfortune to have spent my professional

career working in both of these fields. I have seen and worked with these challenges in different and diverse roles as a senior government executive, as an academic and researcher, and as a member of different civil society organizations. This has led me to appreciate that there are dimensions to the achievement of prevention that extend beyond the accumulation of a viable and well-documented scientific evidence base about effective policies, strategies, programs, and practices, as vitally important as these are. Some of these factors include perceptions about the legitimacy of the relevant prevention goal from the perspective of those affected by the problem that is trying to be prevented as well as opportunities for participation and engagement in the development and implementation of any proposed solutions. This is because, to a large extent, the most effective strategies for prevention in both alcohol and other drug and crime prevention fields involve action that will involve some form of redistribution of power among stakeholders and communities affected by the identified problems, once the nature of these problems have been finally agreed upon, of course. Furthermore, the scale and nature of the causes of the observed problems will frequently extend beyond the immediate community or region and across fields ranging from social physical planning processes, to access to and the delivery of human services, and into questions of social and economic equity and the wider physical environment. Inevitably, criminal justice processes end up being identified as just one part of a suite of measures needed to achieve a comprehensive prevention or crime control strategy. Indeed, in many settings, the criminal justice sector may even be part of the problem.

This is where the value of this collection extends well beyond its deceptively modest title of *Crime Prevention: International Perspectives, Issues, and Trends*. Most reviews of current knowledge about crime prevention tend to limit themselves to specific areas or topics of crime prevention research, policy, and practice without providing an adequate understanding of the extremely broad range of inputs, processes, and associated outcomes that are really a part of the modern approach to crime prevention safety. Furthermore, other reviews frequently overlook the fact that what we understand as current good practice in crime prevention has developed from the way that we have incorporated effective processes for learning from the successes, and failures, of earlier crime prevention efforts. Too often this very important task of reflecting, learning, and building on past experience is referred to merely as “building the evidence base” when in fact it is the much more complex task of building and applying a proper understanding how what was done to achieve a particular result was, at least in part, a product of the context and time within which the crime prevention effort was undertaken.

Effective crime prevention is not just the successful implementation of a set of projects to address a series of current problems. Rather, it is a continuous process that needs to be dynamically planned, implemented, and

appropriately supported over time with an understanding that the issues to be addressed tomorrow and into the future will not be the same as today's problems, assuming of course that the current prevention effort has been effective. It is one of the great strengths of this current volume that its essays provide us with the insight and skills to be better able to achieve this goal. They show us that our current successes in preventing crime and assisting to improve overall community safety did not come out of nowhere.

Furthermore, as we have learned more about how to undertake effective crime prevention, we have also come to learn about what can go wrong and where future threats can be found. For example, while one chapter clearly explains how we need to think about future threats in terms of vectors that are not currently factored into our planning and development processes, such as the potential impact of global climate change on both the immediate and underlying causes of crime including access to basic resources like housing and employment as well as its effect on migration and social dislocation, another chapter demonstrates how we have frequently failed to give adequate consideration to the governance and administrative requirements for sustaining crime prevention effort. Each of these themes addresses issues that frequently lie outside the normal planning parameters for prevention of crime policy makers. They also highlight the importance of engaging with those who may be seen as unconventional stakeholders in the crime prevention enterprise, as well as potentially influential partners and collaborators. This is well illustrated by the essays that seek to refocus our process for engagement with the business sector, as well as rethinking the role of civil society and the place of "victims" within the matrix of action that produces effective crime prevention.

Finally, what this volume does so well is to help us to understand, develop, and work with an agenda for the prevention of crime that is sophisticated yet accessible at the same time; evidence based but also responsive and engaging for stakeholders; as well as being transparent and legitimate in a way that builds appropriate governance structures for sustainable implementation. It also demonstrates the breadth and range of issues that need to be considered to be parts of the crime prevention agenda while at the same time making it clear that the science of crime prevention is a well-developed and comprehensive set of tools that can be legitimately applied to problems as diverse as the effects of climate change on global populations, violence against women and children, as well as specific socially marginalized groups in communities, transnational organized crime, local corruption, and the resurgence of forms of fraud newly enabled through social media and personal technology.

In other words, this book shows that contemporary crime prevention really is as sophisticated as any form of rocket science. But at the same time, contemporary crime prevention is highly participatory and accessible and is capable of being responsive to a rapidly changing crime environment and

community needs and expectations. The lessons from this book go a long way to equipping us with the tools for achieving the political and community traction and legitimacy necessary for crime prevention to be effective and sustainable over time.

**Professor Peter Homel, PSM**  
*Griffith Criminology Institute*  
*Griffith University, Australia*

**Peter Homel, PSM**, is a widely published internationally recognized expert on crime prevention policy and program design, implementation, management, and evaluation. He has particular experience in the translation of evidence and research into sustainable practice.

He is currently a professor at the Griffith Criminology Institute at Griffith University in Australia. Previously, he was principal criminologist (Crime Prevention) at the Australian Institute of Criminology. Before that, he was the first director of the Crime Prevention Division within the New South Wales (NSW) Attorney General's Department and the deputy director of the Drug Alcohol Directorate at NSW Health.

He has worked extensively with government and nongovernment agencies for almost 40 years and continues to work closely with international bodies including the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and the UN-Habitat program. He is currently an executive board member of the Australian Crime Prevention Council and the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime.

Over the past two decades, he has evaluated major national crime prevention programs in Australia, the United Kingdom, and Canada, and has been assisting with the development of new programs in SE Asia and the Middle East.

In 2000, he was awarded the Public Service Medal (PSM) for outstanding public service and innovation in the field of crime prevention. In 1997, he undertook a Fulbright Professional Award at the RAND Corporation in California.

## Some Relevant Publications

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A'amer, F., Friedrich, R., Homel, P., Itawi, F., Jaradat, J., Kaufmann, R., Luethold, A., Masson, N., Rahhal, O., Al-Sharif, H., and Zeidani, M. 2012. Developing a community safety plan for Hebron. Geneva Centre for the Democratic Control of the Armed Forces (DCAF). <http://www.dcaf.ch/Publications/Developing-a-Community-Safety-Plan-for-Hebron>.

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# Acknowledgment

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Most of us are well familiar with the ancient African proverb: “It takes a village to raise a child.” Well, a parallel analogy can be said about the preparation of this book. Although I will shamelessly lay claim to the concept of this book, its genesis lies in the teaching and inspirations of some of my undergraduate and graduate mentors who planted the seeds and encouraged me (and my fellow classmates) to challenge the status quo of crime control, treatment, suppression, and punitive intervention that seemed to dominate criminal justice policy during my formative education in criminology during the 1980s. Furthermore, the actualization of this book would not have come to fruition were it not for the collective contribution of all those who not only contributed to this book but a number of whom also shared their thoughts about the framework and content for the book. Without this community of dedicated and scholarly feedback, I would still be on a “Walkabout” trying to figure out what and how to bring the book to life.

In addition to the “global village” of contributors, I am/was particularly blessed to have the unwavering support from former CRC Senior Acquisition Editor Carolyn Spence. Not only did she embrace the initial proposal for the book, she provided her professional support and insight into some key elements of the book as well. To the “community village” of other CRC staff who helped chaperone such initiatives to completion, I am also deeply indebted. You are a brilliant team to work with.

Finally, there are the more intimate members in the “global village”—my family. Again, as John Donne wrote in 1624: “no man is an island, entire of itself; every man is part of a continent.” I have admittedly spent a disproportionate amount of my adult life pursuing my passion for learning and academia. However, without the unwavering support of my partner in life and happiness—Rose—I would never have been able to accomplish a fraction of what I’ve done. Yet, she also ensured with measured patience that I make time for that which is more important—family. I have been blessed during the preparation of this book to see my small intimate village of four (which includes our two sons) grow—we became first-time grandparents and are thrilled that our intimate village will grow and thrive to contribute to the global village.

Since I started this Acknowledgment with a quote, I would like to end it with yet another equally eloquent quote (paraphrased) that indirectly speaks

to the power and underlying message throughout this book: “We can start building a good community when once we decide that we can and must all be a good neighbors.”

As much as this book is the ensemble of many people helping directly and indirectly to seeing this anthology come to life, I remain the sole bearer of any limitations that one might find in these pages and collectively share any of its accolades with those who were instrumental in informing both the content and creation of this book.

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## About the Editor

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**Dr. John A. Winterdyk** has published extensively in the areas of criminology theory, youth at risk, corrections, and criminal justice-related issues, including articles in the *Canadian Journal of Criminal Justice* and *Criminal Justice Review*, among others. He gained his PhD from Simon Fraser University and has recently returned to Mount Royal University (MRU) after time spent in Germany as a Visiting Scholar at the Max Planck Institute in Freiburg. He has published a number of books, including a recently edited book entitled *Border Security in the Al-Qaeda Era*, co-edited with Kelly Sundberg (MRU), as well as editing a book on human trafficking with Philip Reichel (University of Northern Colorado) and Benjamin Perrin (University of British Columbia). He is also working on a fourth edition of a textbook on youth justice. He recently completed a book entitled *Inequality, Diversity and Canadian Justice* (Nelson) with Doug King. Dr. Winterdyk's current research interests include Canadian border security, in particular looking at the effect the establishment of the Canada Border Services Agency has on the Canadian public's perception of border security. Dr. Winterdyk recently completed a cross-national research project looking at combating human trafficking with scholars from Canada, the United States, and Austria, funded through the National Institute of Justice, and taken part in studies on identity theft (the first of its kind in Canada) and on mass marketing fraud. Dr. Winterdyk recently served as guest editor for a special issue on genocide for the *International Criminal Review* as well as a co-guest editor (with Philip Reichel) of the *European Journal of Criminology*, which looks at human trafficking. His research projects include human trafficking, fear of crime, border security, and prison gangs. In January 2010, Dr. Winterdyk became the director of the Centre for Criminology and Justice Research Project's pilot study, *Human Trafficking: Formalizing a Localized Response*.

Since graduating from Simon Fraser University (PhD in criminology, 1988), John has taught in the Department of Economics, Justice, and Policy Studies at Mount Royal University (MRU, Calgary, Alberta). In addition to his position at MRU, John has held adjunct positions at St. Thomas University (Fredericton, New Brunswick), the Polytechnic of Namibia (Windhoek, Namibia), and the University of Regina (Canada). John is the former and founding director for the Centre of Criminology and Justice Research at MRU and 2009 recipient of the Distinguished Scholarship award. He has

published extensively in the areas of youth justice, human trafficking, international criminal justice, and criminological theory.

To date, he has authored/edited nearly 30 textbooks and is currently working on a number of projects including an international handbook on human trafficking, an introductory Canadian criminology textbook, and a monograph that will profile the “pioneers” of Canadian criminology and criminal justice. In addition to his numerous peer-reviewed articles, John was served as special guest editor for five different peer-reviewed journals (themes: genocide, human trafficking, human rights, terrorism, and crime prevention). Current areas of research include comparative criminology/criminal justice, restorative justice, corrections, crime prevention, and trafficking in persons. John also serves on a number of provincial, national, and international boards. In his free time, John is an avid cyclist.

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# About the Contributors

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**Matjaž Ambrož, PhD**, is an associate professor of criminal law (Faculty of Law, University of Ljubljana) and a researcher at the Ljubljana Institute of Criminology, where he currently leads a research project on criminal offenses of school workers. He has been a visiting research fellow at Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Criminal Law (Freiburg, Germany) in 2003, 2007, and 2015. He has recently published a monograph, *Perpetration and Participation in Criminal Law* (2014), and coauthored a monograph, *Brain in the Dock: Neuroscience, Criminal Law and Criminology* (2015). His current research interests include substantive criminal law, sociology of criminal law, theories on justifying legal punishment, implementation of penal sanctions, and crime prevention. E-mail: matjaz.ambroz@pf.uni-lj.si

**Mike B. Beke** is a consultant working for the firm Blomeyer & Sanz. His principal research area relates to justice and home affairs in the EU in which he specialized in anti-corruption and good governance studies. Mike conducted impact assessments and policy evaluations for the EU institutions, in particular for the European Parliament Committees on Budgetary Control and on Organised Crime, Corruption and Money Laundering, on topics ranging from tax fraud, corruption in public procurement, to administrative law. Currently, he is a member of the European Commission's network of local correspondents on corruption, established to periodically analyze the Spanish state of play in anti-corruption activities. In 2012, before working at Blomeyer & Sanz, Mike worked on corruption research for Transparency International Spain and EU governance for the Centre for European Policy Studies in Brussels.

**Dr. Gisela Bichler** is a professor of Criminal Justice at California State University, San Bernardino, and director of the Center for Criminal Justice Research. Dr. Bichler regularly works with a range of criminal justice agencies, community groups, and city governments to develop solutions to local crime and public safety issues that remove the opportunity for crime by invoking stronger place management and adopting a range of crime-control strategies based on the situational crime prevention framework. Her current research examines the structure of illicit networks associated with criminal enterprise groups, transnational illicit markets, terrorism, and gang violence. Recent publications have appeared in the *Journal of Research in Crime*

*and Delinquency, Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies and Management, Global Crime, Crime and Delinquency, Security Journal, Crime Patterns and Analysis, and Psychological Reports.*

**Melanie Burton** is currently a PhD candidate in the Faculty of Law at the University of New South Wales in Sydney Australia. She also works as a research assistant on various projects for the Gendered Violence Research Network and the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at the University of New South Wales. Melanie has a background of study and practice in clinical psychology, completing her Master of Psychology and Postgraduate Diploma in Clinical Psychology at the University of Otago in Dunedin, New Zealand, in 2010. Her current research interests are on sexual and gendered violence with a specific focus on child sexual offenders and offenses.

**Jesse Cale** is a senior lecturer in Criminology in the School of Social Sciences at the University of New South Wales (UNSW) in Sydney Australia. He received his PhD in Criminology from Simon Fraser University in 2010 and has also worked as a research and policy analyst for the provincial government of British Columbia, Canada. Before commencing at UNSW, he was a research fellow in the Key Centre for Ethics, Law, Justice, and Governance at Griffith University (Brisbane, Australia). His main areas of research are sexual offenders and offenses, developmental and life-course criminology, victimization and victimology, and crime prevention and social policy. His studies have been published in various journals including *Aggression and Violent Behavior, Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health, Criminal Justice and Behavior, Homicide Studies, Journal of Criminal Justice, Psychology Crime and Law*, and *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*.

**Dr. Irwin M. Cohen** has been a faculty member of criminology and criminal justice in the School of Criminology and Criminal Justice at the University of the Fraser Valley in Abbotsford, British Columbia, since 2003; was the director of the School from 2010 to 2013; and is currently the RCMP Research Chair for Crime Reduction and the director of the Centre for Public Safety and Criminal Justice Research. Dr. Cohen has taught a wide range of undergraduate and graduate courses. Dr. Cohen has also published many scholarly articles and book chapters, delivered many lectures, conference papers, and workshops, and written policy reports on a wide range of topics including terrorism, youth justice issues, policing, public policy, and aboriginal issues.

**Dr. Raymond R. Corrado** is a professor in the School of Criminology at Simon Fraser University and was an associate faculty member in the Psychology Department and the Faculty of Health Sciences. He is a visiting fellow at Clare Hall College and the Institute of Criminology, University of Cambridge, and

recently had a three-year appointment as a visiting professor in the Faculty of Law at the University of Bergen. He is a founding member of the Mental Health, Law, and Policy Institute at Simon Fraser University. Dr. Corrado was also a former co-director of the BC Centre for Social Responsibility and former director of the Centre for Addictions Research British Columbia, SFU Site. He is on the editorial boards of six major criminology and forensic mental health journals. He has co-authored nine edited books including *Multi-Problem Violent Youth*, *Issues in Juvenile Justice*, *Evaluation and Criminal Justice Policy*, and *Juvenile Justice in Canada*, and has published more than 200 articles, book chapters, and reports on a wide variety of theory and policy issues, including youth/juvenile justice, violent young offenders, mental health, adolescent psychopathy, aboriginal victimization, child/adolescent case management strategies, and terrorism. Currently, Dr. Corrado is a principal investigator and co-principal investigator of several research projects including three large-scale studies on incarcerated serious and violent young offenders, comprehensive risk management instrument for violent children and youth, and early childhood aggression. He received his PhD from Northwestern in Chicago.

**Yvon Dandurand** is a criminologist; a member of the School of Criminology and Criminal Justice, University of the Fraser Valley; and a fellow and senior associate of the International Centre for Criminal Law Reform and Criminal Justice Policy, a United Nations–affiliated institute. He specializes in comparative criminal law and criminal justice research and has been extensively involved in numerous children's rights and youth justice reform and policy development projects in Canada and abroad. He has developed and implemented assessment tools and performance indicators and other monitoring mechanisms in the areas of child protection and juvenile justice. He developed the *Criteria for the design and evaluation of juvenile justice reform programs* for the Interagency Panel on Juvenile Justice. He also participated in the development of the *Mapping and Assessment Toolkit* for child protection systems published by UNICEF. He recently worked as the UNODC lead consultant for the development of the United Nations *Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Children in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice* and created a checklist to facilitate the implementation of that new child rights–based instrument.

**Dr. Garth Davies** is an associate professor of Criminology at Simon Fraser University. His most recently completed work involves the social psychology of radicalization. He has also been involved in the development of the Terrorism and Extremism Network Extractor, a web crawler designed to investigate extremist activities on the Internet. The crawler is presently being adapted to examine violent extremism on the dark net. Dr. Davies is also the

co-director of the Terrorism, Risk, and Security Studies professional online Masters program at Simon Fraser University.

**Jaap de Waard** is a senior policy advisor at the Netherlands Ministry of Security and Justice. He is the former secretary of the European Crime Prevention Network (EUCPN). He has published widely on crime prevention models, international trends in the private security industry, and international benchmark studies in the field of crime control. He is a regular presenter at national and international conferences and expert meetings in the field of law enforcement and crime prevention. He is a research fellow at the International Victimology Institute (INTERVICT), Tilburg University, the Netherlands.

Jaap studied Information Science with special emphasis on the application and usage of knowledge in organizations, along with the interaction between people, organizations, and any existing information and knowledge systems.

**Benjamin Flander, PhD**, is an assistant professor at the Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Maribor, Slovenia. His areas of specialization are constitutional law and human rights in criminal justice systems. He is the coauthor of recently published chapters in *Trust and Legitimacy in Criminal Justice* (2015, edited by Gorazd Meško and Justice Tankebe) and *International Developments and Practices in Investigative Interviewing and Interrogation* (edited by David Walsh et al.). He is the author of two books. Lately, his research interests include Nietzsche, postmodernism, advanced critical legal studies, and critical criminology. Since 2012, he has been active as an evaluator at the Group of States against Corruption (GRECO). E-mail: benjamin.flander@fvv.uni-mb.si

**Richard Grimes** qualified as a solicitor in 1977 and worked initially in a law center and later as a full-equity partner for a provincial law firm, handling a wide range of, principally, publicly funded cases. He has retained an interest in law teaching and research as well as legal practice in the belief that the one informs the other and has worked at several universities in England and Ireland. In 1990, he joined Sheffield Hallam University where he established an in-house solicitor's practice in which undergraduate law students handled real cases under professional supervision. He was seconded to the University of the South Pacific from 1995 to 1997 where he became the director of the Institute for Justice and Applied Legal Studies. In 1998, he was appointed head of Law and professor of Legal Education at the University of Derby, and in 2000, he joined the College of Law as professor and director of Pro Bono Services and Clinical Legal Education. From 2006 to 2010, Richard acted as an independent consultant on a variety of projects in the United Kingdom and further afield.



including in Afghanistan, Georgia, Iran, and Nigeria, working with national governments, donor agencies, law schools, the legal profession, and NGOs. He was director of Clinical Programmes at the York Law School, University of York, from 2010 to 2016 and helped pioneer a fully integrated clinical approach to study using problem-based learning. He has now returned to a consultancy role. He has published widely on clinical legal education issues, in the legal skills field, and on various substantive law matters. He remains committed to learning by doing and to improving access to justice more generally.

**Rita Haverkamp** was appointed, in 2013, to the position of professorship in the Department of Crime Prevention and Risk Management at Eberhard Karls University in Tübingen, Germany. She is currently a member of the Scientific Advisory Committee on the Dialogue on Societal Aspects of Security Research that is funded by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research. In addition, Haverkamp serves on the Research Advisory Board of the Federal Criminal Police Office.

Professor Haverkamp completed her doctoral thesis on “Electronic Monitoring of Criminal Offenders” at the Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Criminal Law in Freiburg, Germany. Her habilitation thesis on “Women in Prison against the Background of the European Prison Rules” was completed at the Ludwig-Maximilians-University in Munich in 2008. Before achieving her professorship, Rita worked as a senior researcher (2008–2013) at the Department of Criminology of the Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Criminal Law where she focused mainly on terrorism and security-related research.

**Jackie Jones** is a professor of Feminist Legal Studies at the University of the West of England and a human rights activist. She specializes in women’s human rights but has written articles and chapters on the rights of transsexuals, gender, asylum, sexuality, and same-sex marriage. She is president of the European Women Lawyers Association, chair of the Wales Assembly of Women, and trustee of two women’s rights organizations in the United Kingdom. She, along with others, has written a draft UN Convention/Optional Protocol to Eliminate Violence against Women and Girls, working closely with Professor Rashida Manjoo, the former UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, Its Causes and Consequences. Jackie has written several pieces on human trafficking and helped progress the agenda on human trafficking in Wales from 2007 to 2010 working with Parliamentarians on awareness raising and a specific Wales report. She has given evidence to the Westminster Parliament and the National Assembly for Wales on State obligations to enact gender-specific laws to combat violence against women and regularly attends governmental meetings to discuss equality and women’s rights issues in the United Kingdom and in Europe, as well as the United

Nations Commission on the Status of Women. She was national coordinator of the EU Progress-funded project, European Women Shareholders Demand Gender Equality ([www.ewsdge.org](http://www.ewsdge.org)).

**Michael Kilchling, Dr. jur.**, is a senior researcher at the Department of Criminology of the Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Criminal Law in Freiburg/Germany (MPI) and lecturer at the University of Freiburg where he teaches criminology, penology, prison law, and juvenile justice law. His main research interests include penal sanctions and sanctioning systems, juvenile justice, victim/offender mediation and other forms of restorative justice, victimology, organized crime, money laundering and the financing of terrorism, confiscation, and asset recovery. He liaises with the Max Planck Partner Group for Balkan Criminology, a joint venture of the MPI and the Faculty of Law of the University of Zagreb/Croatia, and is one of the course directors of the International Spring Course “Crime Prevention through Criminal Law and Security Studies” of the Zagreb Faculty of Law and of the annual “Balkan Criminology” course, both held at the Inter University Centre in Dubrovnik/Croatia. He was a member of several international expert groups at the Council of Europe and the EU Commission; at the Council of Europe, he was a member of the Group of Specialists on Assistance to Victims and Prevention of Victimization that prepared the Recommendation R(2006)8 on Assistance to Crime Victims. He is a co-editor of *Balkan Criminology News*, the newsletter of the Max Planck Partner Group for Balkan Criminology, and a member of the international advisory board of *Restorative Justice—An International Journal*. Besides his academic activities, he volunteers as a member of the board of the European Forum for Restorative Justice, currently as its chair, and as a member of the scientific council of the German association of victim support groups (ado).

**Dr. J. Bryan Kinney** is an associate professor in the School of Criminology at Simon Fraser University, where he has completed his MA and PhD in Criminology. He is also the assistant director for the Institute for Canadian Urban Research Studies. His research interests include environmental criminology, geography of crime, police studies, crime prevention and crime reduction, quantitative research methods, court sentencing patterns, and historical criminology.

**Helmut Kury, Prof. Dr. habil. Dipl. Psych., Prof. h.c. mult.**, studied psychology and economy at the University of Freiburg/Germany. Throughout his academic career, he served as an assistant teacher at the University of Freiburg, Department Psychology (1970–1973); he was a senior researcher at Max Planck Institute for Foreign and International Penal Law—Department of Criminology; and he served as a professor at the University of Freiburg/

Germany (1973–1980 and 1988–2006, pensioner). From 1980 to 1988, he was first director of the Criminological Research Institute (KFN) of Lower Saxony in Hannover/Germany.

His main research interests include the resocialization of offenders, evaluation of different treatment programs, juvenile delinquency, psychological diagnostic of prisoners and sex offenders, expert testimonies in court, fear of crime, and community crime prevention, among other areas. Kury has published some 700 articles in national and international journals and has edited a score of books covering such topics as crime, criminology, forensic psychology, family, and criminal behavior. His most recent publications include the following: *Punitivity—International Developments*. 3 Vols. (2011), Bochum: Brockmeyer, edited with E. Shea; *Forensic Psychology* (2012), Stuttgart: Kohlhammer; edited with H. Obergfell-Fuchs; and *Women and Children as Victims and Offenders. Background, Prevention, Reintegration*, 2 Vols. (2016), Heidelberg, New York: Springer; edited with S. Redo and E. Shea.

**Benoit Leclerc** is an associate professor of Criminology and Criminal Justice at Griffith University in Brisbane, Australia. He was involved in research and clinical work with adolescent and adult sex offenders at the Philippe-Pinel Institute of Montréal for seven years and received his PhD from the Université de Montréal, Canada. His research interests include script analysis, offender decision-making, situational crime prevention, and sexual offending. His most recent funded project involves the study of the effectiveness of situational crime prevention to prevent sexual offenses. His research has been published in various journals including *British Journal of Criminology*, *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, *Criminology*, *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, and *Sexual Abuse: A Journal of Research and Treatment*.

**Elliott Mann, BA**, studies at the School of Criminology at Simon Fraser University, where he is currently completing a master's degree in Criminology. He completed his undergraduate degree in Criminal Justice at Mount Royal University and was placed on the President's Honor Roll. His research interests include environmental criminology, crime prevention and CPTED, and geography of crime.

**Dr. Nerea Marteache** is an assistant professor of Criminal Justice and the assistant director of the Center for Criminal Justice Research at California State University, San Bernardino. Her scholarship involves two complementary subject areas—crime prevention through opportunity reduction and the analysis and evaluation of criminal justice policy. From 2005 to 2008 she worked as a researcher at the Department of Justice of the Government of Catalonia (Spain), mainly in the areas of juvenile justice, corrections, and

court performance evaluation. Dr. Marteaché's current research examines the opportunity structure of theft by employees, wildlife crime, and crime in transportation systems. Her recent scholarly work includes book chapters and publications in *European Journal on Criminal Justice and Research*, *European Journal of Criminology*, *Journal of Public Transportation*, *Journal of American College Health*, and *Crime Science*.

**Dr. Veronica Martinez Solares** played a key role in developing the materials for the politicians who successfully legislated Mexico's model national law on crime prevention. She was the lead expert in developing the model framework for national crime prevention for 10 Latin American countries in partnership with the EFUS and other partners for EUROsociAL. She has a growing list of publications and has worked on numerous projects to develop effective crime prevention, victim assistance, police reform, and modern justice in Latin America, including on grants from the British Council, the Canadian International Development Research Centre, the Legal Defence Institute from Peru, the Citizen Security Studies Centre from Chile, and the Organization of American States. She is invited increasingly to speak in both English and Spanish in North and Latin America on these issues.

**Gorazd Meško, PhD**, is a professor of criminology and the head of the Institute of Criminal Justice and Security at the Faculty of Criminal Justice and Security, University of Maribor, Slovenia. He is a member of the Max Planck Partner Group for Balkan Criminology and an International Ambassador of the British Society of Criminology. He received the "Zois Award" for his outstanding achievements in scientific, research and development activities in social sciences in 2014. He has recently edited *Handbook on Policing in Central and Eastern Europe* (2013, with Charles B. Fields, Branko Lobnikar, and Andrej Sotlar) and *Trust and Legitimacy in Criminal Justice: European Perspectives* (2015, with Justice Tankebe). His current research interests include crime prevention, provision of safety/security, and legitimacy. E-mail: gorazd.mesko@fvv.uni-mb.si

**Anne Miller** holds a masters' in public policy and public administration, Anne is a credentialed evaluator through the Canadian Evaluation Society, an accredited SROI practitioner, and licensed SROI trainer through the Social Value Network International. Working as the director of SROI and Evaluation at a consulting firm in Canada, Anne supported the Government of Alberta in reviewing the SROI analyses of 88 crime prevention projects funded under Alberta's Safe Communities Secretariat (2011–2014). She has conducted significant research in crime-related financial proxies and has contributed to providing training in SROI and cost analysis for many government departments and crime prevention programs.

**Monica Pauls, MA**, has been working as a researcher in the social science field for more than a decade. Upon completing her masters' degree, she worked as the coordinator for Alberta-based Research Projects at the Canadian Research Institute for Law and the Family. Monica went on to teach at Mount Royal University, but continued to conduct research as both an independent consultant and as a member of the academic community. Her scholarly interests include at-risk children and youth, interpersonal violence, youth empowerment, social movements and community change, and evaluation. She is well versed in both quantitative and qualitative methodologies and has experience with various analytical software programs. Monica is currently appointed as assistant professor in the Department of Child Studies and Social Work at Mount Royal University.

**Michael Platzer** served for 34 years in the United Nations Secretariat in various capacities, in the Office of the Secretary-General, human rights, technical cooperation, HABITAT, UNDP, peacebuilding/reconstruction, and the UNODC. He has taught at Australian, Austrian, American, and Caribbean universities. Dr. Platzer was liaison officer for the Academic Council on the United Nations System to the Vienna-based UN organizations and chair of the Vienna NGO Alliance for Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. For the past three years, he has led a campaign to stop Femicide: A Global Issue That Demands Action, which has resulted in two General Assembly resolutions, many symposia, and five publications. His primary interests are the education of the "succeeding generations," innovative teaching techniques, social media advocacy, environmental protection, juvenile justice reform, prisoners' rights, guidelines for chaplains witnessing torture, victim rights, rights of migrants, social integration, and assistance to refugees. In addition to teaching, he is also busy organizing workshops and conferences, conducting surveys, and publishing research. His last UN assignment was Regional Representative to the Caribbean, on behalf of UNODC. Practical projects, which assisted youth, the poor, vulnerable people, and women, have always been his priorities.

**Śławomir Redo** (Dr. hab., Law/Criminology) is an independent academic, and senior adviser at the Academic Council on the United Nations System (Liaison Office at Vienna, Austria). He teaches a graduate interdisciplinary course on "The United Nations and Crime Prevention" at several international universities.

Redo was a UN Senior Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Expert and staff of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime who, for 30 years, had worked on technical assistance projects implementing the UN law against organized crime and many other UN crime prevention and criminal justice standards and norms.

He has published some 70 articles mainly on the United Nations law and practice of crime prevention and criminal justice. He co-edited three criminological books, including *For the Rule of Law: Criminal Justice Teaching and Training across the World*. In 2012, he published *Blue Criminology. The Power of United Nations Ideas to Counter Crime Globally*. He also co-edited *Women and Children as Offenders and Victims of Crime. Suggestions for Succeeding Generations* (Springer, 2016).

**Dr. John Rook** is a passionate servant leader who champions the belief that poverty can be solved. With a doctorate from Oxford University, he has spent years both at the front lines and in academia to gain both a theoretical and practical understanding of the issues facing people in poverty. He has published a Greek workbook and numerous journal articles, and has a children's book on homelessness in progress.

For six years, he chaired the National Council of Welfare, a federal body reporting to the Minister of Human Resources and Skills Canada proposing recommendations for improving Canadian lives to the Canadian Parliament. From 2000 to 2010, he worked for the Salvation Army, and for six years, he was CEO of their Community Services, which included the Booth Centre and Centre of Hope homeless projects and Child & Family Services.

He has received numerous recognitions for his work from the City of Burlington, Ontario's Celebration of Service Award (1996), to the Queen Elizabeth II Diamond Jubilee Medal (2013). He sat on the Provincial Interagency Council on Homelessness and chaired the research committee. He is a board member of the Basic Income Canada Network and Vibrant Communities Calgary. He is the founding director of the Canadian Poverty Institute at Ambrose University in Calgary. Currently he is director of Programs and Strategic Initiatives at The Mustard Seed in Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

**Samantha Sexsmith** is a recent recipient of a master's degree in Public Policy from the School of Public Policy in Calgary, Alberta. Before moving to Calgary, Samantha received an honour's bachelor degree in Criminal Justice and Public Policy from the University of Guelph. Samantha has previously worked on the front lines with incarcerated youth, which ultimately sparked her academic interests, but she now remains focused on research and policy analysis. Samantha's research focuses heavily on alternative methods to incarceration for youth crime, but she is currently working with Dr. John Rook on research related to poverty and homelessness.

**Margaret Shaw, PhD**, is a sociologist and criminologist, and was director of analysis and exchange at the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) from 1999 to 2011. She now works as an independent consultant,

including with ICPC. Before joining ICPC, she worked for more than 20 years as a research and policy advisor in the Home Office, England. Between 1986 and 1999, she was a lecturer and associate professor in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology at Concordia University, Montréal, and undertook research for federal, provincial, and municipal governments and police organizations in Canada. She has undertaken extensive research internationally including for UN HABITAT, UNODC, UN WOMEN, and WHO and published widely on crime prevention, youth violence, justice and rehabilitation, gender, women's imprisonment and safety, human trafficking, and evaluation. In 2013, she was awarded the *Saltzman Prize for Contributions to Practice* by the Division of Women and Crime, American Society of Criminology, and in 2014, she received the *G.O.W. Mueller Award for Distinguished Contributions to International Criminal Justice*, from the International Division of the Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences.

**Jan van Dijk** has a degree in law from Leiden University (1970) and a PhD in criminology from the University of Nijmegen (1977). He is a former director of the Research Centre and Directorate of Crime Prevention of the Dutch Ministry of Justice and a former professor of criminology at the Universities of Leiden and Tilburg. He served as officer in charge of the United Nations Centre for International Crime Prevention in Vienna between 1998 and 2006. He is currently a visiting professor at Lausanne University, Switzerland. He is vice-president of the Group of Experts on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings (GRETA) of the Council of Europe and vice-president of the Dutch State Compensation Fund for Victims of Violent Crime. He is a member of the Research Council of the Dutch National Police (Politie en Wetenschap).

van Dijk published extensively on victims' rights, crime prevention, and human trafficking. His latest monograph in English is *The World of Crime: Breaking the Silence on Problems of Security, Justice and Development* (Sage, 2008). In 2011, he published with Rianne Letschert the edited book *The New Faces of Victimhood: Globalization, Transnational Crimes and Victim Rights* (Springer). In 2012, he published with A. Tseloni and Graham Farrell *The International Drops in Crime* (Palgrave/Macmillan). In 2009, he received the Sellin-Glueck Award of the American Society of Criminology, and in 2012, he received the Stockholm Prize in Criminology.

**Paul van Soomeren** is one of the founders of DSP-groep (<http://www.dsp-groep.eu/home/>) and works as a management consultant and policy researcher for national and local authorities, the EU, and international organizations and institutions. DSP-groep is a leading institute for policy research and social innovation, established in 1984 and based in Europe (Amsterdam-NL). Areas of expertise include crime prevention, safety and (social) security, youth, welfare and health care, leisure/sports, and culture.

He is the director of the board of the International CPTED Association (crime prevention through environmental design) and the European Designing Out Crime Association (<http://www.e-doca.eu/>). In that capacity, he travels all over the world to lecture on these subjects.

Areas of expertise include urban planning and design, crime prevention, safety/security, education, and social management. Paul is a member of the international COST action Management Committee and is a visiting professor of the Adelphi Research Institute of the University of Salford (UK).

Paul studied Social Geography, and Urban and Regional Planning at the University of Amsterdam. He worked for the Ministries of Justice and Interior Affairs (National Crime Prevention Institute) for three years before he founded DSP-groep in 1984.

**Irvin Waller** is an influential author and speaker, professor of Criminology, and president of the International Organization for Victim Assistance. He won awards in the United States and internationally for his contributions to the UN General Assembly resolution that adopted the Declaration on Principles of Justice for Victims in 1985. His work to stop victimization—the ultimate victim right—has won recognition across the world, particularly for his role as the founding executive director of the International Centre for Prevention of Crime, affiliated with the UN. He has advised the governments of more than 50 countries in both the affluent and developing world, including that of Mandela. His recent trilogy of books provide policymakers with effective actions based on the accumulated evidence and international best practices to stop violent crime and assist victims. They are translated into Spanish, Chinese, and other languages. They include *Less Law, More Order—The Truth about Reducing Crime* (2006), *Rights for Victims of Crime: Rebalancing Justice* (2011), and *Smarter Crime Control: A Guide to a Safer Future for Citizens, Communities and Politicians* (2014).

**Scott Walsh** was born and brought up in Lancashire, North West England. After leaving school with limited qualifications, he moved from job to job working, among other things, as an apprentice baker and in local cotton mills. After a troubled few years that included various encounters with the law and several custodial sentences, Scott started to improve his position, first attending college and then volunteering to help with a variety of youth projects. He has worked with young offenders for the past eight years specializing in RJ. He received a major Ministry of Justice award for crime prevention in 2010 and now regularly lectures on RJ and is involved in the development and delivery of RJ programs and in the training of RJ facilitators. In 2015, he decided to study law at degree level (which he is enjoying immensely) and he hopes to eventually qualify and practice as a solicitor.



**D. Gaye Warthe, PhD, MSW, RSW**, is an associate professor and chair of the Department of Child Studies and Social Work at Mount Royal University, Calgary. Dr. Warthe has extensive practice experience including working with child protection, pregnant and parenting adolescents, and education, and as a medical social worker at a children's hospital. As a private consultant, she contributed to the development and implementation of domestic violence screening protocols, was involved in establishing the domestic violence court in Calgary, and was the lead consultant on a Family and Sexual Violence Sector Review. Dr. Warthe is the principal investigator on a relationship violence prevention project at Mount Royal called Stepping Up; she developed the Dating Relationship Scales to measure dating violence in young adults and is the principal investigator in a multiyear dating violence prevalence study. Dr. Warthe was on the Advisory Committee of Shift: The Project to End Domestic Violence and currently serves on the Steering Committee for RESOLVE Alberta; she is a member of the board with Discovery House Family Violence Prevention Society and the Alberta Council of Women Shelters.



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# Introduction

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One insight that Friedrich Nietzsche shares with Emile Durkheim...is that strong political regimes have no need to rely upon intensely punitive sanctions. Punitiveness may pose as a symbol of strength, but it should be interpreted as a symptom of weak authority and inadequate controls.

**D. Garland**  
*1996, p. 445*

Today, there is no shortage of literature questioning the relative efficiency and effectiveness of any state's criminal justice system (CJS). Why then, despite a plethora of initiatives, do society's most marginalized sectors (e.g., aboriginal/indigenous and other [minority] ethnic groups; physically, emotionally, or mentally challenged people, children, and youth; Roma; minority ethnic groups, etc.) continue to be overrepresented within and not receive basic rights and support from the CJS? Why do these groups seem to be socially dominated, for example, victim to exploitation, harassment, profiling, lack of equal opportunity, and so on? One explanation is that those identifying with one or more such groups tend to be poverty stricken or have low socioeconomic standing relative to their fellow citizens. Haugen and Boutros (2014) provide a compelling overview of how countries whose economies are not well established and where poverty is a major concern\* also tend to have various levels of inefficiency and corruption within, and a lack of state funding for their CJS, which essentially contribute to the breakdown of their society and the perpetual crime problems. The point about funding also mirrors one of the conclusions that Farrell and Clark (2004) draw from their analysis, that "criminal justice expenditure levels are significantly tied to levels of available public monies as determined by the strength of a national economy" (p. 22).<sup>†</sup> Similarly, Dandurand (2014, p. 383) points out that "criminal justice systems around the world are frequently being questioned both in terms of their effectiveness and their efficiency." Drawing

\* According to World Bank data from 2011, approximately 14.5% of the world's population lives in poverty (at \$1.25 a day). The hardest hit areas are the sub-Saharan region at 46.8%, followed by fragile and conflict-affected zones at 42.7%, while Europe and Central Asia have the lowest poverty rate at 0.5% (see <http://data.worldbank.org/topic/poverty>). Reporting on data collected by World Issues, Shah (2013) reports that 80% of the world's population lives on less than US\$10/day.

<sup>†</sup> For example, countries such as Switzerland, Denmark, United States, and Singapore had the highest per capita spending across the CJS while also having very robust economies.

on a range of international examples, Dandurand tenders a number of recommendations that collectively speak to new and better capacity building initiatives throughout the CJS. While having introspective suggestions, Dandurand intentionally situate(s) these changes within a financial or resource context. In Canada, for example, between 2003 and 2013, the CJS budget increased 66% despite a steadily decreasing crime rate (Story and Yalkin 2013). In their comprehensive review of global expenditures on criminal justice (CJ), Farrell and Clark (2004) observed that approximately 62% of global CJ budget is spent on policing, 3% on prosecution, 18% on courts, and 19% on incarceration. These are all reactive investments in crime control. Interestingly, no mention is made of money being allocated to crime prevention initiatives—a proactive initiative.

Even though politicians and civil servants express the need to formulate policy based on informed evidence, the burgeoning costs, relatively inefficiency, and effectiveness of the CJS have not been affected by many reforms despite clear and compelling evidence of viable alternatives. Furthermore, as Garland (1996) reports in his analysis of the strategies of crime control, the normality of crime rates and the limitations of criminal justice agencies to effectively respond to the changing rates have created a predicament for governments, which, in turn, can be used to explain the contradictory character of recent crime-control policy. For example, it could be claimed that many CJSs are being expanded despite an overall decline in world crime rates (see Chapter 17). Furthermore, when comparing the prison rates for 11 countries for the period from 2005 to 2009, only two countries, the Netherlands and Finland, experienced a drop in their prison population rates (Walmsley n.d.). Prisons are very expensive and reoffending rates, internationally, hover around 40% (UN Minister of Justice 2010). UN data also show that the *per capita* of police officers increased throughout most of the 20th century, with a global per capita in 2006 of around 300 while the UN recommends the minimum strength needs only to around 222 (Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice 2010, p. 19). What is not taken into account are the increasing associated costs of maintaining law enforcement agencies; these budgets have continued to grow despite a global leveling of police numbers. Speaking to this general point, the British-based National Audit Office (2012, p. 9) reported that “international comparisons have an important role to play in building understanding of how individual criminal justice systems are functioning.”

Despite the challenges of making international comparisons (see Dammer and Albanese 2013; Reichel and Albanese 2014; Winterdyk 2015), it is clear that most governments around the world are relying increasingly on neo-conservatism ideas\* to reduce their criminal justice expenditures by “tinkering”

\* For further discussion on the concept of neo-conservatism see, for example, J. Clarke (2004). *America Alone: The Neo-Conservatives and the Global Order*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

with how they formally administer justice. Bear in mind, however, the cautionary comments of Sherman et al. (1997) that crime prevention, while not a perfect solution, holds considerably more promise than the “dominate” approach of trying to *control* crime. After all, it is unlikely that we can control the crime “opportunities” continually proffered by new technology, social change, and the adaptive and innovative (e.g., rational choice theory) behavior of prospective offenders (see Eklom 2012). Yet, we should be mindful of the provocative point made by esteemed American political scientist James Q. Wilson (1931–2012) in his 1974 essay: “Crime and the criminologists.” Wilson notes how it was only in the aftermath of the political failures of social reforms in the late 1960s (i.e., deinstitutionalization and philosophy of reintegration), which also coincided with a rising crime rate and public concern over law and order, that we began to see the policy analysis and legislation on crime control being influenced by sociological and psychological theories that were simply not robust enough to be used as justification for any social policy (Hope 2000). The (re)emergence of crime prevention as a crime-control strategy was seen initially as a simplified explanation and response to the “failings” of more traditional interpretation of crime and responses to it (Eklom 2012; Garland 2001). While a substantive body of literature supports *proactive* over *reactive* measures for maintaining social order (see, generally, Sherman et al. 2006), we remain burdened with predominantly punitive and retributive approaches to maintaining law and order.

As reflected in the title of this book, the focus is on crime prevention as opposed to crime control. Before launching into the diverse range of themes, topics, and issues related to crime prevention efforts within an international context, we begin by summarizing the two main ideological perspectives on maintaining law and order. We then offer an overview of what crime prevention is, its approaches, and some of the key theories used to explain crime from a crime prevention standpoint. Then, we conclude with a few comments on initiatives aimed at measuring the relative effectiveness of crime prevention and offer an idea of what the future might hold.

## Retributivism versus Utilitarianism

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### Retribution: “Just Deserts... Making the Punishment Fit the Crime”

We shut our eyes likewise to the fact that the control performance is frightfully expensive and inefficient.

K. Menninger  
1969, p. viii

The etymology of crime can trace its origins to the Latin *cerno*, which translates to “I decide, I give judgment.” Today, the conventional meaning of a crime denotes an act or behavior that, in accordance with a state’s Criminal/Penal Code, is subject to a punitive response—punishment. The history of punishing someone for wrongdoing can also be traced back to pre-literate cultures when police forces didn’t exist; serious offenses had to be dealt with quickly and generally deemed fair in the eyes of the church, which had a powerful role in enforcing morality at that time.\* Philosophically, punishment can be divided into two schools of thought—*retribution* and *utilitarianism*.

In ancient Greece, retribution was the fundamental and universal principle of justice and formed the foundation upon which morality and Greek science were built. More recently, the Swiss child-psychologist Jean Piaget (1896–1980) was among the first to point out that, when left to their own devices, children will seek retribution when wronged. Only as we age and learn to modulate our sense of justice do we become able to desist from taking justice into our own hands (i.e., theory of cognitive development).†

I suspect that most readers are familiar with the ruthless phrase sometimes used by those who feel they have been unjustly harmed; they want their proverbial “pound of flesh.” Those familiar with Shakespeare’s *Merchant of Venice* (4:1), 1596, know the origin and meaning behind this phrase, which was used by the moneylender Shylock who was insistent that Antonio pay dearly with his flesh for not having paid Shylock back:

The pound of flesh, which I demand of him, is deerly bought; 'tis mine, and I will have it.‡

As the story unfolds, the presiding judge, Portio, makes it clear that Shylock deserves compensation for his pound of flesh, money lent but not paid back, but without an ounce of blood because it was not asked for. Upon further reflection, Shylock accepts the ruling, but then later abandons his quest for revenge in favor of mercy.

While we can credit Shakespeare for the colorful retributive phrase, the notion of exacting “justice,” or “just deserts,” first coined in 1976 (*Doing Justice*), by the British lawyer/penal theorist Andrew von Hirsch, asserts that punishment should be proportionate to the seriousness of the crime. This approach supersedes the classical principle of “utilitarianism” (see below) and any thought

\* Some of the earliest written codes intended to maintain order and a just approach to crime control include the Sumerian *Code of Ur-Nammu* (circa 2100 BC), *Hammurabi Code* (circa 100 BC), and the *Mosaic Code* circa 640 BC).

† For more details on the theory of cognitive development see B.J. Wadsworth (1996), *Piaget’s Theory of Cognitive and Affective Development: Foundations of Constructivism* (5th ed.). White Plains, NY, England: Longman Publishing.

‡ Old English spelling.

about treating or preventing a/the offender/crime. The just deserts model, while arguably more sophisticated than Immanuel Kant's (1724–1804) doctrine of “an eye for an eye”—law of vengeance (i.e., *Lex Talionis*), or “like for like” as described in Part 2 (Section 7) of Kant's 1785 *Metaphysics of Morals*, is not without its critics. Nevertheless, Kant's doctrine embraced the principles of natural law, humans as free and rational beings (see Corrado and Mattehesuis 2014), and the assumption of the social contract. This latter idea was adapted from the French philosopher and writer J.J. Rousseau (1712–1778), who argued that any sense of retributivism is dependent on the expressed guilt by the offender. Once established, punishment is deemed necessary as a means of obtaining (public) security and would supposedly ensure a fair and impartial sentence.\* However, as Hudson (1996) points out, in treating similar crimes alike, such practice fails to take into consideration any of the structural or economic factors such as poverty (also see Crocker and Johnson 2010; Haugen and Boutros 2014). In dealing solely with the crime, the just desert model negates the possibility that any human condition, or element, underlies the motive behind the crime and thus dilutes the notion of the fair and equitable sentence envisioned by “true justice” philosophy.

Although space does not allow for a more protracted discussion of the merits of retribution, we conclude by pointing out that despite the proliferation of federal and international criminal laws (see Einarsen 2014) and expanding CJSs with their skyrocketing budgets, we are being shackled by a system that not only overcriminalizes behavior but also has proven to be not very effective at preventing crime or rehabilitating offenders.

### Utilitarianism: “The Greater Good”

The utilitarian theory justifies punishment as a means to discourage, or “deter,” future transgressions/transgressors. As first introduced by the Scottish scholar David Hume (1711–1766)<sup>†</sup> and later refined by Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832), the principle of utilitarianism refers to doing what is in the greatest good for a society—“the greatest happiness principle.” According to utilitarian principles, punishment is “consequential” in nature. That is, unless the punishment serves the specific good of ensuring the safety and well-being of a society, it can be construed as “cruel and unusual.” For example, if an inmate is suffering from a terminal illness, it may not serve

\* During the 1970s, the just desserts model gained wide acceptance and many countries revised their sentencing guidelines to reflect the three key types of justice sentencing, for example, fixed sentences, presumptive guidelines with limited flexibility that were subject to specific conditions, and advisory guidelines under which proscribed situations, judges could exercise their discretion.

<sup>†</sup> Hume was one of the first empiricists and reasoned that *desire* as opposed to *reason* governed human behavior.

society to detain him or her indefinitely if he or she is no longer capable of committing a crime.

Virtually every country has a Criminal/Penal Code and a formalized CJS, whose primary function is to maintain social order, premised on crime control, or as English criminologist Jason Ditton (1979) defined it—“controlology.” By nature and by definition, most CJSs are reactive in so much that a formal response cannot be applied unless a formal offense has been committed and the court has made a determination of the behavior or act in question.

Viewed from a psychological perspective, the “fear” (i.e., risk) of punishment—loss of freedom and dignity—assumes not only that humans are capable of making rational decisions regardless of their individual emotional and cognitive development but also that it is possible to proscribe a formal response proportionate to “the harm done” using what Jeremy Bentham\* has termed *ethical calculus* (a pseudo-mathematical concept). However, as Ariely (2012) observed, most of us consider ourselves to be good people and therefore doing a “little wrong” won’t hurt because on measure we are essentially good/law-abiding people who can rely on our own sense of morality to gauge how far we can transgress the norms and values of society without considering ourselves to be “bad.” However, as Ariely points out, we are neither well equipped nor well qualified to judge our own moral performance. For example, how do we “know” when doing good enough is good enough? Would killing Adolf Hitler be considered a “good” act if it put an end to the Holocaust? Did the 2011 assassination of Osama bin Laden and founder of Al-Qaeda put an end to their terrorist activities?† While any attempt to engage in rich discourse over these examples is beyond the scope of the Introduction (and the objective of this book), what many of the early thinkers either directly or indirectly acknowledged is that criminal behavior is dependent on the opportunity to learn the behavior—that is, crime is rooted in social causation or “pleasure pursuit” as described by Geis (1972, p. 57). Therefore, if crime is largely learned and a predictable expression of our pursuit of pleasure/happiness (i.e., a calculable temptation), then we should also be able to design crime prevention approaches that will reduce the likelihood of a crime by neutralizing or eliminating the desire and temptation in the first place.‡

\* Bentham was referred to as a “radical fool” by the German philosopher Johann W. von Goethe.

† The Al-Qaeda in Yemen claimed responsibility for the January 2015 terrorist massacre in Paris, France.

‡ Denunciation theory is a hybrid of retribution and utilitarianism. However, like retribution, it is grounded in the principle that offenders deserve to be held accountable (i.e., punished) for their wrongdoing. Arguably, the crimes in most Criminal Codes reflect those behaviors that a society disapproves of and which require some form of regulatory response (Zaibert 2006).



## Crime Prevention Approaches: “An Ounce of Prevention Is Worth a Pound of Cure”

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As with other social problems, it is perhaps more sensible to think of prevention strategies.

V. F. Sacco and L. W. Kennedy  
2010, p. 315

*Crime prevention*, although a simple term like *crime*, is complex in its expressions. In general, crime prevention refers to the array of strategies implemented by business, communities, governments, individuals, and nongovernment agencies/organizations to target the various environmental, cultural, economic, and social factors affecting the risk of crime and victimization (IPC 2008; Jacobs 1962; van Dijk and de Waard 1991). As Wilson (2011) points out, unlike most conventional approaches to crime control, crime prevention focuses on criminogenic situations as opposed to trying to deal with the criminal after the fact. Above all else, crime prevention is a *management* approach to crime control.

We will next summarize several of the main approaches to crime prevention that differ in terms of the intervention focus and types of activities delivered. Most of these approaches will be explored in greater detail in some of the subsequent chapters.

### Environmental Crime Prevention

The environmental approach seeks to physically alter specific characteristics of the environment that are thought to contribute (i.e., risk factors) to the occurrence of criminal events (Eckblom 2012; Poyner 1983; Sutton et al. 2008). There are two specific environmental crime prevention approaches.

#### *Urban Design and Planning*

One of the more popular and broader planning initiatives includes CPTED (Crime Prevention through Environmental Design) and urban renewal projects. Specifically, these approaches seek to reduce the opportunities for crime through the design and management of the built (e.g., buildings, roadways, lighting, public spaces, etc.) and the existing environment (e.g., high shrubs, “blind spots,” etc.). As will be discussed in Chapter 14 by J. Bryan Kinney et al., CPTED is increasingly being incorporated during the redevelopment and regeneration of urban areas experiencing social decay.

Evidence in support of CPTED is growing; although, unlike other approaches to crime prevention, CPTED has not been systematically evaluated (Shaftoe and Read 2005). Research demonstrates a strong correlation between certain characteristics of the built environment and crime levels,

although the research into certain relationships (such as between through-movement/connectivity and crime) has been inconsistent (Armitage and Monchuk 2011). While further research into the impact of CPTED is warranted, as described in Chapter 14, there is sufficient evidence to support the application of CPTED principles.

### ***Situational Crime Prevention—Stopping Opportunities***

[C]rime prevention through environmental design (and situational prevention) is an approach that promises to be more effective than any traditional police methods.

**B. Poyner**  
1983, p. i

Although the concept has a rich informal history, the formal approach of situational crime prevention was brought to the fore by Ronald Clarke (1983) and represents a radical departure from most crime-control approaches by focusing on the social setting for crime rather than the offender. The principles are simple: (1) reduce the opportunities for offenders to commit crime, (2) modify the environment to cause the potential offender to question whether they can get away with the crime, and (3) modify the environment or setting so that it appears more difficult, riskier, and less rewarding to engage in the crime (see Clarke 1997). The early Neighborhood Watch programs were an excellent and comparatively inexpensive example of situational crime prevention. Yet, as will be touched on in several chapters, situational crime prevention has evolved in a number of significant ways while remaining true to its fundamental approach. Over the years, for example, Clarke, along with some of his colleagues, has developed 25 techniques of situational prevention aims by which to reduce crime (see Clarke and Eck 2003 for further details).

### ***Crime Prevention through Social Development—Strengthening Neighborhoods***

As stated earlier, combating crime is an expensive, resource-intensive business. However, it is also generally recognized that many crimes are the result of social ills. The Crime Prevention through Social Development (CPSD) strategy thus embraces approaches designed to influence the underlying social and economic causes of crime, as well as offender motivation. It is a longer-term approach that involves mobilizing the dynamic forces within a community (e.g., housing, health and educational achievement, or community cohesion through community development measures) to target and reduce a crime problem in the most effective and most efficient way.

Drawing on many of the conventional theories of crime, and as will be explored in Chapter 8 by Matjaž Ambrož et al., CPSD theory recognizes

the complexity of the causes of crime and thus attempts to identify the various risk factors (e.g., poverty, poor parental skills, school dropout, low self-esteem, bad associates/friends, substance abuse, etc.) and develop social programs that can effectively eradicate the problem.

### ***Developmental Crime Prevention—Early Intervention***

Developmental crime prevention (DCP) is a variation of a CPSD approach in that it focuses on the way a crime occurs, or the way a victimization happens. During the late 1990s up to the beginning of the new millennium, DCP initiatives were quite popular in Australia (see Homel 2006; Homel et al. 1999; Weatherburn 2004). DCP is premised on the belief that early intervention in a young person's development (e.g., parenting and early childhood support, literacy training and alternative learning programs, anti-bullying initiatives in schools, etc.) can produce significant long-term social and economic benefits. Such initiatives aim to identify, measure, and manipulate *risk* and *protective factors* (e.g., resources or services to individuals, families, schools, or community factors, etc.) that are important in predicting future offending, as confirmed by research (Homel 2006). Chapters 6 and 10 offer topic-specific examples.

Finally, in addition to the social benefits of DCP approaches, these outcomes are also associated with significant financial savings, both for the community and for the participant (see Homel 2006 and generally Chapter 19 by Anne Miller).

### ***Community Development—Collaborating for Community Safety***

convivencia ciudadana... ideal for coexistence of very diverse cultural, social, or political groups... stable and potentially permanent living together....

**International Report**  
2010

Community development is premised on the notion that changing the physical or social organization of communities may constructively affect the behavior and quality of life of people who live there (Tonry and Farrington 1995). As various ecological theories tell us, the risk of becoming involved in crime, or being victimized, is greater in communities that have high levels of social exclusion or a lack of social cohesion. Also underlying the community development approach is the belief that crime in a particular community is not principally the result of the actions of a small number of criminogenically disposed individuals, but the consequence of a series of structural determinants present within particular communities (e.g., differential rates of access to housing, employment, education and health services, among other factors; Welsh and Hoshi 2006). The underlying assumption is that if crime-promoting

structural stress factors can be reconfigured or removed (e.g., “the broken window syndrome”), crime will be reduced (Hope 1995). Community development strategies can aim to build social cohesion and address factors leading to community disorganization, empower communities to participate in decision-making processes, and increase resources, services, and economic opportunities in disadvantaged communities or address low-level physical or social disorders considered to be precursors to more serious problems (Lane and Henry 2004; Welsh and Hoshi 2006; also see Chapter 7 by Helmut Kury).

Finally, before we review the three levels of crime prevention, it is perhaps worth bearing in mind that regardless of which approach one might favor or explore, it is important to acknowledge that unlike how conventional CJSs are administered, the various approaches speak to the need for a degree of public responsibility, or what Edmond Cahn called “consumers of justice” (cited in Menninger 1972, p. 78)—we need to educate ourselves\* and assume a certain degree of responsibility for public safety as opposed to solely relying on our respective crumbling CJSs. The contributors to this book reflect such a sentiment in their respective chapters.

## Levels of Crime Prevention

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In 1976, Brantingham and Faust pointed out that the term *prevention* must be widely misunderstood to have been used so inappropriately throughout the CJS in discussions on prime intervention strategies. In the same article, they introduced a now widely accepted conceptual model that defines the three levels of crime prevention. Borrowing from their own work and combining the three elements of crime (i.e., offender, crime, and situation) by Sacco and Kennedy (1995), Hasting (2008, p. 3) created a table incorporating both the levels and elements of crime. Table I.1 is an adaptation of Hasting’s conceptualization with examples added in the boxes.

## Crime Prevention Theories

...the appropriate application of that theory, the potential pay-offs can only be realized if the environment into which strong analytical capacity is inserted is capable of making good use of it.

N. Tilley  
2002, p. 10

\* Although the rate of increase has slowed, the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization estimated that approximately 84% of the world’s population and engage in basic reading and writing skills. This is up from around 76% in 1990 (International Literacy Data 2013).

Table I.1 A Crime Prevention Typology

Levels of Intervention			
Primary	Creating employment opportunity for the unemployed	School-based programs	Providing the elderly with an alarm device to reduce risk of victimization
Secondary	Youth programs	Neighborhood dispute centers in high-risk neighborhoods	Retail stores using drop boxes to limit the amount of money available at any one time
Tertiary	Confining offenders to a period of detention	Constructing physical barriers to limit opportunity of prospective offenders	The use of CCTVs in high-risk crime areas
	Offender(s)	Situation	Victim(s)

Elements of Crime Event<sup>a</sup>

Source: Adapted from Hasting, R. (2008). Achieving crime prevention: Reducing crime and increasing security in an inclusive Canada, p. 3. Retrieved from [canada.metropolis.net/pdfs/hastings\\_achieving\\_crime\\_prevention\\_e.pdf](http://canada.metropolis.net/pdfs/hastings_achieving_crime_prevention_e.pdf).

<sup>a</sup> A criminal event could arguably also include *law* (without a law there is no crime), *target* distribution (opportunity), and *location* (see Brantingham and Jeffery 1991). However, for the purpose of illustrating the levels of crime prevention, the other elements are not considered essential.

Throughout this reader, you’ll encounter a number of different theoretical perspectives upon which the various crime prevention initiatives have been premised. However, by way of introduction, in Table I.2, we will briefly summarize several of the major theories that typically underpin crime prevention efforts. However, as Hope and Karstedt (2003, p. 1) observed, the “contemporary approaches to crime prevention are deficient... precisely because they ignore the collective, social and structural dimensions either as necessary components of their theory of practice, or as objects of intervention in their own right.” Nevertheless, the basic idea behind all the theories is that crime and victimization is not random but predictable (Hasting 2008).

Cost–Benefit Analysis and Crime Control

As Aos et al. (2004, p. 413) noted in his assessment of prevention programs, “money matters.” Depending on one’s point of view, the adage “crime doesn’t pay” is arguably a misnomer. While it is true that most criminals eventually get caught and crime truly doesn’t pay, if you work in the CJS as an officer/agent of the system, salaries are generally very respectable, job security is high (provided you do your job there is almost guaranteed certainty that your position will not be terminated), and working benefits are quite enviable compared to many other professions. However, when one takes into account the relative efficiency and effectiveness of the different elements of the CJS, there

**Table I.2    Summary of the Major Crime Prevention Theories**

Theory	Fundamental Premise(s)	Strengths	Critique
Environmental criminology— Brantingham and Brantingham 1991; Park and Burgess 1925	Crime occurs within an environment that is characterized by its space (geography), time, law, offender, and target or victim. CPTED.	By understanding the interaction of time, space, target, and so on, it is possible to “map” geographic profiling criminal behavior.	Risk interpreting environmental correlations as causal relationships. Potential risk of shifting crime control/risk management to an individual or civil responsibility.
Rational choice— Cornish and Clarke 1986	Offending occurs after offenders’ weight matters (i.e., decision making) in relation to their personal needs and situational risk factors of committing the crime.	Explains why high-risk youth do not persistently reoffend. Used to establish control policies. Not limited by social class or social variables.	The claim that people maximize manifest payoffs is unfalsifiable and too generalist to be of substantive value.
Routine activity— Cohen and Felson 1979	Crime is a function of the presence of a motivated offender, the availability of a suitable target, and the absence of a capable guardian.	Can explain crime fluctuations. Shows how victim behavior can influence criminal choice of target.	Motivation is not evenly distributed across the population and the key elements of the theory may be simplified assumptions that do not accurately reflect the complexity of human behavior.
Crime pattern— Brantingham and Brantingham 1984	Criminal opportunities are not random and offenders and victims are not pathological in their use of time and space. Behavior and mobility is predictable— referred to as a “crime template.”	Takes into account elements of routine activity, social networks, and urban structure. Can explain why crimes are committed in certain areas.	It may be considered “antisocial” because it offers no opportunity to help individuals/settings at risk of being victimized.

is pause to question the relative cost–benefit of conventional crime control, and as Aos et al. (2004, p. 440) observes, it is “possible to take an ‘economic approach’ to the public policy options facing decision makers” in the CJS.

In recent years, and as will be addressed at various levels throughout this book, evaluations of crime prevention projects have become more sophisticated to reflect the complexity of the theoretical models of crime prevention and perhaps more importantly the complexity of measuring relative effectiveness. For example, since the late 1960s, we have evolved from relying on single measures (e.g., recidivism, fear of crime, victimization, etc.) as indicators of “success,” to using multiple indicators and different methods and designs to measure the same thing (Knutsson and Tilley 2010). One of the more recent measures introduced into the evaluation equation has been cost–benefit analysis. For example, Roman et al. (2010) prepared an entire edited book on cost–benefit analysis and crime control. Again, in Chapter 19, Anne Miller will discuss and explore one of the leading cost–benefit strategies.

## **The Future of Crime Prevention**

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Just as the whole complexion of crime changes with the various advancements and social, economic, and political fluctuations, so too must, and will, the state of crime prevention. However, as is reflected throughout this book, there is no uniform protocol in how to prevent crime (see Box I.1).

Therefore, although it may be impossible to predict where crime prevention will be in 5 or 10 (or more) years from now, one thing that is reasonably certain is that it will continue to undergo constant and (at times) rapid change. For example, in the 1970s, crime prevention gained public support in response to target hardening programs (e.g., use deadbolts, property identification, the “Club,” etc.). While such techniques are still commonly used today, we have evolved to increasingly using such techniques as house alarms and electronic monitoring, biometrics, and so on. Similarly, when I was a young graduate student, I was involved in evaluating the first crime prevention initiative to reduce corner store robberies in Canada. Modeled after the successful “Robbery Prevention Kit” developed by Southlands (7-Eleven) Corporation in the States, the program proved highly successful, and it was instrumental in establishing a permanent Crime Prevention Unit in the Vancouver Police Force. However, even this program has evolved and has become a somewhat standardized practice among a wide range of convenience-oriented services, for example, gas stations, late-night fast-food outlets, and so on (see Roesch and Winterdyk 1986).

As suggested in several of the chapters (see Chapters 17 through 19), the future of crime prevention, while at times appearing subject to the political stability and relative economic sustainability of countries, is essentially

**BOX I.1 THE UNITED NATIONS AND CRIME PREVENTION**

Established in 2003, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) was a merger between the United Nations Drug Control Program and the Centre for International Crime Prevention. Today, the UNODC operates in all regions of the world through its extensive network of field officers. In addition to its various roles, the UNODC provides technical support in developing countries emerging from conflict to address crime problems (i.e., organized crime, trafficking, cybercrime, etc.). In addition to helping countries build professional capacity to prevent crime, the UNODC also offers assistance in establishing proactive legal frameworks to prevent/deter crimes. The UN's focus on crime prevention was further strengthened with the adoption of the 2002 "Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime," which promote a multidisciplinary and cross-sectoral approach to crime prevention. In particular, the approach combines social (see Chapter 8) and situational prevention (see Chapter 13) with community-centered (see Chapter 7) crime prevention. The Guidelines center around five key areas:

1. The strategic planning of crime prevention
2. The structuring of institutional responsibilities for crime prevention
3. Different national crime prevention approaches
4. Implemental issues, including good practices and lessons learned
5. International cooperation, networking, and technical assistance

Together, the Guidelines capitalize on a knowledge-based approach (see Chapter 17) to crime prevention. For further information, see <https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/commissions/CCPCJ/>.

a more promising and necessary approach to crime than the conventional crime-control practices that have historically characterized the international community (see Chapter 17), and where applied and in some cases prioritized as a response mechanism to crime, crime prevention initiatives have demonstrated that they generally represent more cost-effective and cost-efficient strategies (see Chapter 19) in response to burgeoning criminal justice budgets. However, crime prevention initiatives will also need to find ways to contend with the delicate balance between crime control, protecting victims, and how far people will go to ensure and maintain public safety. For example, the extensive use of such situational crime prevention strategies as CCTVs, the proliferation of security screening border crossing or airports, and so on



have been widely embraced in a growing number of countries. Yet, as the World Bank reported in 1997, "...crime and violence have emerged in recent years as major obstacles to the realization of development objectives in Latin America and the Caribbean." Furthermore, in poor countries (e.g., Latin America and many African countries), the capacity to support crime prevention initiatives and establish safety nets remains weak, and the fear of crime, corruption, and general insecurity remains high, which contributes to the cycle of violence and perpetuation of the cycle of poverty (see Chapter 12).

As reflected in the range of topics and themes covered in this book, the question is thus not whether crime prevention is here to stay, but how to document its effectiveness and how to promote and sustain credible public and institutional support at all levels. The chapters by Margaret Shaw (Chapter 16), Irvin Waller and Veronica Martinez Solares (Chapter 17), and Jan van Dijk et al. (Chapter 18) present a sound argument and model for building and promoting crime prevention initiatives; however, it remains to be seen if crime prevention will become a universal priority. In order to reach such a lofty status, the future of crime prevention will ultimately depend on community buy-in because crime is a community problem (e.g., social disorganization, poverty, negative peer influences, etc.). Therefore, while crime prevention is not just a fad, its future success is dependent on effective marketing and strict measuring of outcomes to convince both the public and policymakers/decision makers of the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of prevention programs. As Redo (2012, p. 219) points out in his work, "blue criminology" (referring to the efforts of the UNODC) "is basically focused on peoples (community/individuals)" (also, see Chapter 1).

Finally, the future of crime prevention will also depend on the growth of professionally skilled crime prevention experts. For, as C. Wright Mill (cited in Hope and Karstedt 2003, p. 461) observed, "if ever there was a social problem that required the connection of 'the personal troubles of milieu' with 'the public issues of social structure,' then crime reduction is surely it." Yet, in saying so, I am reminded of what J.Q. Wilson said in 2011 when asked to comment about America's future. After pointing out that a number of years ago he had made a prediction in one of his published essays, he acknowledged that: "It was hopelessly, embarrassingly wrong... Since then I have embraced the view that social scientists should never predict; leave that job to pundits" (Wilson 2011).

## Format of the Book

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For this reader, the first of its kind, a range of topics and themes were identified, which reflect the diversity in which crime prevention techniques have been actualized and proven (to varying degrees) successful. After identifying

a list of topics, they were circulated among a number of international crime prevention specialists for feedback. From the final topic list, an array of international experts was invited to contribute to this project. By trying to ensure a degree of international representation in this book, it will hopefully also ensure that a global lens is shed upon the topic that will also serve to demonstrate that crime prevention is not only an international phenomenon, but one that offers considerable practical appeal to conventional criminal justice responses to crime or social injustices. Each contributor was then provided with a set of common criteria and asked to discuss, examine, and evaluate the (contemporary) approaches to crime prevention in relation to their theme/topic.

The book is divided into three informal parts. The first three chapters provide a broad, global overview of crime prevention and the social, economic, and political challenges involved in making mandates mainstream within the CJS. In Chapter 1, Redo provides a comprehensive overview of some of the novel ideas about the United Nations post-2015 goals toward sustainable goals for crime prevention that address such diverse themes as developing a culture of lawfulness, the implications of climate change on crime and poverty, and the importance of educational crime prevention methods. In Chapter 2, Dandurand draws on the UN model of crime prevention and addresses the issue of preventing violence against children. As Dandurand points out, not only is violence against children pervasive but it cuts across all boundaries of race, gender, geography, religion, and culture, and it targets among the most vulnerable in society. In Chapter 3, Marteache and Bichler cover a comparatively new and novel topic in relation to crime prevention—transportation systems. Using the Pareto principle (i.e., 80% of the effects come from 20% of the cause), they explain how transportation-based crime problems can be addressed through various crime prevention approaches.

Chapter 4 by Cale, Burton, and Leclerc focuses on the prevention of child sexual abuse. As they point out, the problem of child sexual abuse is probably far more extensive than official data indicate, and similar to Dandurand's contribution (Chapter 2), the victims represent the more vulnerable sector of society. Then, in Chapter 5, the topic shifts to another topical subject matter; that of domestic violence. After presenting a contextual understanding of the subject area, Pauls, Warthe, and Winterdyk explore how crime prevention strategies are a more effective approach to addressing the problem. The subject of preventing human trafficking is the theme of Chapter 6. Focusing specifically on sexual exploitation, Jones begins with a rich discussion of some of the fundamental problems confronting societies' efforts to combat human trafficking and then reviews the general prevention obligations of States before discussing one of the key crime prevention initiatives—criminalizing demand.

Chapters 7 and 8 shift to two thematic approaches to crime prevention. In Chapter 7, Kury offers a rich overview and understanding of how and why community crime prevention can be an effective scheme for responding

to/preventing crime. In the chapter, Kury also describes why using punishment to deter crime is a less effective approach to crime control. Then, in Chapter 8, Ambrož, Meško, and Flander offer an insightful and critically reflective accounting of the important role social crime prevention approach can play in crime prevention strategies.

Chapter 9, authored by Grimes and Walsh, presents a unique approach on how restorative justice (RJ) can serve as an effective crime prevention alternative to conventional crime control. Drawing on a personal accounting, the chapter serves to illustrate how RJ can be an effective crime prevention option. Then, in Chapter 10, Platzer addresses from a crime prevention perspective the topic of femicide. Although a practice that prevailed since the dawn of time, it has not received much attention until recently. However, Platzer provides a thorough overview of the nature and extent of femicide and discusses how crime prevention strategies are essential to addressing this “hidden crime.”

How we might prevent terrorism is the topic of Chapter 11. In this chapter, Corrado, Cohen, and Davies first place terrorism within a criminological context before identifying and discussing how crime prevention policy can be used to address the risk and threats of terrorism. This is followed by another unique contribution by Rook and Sexsmith who in Chapter 12 tackle the topic of poverty and crime prevention. They begin by articulating the relationship between poverty and crime and then they carefully examine and discuss how crime prevention policy can begin to address the plight of poverty and crime. The topic of preventing corporate crime is the focus of Chapter 13. In this chapter, Beke offers a rich overview of the concepts and causes of corporate crime and presents a summary of the main theories in corporate crime prevention. The chapter concludes by reviewing a range of intervention and prevention strategies before discussing the role of sanctions as a primary prevention strategy.

Meanwhile, Chapter 14 by Kinney, Mann, and Winterdyk addresses one of the “original” crime prevention technique and methods. The chapter focuses on CPTED, and in addition to looking at the differences between first- and second-generation CPTED, the authors explore some of the international projects and findings as well as discuss some of the challenges confronting the relative impact of CPTED.

In Chapter 15, Haverkamp and Kilchling explore and discuss “lessons learnt from victimology” as they pertain to crime prevention and the victim. In this chapter, the authors not only explore the nexus between the victim and offender but carefully point out how, from a crime prevention perspective, this area requires more careful analysis for “more reality-oriented crime prevention programs.”

The final four chapters embrace a broader perspective on the role of crime prevention in the crime management discourse. In Chapter 16, Shaw explores and critically examines the politics of crime prevention. Among

other issues, she concludes with a discussion of some of the challenges for the development of crime prevention in the future. Then, in Chapter 17, Waller and Martinez Solares address the importance of putting crime prevention into practice. They point out how many of the prevailing barriers to fully embracing crime prevention policies hinder the advancement of the crime prevention philosophy but through an array of examples show that crime prevention is the “smarter” path to crime control. However, as van Dijk, van Soomeren, and de Waard discuss in Chapter 18, one of the biggest challenges form crime prevention to become mainstream in any CJS is the issue of sustainability within a “rocky” social and political climate. Using a case example, they show how even the best of intentions can be sidelined as a result of (political) ideological differences.

The final chapter by Miller, Chapter 19, focuses on the practical and pragmatic issue of “the value of crime prevention.” Miller examines whether crime prevention is a cost-effective and cost-efficient alternative to conventional crime control. Although not a straightforward answer is provided, the author presents a compelling argument that the use of crime prevention strategies is economically a more practical approach to managing crime in society.

In the end, while I have made every effort to ensure strong international representation and to cover a diverse range of themes or topics where crime prevention has proven effective, there are a bevy of topics that could not be included for practical and pragmatic reasons. Therefore, as with most sojourns into new territories as enriching as this book will hopefully be, there remains room for additional topics and discourse about crime prevention. For example, although van Dijk and his colleagues comment on the challenges crime prevention presents in some jurisdiction today, using “Google trends” and search for *crime prevention* reveal that, since 2004, there has been a dramatic drop in interest on the Internet. However, places like South Africa, Australia, and the Philippines still show strong interest in the topic, and in terms of topics of interest, the top three queries involved prevention of crime, community crime prevention, and crime prevention programs.\*

I have also drawn on colleagues who I felt could lend an international lens to their topic. Nevertheless, as is the case with any written product, it is never the definitive work. However, since this book does represent the first known effort to cover the topic of crime prevention across a wide spectrum of issues, themes, and topics, challenges and limitations are to be expected. Yet, it is also recognized that some topics were not included (e.g., preventing youth crime, preventing smuggling, etc.). This was largely attributed to page constraints. However, it also opens the door for another rendition of this

\* For further information, see <https://www.google.ca/trends/explore#q=crime%20prevention>.

initiative and perhaps one that, while sharing some of the characteristics on the ever-growing popularity of “handbooks,” will also continue to offer a more expansive coverage of such critical topics.

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The Transformative  
Power of the United  
Nations Post-2015  
Sustainable  
Development Goals  
and Crime Prevention  
Education for a New  
Culture of Lawfulness

1

SŁAWOMIR REDO

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Learning Outcomes

After reading this chapter, you should be able to

- Familiarize yourself with some salient issues on the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) agenda 2016–2030 relevant to crime prevention education for a culture of lawfulness

- Appreciate the relevance and limits of climatological research to crime and welfare concerns, including some relating to violence and poverty and the ambiguous nexus between them and illegal/irregular migration
- Acknowledge the difference between the pre-SDGs criminological perspectives on South–North differences on governance and reformist motivation for crime prevention
- Appreciate the role of moral education in these terms with a view to balancing out innovation and anticorruption education
- Learn about some educational crime prevention methods to interculturally motivate and rationalize learners' thinking for problem-solving of local and global nature
- Familiarize yourself with some of the key recommendations for educationists to transform the SDGs ideas through into programs with a view to a more humane and effective crime prevention education for sustainable development worldwide.

## Introduction

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Poverty is the parent of revolution and crime.

**Aristotle**  
384–322 BC

Sustainable development requires human ingenuity. People are the most important resource.

**Dan Shechtman**  
2001

This chapter has two key objectives. First, to familiarize such learners with some salient crime prevention issues in the United Nations (UN) Declaration on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs Declaration [SDGsD]) 2016–2030 (A/RES/70/1 2015). Second, to engineer a more interculturally effective delivery of the UN crime prevention message, the seminal content of which is in that declaration and for which instrumentalities are at the disposal and the initiative of international organizations and entities with their projects and events.

## Legislative Background

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Among these organizations and entities, there is the intergovernmental 14th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (Japan 2020). The 14th Congress, a quinquennial event since 1955, will assess the implementation of the 2015 Declaration of the 13th Congress (Doha, Qatar), built around the above SDGsD (at that time forthcoming). The Doha Declaration sets before

Member States the goal of integration of crime prevention, criminal justice, and other rule-of-law aspects into their domestic educational systems. At the 13th Congress, Member States pledged to integrate crime prevention and criminal justice strategies into all their relevant social and economic policies and programs, in particular those affecting youth, with a special emphasis on programs focused on increasing educational and employment opportunities for youth (15–24 years of age) and young adults (18–29 years of age). The Doha Declaration emphasized that education for all children and youth, including the eradication of illiteracy, is fundamental to the prevention of crime and corruption and to the promotion of a culture of lawfulness that supports the rule of law and human rights while respecting cultural identities (A/70/174 2015).

The SDGsD sets the goal to

ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development.

#### SDG 4.7

Very much concerned with a lack sustainability of development, since 1987, the UN in its sustainable development (SD) agenda has gradually built up the argument that in “The Future We Want” (A/RES/66/288),\* the greatest global challenge facing the world today is poverty eradication. Poverty, as defined by the UN, is the effect of all sorts of environmental and socioeconomic abuses that serves to spawn “gnawing deprivation” (absolute poverty/excessive inequality) (A/69/700, paragraph 67).

At the core of environmental and socioeconomic abuses is the abuse of natural resources (e.g., oil, gas, and coal). Since 1988, the UN Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (UNIPCC) started comprehensive investigations on how some forms of the abuse of nonrenewable resources may be related to global climate change and its consequences. In 2014, the Secretary-General (S-G) stated that: “[t]ackling climate change and fostering sustainable development agenda are two mutually reinforcing sides of the same coin” (A/69/700, paragraph 49).

Reportedly, the December 2014 globally averaged temperature across land and ocean surfaces was 0.77°C (1.39°F) above the 20th-century average of 12.2°C (54.0°F), the highest on record for December since records

\* This is the title of the Outcome Document of the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (2012), otherwise called the “Rio+20 resolution.” The first United Nations Conference on Environment and Development was held 20 years earlier (Rio de Janeiro, June 3–14, 1992).

began in 1880, surpassing the previous record set in 2006 by 0.02°C (0.04°F) (National Centres for Environmental Information 2015). According to a “best estimate” global average temperature, by 2017, it may increase by 2°C to 2.4°C above preindustrial levels (UNIPCC 2007, pp. 227–228). Whether or not this authoritative prediction indeed materializes, climate change has surely become a new factor believed to contribute to the impoverishment and to certain forms and dynamics of crime.

Accordingly, in the UN Population Fund Activities report, research that suggests that the reduction of total greenhouse gas emissions eventually counters poverty is cited:

[D]ollar-for-dollar, investments in voluntary family planning and girls' education would also in the long run reduce greenhouse-gas emissions at least as much as the same investments in nuclear or wind energy... Strong family planning programmes are in the interests of all countries for greenhouse-gas concerns as well as for broader welfare concerns.

**UNFPA**

*2009, pp. 26–27*

Consequently, global inequalities of climate change must also affect justice, human rights, and crime prevention issues (UNDP 2007, p. 185). Indeed, “[t]here are many predictions that global warming could result in hundreds of millions of people suffering from hunger, malnutrition, water shortages, floods, droughts, heat stress, diseases triggered by extreme weather events, loss of livelihoods and permanent displacement” (Kang 2007, p. 1). Dealing with these potential deprivations will require developing and implementing a new environmental ethics of humanity to live in harmony with nature, in the interest of “the priority of the natural order of sociability and common good with respect to contracts” (Hittinger in Rommen 1936/1998, p. xxix).

The SDGsD is one of the legal conduits through which the UN projects its new morality into other areas of human activity: “Transforming our World” (A/RES/70/1 2015) for the “Future We Want for All.”\* As both slogans suggest, the UN SDGs framers do not accept the irreversibility of the negative effects of climate change. Rather, they chart the avenues for their mitigation. Goal 13.3 states this plainly “Improve education, awareness-raising and human and institutional capacity on climate change mitigation [emphasis added], adaptation, impact reduction and early warning.”

The SDGsD envisions a world that is just, equitable, and inclusive. It credits global climate changes for at least a part of the present governance problems in the above regard, including criminal justice administration and crime prevention in the world.

\* This is the slogan of the UN Secretariat derived from the above footnoted Outcome Document.

This vision interplays with that of the 12th Congress (2010). In its Salvador Declaration, it also placed crime prevention and the criminal justice system for the rule of law in the SD's center. It further recognized that long-term sustainable economic and social development and the establishment of a functioning, efficient, effective, and humane criminal justice system have a positive influence on each other (A/RES/65/230 2010).

All these declarations are political acts and they are predetermined by the UN Charter. Together, the declarations outline new standards and norms for a just conduct, even when neither its framers nor academics are sure if indeed the reasons for and the results of that conduct in terms of the SD's causal nexus are clear enough. In other words, in the UN, confusion prevails on the "root causes" of armed conflicts, for instance, whether these include poverty and climate change or both are not in that root but are threats to peace and security (Spijkers 2011, pp. 200–201).

Notwithstanding that ambiguity, the UN reports that "crime is both cause, consequence of poverty" (GA/SHC/3817 2005). In its legal instruments, it clearly stresses that in poverty's eradication, centrality of governance and the execution of the just conduct by either institutionalizing or enhancing the rule of law in a pluralistic context are important. The Doha Declaration is a case in point. It further emphasizes that, to achieve SD, we need to counter the destabilizing effects of crime, with crime prevention efforts alongside effective criminal justice institutions underpinned by human rights (A/RES/70/174 2015, paragraphs 3–5 and 8).

This policy position cannot be scientifically validated by involving the control-group method, as far as the UN technical assistance is concerned, that is, rendered by the UN Secretariat (Redo 2012, pp. 186–187). Mostly driven by a political mandate, UN criminology therefore cannot have some features of academic criminology, driven by concept and method. Yet, regarding other methods and projects pursued domestically by Member States, the Doha Declaration emphasizes the role of evidence-driven crime prevention and criminal justice (A/RES/70/174 2015, paragraph 5(a)).

Within that field, except rather precise criminal justice and human rights UN terminology, other UN terms and concepts tend to be quite vague (Redo 2013). For example, in the UN policy statements, "development" and "security" are often linked to one another. However, when it comes to evidencing how they are interrelated in terms of cause and effect, the UN points that the links between them are "intrinsic" and "inextricable" (A/59/565 2004, p. viii and paragraph 30). In short, whether within the UN or outside of it, nobody knows for sure what exactly are "development" and "security" and how precisely they affect one another.

Such ambiguities are natural. They persist because UN logonomics has its own legal and linguistic rules for a production of meaning within a larger UN social contract (i.e., Charter) of its 193 Member States.

This aspirational UN contract implies fostering impersonal social justice that involves independent personhood of citizens with their unique combination of characteristics. Each one represents the whole of humankind, whose rights, both inherent and inalienable, should be preserved and respected (Annan 2014, p. 62). One may claim them individually through various legal recourses up to the UN human rights treaty machinery that keenly acknowledges such rights (Spijkers 2011, pp. 303–304).

Implementing the UN contract is not an easy process. For example, if Western expert opinions are reliable, then no more than 20%–30% of the world's current population is individualistic in social nature (Dumont 1986, p. 62; Hofstede 1991, p. 17; Triandis 1996, p. 407), while all people are inborn egoists. Consequently, this essay seeks to clarify some of the latent cross-cultural communication ambiguities caused by the UN “language” that prompts different expectations. This clarification will hopefully help in the education of crime prevention aspects of the SDGsD to be less a “dialogue of the deaf” and more personally responsive.

## Historical Background

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Regarding the first objective, those concerned with the questions of access to justice and the rule of law may recall the expert contemplations on climate and crime by the French legal and moral philosopher Charles-Louis de Montesquieu (1689–1755). Supported by some 3000 citations in his *The Spirit of Laws* (Montesquieu 1748/1949), claiming to treat “all the peoples of Europe with the same impartiality as ... the peoples of the island of Madagascar” (1949/II: 997), he argued that people's different spirit, their moral characteristics, and the way of thinking and acting result from a unique combination of climate, religion, laws, maxims of government, history, mores, and manners.

In Montesquieu's opinion, climate affects countries and the character of its residents because “the empire of the climate is the first, the most powerful, of all empires” (Montesquieu 1772/2001, p. 328). Furthermore, because of climate, people are inclined toward certain sorts of sociopolitical governance. Accordingly, the closer we move toward the tropics, the further we move from principles of morality and the rule of law. Montesquieu dismissed the possibility of attaining freedom and welfare in southern countries. He argued that their people will remain there enslaved, poor and passive, while countries become autocratic. The effect of climate can be seen even for some portions of countries. For example, he remarked that “In the north of China people are more courageous than those in the south; and those in the south of Korea have less bravery than those in the north” (Montesquieu 1772/2001, p. 291).

Regarding the character of people, Montesquieu claimed that the ideal one can develop in France's climate, which is neither too warm nor too

cold. However, generally, people in colder climates have fewer vices and express more sincerity and frankness. By contrast, Northerners find pleasure in mental activities, while Southerners are happier by simply relaxing. This is because in excessive heat, human thermodynamics affects the mind, depriving it of curiosity and enterprising spirit, as if that thermodynamics irrevocably dooms people's mind—a true early-Darwinian notion (Stokes 1995, p. 125). To counter their vices, Montesquieu suggested that laws in warmer climates should be more explicit and strict in encouraging industriousness and regulating violence, sexual behaviors, and even the consumption of alcohol, but the greatest punishment for Southerners is to rationalize their mind (Stokes 1995, p. 249).

## Current Climatological Research on Governance and Crime Prevention

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Currently, three pre-SDGs strands in the focus of this essay address the relationships between climate and crime; however, none of them is directly relevant to a long-term climate change and crime. The first is structural and concentrates on governance. The second is situational and concentrates on temperature and violence, while the third is ethno-climatologist and concentrates on moral judgments. Both the second and third strands corroborate some of Montesquieu's criminological claims. Collectively, they all contribute to the SDGs-chartered crime prevention in the context of teaching it—the second objective of this chapter.

Continuing with the first objective and contrary to Montesquieu's earlier claims, there is no scientific support for *climatological determinism* today. For example, there is no way to explain climatologically why homicide rates in Western Europe dramatically decreased over the past 700 years (Pinker 2011). Furthermore, climatological determinism cannot explain the distinct welfare differences between the two contemporary Koreas (the Democratic Republic of Korea and the Republic of Korea) and in China, nor can it explain the differences between the two Germanys (1949–1990) (the Federal Republic of Germany [FRG] and the German Democratic Republic), Poland (1945–1989–2015) and Japan (from 1868 onward), or Botswana and Ghana (Africa), among many other countries. These welfare differences have nothing to do with warmer or colder climate but with the overpowering role of market economies, which are liberal in some countries (e.g., Botswana, Ghana, Japan, FRG, and Poland) or precariously liberalizing in others (e.g., China).

Regardless of climate, there are considerable differences in the development of an inclusive political system (i.e., democracy) and inclusive market economy with established and secure property and welfare rights that encourage investment, productivity, and innovation. The interplay of these

elements may give policymakers a legitimate framework and motivation to break away from the self-sustaining cycle of poverty, to develop themselves and their country in the future by pursuing laws, policies, and practices that assist modernization (Acemoglu and Robinson 2012).

Other analyses point to environmental scarcity of renewable resources (e.g., cropland, freshwater, forests, wildlife, pastures, etc.) as a potential criminogenic factor (see Homer-Dixon 1991, 1994, 1999). Anderson and DeLisi (2011) argue that such shortages can lead to civil unrest and civil war, to migration to adjacent regions and conflict with the people who already live in that region, and even to genocide and war.

Not corroborated statistically, such governance arguments sound less convincing than the following scarcity-focused econometric study. Along such lines of reasoning, Mehlum et al. (2006) documented near-perfect correlations between 1833 and 1865 in Bavaria: positive between property crime and rye prices, and negative between beer prices and violent crime.

Criminologists corroborate this theme but expand its conclusions regarding the pathway of deprivation conflict and changes that occur in routine and other crime, owing to rural–urban migration that may exacerbate the security and other welfare concerns of urban residents (Crank 2003; Crank and Jacoby 2015).

Regarding situational research, since the time of Lombroso's (circa late 1800s and early 1900s), it has been suggested that warm weather prompts violent but not property crime (Anderson 2001, p. 34; Anderson and DeLisi 2011; Lombroso 1899/1911). Moreover, the analysis of archival data of serious civil disorders in the United States (1967–1971) suggests “a curvilinear relationship between ambient temperature and the incidence of collective violence” (Baron and Ransberger 1978, p. 354). The frequency of riots increased with ambient temperature up through approximately 85°F (29.4°C) and then decreased sharply as temperature continued to increase. Regarding victimology, this analysis did not take into account the number of days when the temperature was above 90°F (32.2°C)—regarded as the tipping point that influences people's fear of specific forms of property and violent crime (Cohn 1990). In sum, a meta-analysis of all such studies shows that the higher average temperature there is in any place and the closer this place is to the equator, the more crime there is (Ellis et al. 2009, Chapter 2).

Similarly exceptional is the finding regarding domestic violence and other assaults: Humidity levels have been found to be slightly negatively correlated to the latter, but not the former. That decrease may be credited to air pollution, as humidity levels are higher before and after a rainfall, which removes pollution from the air (Semmens et al. 2002).

Currently, it is not possible to draw any firm conclusions about the possibly more intricate relationships between temperatures and crime, between rain and crime, or between wind and crime. This is not only because of



various uncertainties as how to measure the potential local, regional, and interregional influences of such natural factors but also because of the possibly correlated impact of the intermediate psychological or material factors. Regarding psychological factors, Agnew (2012, p. 21) speculates that as the century progresses, “climate change will increase strain, reduce social control, weaken social support, foster beliefs favourable to crime, contribute to traits conducive to crime, increase certain opportunities for crime, and create social conflict.”

Regarding material factors, they have been studied more systematically than ever before. One such local study went into assessing the longitudinal 20-year long changes in dynamics of violent crime, credited to anomalous warm temperatures. It found that in neighborhoods with higher levels of social disadvantage, they are more likely to experience higher levels of violence as a result of such warm temperatures (Mares 2013). The criminological insights into countering urban crime and other social unrest are complementary and prospective (see Crank 2003).

Finally, the UN Office of High Commissioner for Human Rights cautioned that there is little empirical evidence to substantiate the projected impacts of environmental factors on armed conflict (A/HRC/10 2009, paragraph 64). The subsequent meta-review of the relationship between one and another found it inconclusive (Theisen et al. 2013), while another review on the relationships between urban violence and global warming dismissed it because of the flaws in statistical sample selection and analytical coherence (Buhaug et al. 2014).

Interestingly, both reviews have neither drawn on the respective criminological meta-reviews (Ellis et al. 2009, Chapter 2) nor drawn on later discipline-proper climatological studies (Ranson 2012). Their findings are more pronounced concerning the criminogenic effects of climate change than the weighted UNIPCC-related findings, with one analysis finding sounding rather dramatic. Based on a 30-year panel of monthly crime and weather data for 2997 U.S. counties, temperature has a strong positive effect on criminal behavior, with little evidence of lagged impacts. “Between 2010 and 2099, climate change will cause an additional 22,000 murders, 180,000 cases of rape, 1.2 million aggravated assaults, 2.3 million simple assaults, 260,000 robberies, 1.3 million burglaries, 2.2 million cases of larceny, and 580,000 cases of vehicle theft in the United States,” claims its author (Ranson 2014).

In contrast with the pre-SDGs review of ethno-climatology studies that showed that they were predetermined by concepts and methods to legitimize moral judgments about racial differentiation (“racialization”) or ideological forms of political dominance (Livingstone 2002), the latter analysis is not tainted by this argument. However, as any such long-term prognosis, it may be unduly simplified and, surely, very deterministic.

Next, we will concentrate only on such judgements regarding long-term climate changes projection on crime and welfare concerns. Therefore,

regardless of the expressions of the SDGs findings, it is generally acknowledged that crime prevention experts are seldom concerned with the effects climate change has on crime. Their perspective is likewise hardly concerned with crime prevention and criminal justice issues, unless addressed within the Environmental Justice (EJ) framework. As a result, the intergovernmental declarations may not immediately capture the attention of respective actors because the UN declarations may not reach or attract them.

In their interest, before the acknowledgment of some of the salient crime prevention SDGsD issues, two UNIPCC long-term views that may set the introductory tone are brought up here. First, the UNIPCC, in its most recent and authoritative climatological assessment of the scientific literature, argues that human security will progressively be threatened as climate changes. However, the UNIPCC upholds the earlier cited conclusion that there is no strong positive relationship between warming and armed conflict (UNIPCC 2014, p. 772).

Second, since future generations are not able to directly influence the welfare of today, the UNIPCC is uncertain about the more precise consequences of climate change for SD (UNIPCC 1995, p. 14). Save for migration, there are no other criminologically relevant concerns registered by the UNIPCC.

## Two Strands for the SDGs-Related Crime Prevention Education

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This chapter acknowledges the stochastic, non-Eurocentric, moral climatological perspective of the new SDGsD that is charted by the Rio+20 Outcome Document. In two different but related themes, it projects the UNIPCC's welfare concerns into crime prevention education. The first theme involves welfare as a common UN objective in article 55 of the Charter, here narrowed to criminological aspects (UN 2003, paragraphs 73 and 74). The second theme involves welfare as a factor that may (de)motivate learning to pursue a progressive crime prevention reform—an issue to be eventually addressed by the second objective of this essay.

In 2014/2015, the UN Open-Ended Working Group on Sustainable Development Goals elaborated the narrative for and the draft of the SDGsD containing 17 goals to be reached until 2030. Across them, the UN General Assembly eventually listed five interrelated essential SD elements: People, Planet, Prosperity, Peace, and Partnership (A/RES/70/1 2015). Not all of these elements are (in)directly related to climate change or to crime, but all five represent the defining SD elements.

The following ideas may help strategize crime prevention education in terms of three SD elements: People, Prosperity, and Peace.

## People: Absolute Poverty, Property, Gender Equality, and Violence

We are determined to end poverty and hunger, in all their forms and dimensions, and to ensure that all human beings can fulfil their potential in dignity and equality and in a healthy environment.

A/RES/70/1  
2015, p. 2/35

Eradication of poverty “in all its forms and dimensions” by 2030 is part of the welfare manifesto that may mislead those who interpret it verbatim. What the SDGs framers really mean is eradicating extreme poverty, quantified internationally to be at the level of U.S.\$1.25 for all people everywhere (SDG 1.1) or above that value—for half of men, women, and children of all ages living in poverty according to national poverty threshold (SDG 1.2).

The relationships between poverty and crime are manifold. In keeping first with the UNIPCC’s and SDGs’ focus on migration, the criminogenic impact on poverty-stricken people cannot be underestimated. Transnationally, such migrants not only are the clientele of organized criminal groups who facilitate their smuggling but also are of great concern for the sending and receiving States (see Reuveny 2007, p. 669). In recent years, these areas have also experienced environmental migration to Europe; this underpinning led to the speculation of the resulting frictions between major powers (Reuveny 2007).

As a result of the (mass) migration, the sending (i.e., states of origin) States lose human and social capital capable of producing country’s wealth. The receiving States, meanwhile, are obliged to address humanitarian challenges (e.g., shelter, food, etc.), human rights concerns (e.g., access to justice, asylum, deportation), welfare concerns, security concerns, and other crime prevention concerns, including anticorruption or the enculturation in domestic standards and norms (proper parenting and household relationships), so that migrants will eventually become good and productive residents.

To date, there is no body of modern crime prevention research that could comprehensively help in meeting such challenges. Therefore, only as a signpost may one note that there are two fundamental by-products of poverty and crime, namely, *hunger* and *indignity*.

Concerning hunger and crime, this relationship has been well documented in the criminological literature since the Second World War. An increase in crime is possible because of food rationing. Additionally, the business made on war by “white collar” criminals enables them to earn colossal profits (Barnes and Teeters 1951, pp. 9–11). However, more recently, Krause (2011) conducted a comparative study of 182 countries covering the period between 1986 and 2009. He found a robust correlation between high rates of intentional homicide and higher levels of extreme poverty and hunger, but not with hunger alone (Krause 2011, p. 155).

Concerning indignity, it originally involved “honor” crimes (i.e., crimes usually involving the use of violence committed by people who want to defend the reputation of their family and community). At the UN, crime prevention is not the only form in which human dignity as a value is violated. Ever since the UN Charter in 1945 (which was followed by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights [UDHR] in 1948), the UN has universalized dignity and preconditioned it by economic, social, and cultural rights that should assure free individual development and worthy existence (articles 22 and 23). The content of that concept has been broad in scope and is not related to any particular philosophy (see Spijkers 2011). Hence, now “dignity” also means “to end poverty and fight inequalities” (A/69/700, p. 16/34).

In economically underdeveloped countries, poverty persists because of the discriminatory property rights. It prevents them and their residents (particularly women) from fully exercising their economic, social, and cultural rights (A/69/700, paragraphs 67 and 68, chapter IV.B and SDGs 1.4, 3b, 5a). Consequently, regarding SDGs 16.1 and 16.2, preventing the various forms of violence and slavery including trafficking in women and children, one of the forms of organized crime, is really about regulating the right to property to/ of a person or his or her freedom.

The fight for freedom by abolishing this kind of property “rights” has been at the core of world’s history. For example, Indian criminological studies show that property-less women are much more often abused by their partners than those with property (Agarwal and Panda 2007), and to a lesser extent, this continues to be an issue in developed countries where domestic violence has not been found to be correlated with property-less women (Schrötte and Vogt 2016). Nonetheless, various studies show that impoverished families have a much higher rate of social problems, including domestic violence, other crimes, and delinquency, than do socially stable families.

Based on the study of female homicide victimization rates from 1985 to 2010 across 33 European countries, Stamatel (2014) concluded:

Better economic conditions reduce female homicide victimization, as they do for violence more generally. Gender dynamics play a contradictory role: less traditional gender roles increase the risk of victimization, whereas improving the collective status of women in society reduces that risk. Most importantly, controlling for these known predictors of female homicide victimization, the historical legacies and socio-historical contexts of nations matter greatly for explaining variation across Europe.

**J.P. Stamatel**

*2014, p. 596*

In summary, not only does the criminogenic role of property-related and other economic predictors matter greatly, but so does the individual sense of justice. As both evolve, crime prevention education must follow new horizons.

## **Prosperity: Relative Deprivation, Innovation and Crime Prevention**

We are determined to ensure that all human beings can enjoy prosperous and fulfilling lives and that economic, social and technological progress occurs in harmony with nature.

**A/RES/70/1**  
2015, p. 2/35

To grow a strong, inclusive, and transformative economy is the essence of prosperity in the UN SDGs terms (A/69/700, p. 16/34). In keeping further with the aforementioned UNIPCC's focus on the human security aspect of migration, welfare for foreign immigrants in comparison with welfare support for local citizens of the host country may give rise to xenophobic feelings by those who financially receive less than what immigrants receive. Moreover, among those who live on welfare, when compared to the lowest wage, it may be demotivating to produce the fruits for economic, social, and technological progress. This may then lead to a socially problematic and impoverished population. Moreover, only "as individuals strive to do better, they partly but never fully succeed since their reference points continue to rise along their earning power" (Becker and Rayo 2010, p. 181).

Nevertheless, they may still take a chance in enriching themselves illegitimately. Enrichment, however, may not necessarily be material (i.e., motivated by greed). For example, Montesquieu's "crimes of passion," including domestic violence, rape, "joyriding," taking crack, and hate crimes, can be expressions of people's frustration (WHO 2002, pp. 31–33). However, regardless of any real motivation, such crimes can be detrimental to one's positive self-development.

Therefore, in terms of crime prevention education for prosperity, the following points are considered important.

In market societies that facilitate the formation of distinct cognitive skills and habits, such people can prosper better than in other less advanced markets. However, the labor market of developed countries is oversupplied with educated people, and short of people with new skills, especially those who may be instruments of development in the new world economy (Hanushek and Wößmann 2007, pp. 10–11).

The case for the compelling interdependence between education and prosperity can be found in the recent statistical publications by the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO 2013). The UNIDO argues that the higher a country's industrialization measured by Manufacturing Value Added (MVA) *per capita*, the higher the rate of enrolment in primary school, as well as the life expectancy at birth. The depth of the food deficit (measured by a daily calorie intake below or above the global standard) is significantly lower when MVA *per capita* is high. The same UNIDO paper informs that a 1% annual increase in MVA decreases the "poverty head

count” by almost 2% and the number of deaths related to conflict by 4.5%. However, in either case, there may be other variables that may qualify the reliability and validity of this finding.

Moreover, since the MVA does not include information about the competitiveness of countries’ industries, UNIDO’s *Competitive Industrial Performance Report 2012–2013* (UNIDO 2014), self-proclaimed as “the most comprehensive global comparative analysis of industrial competitiveness, including 135 countries in the world” (UNIDO 2014, p. vi), investigated why some countries are more industrially competitive in terms of export than others. By examining the internal relations within the MVA’s internal components, the report found that, indeed, innovative countries (in a high-tech sense) yield a higher total MVA. Hence, eventually, they are more industrially competitive than other countries with a low value of innovations. On aggregate, at the core of UN’s “Prosperity,” that is, “productive and fulfilling lives ... inclusive and sustainable economic growth,” is innovation that powers high-tech industries.

In summary, education is deemed to be a necessary precondition for prosperity to prevail. In determining which model (i.e., natural sciences vs. social sciences or engineering vs. law) might best contribute to prosperity, one recent econometric study reported that growth depends positively on the rule of law and the investment ratio. Negatively, however, it depends on the fertility rate, the ratio of government consumption to GDP, and inflation (Barro 2003). Therefore, a culture of lawfulness is the necessary precondition to economic growth through education (see, e.g., Easterly 2001). In conclusion, such a growth is an effect of moral and economic entrepreneurship for SD.

## Peace: Security, the Rule of Law and Justice

We are determined to foster peaceful, just and inclusive societies which are free from fear and violence. There can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development.

**A/RES/70/1**  
2015, p. 2/35

In the opinion of the UN, a “tax” is now tantamount to undermining one of the SDGs (No. 16), to “[p]romote peaceful and inclusive societies for SD, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels” (A/RES/70/1 2015, p. 26/35). The UN has planned this in SDG 16.5 by aiming to “substantially reduce corruption and bribery in all their forms reduction” (A/RES/70/1 2015). Ironically, both formulations seemingly contradict one another: promoting peace and social tolerance, and increasing the nontolerance to corruption and bribery.

This UN normativity is logonomically very complex (Redo 2013), but there is no contradiction between the two formulations. This was first

signaled as such at the UN Security Council by its president who reaffirmed that corruption is a threat to peace and security (S/PRST/2010/4 2010, p. 2). Later reports demonstrate the detrimental effect of corruption on governance and the rule of law in a country (IEP 2016).

The “Peace” element presents only cursory references to both (“strengthen the rule of law”/“ensure equal access to justice”). In both cases, this is a major departure from treating the rule of law and justice as overwhelming objectives of the UN.

The UN Charter mentions “justice” in various places and ways. However, in none of them is there a clear definition. While the Preamble to the Charter only alludes to it (see articles 1(1) and 2(3)), it only speaks about achieving justice. In the opinion of the Charter’s commentators, “justice ... means something different from international law (...) and (...) refers to natural law” (Simma et al. 2002/II, p. 36).

Within the UN Charter’s mandate involving the maintenance of peace and security, the Security Council involves *de facto* not substantive justice but procedural justice. In this sense, the Security Council resembles a global police precinct as opposed to a court of justice. Although the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council occasionally do “condemn” Member States for their activities, they are really not involved in making legally valid judgments and strive to uphold “equity” (distributive justice)—one of the purposes of public international law. This is particularly evident when such actions and measures pertain to economically or otherwise underprivileged social groups, especially women and children, and improving education for prevention.

## Teaching Crime Prevention and Culture of Lawfulness across the World

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In relation to the second objective of this chapter, as put by the UN S-G, a change of “old mind-sets, behaviors and destructive patterns” is needed for global transformation of economy, environment, and society (A/69/700, paragraph 159).

In accordance with the UN logonomic rules, this call involves combining “fire with water,” that is, the *attitude*-driven intercultural transmission of the UN crime prevention *values* that contribute to the rationalization of mind-sets, behaviors, and the prevention of destructive patterns. This interplay of both eastern and western perspectives (see Clarke 2006, p. 118) has been quite successful with regard to instilling a greater SD awareness, of which EJ is an evident part. The SDGsD contributes to the UN logonomics, now in the Rio+20 spirit.

In this spirit, we will offer some observations on EJ attitudes and values in the present SDGs call. The SDGs prescribe the conduct, but hardly effect

its implementation. Quite rightly, they are the case of *nomen omen* “declarative knowledge” (Ryle 1949, p. 30).

Because of this, delivering locally in the organization’s own terms, a UN crime prevention message (“operational knowledge”) has proven to be difficult. For example, regarding welfare concerns, legal culture of Confucianism promotes benevolence not as a part but a form of good governance, a kind of “procedural justice”/attitude that assures mutual satisfaction with the living conditions. “Justice” in Confucianism is neither a part of beneficence nor benevolence. Rather, it is an innate attitude of anybody in whatever capacity (personal/official). A person may lose and recover “justice” in personal, filial, or social interest, so as to restore a reciprocal affective relation with others. Another example: In UN logonomics, “hate crimes” are a form of prejudice of others meant as “inferior” (from the Greek *hustereo*, meaning “the worse” or “the lesser”).

In light of such conflicting understandings, taking the SDGsD as a canon for programming a new mind-set is quite a challenge. Making the present culture of lawfulness to conform normatively across the world with the declaration requires not only the continuation of promotion of values but also work on changing the attitudes.

Since there is no ultimate single concept of justice as a value, Montesquieu’s views about North–South virtues and vices are Eurocentric. However, such is not the case with his other character-related comparative observations. Indeed, in one cross-cultural psychological experiment involving 2900 college students who were surveyed across 26 countries, researchers found that impact on learning (see Pennebaker et al. 1996). The findings showed that the respondents considered Northerners and Southerners within their own countries to be respectively less or more emotionally expressive and found that within-country North–South stereotypes exist.

The same logic begs the question how crime prevention teaching can assist in rationalizing crime prevention responses according to the various legal cultures within which this North–South stereotyping naturally operates. In full awareness that there neither is a single right answer to this question, the following observations support the importance of developing individual personhood for the social contract civic obligations implied by a progressive welfare reform, stipulated by article 55 of the UN Charter.

From a reformist perspective, it must be recalled that, generally, learning and innovation (a) in manufacturing industries builds technological capabilities and (b) must be combined with anticorruption education. Thus, the obvious way to improving the law-abiding and other educational performances of underprivileged learners is through financing and implementing an equal-opportunity SDGs policy across pupils/students of different socioeconomic background that blends both. However, the ensuing returns on investment in the educational performance of such socioeconomically



underprivileged learners are not without their challenges (see Keane and Roemer 2009).

In regard to trying to make higher returns, two complimentary cost-effective ways are proposed. Both involve supporting pro-social- and pro-skill-oriented reformist motivation to equalize individual welfare chances of learners by building up their civic commitments.

The first approach is through motivating learners to break away from the sectarian stereotyping of self and others. The World Bank experiment conducted in India (Hof and Pandey 2004), a country known from its very rigid social stratification, compellingly proved the following:

- a. The negative learner's self-perception works like a self-fulfilling prophecy. It locks in the economic disadvantage because of the pre-defined content of own expectations.
- b. These expectations are not a consequence of a "culture of poverty" per se but of its enduring legacy that hampers positive personal attitudinal changes.
- c. Since the aggregate effect of economic deprivation (injustice) on the expectations associated with the in-group is clearly negative, motivating learners to perform better may alleviate their enduring feeling of personal inferiority. In the long run, it may alleviate prejudice of others and the impoverished future in general cultures (Redo 2014; see also Steele and Aronson 1995; Augostinos and Rosewarne 2001).

The second approach involves understanding the learners' foundational thinking and then rephrasing their different concepts "so as to develop a progressive and logical train of critical thought" (UNESCO 2009, p. 34) through a participatory/interactive and affective thinking group discussion with more questions than a person may answer. This is done by a predetermined and sequentially interrogative, inferential inductive logic of "particular-to-general-to-generic": A case-specific question "A" entails a less minor question "B" (and vice versa); yet, both lead to a generalizable question "C," which implies a self-evident answer. In other words, one does not have to answer a question in order to apply a rule. Thus, only questions play the role of premises and conclusions and carry the message what to think. Without making any use of answers to the first and next question just transformed, a learner ends up with a question of a required final form—a genuine answer in itself (see, e.g., Leszczyńska-Jasion et al. 2013).

Socrates (469–399 BC)—"the first criminal justice educator" (Holland 1980, p. 1)—could have originally asked these questions. This method of inquiry enables learners to make their own logical connections, and it serves to improve an overall sense of justice.

Currently, the Socratic method experiments with universal moral philosophy questions for enhancing global civic education among kids (Lipman 2008) and adolescents (UNESCO 2006), occasionally with a view to problem-solving. It has not yet reached the stage, or form, in crime prevention education, nor did it result in socially progressive reformist action. However, this inductive case method for internal transformation no doubt may help as it serves to facilitate a more precise response to universal questions, such as “What is genocide?”, “What is torture?”, “What is justice?”, “Should children who come to a country as refugees have the same rights as children born in that country?”, and “What is sustainable development?” The answers to such questions come in reply to someone’s own thinking what something is. They coincide with the prescriptive (peremptory) global legal concepts and definitions or the balance of findings corroborating the etiology and reducibility of some forms of crime or abuse.

The evaluation of such global civic education projects suggests that they are promising (Topping and Trickey 2007a,b), but they are not without some conceptual and operational challenges (Farahani 2014). Nonetheless, one recently evaluated moral philosophy project that in 2012–2014 involved some 3000 pupils aged 8–11 in 48 state primary schools across England yielded an improvement in their maths and literacy progress—the equivalent of 2 months’ worth of teaching. The project yielded even faster rates of progress for pupils from impoverished families and from ethnic minority groups (e.g., 3 months for math and 4 months for reading) (EEF 2016).

These kinds of moral philosophy projects are implemented not only in primary- and secondary-level schools of some 60 countries with different legal cultures (EEF 2016) but also at the tertiary level (Ryan et al. 2013). The projects’ conceptual and institutional endorsements by UNESCO (2006) and UNICEF (2009) signal the viability of bridging Western and Eastern moral philosophy issues in one civic education through collectively refining affective thinking (Lipman 2003, p. 266) for its eventual rationalization and application in constructive decision-making.

Discussing such universal moral values enlivens our security checks over conscience of humankind. Hence, the S-G’s call for changing the old mind-sets, behaviors, and destructive patterns certainly may have a useful and progressive SDGs tool. Through the global consensus on the definitions preset through the UN Charter and elaborated in the subsequent legal instruments (including the UDHR), this social science method for problem-solving is applicable to all levels of formal education anywhere. However, there is no doubt that such an education in universal moral issues will yield different answers in sending and receiving countries, because of the level of socioeconomic development and democratic institutions. This is precisely the reason why the UNESCO’s and UNICEF’s respective involvement may advance them through the primary/tertiary education in developed and developing countries.

## Conclusion

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The primary focus of this chapter was on some salient crime prevention issues reported in the UN Declaration on Sustainable Development Goals 2016–2030 and on engineering a more interculturally effective delivery of the related crime prevention message.

In order for this to happen, greater attention needs to be paid to including SD as a key element for various crime theories. Nowadays, they deal only narrowly with the SD concept (Redo 2012), and even less with the UNIPCC's concern about the climate-related exacerbation of welfare losses of present and future generations. And yet, in criminological terms, the impoverished future implies that absolute and relative resource deprivation as a result of welfare losses will facilitate various crimes and abuses affecting a culture of lawfulness.

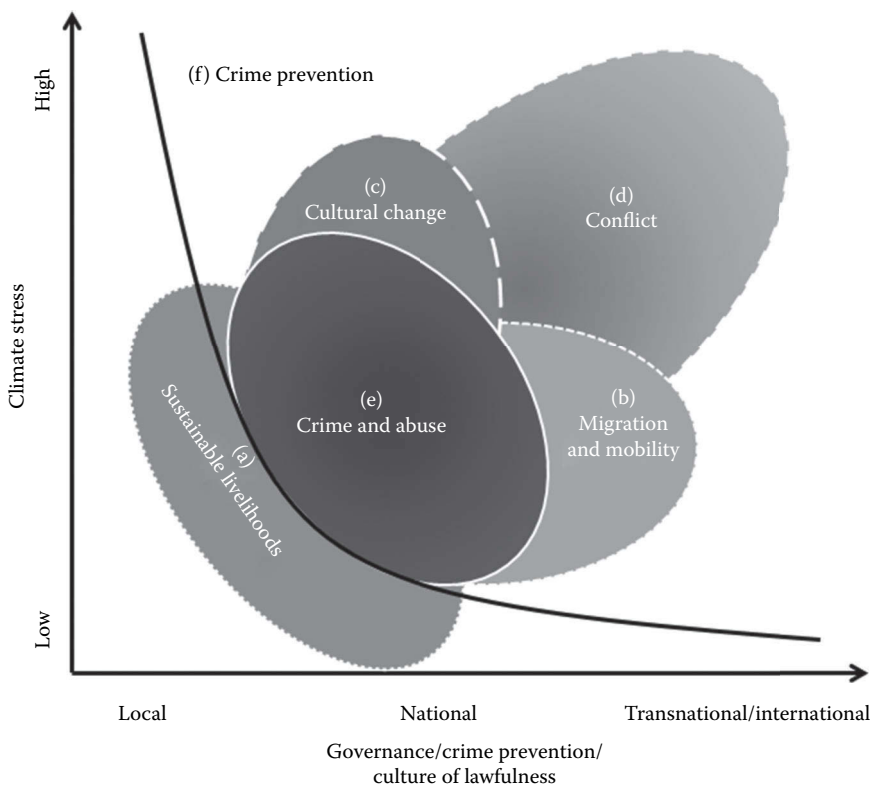
Figure 1.1 incorporates the above UNIPCC and other criminological concerns (Crank and Jacoby 2015; Homer-Dixon 1999) into one strategic UN SDGsD model that includes prevention. This model is paradigmatic but not causal, more visionary than evidentiary. It consists of two perpendicular axes: "Climate stress" and "Governance/Crime prevention/Culture of lawfulness." In between them are (a) sustainable livelihoods that affect (b) migration and mobility, (c) cultural change, (d) conflict, (e) crime and abuse—all interlaced as local, national, and transnational/international governance problems whose solutions include (f) prevention.

The local governance problems are as follows: crime and conflict resulting from (e.g., supply/demand-induced scarcity) national (e.g., crimes associated with inequality and possible punitive reaction by a State), transnational/international, and organized crime; hate and other culture identity-related crime (e.g., honor killings); and corruption, immigrant welfare crime, and terrorism. On the assumption that crime prevention returns to security and culture of lawfulness are the highest at the axes' common starting point (Heckman 2008), the (f) curve accordingly runs in-between them.

Against this background, for the educationists and other readers of this chapter, there are four general UN SDGsD messages involving primary crime prevention.

The first message involves various forms of property and personal "welfare" crime: domestic or transnational (organized or not) must be the focus of educational policies ensuing from the climate change and SD in general. In the UN SDGs, there are numerous references to various forms of crime and other abuses (Zvekic 2015).

The second concerns the importance of centralized governance in any country's success to attain the SDGs by 2030. This assertion is enshrined in the UN resolution on the "Guidelines for the prevention of urban crime" (E/1995/9). It calls authorities to design and implement integrated crime prevention as a



**Figure 1.1** Climate change, governance, crime prevention, and culture of lawfulness on the United Nations post-2015 sustainable development agenda. (Adapted from UNIPCC 2014:777, with inputs from Homer-Dixon, T.F. [1999]. *Scarcity and Violence*. Princeton: Princeton University Press; and Crank, J.P., and Jacoby, L.S. [2015]. *Crime, Violence, and Global Warming*. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.)

pluralistic endeavor including many stakeholders. The guidelines call upon central authorities to (a) provide active support, assistance, and encouragement to local actors; (b) coordinate national policy and strategies with local strategies and needs; and (c) organize consultation and cooperation mechanisms between the various administrations concerned at the central level.

The third one is about the importance of limiting the excessive criminogenic income inequalities by modifying the property rights in various dimensions. In terms of the SDG 10 (“to reduce inequality within and among countries”), this should be done by removing the respective discriminatory laws, policies, and practices. This can take many different forms. Among them are the exclusionary laws, policies, and practices that facilitate violence and discrimination against women, including the denial of their access to and rights over land, inheritance, and property. The UN SDGs framers must

be aware of it, but when it comes to legislative action and implementation, not much comes into the picture (A/70/137 2015, paragraph 22). Therefore, if the North–South dialogue is to be actualized, then legislators must acknowledge and address these elements.

Finally, I would like to conclude with a case for the role of temperature in social relations raised by Friedrich Engels (1820–1895) and ask in a Socratic manner whether the following makes sense:

The contempt for the existing social order is most conspicuous in its extreme form—that of offences against the law. If the influences demoralising to the working-man act more powerfully, more than usual, he becomes an offender as certainly as water abandons the fluid for the vaporous state at 80 degrees, Réaumur.

**F. Engels**

*1844/1943, p. 130*

From the standpoint of this criminological inquiry into the effects of climate change (and in contrast with the first motto of this chapter), this metaphor seems rather nonsensical. Yet, it serves to alert us to some important long-range messages.

First, plausible as is the explanation of certain criminological claims in terms of temperature, climate, cultural (individualism/collectivism), or psychological (egoism/self-interest) terms, it is really the power of one or the other ideology that overrides them and leads to (de)modernization, (de)humanization, and (de)individualization. Under the sun, there is probably no better explanation for the contrast in welfare and economy between the two Koreas, the two Germany's, and Poland before and after 1989, but the (de)motivating power of ideology on individuals and a good governance, secular or not.

Second, recent historical and laboratory research on the dynamics of the aforementioned U.S. civil serious disorders led to conclude that “[w]hen the number of committed opinion holders is below 10%, there is no visible progress in the spread of ideas... Once that number grows above 10%, the idea spreads like flame” (Szymański in the interview, *Minority Rules* 2016; Redo 2016). This may be the alternative explanation for a tipping point that prompts the underprivileged people to become violent, as if that 10% were an indicator of a social change in any direction. This may be true, but only if other ideas cannot counter the criminogenic spread of poverty (Waagen et al. 2015), with the spread originally and metaphorically scaled by Engels.

Third, ideas communicated in the UN SDGsD offer another way between command and market economy for building an inclusive, peaceful, prosperous, and sustainable world. Although the latter economy is intuitively bound with self-interest (Wolpert 1992), the Declaration pursues a new way of thinking and acting, by going beyond that interest for a constructive self-realization of countries and individuals, in accordance with the UN spirit and law.

However, all these messages should not undermine the role of interim recommendations regarding preventing the illegal migration, not directly related to the climatic conditions, but to the gnawing poverty. Very relevant to building the leitmotif for the SDGs-driven crime prevention education is therefore the following quote:

It is a day at the beginning of January 1997. At the center of the shining lump of fish there is something strange, big and dark. Nobody is surprised because all sorts of things are found in the smack: Punic amphora and plastic tanks, tires and equipment discarded by cruise ships, as well as, when all goes well, bigger preys such as swordfish and tuna fish. But that thing does not look like a fish, nor like an amphora, nor like a boat relic. A jet of water liberates “the thing” of mud and seaweed. It is the body of a man. A dark-skinned man.

**C. Lombardi-Diop**

*2008, p. 168*

## **Four Criminological Recommendations Follow from This Dramatic Account**

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First, countering the smuggling of migrants by organized crime groups requires even more coordinated and effective international law enforcement and other measures to reduce the massive profits made on it by their members.

Second, while organized criminals appear impervious to other forms of preventing their profitable acts, those States must develop a self-sustained capacity to create decent life chances for their own people and be able to eventually finance this on their own. This is a sign of good governance, which 50 years since the start of the de-colonialization should begin yielding measurable results. The UN is full of well-intended declarations by Member States. The excuses of some of them are that colonial legacies (especially in Africa) prevent them from doing better and, hence, prevent from priming justice over loot.

On the way to 2030 and after, the homegrown greed, corruption, and hypocrisy are not good conduits to fight the self-sustaining cycle of poverty and crime. Anywhere, but particularly in developing countries, only a genuine and well-motivated commitment to take local affairs in own hands and create life chances for everybody may stop these self-deprivations. Only then will “the [foreign] polluter pays” principle work both ways. Hence, it is not only Montesquieu who may guide us regarding access to justice; the North–South and South–South UN SDGs that engage the Southern countries in a genuine effort to take their fate in their own hands, on the principle of shared responsibility, may do so as well.

Third, the idea of global citizenship involving shared responsibility should draw more on the environmental ethics calling to live in harmony with nature. While a systemic expansion of this ethics into harmonious coexistence in other walks of life is conceptually difficult, EJ and justice in general are at the root of natural law. Education in justice and crime prevention through an intergenerational learning process (similar to that for EJ) should contribute to a new culture of lawfulness with shared prosperity.

Last, but not least, in this global paradigm, UNICEF, UNESCO, the UN Academic Impact Initiative, the EU's Bologna Process through their UN SDGs, and new initiatives should take the lead in the methods and ways to transform a culture of lawfulness through civic education that modifies old mind-sets, deracializes them, rationalizes behaviors, and prevents destructive patterns.

May the 14th Congress find the UN Member States on this path.

## Glossary of Key Terms

**Climate change:** Warming of the climate system involving increases in global average air and ocean temperatures, widespread melting of snow and ice, and rising global average sea level (IPPC 2007, Sec. 6.1).

**Corruption:** The misuse of a public or private position for direct or indirect personal gain (United Nations 2004).

**Crime prevention:** Strategies and measures that seek to reduce the risk of crimes occurring, and their potential harmful effects on individuals and society, including fear of crime, by intervening to influence their multiple causes or risk factors (United Nations 2010).

**Culture of lawfulness:** Dominant or mainstream culture, ethos, and thought in a society sympathetic to the rule of law. In a society governed by the rule of law, people have the ability to participate in the making and implementation of laws that bind all the people and institutions in society, including the government itself (Godson 2000).

**Dignity:** A nonphilosophical and secular UN concept purposely undefined by the organization. Dignity arises from globally shared moral intuition, is self-evident in nature and inherent to any person regardless of his or her socioeconomic status, and gives rise to individual human rights of any character (Spijkers 2011, Chapter 6).

**Hunger:** Not having enough to eat to meet energy requirements for normal growth and development and an active and healthy life, due to food insecurity and malnutrition caused by un sustainable agriculture and food systems (UN n.d.; WFP n.d.).

**Inclusiveness:** The extent to which individuals are incorporated within a wider moral and political community. Inclusiveness involves and values diversity, by increasing social equality and the participation of diverse and disadvantaged populations (O'Brien and Yar 2008, p. 153; York Institute, n.d.).

**Innovation:** The socioeconomic process of translating an idea, a good, or service that creates value for sustainable livelihood and development globally and locally, with due account of culture-specific factors. It contributes to improving individual and collective legitimate life chances and facilitates countering poverty and crime.

**Justice:** For the UN, justice is an ideal of accountability and fairness in the protection and vindication of rights and the prevention and punishment of wrongs. Justice implies regard for the rights of the accused, for the interests of victims, and for the well-being of society at large. It is a concept rooted in all national cultures and traditions and, while its administration usually implies formal judicial mechanisms, traditional dispute resolution mechanisms are equally relevant (S/2004/616, paragraph 7).

**Migration:** Refers here to the smuggling and other international irregular forms of, more often than not, South–North migration.

**Motivation:** The process that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. Motivation is what causes a person to act (VW n.d.).

**Poverty:** The nonfulfillment of preferences and the dissatisfaction with basic needs or denial of choices and opportunities for living a tolerable life, which includes adequate food, water, health care, and education (UNDP 1997, p. 3). The UN SDGs define absolute poverty in terms of individual consumption levels of less than U.S.\$1.25 a day.

**Reform:** Refers here to progressive socioeconomic development with due account of culture-specific factors. It is a conscious international and domestic moral and economic entrepreneurship to promote UN Charter's "higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress." In the process of the elaboration and implementation of the United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice standards and norms, including treaty law instruments, this development implies progressive humanistic treatment of offenders and victims of crime, juvenile delinquents, and children in conflict with the law. It also includes enhancing of the performance of criminal justice system, the right to defense, the eventual abolition of death penalty, and the respective improvements in countering various forms of crime, whether traditional or modern.

**Sustainable development:** Sustainable development in its original sense given by the World Commission on Environment and Development



(1987), chaired by Gro Harlem Brundtland, Norway's then Prime Minister, communicates that in the interest of the right to development of future generations, the development of economy and civilization should not be pursued at the cost of exhausting the nonrenewable natural resources and the destruction of environment. Currently, this concept extends to a self-generating, creative, albeit also conflicting, mechanism for renewing socioeconomic and other resources. It is geared toward their multiplication and, generally, the broadening of human intergenerational capital in any creative areas of humankind, including science and education—the necessary doorway to a change in mindset and behavior (Redo 2012, p. 233).

**United Nations:** The United Nations is an international organization founded in 1945. It is currently made up of 193 Member States. The mission and work of the United Nations are guided by the purposes and principles contained in its founding Charter.

## Discussion Questions

1. The involvement of transnational organized crime in the smuggling of migrants requires law enforcement and judicial measures to undercut the financing of this process and the seizure and forfeiture of assets. Search for cases involving countering this crime in this manner, then offer viable and democratic legal solutions that internationally facilitate the improvement in fighting the smuggling of migrants.
2. While climate change and poverty may (dis)jointly drive domestic and international crime and migration, what would be needed in the migrant-sending countries in terms of building their own prosperous development to benefit from their human capital (UN SDGs' "People")?
3. Find examples of crime trends studies focused on the issue of poverty in which chosen for the analysis independent poverty variables lead to strikingly different interpretations of the correlated with them crime data.
4. Identify criminological studies that deal with the question of SD beyond EJ issues.
5. Taking note of the dramatic consequences of illegal migration documented by the case of "a dark-skinned" man quoted in this chapter, consider, on the basis of global treaties dealing with migration and the right to education, whether or not those who survived the ordeal of smuggling into your country could exercise their right to education, and if they are eligible to political asylum, in case they document their political persecution in the sending country.

6. Pro-reformist positive motivation includes rational thinking. In terms of canons of logical thinking, what methods other than the Socratic type of inquiry may be included? For example, how could you prove, in terms of Aristotle's logic, that the motto of this chapter carries a syllogistically compelling and educationally important crime prevention message?

## Suggested Reading

- Kury, H., Redo, S., and Shea, E. (2016). *Women and Children as Victims and Offenders: Background–Prevention–Reintegration. Suggestions for Succeeding Generations*, ed. H. Kury, S. Redo, and E. Shea. Berlin–Dordrecht–Heidelberg–New York: Springer, particularly Introduction (vol. I: part I, chap. 4, part III, chap. 3; vol. II: part V, chap. 5; final discussion: chaps. 1 and 5; post scriptum).
- Slawomir, R. (2012). *Blue Criminology. The Power of the United Nations Ideas to Counter Crime Globally*, Helsinki: European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations.
- Slawomir, R. (2013). The United Nations rule of law, “common language of justice” and the post-2015 educational agenda: Some academic and policy aspects. *Comparative Law Review* 16: 211–246, <http://dx.doi.org/10.12775/CLR.2013.023> (accessed January 16, 2016).
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## Recommended Web Links

<http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/education-for-sustainable-development/>

The United Nations Educational and Scientific and Cultural Organization offers a variety of high-quality expert-group or peer-reviewed analyses; recommendations, reports, handbooks, and manuals on education and sustainable development among which there are intercultural publications on moral philosophy that draws on the Socratic method.

<https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/>

This United Nations HQ website is a source of intergovernmental and civil society documentation with the most politically important problematics in which various United Nations organs, other entities, and actors keep stock of the respective resolutions, statements, interventions, reports, and publications regarding the organization's sustainable development goals agenda 2016–2030.

<https://academicimpact.un.org/>

This global initiative of the United Nations Department of Public Information aligns institutions of higher education with the United Nations in furthering the realization of the purposes and mandate of the organization through activities and research in a shared culture of intellectual social responsibility.

<http://acuns.org/category/publications/>

This is a website of the Academic Council on the United Nations System (ACUNS), a nongovernmental organization in general consultative status with the Economic and Social Council, and a global professional association of educational and research institutions, individual scholars, and practitioners active in the work and study of the United Nations, multilateral relations, global governance, and international cooperation. ACUNS promotes teaching on these topics, as well as dialogue and mutual understanding across and between academics, practitioners, civil society, and students. Researchers and students can find on the website most relevant UN discussion topics and information on the UN publications.

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