

INTRODUCTION TO CRIMINOLOGY

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Foreword

This learning material has been written by two authors from the Department of Propedeutics of Legal Subjects. It is designed for those students of the Faculty of Law at the Trnava University in Trnava who have chosen to study “Criminology” in English. It is also intended for foreign students who have decided to make use of the broad selection of courses lectured at the Faculty of Law in English and chosen to study the “Introduction to Criminology” course.

The learning material covers that part of the “Introduction to the Criminology” course which is concerned with general criminology. The reader has the opportunity to get familiar with criminology definitions, with emphasis on the Slovak, Czech, but also international experience with this subject. Since criminology is **interdisciplinary independent** science, it is necessary to understand its place and roles in the system of crime sciences. In order to awaken the reader’s invention, it is important to get familiar with the key characteristics of the schools of thought and theories of criminology. Without understanding the theoretical thinking of our predecessors, it would be difficult to advance the current theoretical and methodological base of criminology. This effort of the authors is also underlined in a chapter dedicated to the methodology and methods of criminological research. Without them, criminology would be hard to imagine as an empirical science.

The subsequent chapters introduce the reader (especially foreign readers) to the state, structure and dynamics of crime in Slovakia after 1989. This is a period marked by radical changes in the Slovak society which had a great impact on the sphere of crime. The phenomenology of crime is provided for several periods: (1) 1989-1999, (2) 2000-2006 and the authors were also able to provide information about crime in Slovakia for 2007. The final part of the material is concerned with offenders and victims of crime. Here, the authors give an insight into established knowledge, together with their own views and empirical knowledge from this field.

This teaching material does not attempt to provide a comprehensive analysis and presentation of general criminology knowledge. It is functionally arranged to correspond with the requirements of the “Introduction to Criminology” course and provide foreign students with knowledge enabling them to confront or assess their own idea of criminology and its importance for the society. The material directly invites the reader to take a close look and get familiar with the content of other bibliographic sources. **Autori učebného textu ocenia aj**

dobré mienené návrhy a pripomienky čitateľov, ktoré by viedli k jeho korekcii pri ďalšom vydaní. Zároveň ďakujú recenzentovi prof. PhDr. Květoňovi Holcrovi, DrSc. za slová ocenenia, ako aj cenné pripomienky a námety, ktoré autori využili v prospech vyššej kvality tohto učebného textu.

It should be evident that this material has been written with the reader in mind. The content is captivating and its form makes getting familiar with the subject easy. Therefore, we would like to wish the readers and, in particular, students of “Introduction to Criminology” an exciting path to learning the basics of criminology and creativity in using them in their professional life.

Prof. PhDr. Gustáv Dianiška, CSc.

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1. DEFINITION OF CRIMINOLOGY

Like many other terms, the term criminology is of Latin and Greek origin: Crimen (Latin) = crime and logos (Greek) = science or thought. Hence, it can be briefly stated that criminology is a science dealing with crime. This term did not develop by accident or in a vacuum – it is a result of complex historical and social processes. Three names should be mentioned in connection with the establishment of the term criminology. Italian scientist and lawyer Cesare Beccaria (1738-1794) is considered to be the founder of criminological thinking, although he has never used the term criminology as such. This term was coined by French anthropologist P. Topinard (1830-1911) in 1879 and, several years later, in 1885, Italian lawyer Raffael Garofalo (1851-1934) wrote and published a book entitled “Criminology”.

The content of criminology gradually developed to include other scientific disciplines, such as criminal psychology (since 1792), criminal sociology (since 1882) and forensic biology (since 1883). This shows that criminology has been gaining and developing its multidisciplinary nature since the very beginning. Yet, it has not become a collective medium for these scientific disciplines. Instead, it has been building its own hierarchically structured scientific system with contributions from these disciplines. It should be clearly stated, though, that throughout the period when criminology strived to obtain the position of a scientific discipline in its own right, its ties with criminal law had a great influence on it. The strong ties between criminology and criminal law lead us to define criminology as a separate social and legal science concerned with crime and the state, causes, forms, prevention and forecasting of crime. Criminology is seen as a specific social and legal science by a number of authors, such as A. I. Alekseev (1998).

According to a prominent contemporary criminologist (Kaiser, G., 1994), criminology is an orderly system of empirical knowledge about crime, offenders, negative social “conspicuousness” and control of such behaviour. The scope of criminological research can be aptly described by three key terms: crime, offender and crime control. These are complemented by issues such as the victim’s interests and crime prevention. Many criminological authors use this definition as a reference (see, for example, Kuchta, J., et al., 1998).

Slovak criminologist J. Madliak (1998) defines criminology as a science concerned with the personality of the offender and criminality, the state, structure, dynamics and

levels of crime, the causes and conditions leading up to crime, and crime forecasting and methods and means of crime prevention.

Selected chapters of criminology (Turayová, Y., et al., 1999) teach us that criminology is an orderly system of empirical knowledge and theories about crime, the offender, the victim, and the social consequences and implications of a committed crime. It is the study of the substance of criminal acts as a social phenomenon, its nature, causes and conditions of origin, the personality of the offender, the relationship between the offender and the victim, the state, structure and dynamics of crime, the role and purpose of punishment, and the forms of prevention.

Czech criminologists (see Novotný, O., Zapletal, J. et al., 2001 and 2004) define criminology as a study of crime, crime offenders and victims, and crime control. According to J. Kuchta and H. Válková, the generally accepted definition of criminology is as follows: Criminology is a separate interdisciplinary field of science which, using theoretical and empirical methods, explores crime, crime causes, manifestations and latency, offenders, victims and the relationship between them, punishment systems and their efficiency, formal social control by means of criminal justice, informal social control, the social processes of criminalisation and victimisation, crime prevention and public opinion about crime. As the authors emphasise, this is not an exhausting definition, but it covers the most important areas of interest to criminological research and theory (Kuchta, J., Válková, H. at al., 2005, p. 2)

One of the benefits of getting familiar with these different angles and thinking about the definitions of criminology is that it can help us find their common attributes. In our opinion, the definitions contain the following common attributes:

- empirical approach,
- interdisciplinary,
- causality (aetiology) of crime,
- the state, structure and dynamics of crime (phenomenology),
- offenders and victims of crime,
- prevention,
- forecasting.

The definitions of criminology represent the basic building block of the theoretical base of this science. Understanding and good command of general criminology requires understanding the key terms. These include: crime (criminality), delinquency and negative social (antisocial) phenomena.

Criminality is an aggregate of criminal offences committed, whether wilfully or negligently, by criminally liable individuals in a certain area over a certain period of time (usually a year at the national level). For instance, the number of criminal offences recorded in Slovakia in 2000 reached 88 817. These were acts committed either wilfully or negligently by legally liable individuals. With respect to the commission of crime, criminology is also interested in its latent form. It is believed that latent crime is several times higher than recorded crime. Latent crime has two forms:

1. undetected criminal offences (the black number);
2. detected criminal offences where, for a variety of reasons, offenders have not been found and prosecuted (the grey number).

Delinquency is a broader term than crime. It includes criminal offences committed by persons who are not criminally liable (persons younger than 14 and persons without legal capacity). This also includes acts of gross violation of the provisions of the Civil Code, family law and other standards. Delinquent = the offender, culprit and delinquency = acts that are in conflict with the law.

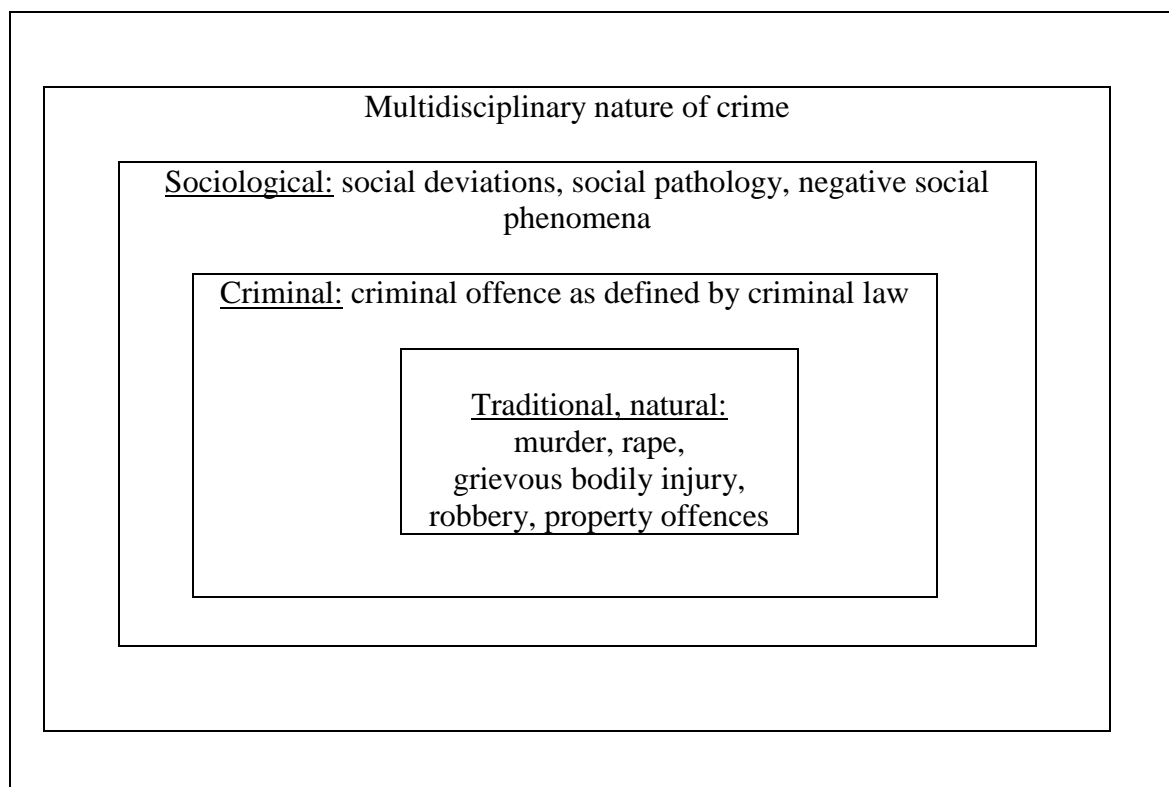
Negative social phenomena are often at the background of **acts that are in conflict with the law**. These are such behavioural patterns that may not or cannot be judged and punished as a violation of law, yet for a variety of reasons (health, ethical or social), they are socially undesirable. These include, for instance:

- alcoholism and other drug addictions,
- prostitution,
- promiscuous sexual behaviour,
- suicide,
- marital divorce,
- xenophobia and racism, etc.

An analysis of the definitions and terms of criminology shows that it is the **independent science**. The **analysis** of this science suggests that it relates to a number of scientific fields and disciplines. These disciplines comprise social, personal, as well as sociological, psychological, psychiatric, pedagogical, criminal and other aspects. In other words, criminology has a multifaceted nature, yet it is not a sum of its multidisciplinary parts. It creates a new, original and systemic **science form about criminality**.

We can also often hear that criminology is an interdisciplinary science. Indeed, it is interdisciplinary in the sense that criminological research goes into issues related to a variety of fields or disciplines. The multi-aspect, interdisciplinary nature of criminology is not in conflict with its multifaceted **basic**. This is only a manifestation of the fact that the broad characteristics of criminology are interrelated and mutually dependent with its research activities. Criminology creates an interdisciplinary synthesis of knowledge acquired by multiple disciplines. For instance, a team working on a grant project focusing on research into economic crime can be made up of criminologists dealing with phenomenology and aetiology of this type of crime, as well as criminal law, psychology, sociology or economy experts.

And criminology has another quality. It is an empirical science. This is because it explores crime, delinquency and negative social phenomena as social reality. The vitality and creative potential of criminological knowledge is based on grasping and generalisation of empirical facts, which are then exceptionally useful for changing social practice.



2. THE PLACE OF CRIMINOLOGY IN THE SYSTEM OF CRIME SCIENCES

Many authors of criminology textbooks (see, for example, Kuchta, J. et al., 1999) divide scientific disciplines dealing primarily with criminal behaviour into legal and non-legal disciplines. Legal disciplines place emphasis on the system of criminal (substantive criminal law) and procedural disciplines (procedural criminal law). It should be mentioned, however, that in many aspects criminology may also concern other areas of law (e.g. civil rights). Non-legal disciplines include criminology itself, its subsystems, which can be relatively seen as disciplines in their own right (victimology, penology), and a broad range of other disciplines responsible for its multidisciplinary nature: sociology, psychology, criminology, pedagogy, the forensic disciplines within the system of legal sciences, etc.

J. Madliak (1998, 2008) accentuates the relationship between criminology, as a social science, criminal law and the related disciplines: forensic science, sociology, forensic psychology, forensic medicine and legal psychiatry. These are complemented with another group of disciplines: statistics and forecasting. However, it should be borne in mind that the system of scientific disciplines concerned with crime is far from static. Its dynamism is constantly bringing new quantity and, in particular, quality of relations within this system. As an example, we can mention the effort to accentuate the position of penology. Thanks to its qualitative development, it is necessary to consider it a discipline in its own right (see Fábry, A., 2000, 2007). The relationship between criminology and psychology requires closer analysis. Understandably, most closely related to criminology is forensic psychology. Nevertheless, in respect of the issue of the content of criminology, knowledge from a plethora of psychological sciences can be broadly used. Despite the fact that the sociological context of criminology is exceptionally strong, there is still potential to integrate sociology into criminological theory and empirical research to a much greater extent. Finding answers to these issues boosts the creative process contributing to higher efficiency of criminology as a science.

Criminology has rich, complex and multi-layered relations with other sciences. Four hierarchical layers come into consideration:

- *Relations within the system of legal sciences - substantive and procedural criminal law*
 - *the forensic disciplines within the system of legal sciences*
 - *other areas of law*
- *Multidisciplinary relations – sociology, psychology, pedagogy, forensic science, etc.*
- *Relations within the subsystems of criminology– victimology, penology, criminological forecasting*

➤ *Relations between general and special (specific) criminology and its applied disciplines (comparative, clinical, police criminology, etc.).*

➤ **Relations within the system of legal sciences**

This layer of relations, as well as the whole system of relations, is dominated by the relationship between criminology and criminal law. Criminal law focuses on the exploration of the legal aspects of criminal activity. Its main area of interest are the specific legal aspects of the commission of criminal offences and the conditions of criminal liability. The exploration of these facts and standardisation makes it an extremely important means of crime elimination. As has been emphasised by a number of criminology authors (see, for example, Novotný, O. – Zapletal, J. 2001, 2004, Madliak, J., 1998, 2008), criminal law gives the answer why, when and to what extent certain acts are dangerous to the society. They also point out the fact that criminal law is not able to examine comprehensively the social and, we should add, personal determination of behaviour dangerous to the society and its interconnection with the social structure and the resulting social relations. This is where criminology comes to play, using the methods of empirical disciplines and examining crime as a socio-pathological phenomenon. Criminal law and criminology need each other very much. This can be clearly illustrated by the following sentence: “Criminal law without criminology is blind and criminology without criminal law is boundless” (Novotný, O. – Zapletal, J. et al., 2001, p. 22).

Criminal law:	Criminology:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - work with regulatory systems - analysis of criminal offences from the standpoint of regulatory definitions - application of criminal law principles and standards - crime control and elimination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - recognition of crime-related empirical facts and circumstances - analysis of the real consequences of application of criminal law standards in social practice - identification of the benefits or shortcomings, and correction of, legal standards - crime prevention and elimination

The system of legal sciences comprises an interesting group of supporting forensic disciplines. These usually include forensic psychology, forensic (legal) psychiatry, forensic medicine, forensic statistics, mathematics, technical sciences and chemistry. In respect of

criminology, forensic psychology, forensic medicine, forensic (legal) psychiatry, forensic statistics and mathematics are at the forefront.

Forensic psychology is closely related to criminology. It is an applied discipline within the system of psychological sciences and, at the same time, belongs to the group of forensic legal sciences. This can be illustrated by the description of forensic psychology by G. Dobrotka, the founder and promoter of this discipline in Slovakia. Professor G. Dobrotka says that the main purpose of forensic psychology is to examine the subjective component of the failure of the social interaction coefficient (i.e. social perception, social communication and social behaviour) with a view to its impact in terms of the society and criminal law (according to: Heretik, A., 2004). In the definition by L. Čírtková (1994, 2000), forensic psychology is described as an applied discipline of psychology dealing with human behaviour and experience in situations regulated by law, in particular criminal law. Forensic psychology is sometimes used as a term interchangeable with legal psychology, which is the result of certain historical reminiscences. We are inclined to the opinion (L. Čírtková, A. Heretik) drawing attention to the extensive range of subsystems of this discipline. Criminological psychology has a great potential to contribute to the relationship between criminology and forensic psychology since its key areas of interest include the personality of the offender, motivation behind criminal acts and personality of the victim. Investigative psychology, which employs psychology in the detection and investigation of criminal cases, is also beneficial. Legal psychology, which deals with the psychological aspects of court proceedings, greatly contributes to this relationship. We must not forget penitentiary psychology, which deals with the psychological issues related to imprisonment, as well as post-penitentiary psychology, which is an area concerned with the psychological aspects of re-socialisation of individuals after imprisonment.

Forensic (legal) psychiatry is part of the scientific system of psychiatry, which is a medical specialty providing assistance to people with mental disorders. Forensic (legal) psychiatry is specific in that it focuses on those people with mental disorders who breach the law. Hence, what criminology and forensic (legal) psychiatry have in common is the criminal behaviour of mentally ill offenders. This is also related to the fact that unlike criminal law, criminology is also interested in persons without criminal responsibility or insane persons. The findings of forensic (legal) psychiatry extend the knowledge base and expert activities of criminology.

Forensic medicine is a medical specialty involving investigation for the needs of judicial authorities and legal proceedings as a whole. Its role is to establish the cause of death,

distinguish natural from violent death, and distinguish between murder, suicide and accident. This helps the investigation authorities, prosecutors and courts understand and resolve criminal cases. Findings from this field are also partly utilised in criminology. This particularly relates to crime prevention and support documents or proposals in the area of law-making.

Forensic statistics and mathematics are part of the methodological tools of criminology as an empirical science. They make it possible to analyse quantitatively and qualitatively the facts and data collected, and the hypotheses of criminological research, draw conclusions and recommendations relevant for criminal policy and develop various models for their effective functioning in social practice.

As we have mentioned, criminological findings in the field of law as such are interrelated especially with the system of criminal law, including its subsystem of forensic disciplines. However, this does not mean that they cannot be applied in other legal disciplines. This includes areas such as civil, family, administrative and commercial law. Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that these are fairly far-fetched relations which have yet to become a subject of closer attention of the representatives of these fields of law and criminologists themselves.

➤ **Multidisciplinary relations**

When we say that criminology is a multidisciplinary science what we mean is that its content relates to several specialties or disciplines. This multidisciplinary nature, however, is not a simple sum of these disciplines. As our analysis suggests, criminology attempts to synthesise the views of multiple disciplines on crime. We also support the idea that crime has both social and personality aspects, while philosophical, ethical, psychological, pedagogical, economic and other aspects can also be applied.

Sociology is a theoretical and empirical science about the society, its social composition, internal distribution of social classes and groups, the influence of society on the individual and the individual's attitude towards society. Sociology explores crime as a mass, socially conditioned phenomenon, i.e. the social pathology of society. Criminology on the other hand collects empirical findings about criminal phenomena and their impact on the dynamics of social phenomena. Hence, this is mostly a reciprocal relationship which is substantially reinforced by the existence of sociological theories on crime and existence of applied disciplines of sociology – the sociology of crime and sociology of law. The relationship

between sociology and crime is also based on the utilisation of the methods and techniques of sociological research. Their domination in today's criminological research, however, is not a barrier to strengthening criminology's own methodology and, on this basis, creative contribution to these methods and techniques.

Sociology:	Criminology:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - social phenomena, social relations, social deviations, - the impact of criminal factors on the development of social relations, - social prevention as part of social policy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - criminal phenomena in social phenomena, - social deviations and social interaction, - crime prevention at various levels (primary, secondary, social).

Psychology is a science about the mental regulation of behaviour. Mental phenomena make it possible to integrate and regulate human experience and behaviour. Psychology provides criminology with knowledge about the personal causes of crime, victimity and motivation behind a criminal act. Insight into the inner world of crime is an instrument for better understanding of the essence of crime and a means for more effective crime elimination and crime prevention programmes. Today, psychology represents a broad system of psychological disciplines (basic, specialised and applied disciplines). As we have mentioned, the relationship between criminology and forensic psychology is of particular importance for the relationship between criminology and psychology. Nevertheless, this does not exhaust all of the possibilities for constructive contact between psychology and criminology. In addition to general psychology, criminology can effectively employ the findings of personality psychology (the personality of the offender and the victim), social psychology (e.g. group criminal activity, gangs, mafia, etc.), psychopathology and clinical psychology (mental disorders as a source of criminal activity), etc.

Psychology:	Criminology:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - personality of the offender, - personality of the victim, - motivation behind criminal activity, - mental determinants of social personality failure, - major mental personality disorders, - small group and crime. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the offender and victim of criminal activity, - motivation behind specific criminal offences, - social determinants of personality failure, - personality disorders and their impact on criminal activity,

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - specific aspects of the commission of criminal offences in groups.
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Pedagogy is a science concerned with education and training. Hence, pedagogy provides background to a number of problematic areas of interest to criminology. This essential discipline has traditionally dealt with the possibilities of influencing, through education, socially undesired or even harmful, i.e. criminal, behaviour of people. Individuals with behavioural disorders are a hard nut to crack not only in general educational practice, but also in the process of re-education of individuals serving imprisonment penalties. Penology, a discipline developing within the context of criminology, relies on the findings of special pedagogy, especially those from the field of education for students with behavioural issues. Pedagogy also plays an important role in the development of preventive programmes specifically designed for the prevention of criminal activity among children and juveniles. Equally important is the involvement of teachers in the post-penitentiary period allowing for a reduction of recidivism of offenders and better re-socialisation.

Pedagogy:	Criminology:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - education and training as a means of personality development, - education and training of children, youth and adults requiring special care, - pedagogical regulation of individuals with behavioural disorders in ordinary and stressful situations, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - education as a means of re-socialisation of offenders, - participation in education and training of delinquent youth and adults, - participation in the provision of post-penitentiary care.

Forensic science is a separate discipline exploring the principles of initiation, course and manifestations of forensically relevant events. The aim of this discipline is to develop forensic methods and methodologies for their application in the process of investigation and prevention of these events (Šimovček, I., 2000). The platform shared between criminology and forensic science is the object of their interest, which is crime. Despite the fact that each of these disciplines explores this subject from different angles (i.e. different aspects and different methods), this collaboration is mutually beneficial. Criminology uses forensic findings made by investigators in the process of investigation, which provide new contexts to empirical facts. Forensic science uses the findings of criminology to establish hypotheses, increase the

effectiveness of tactical procedures and investigation methods, analyse the traces of criminal activity, improve the quality of social interaction in the process of investigation, etc.

Forensic science:	Criminology:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - principles of initiation, course and manifestations of forensically relevant events, - application of forensic methods and methodologies in crime research, - ideas for the prevention of specific criminal offences. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - forensically relevant events in social deviation, - application of multidisciplinary approach in the selection of methodology and methods of criminological research, - crime prevention as a comprehensive issue.

➤ **Relations within the subsystems of criminology**

Victimology is a discipline concerned with victims. It can be understood and developed in the broader sense of the word (e.g. victims of wars, natural disasters, major accidents, air accidents, etc.) or in the narrower sense meaning victims of criminal acts. In this narrower sense, it is being developed as a subsystem of criminology. This means that in criminology victimology deals with the victims of crime and their role in the initiation and course of a criminal act and in crime detection and investigation. It is also concerned with the possibilities of assisting the victims and methods of prevention of victimisation. Victimisation is a process where an individual becomes the victim of a criminal act. Victimity is one's predisposition to become a victim of a criminal act.

Penology, which is part of the subsystem of criminology, is considered to be a discipline dealing with imprisonment and its corrective effects. Nevertheless, as we have mentioned, the development in this respect is dynamic. Fábry (2000, 2006) considers penology to be a comprehensive discipline exploring the philosophical, ethical, social, psychological, pedagogical, medical and technical contexts of punishments and protective measures, their implementation and efficiency. However, punishment does not play as important a role in criminology as in penology, while penology does not explore the causes of crime. Due to this difference in focus, the knowledge provided by these disciplines is complementary. Fábry emphasises that the role of criminology with respect to punishment is to specify accurately its importance in the fight against crime, the relationship between punishment and other means of combating crime and the conditions for the use of punishment in this context. Penology is only concerned with punishment, protective measures and their implementation and efficiency.

Criminological forecasting belongs in the subsystem of criminology and is, at the same time, an applied discipline of prognostics. Prognostics is a general theory, system of methodology and methods for the development of prognoses (short-, medium-, or long-term). Criminological forecasting uses this knowledge (see Holcr, K., 2008) to examine the principles, laws, methods and forms of identifying future developments in the structure, state and dynamics of criminality, its components and crime control systems. It is also interested in the future development of criminology as a scientific discipline in relation to its content, the scientific community and institutionalisation. Criminological forecasting thus makes it possible to fulfil one of the fundamental functions of criminology, which is its prediction function.

➤ **Relations between general and special (specific) criminology and the relationship between criminology and its applied disciplines**

This in essence concerns the relations between the theoretical, methodological and knowledge bases and the applied disciplines which use these bases to analyse specific types of criminality. General criminology deals with all criminal phenomena and takes a synthetic view of all types of criminality, the crime offender and the victim. It concerns itself with crime control in general and, specifically, with the issues of prevention, criminological research and its methods and possibilities, and forensic forecasting. Special (specific) criminology concentrates on deeper analysis and conclusions from each type of criminality, groups of offenders and crime victims, and other issues. Its objects of interest include youth crime, drugs and crime, the mass media and crime, and crime against property. It also encompasses economic crime, violent crime, computer crime, crime against morality, and organised crime. Similarly to the applied disciplines of other sciences, it is impossible to provide a complete list of special (specific) areas of criminology. This system is dynamically developing, providing practical findings and contributing (after generalisation) to the development of theoretical and methodological issues of criminology as a whole.

General criminology questions:

1. *What is criminology and what is the subject of criminology?*
2. *What does criminology consist of and what are the main components and structural, functional and systemic units of criminology?*

3. *How is criminality changing and what diverse effects influence criminality (biological predispositions, mental phenomena, social environment, economic conditions, institutionalisation of social control, and others)?*
4. *What does the society do, in particular in social prevention, with respect to crime control and how efficient is it?*
5. *How a more insightful knowledge of criminality can be obtained (theory, methodology, methods and techniques of criminological research)?*
6. *How can criminality and its future development be effectively forecasted?*

Special (specific) criminology questions:

1. *What are the causes of specific criminal offences (or deviations) and types of criminal activity?*
2. *What is the situation for specific criminal offences and types of criminal activity (state, structure and dynamics)?*
3. *What are the typical attributes or traits of offenders of specific criminal acts?*
4. *What are the victimological predispositions of victims and conditions motivating the offender to commit a criminal act?*
5. *What is the efficiency of individual institutions in situational and victimological crime prevention?*
6. *Which control measures, including criminal sanctions and preventive action, are effective in dealing with the different categories of offenders?*

The relationship between general criminology and special (specific) criminology may often take the form of the relationship between a theory and its applied disciplines. Some authors (Sabopál, E., et al., 2003) point out the substantial importance of police criminology, but fail to specify the content of this discipline. They also draw attention to the interesting findings of comparative criminology, which is still in its development phase. It is concerned with comparing and controlling criminality at the international level. These comparisons are often related to this dimension in the historical context (hence the occasionally used term “historic criminology”). Some criminological theories, as mentioned by the above authors, highlight the so-called clinical criminology. This is a discipline which compares the factors affecting the commission of criminal acts. On this basis, it identifies and applies instruments designed to prevent recidivism. Obviously, the diagnostics and use of therapeutic means requires specialists. These are usually clinicians, such as psychiatrists, psychologists, special pedagogues, etc. The centre of their effort is the offender and the victim as an individual.

3. ROLES OF CRIMINOLOGY

In order to consider the roles of criminology, knowledge of the subject of criminology is needed. The subject of criminology is in turn based on the definition of criminology as a science concerned with crime, to which the reader has already been introduced in detail. Definitions of the subject sometimes differentiate between object and subject. The object is understood to be objectively existing phenomena, such as crime, delinquency or negative social phenomena. The subject is defined as the actual activity causing or producing criminal offences and phenomena (determinants) providing a background to this activity. To take a more practical approach to this issue, we can take the position that the object is already incorporated into the subject of criminology. This means that the object and subject overlap and complement each other. Thus, the definitions express dialectics between the object and the subject.

Object of criminology:	Subject of criminological knowledge:
Criminality (crime)	Phenomenology of crime
Delinquency	Aetiology of crime
Negative social phenomena	Crime offender
Antisocial or asocial activities	Crime victim
Types of criminality	Youth crime

The subject of criminology are negative, antisocial acts defined by criminal legislation as criminal offences (crimes, criminality), the offenders, conditions and causes of crime, crime victims, and punishment, as well as efficiency of crime control, crime prevention and forecasting.

The subject of criminology and the above description enables us to specify the roles of criminology and, at the same time, seek answers to the questions of general and special (specific) criminology. The authors of the learning material entitled “Criminology – the general part” (Sabopál et al., 2003) specify the following roles of criminology:

- Collection of objective findings about the essence of crime. This is an essential and permanent role of criminology required for the elimination of crime in the society.
- Interdisciplinary (and we should add multidisciplinary) interconnection between criminological findings. This concerns, in particular, the dominance of the ties between criminological findings and criminal law, with significant predisposition to influence the work of legislators and the legal practice. The interdisciplinary

knowledge ties, however, are much broader and result from the multidisciplinary nature of criminology.

- Processing of findings and design of crime control systems. The purpose of available criminological findings is fulfilled when it leads up to crime control proposals in the fields of criminal repression and crime prevention. The instrument of control in the field of criminal repression is the state's criminal policy. This activity (according to Válková, H., and Kuchta, J., 2006) is part of the general state policy aimed at crime control and the related socio-pathological phenomena. Findings acquired using scientific methods and procedures (in particular through criminological research) are used for this purpose. These activities are accompanied by the direct application of criminal law and other related legislation, including the effort to integrate them.
- Improvement of criminology education and application of criminology in social practice. Education in professions involved in crime elimination is constantly gaining in importance. It directly affects the standard of performance of the legal profession. It should not only be a natural component of higher legal education, but also part of lifelong (further) training. Criminological education in the broader sense of the word is also an important source of prevention in respect of the behaviour of the general public.

The following are the key roles of criminology in the field of fundamental research (according to Kuchta, J. et al., 1999):

- *Phenomenal forms of criminality (criminal phenomenology),*
- *Causes of criminality (criminal aetiology),*
- *The offender (in particular clinical criminology),*
- *The victim (victimology),*
- *Social crime control (the domain of critical criminology).*
- *Treatment of crime offenders, including the efficiency of the punishment applied (penology).*

As emphasised by the authors of the roles of criminology in the field of fundamental research, scientific findings cannot only be a sum of empirical findings or statistical data. They are used to analyse the background, circumstances and structure of the issues under scrutiny which should optimally lead to new findings. Another important role of criminology is to seek new methods and approaches to exploring criminality.

4. CRIMINOLOGICAL SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT AND THEORIES

Deeper understanding of the subject, place and roles of criminology gives us an insight into criminological theories which, in essence, provide a description of the development of criminological thinking. Criminological theories have the nature of scientific theories which have a systematisation, explanatory and predictive function (forecasting). Like any other scientific theory, criminological theory is a term of multiple meanings. This term most frequently describes: a) comprehensive and systematically arranged scientific findings; b) an opposite to a collection of empirical findings; c) an opposite to practice; d) an opposite to hypothetical findings that are yet to be verified (Holcr, K., et al., 2008, p. 138). According to the aforementioned authors, a scientific theory should meet the following requirements: a) the content of the theory is objectively accurate; b) the theory is coherent, without internal contradictions; c) the theory is consistent.

Practical theory of crime prevention - by M. Felson and R. V. Clarke

MOTTO: Opportunity causes crime or opportunity makes the thief.

Ten principles of crime opportunity theory:

1. *Opportunities play a role in causing all crime.*
2. *Crime opportunities are highly specific.*
3. *Crime opportunities are concentrated in time and space.*
4. *Crime opportunities depend on everyday movements of activity.*
5. *One crime produces opportunities for another.*
6. *Some products offer more tempting crime opportunities.*
7. *Social and technological changes produce new crime opportunities.*
8. *Crime can be prevented by reducing opportunities.*
9. *Reducing opportunities does not usually displace crime.*
10. *Focused opportunity reduction can produce wider declines in crime.*

Collation of criminological theories is not a simple process. There are also various classification criteria. Collation based on the content of theories, as formulated by the representatives of the various criminological schools of thought and theories, has gradually become the norm in criminology.

Criminological schools of thought are represented by a significant scientific figure or group of scientists who are in essence characterised by common methodological bases. The unity of a group is also indicated by common methodological approaches to the selection, analysis and interpretation of the forensic data collected. Common methodological bases and methodical approaches enable this group (school) of scientists to give specific interpretation

of the causes of crime and, on this basis, propose appropriate methods of crime control and elimination.

A criminological theory is a broader term than the school of thought. Various schools and their representatives can be put under the same criminological theory. The reason for being classified under one theory is their clear orientation on one of the aspects of human existence – biological, psychological or social. The development of the theories has been complex and dynamic. Development trends can be observed both within and outside these theories. We can often see representatives of specific schools of thought who started with one theory and, along with better understanding of the criminogenic phenomena, they moved to the platform of a different theory. As the analysis of criminality deepened, more and more voices could be heard saying that it needs to be explored as a multi-factor phenomenon, which was reflected in the adoption of a systemically approached theoretical strand in criminology.

Contemporary criminology divides the theories as follows:

- Biological criminological theories
- Psychological criminological theories
- Sociological criminological theories
- Multi-factor criminological theories

Biological criminological theories

As the title suggests, this theory interprets criminal behaviour on the basis of *biological factors*. This may include anatomical, physiological and other outer and inner characteristics of a person who commits crime. It is no coincidence that these theories are mostly offender-oriented. Factors related to the social environment were given little attention, especially in the early days of this theory. This theory includes concepts which overestimate the role of heredity or genetics in the origin of criminal behaviour. Despite certain one-sidedness or reductionism of this theory, it is clear that the biological essence of criminal behaviour should not be underestimated. The biological theory also holds leadership in the collection of empirical facts about the causes and conditions of crime and has contributed to the creation of the Italian positivist school of criminology.

One of the classical figures of the biological theory is Italian physician Cesare Lombroso (1835 – 1909) and his theory of “born criminal”. His successor was his student, Italian lawyer Enrico Ferri (1856 – 1928). The example of dynamism in the growth of this theory is especially interesting. While his teacher stuck to his stance and refused to admit any corrections until late in his life, Ferri acknowledged the influence of other causes when

exploring the hereditary predispositions of criminals. These causes included climatic, psychological and social factors and, therefore, he is considered to be the founder of the sociological theory of criminology.

Lombroso's description and type of "born criminal"

- *A criminal is an atavistic being who reproduces in his person the ferocious instincts of primitive humanity and phylogenetic human predecessors.*
- *Atavistic stigmata: low forehead, retrognathic or prognathic jaws, large handle-shaped ears, abnormal skull size and shape, finger deformation, squint and others.*
- *Mental characteristics: diminished sensitivity to pain, emotional shallowness, early sexual reactivity, laziness, defective conscience, lack of chastity, alcoholic tendencies, aggressiveness, superstitiousness, egoisms and others.*
- *Type: born criminal, mentally ill criminal (oligophrenic, epileptic, paralytic), criminoloid (occasional criminal).*

Lombroso's views were gradually subjected to considerable criticism. The critics of his theory included English psychiatrist C. Goring. In 1913, he published the results of his twelve-year anthropological comparative study (Lombroso lacked this type of study) on 3 000 English prisoners and control groups of English soldiers and university students. He did not find any specific biological criminal type or specific physical attributes typical for criminals.

Although various schools broadly explored the biological origins of criminal behaviour, the possibilities are far from being exhausted. This is true of the issue of the effects of hereditary predispositions on crime (Goddard), XYY syndrome theory (Sanberg), research into monozygotic and dizygotic twins (Christiansen), and endocrinological theories. Well known are the studies of American criminologists into the relationship between race and crime. Perhaps, the best known are constitutional biological theories, which drew attention to the relationship between body types, psychological traits and the potential for the commission of criminal acts. Let's mention at least two names behind what is now a traditional theory: E. Kretschmer (1888-1964) and V. H. Sheldon (1898-1977). A description and comparison of their approaches can be found in the chapter on crime offenders.

Psychological criminological theories

This theory focuses its attention on seeking the causes of crime and possibilities for crime elimination in the inner world of the offender, i.e. the offender's psyche. Mental phenomena are a hierarchically and mutually interconnected system comprising mental processes, mental conditions and mental personality characteristics. Psyche fulfils important integration and, above all, regulatory functions of human experience and behaviour. It is therefore no surprise that this theory has an irreplaceable role in the detection of the essence

of criminal acts. Mental personality characteristics – motivation and determination, capabilities (including IQ), character and temperament – play a decisive role in the regulation of human behaviour, including that of a criminal. That is why criminology-oriented psychological theories focused mostly on the personality of the offender (delinquent). The development of the theory progressed from structural typologies of the personality of offenders, often conceived in a static manner, to interactive, dynamic models and to the exploration of the victim's personality.

One of the now traditional issues which encouraged psychological research into criminality is the relationship between crime and intelligence (Binet). This stemmed from the fact that offenders included a large number of persons with reduced intellect, who possessed certain characteristics that could predispose them to criminal behaviour. Although these presumptions have not been fully confirmed, the intelligence of offenders has often attracted and still attracts much, perhaps even too much, attention of researchers, frequently without putting into context with the remaining structural elements of the offender's personality (in particular motivation and character).

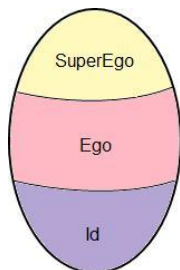
Two schools of psychology have greatly contributed to psychological criminological theories: psychoanalysis and behaviourism. The founder of psychoanalysis is S. Freud (1856 – 1939), Austrian psychiatrist, a native of Moravia. According to Freud, our behaviour is mostly activated and controlled by unconscious motives. The key zone of behaviour is the sphere of drives – the Eros and Thanatos. These motivate both the pro-social and anti-social behaviour of an individual and influence society-wide phenomena (social development, wars, revolutions, etc.).

A personality is made up of three different layers:

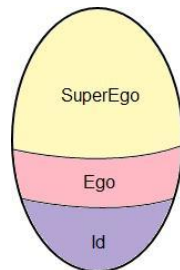
- Id – the sphere of drives controlled by the pleasure principle;
- SuperEgo – adopted norms and taboos;
- Ego – the self-concept, the resultant of the Id and SuperEgo forces.

S. Freud dealt with criminological theory only marginally. Nevertheless, the impact of his psychoanalytic ideas was very strong and drew, and still draws, both enormous interest and significant criticism. Think about the schemes of “Personality instances” presented by V. J. Drapela in his book (2004, p. 21) on psychological personality theories.

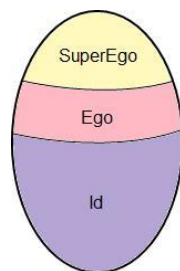
PERSONALITY INSTANCES



This scheme depicts a person who has successfully handled a conflict. He has a strong Ego and can meet the requirements of the external world, but does not forget the pleasures of life and does not violate the basic norms and taboos of the society.



According to this scheme, this person's upbringing lacked love and was strict, limiting, and full of bans and punishments. He has a very strong SuperEgo. That is why the majority of neurotics live their life in anxiety, thinking they behave inappropriately, fail, do not meet the expectations of others and experience sexuality as something “unclean”.



This is a scheme of the personality of a person whose upbringing lacked love and was not sufficiently principled and firm. His behaviour is controlled above all by the Id (desire for pleasure) and cannot be influenced by the external world or internal bans. This explains why pathological family environment or childhood spent in children's homes can be detected in many criminals or sexual deviants.

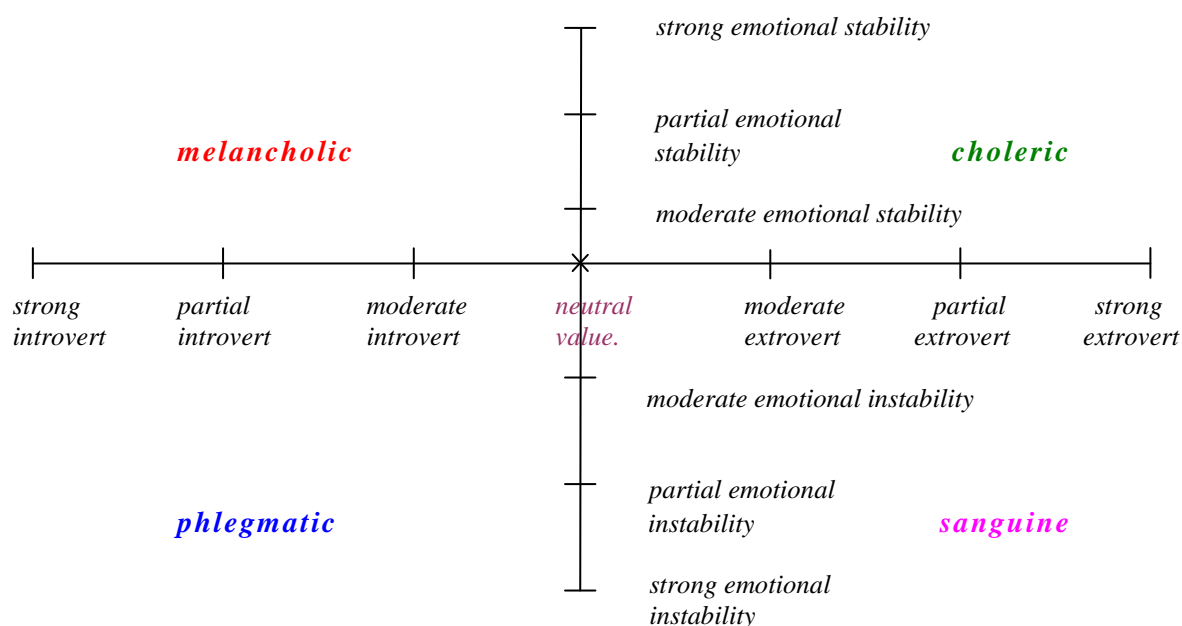
Behaviourism, which is a discipline dealing with behaviour, was also greatly influenced by the rise and development of the psychological criminological theory. One of the major representatives of its new form improved through criticism – neo-behaviourism - was H. J. Eysenck (1916-1997). The work of this leading author stemmed from the theory of conditioning and learning. Like any behaviour, delinquent behaviour is also a learnt form of social behaviour in behavioural psychology. The effect of learning to a decisive extent depends on the individual's personality dimensions. Eysenck created a personality model operating with introversion and extroversion at the horizontal level and emotional stability and emotional instability (neuroticism) at the vertical level. Later, Eysenck extended this model to include psychoticism. Hence, he created the delinquent type – an extrovert neurotic, falling in the sphere of negative social learning, due to which his socialisation in the fields of

legal norms and social values is poor. Psychotic manifestations can be frequently detected in delinquents. This personality dimension is reflected in both indifference and hostile attitude to people, extreme excitableness and maladaptation. Our experience with the use of Eysenck's questionnaire for adults is provided in the chapter on crime offenders.

The traditional comparison of temperament types inspired Eysenck to compare them with his social personality dimensions: unstable extrovert – choleric; stable extrovert – sanguine; unstable introvert – melancholic; stable introvert – phlegmatic.

An extrovert focuses on and easily adapts to the external world. An introvert focuses on his inner world, his own person, experience and mental states. An emotionally stable type can regulate his feelings and mental states. An emotionally unstable type surrenders to emotions easily and often handles situations impulsively and without thinking.

Think about your inclination to one of these types. Two assessment scales are provided below. Try to evaluate yourself. Encircle the figure you feel most suitable to you. In the next step, ask a trustworthy person to evaluate you. Compare your self-evaluation to the evaluation by another person.



The issue of psychological criminological theories is very broad and diverse. It includes the issue of psychology of the personality, i.e. both global and specific personality disorders, which are primarily the subject of forensic psychology (see Heretik, 2004). Personality disorders – psychopathies (sociopathies) – capture special attention in criminology. A. Heretik (2004, p. 157) says that the incidence of psychopaths in the population was estimated at 10% in older literature. He notes that their share in criminality is higher than that of ordinary population: 30% of offences are committed by psychopaths. As

many as 70% of recidivists, who account for around 40% of all crime, are psychopathic personalities.

An excerpt from an interview of an imprisoned psychopath by psychologist J. Nemec (1993).

"I am thirty years old. I've spent eleven years in prisons. Now I'm here for a robbery. I agreed with a friend that I would sell him a picture so I visited him at home. Before we started to talk about the deal we had a few drinks. Then when we talked about the deal, he refused to accept my price. I needed money. He wanted to back off from the deal. So I beat and kicked him. I don't know what came into me. Allegedly, I also demolished his apartment. But I don't remember anything like that. I don't mind that I'm locked up. I've got no job, nowhere to live, no friends, no close people, so I am better off in prison. At least somebody is looking after me."

The findings of social psychology, specifically with respect to the issue of social learning, have an increasingly important place in psychological criminological theories. Social learning is a process where a person acquires and applies experience in new social conditions. The typical forms of social learning include:

- direct encouragement, i.e. the use of rewards and punishment;
- imitation
- identification.

Social psychological theories on crime are also based on these findings (Jeffery, 1965 and Akers, 1977). This is a process happening in anti-socially oriented groups taking place in the form of imitation of negative informal models. At the same time, socio-psychological theories on crime form a bridge or partial intersection into the field of sociological criminological theories. A good example of this is the *theory of differential association* (E. Sutherland) based on the presumption that a person learns criminal behaviour (just like any other trade). This process of negative socialisation takes place in informal social groups on the basis of the forms of social learning.

Another example is the *newer theory of social cognitive learning* (I. Bandura) placing emphasis on direct experience of a person from interaction with his or her social environment. This also includes the *theory of reintegrative shame* (J. Braithwaite) underlining the importance of shame for re-socialisation as a consequence of public condemnation of the criminal act by the community or society.

Psychological criminological theories cannot address the roles of criminology comprehensively or replace other theoretical approaches. On the other hand, their insight into the inner world of crime offenders or victims is often much needed. Their impact is multiplied when dealing with issues of crime prevention, i.e. in the provision of quality professional assistance to high-risk individuals or groups.

Sociological criminological theories

This is the most extensive, most dynamically developing and most frequently utilised theory in research into the causes of crime and crime elimination. Explanation of these phenomena is sought in the *social environment*. The social environment is defined as a framework in which individuals or groups exist and where they create relationships and socially interact with other people. The schools of the sociological criminological theory can be divided into two parts: The *first group* of theories puts crime into context with the social structure of the society – its social system. The *second part* sees crime as a process enabling the development of a criminal, while placing emphasis on the group perspective of this process. Similarly to other theories, the sociological theory also includes mixed theories or theories that are hard to classify into any of the groups.

A. J. QUETELET (1796-1874)

He is considered to be an advocate of social determinism. He believed that the society carries in itself the seeds of all crime. The offender is more or less just a random instrument committing crime. Increasing the society's welfare will not lead to a complete elimination of crime because social changes will create conditions for a new type of criminals. Quetelet included the climatic environment (thermic law of crime) among the key determinant factors of crime.

G. TARDE (1843-1904)

An advocate of identification of the social relations enabling people to become criminals. He believes that crime is a relative notion and depends on the definition, assessment and will of social groups. Crime spreads among people by means of suggestion, on the basis of the law of imitation. People have the tendency to adapt to a social group and indiscriminately adopt its behavioural models (crime – custom, crime – fashion).

One of the schools of the sociological criminological theory is the *theory of anomie*. It is now regarded as a traditional theory of criminology and despite the fact that it was developed a long time ago it is still relevant today. One of the first representatives of this school were Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) and Robert K. Merton (born 1910).

Durkheim considers social facts, such as collective tendencies, ways of thinking and behaviour, as supra-individual (existing outside the individual). He arrived at the term anomie

when exploring the causes of suicide. He argues that suicide is not conditional on an individual's fate, but rather on his affiliation to various social groups which leave him at the mercy of fate. Two factors affect the development of socio-pathological phenomena in the society:

1. decline in social solidarity,
2. anomie (decline or a lack of social standards, both legal and moral).

Anomie thus represents a strong source of deviant behaviour. At the same time, this is a critical state typical for a society undergoing or implementing profound social changes.

Merton's work stemmed from Durkheim's theory but, in connection with anomie and on the basis of his American experience, he accentuated the imbalance between culturally preferred goals and legitimate means for achieving these goals. On this basis, he identified several types of behaviour, the "innovative type" being the most important for criminology. A person with this type of behaviour attains culturally preferred goals (property, wealth, status) using non-legitimate, criminal means. In this context, Merton points out the fact that legitimate means are not equally available to all members of the society and some layers of the society have a lack of them and some do not have them at all.

Author	Key word	Description of the theory	Behavioural tendencies	Typologies or types of behaviour
E. Durkheim	ANOMIE	Anomie as the state of non-cohesion and lawlessness in a society	DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR	- bio-psycho deviant - functional rebel - social deviant
R. K. Merton		Discrepancy in the social structure between preferred goals and legitimate means of achieving them		- conformity - "innovation" - ritualism - rebellion - retreatism

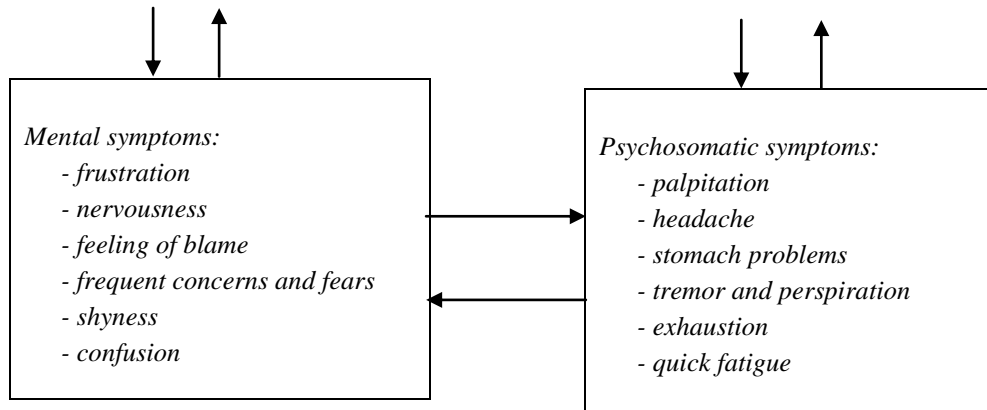
One of the best known sociological schools is the *Chicago school of criminology*. It has contributed especially with its ecological studies focusing on the geographical distribution of crime (especially juvenile crime) in the city of Chicago. We have already mentioned *Sutherland's theory of differential association* which is included in the sociological theory by the majority of criminological authors. The *theory of differential identification* (Glaser), which developed from a critical review of Sutherland's theory, assigns the decisive role in the process of "infection" by crime to the personality of the individual. This is what decides whether the individual does or does not identify himself with antisocial patterns of behaviour

in the environment of a delinquent group. To a certain extent, certain parallels can be identified between these theories and the *theory of criminal subculture* (e.g. Cohen, Cloward, Ohlin and others) which explored the typical properties of a juvenile city gang. It concerned youth from lower social classes who were under strong influence of a delinquent or escape (alcohol, drugs) gang. The *theory of social control* (Hieschi), on the other hand, emphasises the importance of formal and informal social control. Its weakness or inefficiency is the source of initiation and development of criminal behaviour. The *labelling theory*, based on the fact that deviation is not the quality of certain individuals, but rather a quality (a tag or label) attributed to it by a certain institution or community, attracted significant attention in criminology. False and persistent labelling of the offender reduces the efficiency of re-socialisation. Moreover, there is often the risk that persons, groups, or institutions with authoritative power can create the necessary standards to intentionally label certain individuals or groups and change them as and when required and further underline the legitimacy of labelling.

As was stated before, sociological theories seek the causes of crime in the society in a real living environment and contribute to better understanding of aetiology of crime in general: However, many researchers find that traditional aetiological criminology is insufficient and, on the basis of sociological and often also other criminological theories, diverse *theories of critical thinking* are being formed encompassing rightist or leftist theories of criminality, neo-Marxist, radical criminology, feminist theories, postmodern criminology, etc. (for more detail see: Various authors, Police Force Academy: Kriminológia II [Criminology II], 2006, pp. 6-26).

Indicators of the various dimensions of anomie

- *Today's world has become so complicated that one can't usually get his head around it.*
- *In order to be successful today, one is usually forced to do things or behave in a way that is not right.*
- *I often feel lonely.*
- *In fact, I don't like my job but I have to do it to get things that I want and need.*
- *There is nothing I can do about most of today's problems.*



Multi-factor criminological theories

A typical feature of this theory is the use of multiple active factors of various kind (bio, psycho, socio) and origin (the schools under individual theories). The leading and most respected representatives of these theories are American sociologists Eleanor and Sheldon Glueck. These sociologists abandoned the traditional monocausal model and replaced it with a dynamic multicausal one using a systematic eight year comparison study on a group of juvenile delinquents from Boston (500 respondents) and a group of non-delinquent juveniles of the same size.

The model of their comparison study contains four large groups:

1. *Socio-cultural factors* (housing conditions, social standard, relations in the family, leisure activities, etc.).
2. *Somatic factors* (classification according to Sheldon's typology, health).
3. *Intellectual factors* (school results, examination using the Wechsler-Bellevue scale, Stanford reading and writing performance test).
4. *Emotional and temperament personality factors* (psychiatric examination using the Rorschach's method and others).

It is of little surprise then that the multi-year comparison study was conducted by an extensive team of lawyers, psychologists, sociologists and social workers. The results were gradually published between 1930 and 1950. Delinquents were found to have significantly more troublesome family relations with parents and siblings. Similar relationship was found between delinquents and the school environment, etc. On this basis, prediction tables were created enabling the detection of tendencies towards delinquent behaviour in children of younger school age. Criminological research and the results published by the Gluecks raised both broad interest and critical voices. It was appreciated that the empirical findings lead to concrete preventive projects, while critics focused on the imbalance of content of the four groups and the fact that the prediction tables were based on findings in six to eight years old children (is the personality of such a child already formed?).

*Prediction table of five social factors (S. and E. Glueck)
(According to A. Heretik, 1994, 2004)*

<i>Social relations</i>	<i>Weighted score</i>
<i>1. Discipline of boy by father</i>	
a) overstrict or erratic	72.5
b) lax	52.8
c) firm but kindly	9.8
<i>2. Supervision of boy by mother</i>	
a) unsuitable	83.2
b) fair	57.5
<i>3. Affection of father for boy</i>	
a) indifferent or hostile	75.9
b) warm (including over protective)	33.8
<i>4. Affection of mother for boy</i>	
a) indifferent or hostile	86.2
b) warm (including over protective)	43.1
<i>5. Cohesiveness of family</i>	
a) unintegrated	96.9
b) some elements of cohesion	61.3
c) cohesive	20.6

Results:

Prediction table of five social factors (S. and E. Gluecks)

<i>Weighted score class</i>	<i>Percent of delinquents</i>	<i>Percent of non-delinquents</i>
<i>Under 200.....</i>	<i>8.2%.....</i>	<i>91.8%</i>
<i>200-249.....</i>	<i>37.0%.....</i>	<i>63.0%</i>
<i>250/299.....</i>	<i>63.5%.....</i>	<i>36.5%</i>

300 and over.....89.2%..... 10.8%

Criminological theories are not only theories developed through the accumulation of precious findings of our predecessors or contemporaries. They are a practical instrument enabling us to understand a multitude of collected unsorted empirical data and turn them into meaningful and useful structures. Data structured in this way have a marked impact on crime control, including effective prevention, and law-making, as well as the development of comprehensive and efficient penal policy of the state. It is no coincidence that many authors keep reminding us of K. Levin's catchphrase: "there is nothing as practical as a good theory".

5. METHODOLOGY AND METHODS OF CRIMINOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Criminology is a discipline concerned with crime and is, therefore, a part of science. Science in general is a comprehensive system of verified knowledge of concrete reality which has been obtained by means of scientific methods and arranged into a logical system. Nevertheless, science has other faces, too. It is a complicated *process* of exploring and examining the principles of the development of nature, society and thinking, using objective scientific methods. Science also represents *institutions* (e.g. the Slovak Academy of Sciences), a form of *social conscience*, *a specific type of activities*, and *a group or individual activity*. This means that science contains key sociological, psychological and socio-psychological aspects without which the efficiency of science would significantly decline. In relation to the society and its members, science is also a *specific form of social communication*.

Science, including criminology, is characterised by a system of methodology and methods. Methodology is an applied meta-science concerning the principles, strategies, instruments and standards of functioning and developing objective exploration. It is above all an applied discipline of meta-science, which interacts with other disciplines of the science about science and plays the role of its theoretical basis. Therefore, methodology is in fact an applied meta-science.

Science also needs to be studied and understood in terms of its self-projection. What we have in mind is the standpoint of a science about science, i.e. meta-science (meta (Gr.) = above, beyond).

The system of meta-science consists of:

- *the philosophy of science,*
- *the logic of science,*
- *the ethics of science,*
- *the historiography of science,*
- *the economics of science,*
- *the sociology of science ,*
- *the psychology of science, and others (Benčo, J., 2001, p. 16).*

The **methodology of criminology** is an applied sub-discipline of scientific methodology concerning the principles of objective exploration of crime, its phenomenology, aetiology and control as a serious and negative individual or social phenomenon (social pathology) dangerous to the society and the individual. The methodology of criminology is not just a sum or set of methods, it is a broader systemic theoretical system giving a framework to these methods. The system's framework-forming principles include the principle of determinism, the principle of development and activity, the personality principle,

and the critical thinking principle. Criminological research as such requires clarification and respect for other methodological principles.

These include:

- congruence between the content and methods of research,
- respect for the genetic perspective,
- application of the social perspective,
- principle of selectivity,
- principle of comprehensiveness,
- principle of economy and sufficiency,
- principle of respecting the specific conditions in which the criminogenic element being explored exists.

The methodology of criminology is an immanent part of criminology as a science. The system of methodology and methods represents a universal level common to all scientific disciplines. This level, *inter alia*, includes induction and deduction, analysis and synthesis, analogy, comparison, observation or measurement (Holcr, K. et al., 2008, p. 132). The methodology of criminology is widely applied in scientific activities, which represent the three *organisational forms of science*: 1. research; 2. development; 3. assessment. The specific *types of research* are derived from these organisational forms of science: fundamental research, applied research, experimental development and evaluation. If we take a closer look at the above classification and principles, we will come to the conclusion that any research, including criminological research, is a professional scientific activity. It is an activity enabling the researcher to obtain new, original and objective findings about crime and possibilities for crime elimination.

Scientific research work should not be confused with pre-scientific knowledge. Pre-scientific knowledge is a natural asset of all individuals in active life and is based on their everyday experience. Everyday knowledge, experience and common sense sharpen the individual's ability to think and argue rationally at a certain elementary level. People who only rely on this type of knowledge are subject to many pitfalls, such as distorted reality, deformed and manipulative practices, etc. (for details, see: Holcr, K., et al., 2008, pp. 129-130).

The specific types of research are laid down by Act No.132/2002 Coll. on Science and Technology, which considers research to be an important professional activity requiring corresponding professional training

As an example, we provide the description of two types of research:

Fundamental research is systematic activity which, as a matter of priority, aims to extend the knowledge and understanding of the object being explored regardless of the practical applications of the findings obtained (§ 2 (3) a)).

Applied research is a systematic activity focusing on the practical utilisation of knowledge . . . with the aim of using it in economic and social practice (§2 (3) b)).

We can encounter diverse classification of research methods in criminology. These *methods* are a real instrument for the collection of empirical information about phenomenology, aetiology and control of crime, as well as other criminogenic phenomena which are a subject of criminology. Research methods cannot be equated with methodology. *Research methodology* is a set of forms, methods and other scientific approaches purposefully organised to achieve research objectives effectively.

Some sources differentiate between methods and techniques of criminological research (see: Various authors, Police Force Academy, 2006, pp. 132-146). These authors identify the historical, monographic, topographic, typological and prognostic methods as research methods.

They believe that the following are the techniques of criminological research: observation (direct, indirect), experiment (natural, laboratory), techniques of studying and analysing documents, analysis of statistical data, questionnaires, surveys, and controlled interviews. They also identify a third component in their consideration, which is a set of special procedures: time series analysis, sociometry, expertise (brainstorming, Delphi method, and others).

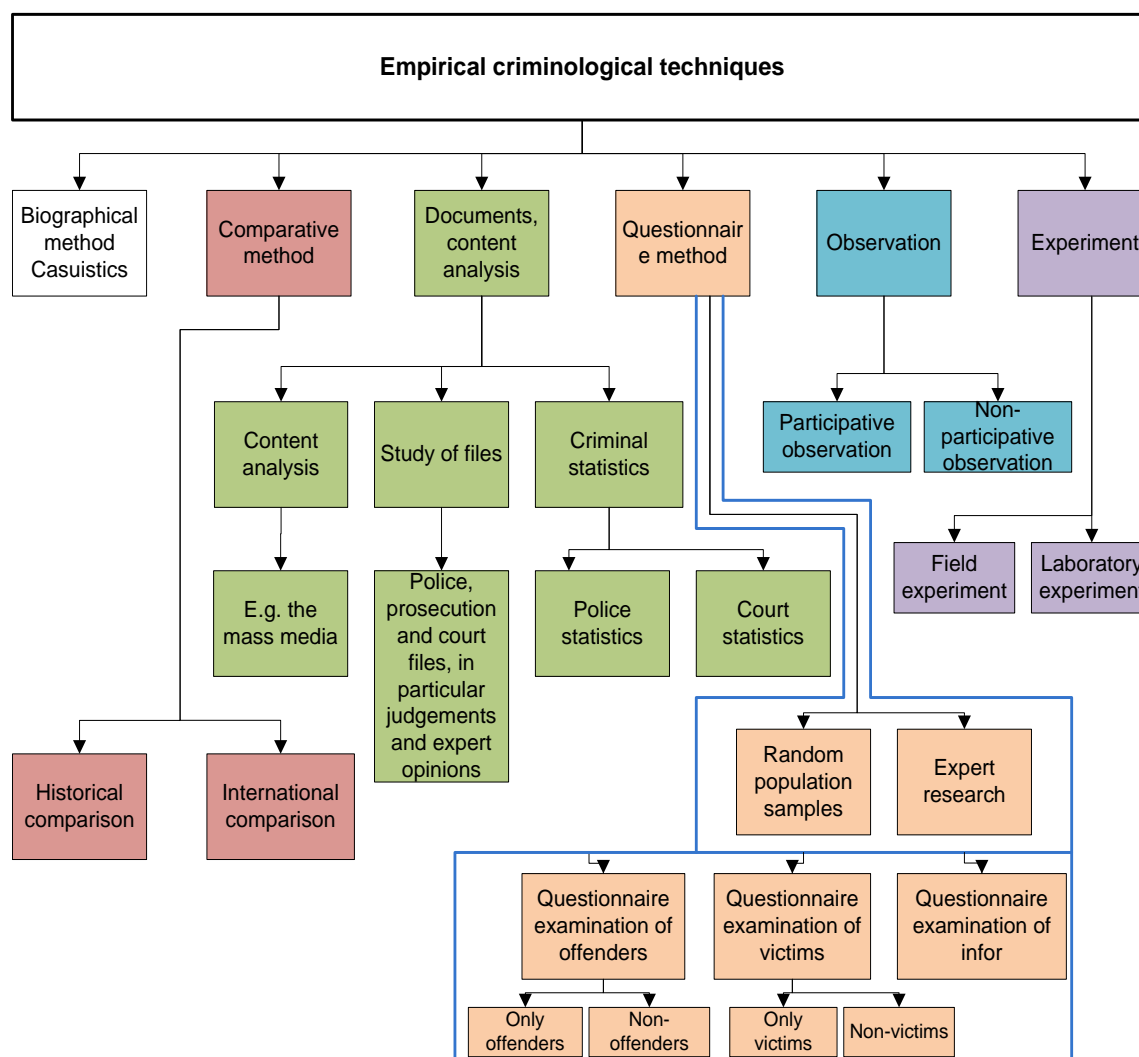
Holcr (2008, pp. 168-155) presented a more generally oriented approach. He considers the following three methods to be the basic methods of criminological research:

1. *Observation* (standardised, non-standardised, participant, non-participant, natural and laboratory)
2. *Inquiry* a) interview (standardised, non-standardised)
 b) Questionnaires and surveys
3. *Documentary method* a) official and unofficial documents
 b) primary and secondary documents.

In this approach, the following formula applies: method = observation, technique = standardised and non-standardised observation + related records (a form of confirmation of observed facts). In this textbook, the reader can find instructional descriptions of the content of specific methods suitable for those who want get involved in conducting their own scientific and research activities.

When analysing the methods of criminology (second chapter) and the relationship between methods and techniques, renowned German criminologist G. Kaiser built upon the following considerations: “In order to be able to work empirically, we need research techniques. Criminological research is a special form of empirical social research which can be seen as a special form of scientific research. Therefore, the objectives and strategies of research are determined by the function and selection of criminological methods. The measures of assessment of *adequacy and quality of research methods* (correctness criteria), which are used for the processing of a specific research issue, are also derived from this context. Any controversy in respect of the quality and credibility of research results originates in the strategic base of the research, not in the analysis and critique of its professional quality” (Kaiser, G., 1994, p. 26).

Review of empirical criminological techniques according to G. Kaiser (p. 34).



Criminology as a science also has an important predictive function. The importance of this function is increasing in recent years. Crime forecasting developed at the borderline of prognostics and criminology by adapting its general requirements to the specific phenomena which are subject of criminology. Renowned authors (e.g. Holcr) emphasise that prognostics is a not a science about the future, but rather a meta-science developing a system of methodology, methods and forms for the elaboration of prognoses.

Crime forecasting is an exceptionally demanding scientific activity. It employs specific methods to achieve its goals. Below are the methods for elaboration of prognoses according to Holcr (2008, p.163):

Historical and logical analogy	→	Serves as the primary information about the possible development tendencies and trends guaranteeing that the significant parameters of the prognosis are complete.
Extrapolation	→	The basic instruments for the development of prognoses. They are used to obtain, systemise and, after statistical processing, develop final interpretation of quantitative and qualitative parameters of the phenomena being forecasted.
Delphi method	→	
Brainstorming	→	
Heuristic methods	→	Used to rationalise and systemise the intellectual creative work in the development of prognoses.
Statistical methods	→	Have supporting functions.

Crime prognoses can take various forms:

From the standpoint of time series, we differentiate between *short-, medium-and long-term prognoses*.

From the standpoint of content, authors of prognoses restrict themselves to three alternatives:

1. *Optimistic alternative* – expectation of the strengthening of decelerative factors, weakening of accelerative criminogenic factors and improvement of the prognostic background (containing both internal and external components).
2. *Realistic alternative* – expectation that the prognostic background and the ratio between accelerative and decelerative factors will retain the current qualitative level.
3. *Pessimistic alternative* – expectation of qualitative deterioration of the factors affecting the development of the crime scene. In this alternative, the accelerative factors are clearly strengthening and the decelerative factors are weakening.

6. PHENOMENOLOGY – DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

Crime is a negative phenomenon that threatens harmonious development of society. Elementary tasks of criminology include the examination of the status, structure, and dynamics of crime. The state, structure, and dynamics of criminal activity are subject to criminological examination and the results are relevant to all fields of criminology. Criminological knowledge gathering should be a process that precedes the passing of legal norms, as only on the basis of such knowledge we are able to create a criminal code having a stabilised and consistent form. The very benefit of criminological knowledge is apparent in the implementation of criminal law legislation by law enforcement agencies. The need for criminological erudition is an elementary feature for persons working in the field of crime control. What is important for such persons is the knowledge of the perpetrator's crime and personality, based on which such persons are able to correctly qualify the *actus reus* of the crime.

Criminological research may be focused on describing the crime, i.e., its structure, form, dynamics, level, but also on describing the perpetrators and victims. In this respect, we are talking about *criminal phenomenology*, so-called criminography. Phenomenon is a word of Greek origin and means an occurrence, an observable fact, an event. At a philosophical level, it involves our perception of the given fact. At this level, a phenomenon can be subjective, existing only in our mind, not reflecting objective reality. Subjectivism therefore cannot be excluded (a phenomenon of the mind). An unusual, excellent person may also be referred to as a phenomenon. In criminology, phenomenology constitutes the basis for its thinking. On the basis of crime-related facts occurring in the reality of a society's life, it assesses its state, structure, and dynamics. Crime is a phenomenon of concern, being variable and constantly developing, responding to changes in the society and exploiting shortcomings not only in the legislation but also in authorities whose primary objective is to suppress crime, which is why it is important to record phenomenological knowledge about crime. Criminological research is aimed not only at describing crime but also at the genesis of crime which is the subject of *criminal etiology*. The term etiology refers to examination of the causes for the occurrence of various phenomena. Research into the causes of crime appears to be a theoretical issue; however, in practice, we often see crime causes being confused for conditions. An analysis of the given issue is therefore extremely desirable. Its objective is to contribute to clarifying the causes of crime for today's legal practice and to crime causality issue being adequately understood and developed in relation to current problems of

contemporary law. What is also important is to view the issue of causality in the historical context, i.e., how the causes of crime were understood in the past and what solutions were sought. Examining the causes is not only a problem of criminology but rather it is a multidisciplinary one and criminology is a multidisciplinary science. The analysis requires insight into philosophical problems as well as into individual criminological schools.

Etiological criminology examines the causes of crime, i.e., those facts that in effect stimulate crime, and, at the same time, it examines the conditions enabling crime causes to have effect. Internal (endogenous) factors include those caused by a studied system's element having effect within the system itself. Internal factors, i.e., aspects affecting the individual, can include their motivation, personality disorders, quality of the intellect, and the like. External (exogenous) factors are an important aspect concerning individual's socialisation in the environment. One of the basic prerequisites for a person to become a personality is their involvement in social relationships. External criminogenic factors may be divided into the following areas: social, cultural, political, economic, legal, victimological, biological, and psychological.

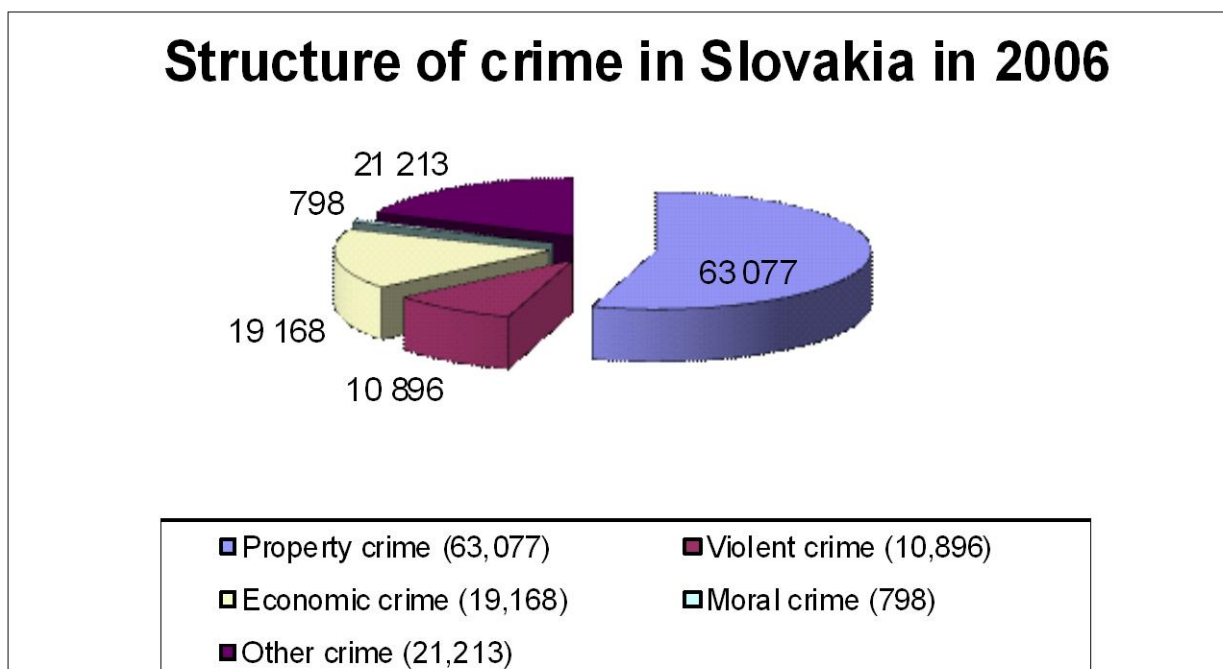
State of crime is the basic quantitative indicator that is expressed in absolute figures. These characterise the frequency of crimes committed and, eventually, represent the most general external aspect of crime. In authors' opinion, a higher-quality indicator used in the comparisons among regions within a state and among states is the *crime index (level)* which provides objective assessment of crime with respect to demographic development of society.

Crime index is calculated using the following formula:

$$I = \frac{\text{Number of perpetrators or number of crimes (CO)}}{\text{The number of criminally liable persons or the total population of a country}} \times 10,000 \text{ or } 100,000$$

On the basis of the above we can now calculate the Slovak Republic's crime index per 100,000 population. In 2006, there were 115,152 crimes recorded in the Slovak Republic, the population being 5,385,000. The total crime index in this case is 2,138 crimes and is calculated as the ratio of recorded crimes to the total population of the Slovak Republic (i.e., in the age of 0 to 100 years).

Structure of crime is a qualitative indicator expressing the proportion of types and groups of crimes in the total number of all crimes committed within a territory in a specific period of time. This indicator also provides information on the most serious crimes (e.g., for crimes against morality that represent a significant criminogenic factor influencing the general development of crime in the Slovak Republic and including, in particular, the crimes of rape and sexual abuse) that are considered to be especially dangerous to society and therefore this knowledge needs to be characterised and detailed. Structure of crime may be expressed in several features that may concern not only groups of crimes but also the perpetrators or victims, e.g., considering their structure, reoffenders' contribution to crime rate, etc. The structure of individual crime types in the Slovak Republic in 2006 is illustrated in the following chart.

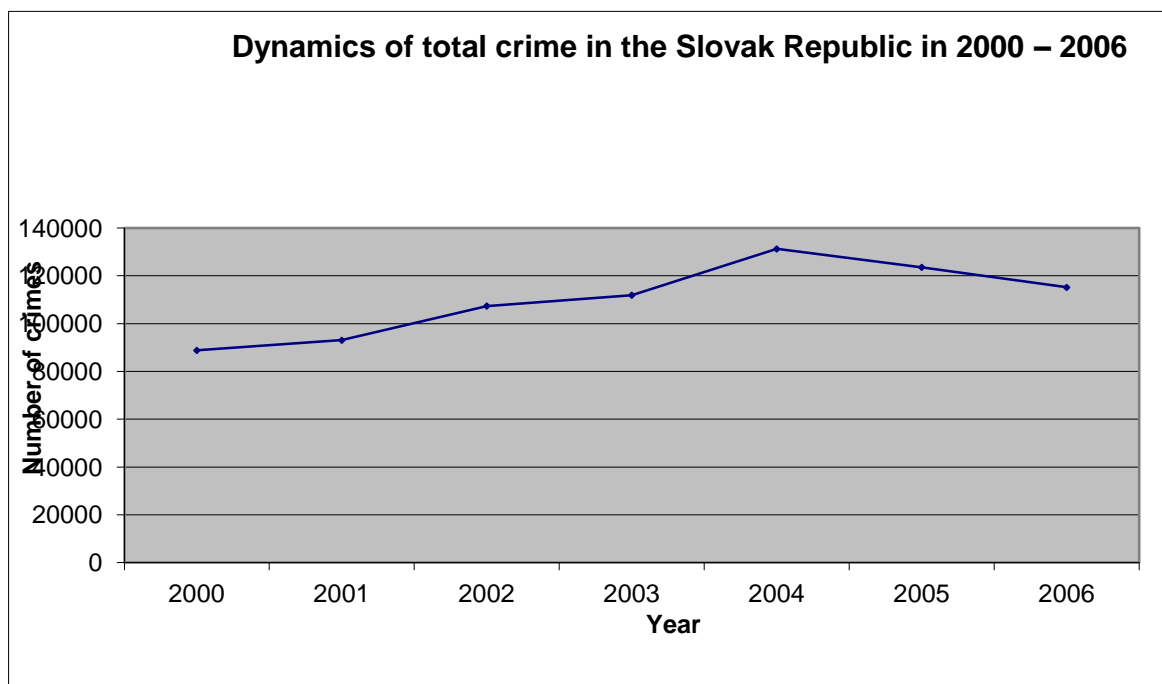


Graf 1: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2006

In addition to the above, it is important to realise that criminal activity is usually also analysed with respect to territorial distribution and this is the focus of *criminal geography*. Individual pieces of data enable us to notice the different frequency of crime in certain territorial units being influenced by varied criminogenic factors (employment, economic growth, population structure, etc.).

Dynamics of crime shows criminal activity in motion and change in a certain specific period of time within a certain territory. It is important to note that crime is a phenomenon that is flexible and constantly changing and it is particularly the dynamics of crime that enables us to observe the development curve of recorded crime. Individual changes may be

explained, e.g., by the changing situation in the society. The illustrative example shows the crime rate in the time period of 2000 – 2006.



Graf 2: Dynamics of total crime in the Slovak Republic in 2000 – 2006

The dynamics of crime is often linked to the notion of *tendency of crime* or *trend of crime*. On the basis of individual pieces of information it is concluded whether crime stagnates in the given period or, to the contrary, has an increasing or decreasing trend.

The term of *apparent crime* refers to all crimes we are aware of through statistical data, i.e., the recorded crime. *Latent crime* puts the recorded crime data in perspective, which means that the data on the state, structure and dynamics of crime are not absolute. Latent crimes are considered to include those that were not revealed by law enforcement agencies and therefore are not statistically supported. Certain crimes that, although revealed, are concealed by the competent persons and are essentially not recorded in official statistics, are referred to as *artificially latent*. To analyse the actual crime rate it is necessary to examine the scope of latent crime, particularly through criminological research. The best known research method is the so-called self-report, in which the respondents (perpetrators) themselves inform whether they committed any criminal act or became aware of any crimes. It should be noted that self-report has its weaknesses, as the respondents have a tendency to confess to less serious crimes. Additional forms include the research among informers or victims of crime. All these types of research consist of questionnaires filled in anonymously.

The notion of black number defines criminal activity that the law enforcement agencies have not become aware of. Grey number reflects crimes that the law enforcement agencies became aware of but they failed to track down the perpetrators.

Criminal statistics are the official source of information on recorded (apparent) crime. The key institutions providing this kind of information include, in particular: Police Corps of the Slovak Republic, Public Prosecution Office of the Slovak Republic, Ministry of Justice of the Slovak Republic, and Prison and Justice Guard Corps of the Slovak Republic.

Individual pieces of knowledge concerning recorded crime are published in the Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for the relevant calendar year. This report provides comprehensive information on recorded and cleared crimes for the respective calendar year, examines individual crime types, considers traffic safety situation, perpetrators of crime, victims of crime, etc. Police statistics represent one of the basic pieces of knowledge about crime, covering not only the crime recording system but also the traffic police statistics. The Public Prosecution Office, the Ministry of Justice and the Prison and Justice Guard Corps of the Slovak Republic provide statistical data in yearbooks for each calendar year. There are objections against statistical data referring to its relevancy and pointing out the hidden latency already mentioned or excessive interpretation that is often misused.

7. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC IN 1989 – 1999

7.1 DEFINITIONS OF TERMS FOR THE MOST IMPORTANT CRIME TYPES IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC AND THEIR CLASSIFICATION IN CRIMINAL LAW

Criminology views *property crime* as an attack against other person's property regardless of who owns such property. Specialised police teams or work groups were established to achieve more efficient suppression and clarification of the most serious property crimes. This involves, in particular, the area of motor vehicle theft, shoplifting, etc. The definition of property crime in criminal law is based on the Penal Code summarising property crimes particularly in Section IV of the Special Part of the Penal Code No 300/2005 (crimes against property). It is important to point out the fact that certain crimes, such as the crime of fraud, misappropriation, and other, do not occur in the phenomenology of property crime, but are most frequently included in the phenomenology of economic crime where they constitute the most important ones with respect to the number of cases.

The structure of property crime comprises the following groups of property crimes:

- burglaries, e.g., in apartments, accommodation facilities, shops, etc. (comprise serious property criminal activity and contribute a high proportion to property crime),
- other theft, e.g. of items from means of transport, pickpocketing, etc.
- other property crimes, e.g. poaching.

The notion of *violent crime* is not understood uniformly in criminology and is included in general crime. Violent crime along with crimes against morality are considered to be a significant criminogenic factor influencing the general crime rate in the country. They are also considered to be an indicator of state's success in crime control. Violence is defined in the Penal Code No 300/2005 in § 122(2) as follows: „a crime is committed using violence where the perpetrator uses physical violence against the physical integrity of another person who was brought to the state of being defenceless by the perpetrator using a trick, or where the perpetrator uses violence against other person's property“. Violent crimes are listed particularly in Section I of the Special Part of the Penal Code No 300/2005 (crimes against life and health).

One of the first to attempt to define economic crime was Edwin Hardin Sutherland. He referred to this phenomenon as white collar crime in 1940.

Recommendation of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe No. R (81) 12 delimits the concept of economic crime into:

1. Cartel offences,
2. Fraudulent practices and abuse of economic situation by multinational companies,
3. Fraudulent procurement or abuse of state or international organisations' grants,
4. Computer crime,
5. Bogus firms,
6. Faking of company balance sheets and book-keeping offences,
7. Fraud concerning economic situation and corporate capital of companies,
8. Violation by a company of standards of security and health concerning employees,
9. Fraud to the detriment of creditors,
10. Consumer fraud,
11. Unfair competition,
12. Fiscal offences and evasion of social costs by enterprises,
13. Customs offences,
14. Offences concerning money and currency regulations,

15. Stock exchange and bank offences,
16. Offences against the environment.

The considerable growth of economic activity in Council of Europe member states and the development of international economic relations often give rise to the commission of criminal offences. Considering that economic crime:

- causes loss to a large number of people (partners, shareholders, employees, competitors, customers, creditors), to the community as a whole and even to the state, which has to bear a heavy financial burden or suffers a considerable loss of revenue;
- harms the national and/or international economy;
- causes a certain loss of confidence in the economic system itself. (Recommendation No. R (81) 12.)

Economic crime is covered, in particular, by Section V of the Special Part of the Penal Code No 300/2005 (economic criminal offences) dividing economic offences into four groups.

One of the factors in defining *crimes against morality* is that they are closely linked to sexual urge. Not only they are gross violations of morality, they also leave long lasting moral and ethical consequences in the victim. This type of crime is characteristic by mostly involving deliberate action for which the perpetrators prepare in advance. These offences are defined, in particular, in Section II (crimes against freedom and human dignity), in Section III (crimes against family and youth), and in Section IX (crimes against other rights and freedoms) of the Special Part of the Penal Code No 300/2005.

7.2 PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC IN 1989 – 1999

The development of crime rate until 1989 was relatively stabilised and a sharp increase occurred only after the social and political changes in 1989. The total crime rate was characterised by abrupt increase that culminated in 1993 with 146,125 recorded offences. A moderate decrease was seen after 1994 which may be illustrated by “only” 94,016 offences recorded in 1999. The crime clearance rate in 1989 was nearly 88 % (40,723 cleared crimes) while in 1993, the crime clearance rate dropped to the level of nearly 36% (52,981 cleared crimes). Gradually the crime clearance rate increased and in 1999 it was 50.1% (i.e., 47,067

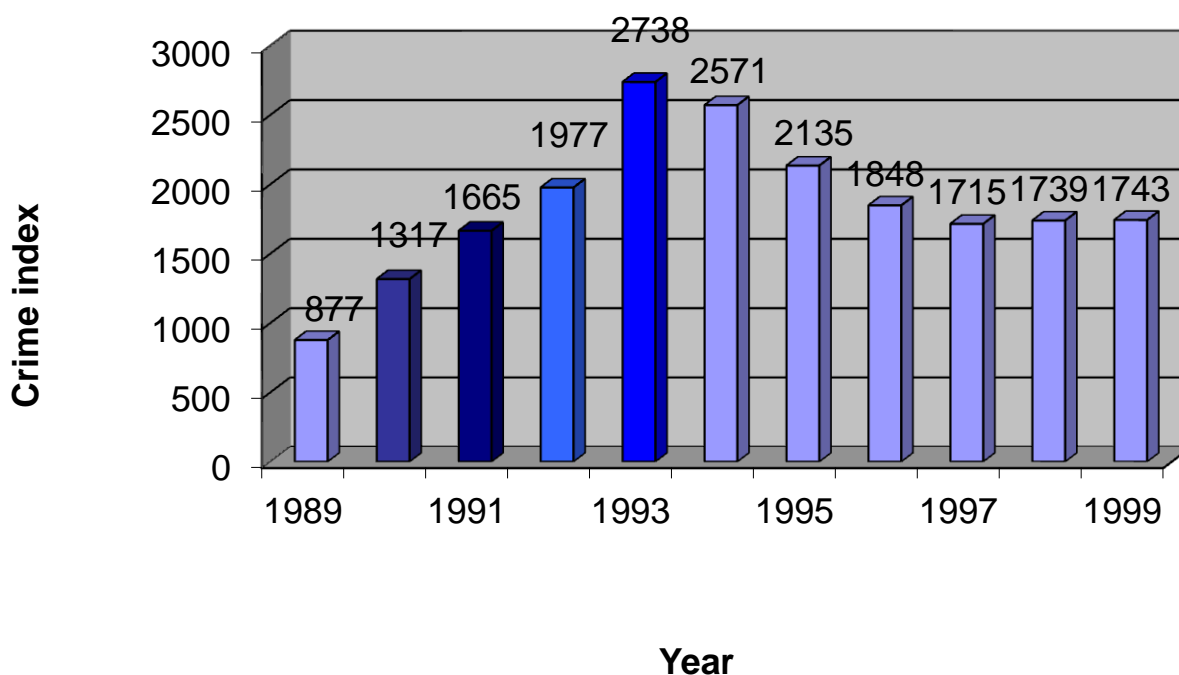
cleared crimes). It was noticeably complex to compile the following table and it would therefore be useful to consider a solution to this problem. Slovakia lacks an entity that would keep records of individual pieces of data in a coordinated and comprehensive manner.

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Property crime increased 2.5 times in the period of 1990 – 1993 and its proportion in the total crime rate in 1993 increased nearly to 80%. The above-mentioned fact clearly indicates that property crime was the dominant type of crime in this period in the Slovak Republic. Since 1994, a decrease was seen; however, this was caused particularly by an amendment to the criminal law. The most important amendments included the amendment to the Penal Code of 1994 (§ 89(14)) which defined the “non-negligible damage” as twofold of the minimum monthly wage separating thus offences from crimes. The minimum wage was determined by Government Ordinance on Minimum Wage No 645/1992 at 2,200 Czechoslovak korunas per month for an employee remunerated by monthly salary. This step effectively reduced primarily property crime, as it increased the number of offences against property that were not classified as crimes any more.

There was a decrease occurring in *violent crime* relative to total crime rate ending in 1993, as opposed to total crime rate that culminated in this period. Starting from the beginning of 1993, regular annual growth of the proportion of violent crime in the total crime rate occurred. *Economic crime* saw changes in the period concerned, however, of an insignificant nature. In 1990, economic crime moderately decreased (3,943 economic crimes) and since 1992 (5,188 economic crimes) it started to moderately increase. In 1997 and 1998, it started to drop slightly again and in 1999, an upturn was seen (5,902 economic crimes). *Crime against morality* significantly fell after 1989 (3,543 moral crimes) compared to 1990 (1,037 moral crimes). Crime against morality held this tendency until the end of the monitored period, i.e., until 1999 (721 moral crimes).

Crime index in the Slovak Republic in 1989 - 1999 per 100 000 population



Graf 3: Crime index in the Slovak Republic in 1989 – 1999

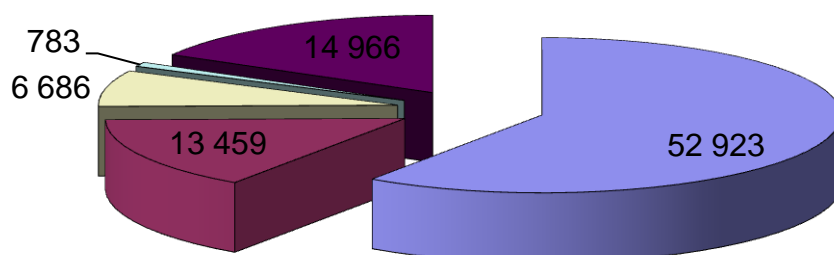
Criminal activity reached the lowest value in 1989 and culminated in 1993 with the criminal index of 2,738 crimes per 100,000 population. Starting from this period, a decrease was observed that at the end of the period in question reached 1,743 crimes per 100,000 population.

8. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN THE SLOVAK REPUBLIC IN 2000 – 2006

8.1. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2000

In this year, elimination of crime continued, successfully following up the previous years. In total, 88,817 crimes were recorded in 2000 which is less by 5,199 than in 1999. This piece of data was positively influenced by the conceptual documents adopted by the Ministry of Interior of the Slovak Republic and by the Police Corps of the Slovak Republic. With the above mentioned total crime rate it should be noted that 47,107 crimes were cleared. Damages caused within the period in question reached SKK 18.5 billion (*the conversion rate of € 1 = SKK 30,1260 was set on 8 July 2008 by the Economic and Financial Affairs Council, ECOFIN, composed of finance ministers of European Union member states*). The greatest occurrence of criminal activity was seen in the Bratislava region with 85.7% of all crimes of the Bratislava region being committed in the city of Bratislava.

Crime structure in Slovakia in 2000



Property crime (52,923)	Violent crime (13,459)
Economic crime (6,686)	Moral crime (783)
Other crime (14,966)	

Graf 4: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2000

YEAR 2000	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	52,923	13,459	6,686	783	14,966
<i>Share (%)</i>	59.58%	15.15%	7.52%	0.88%	16.85%

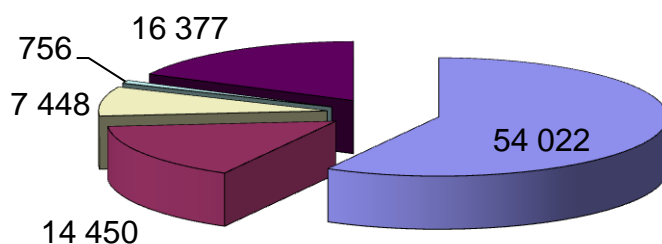
Tabuľka 1: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2000

The following chart shows that property crime keeps the largest share of the total crime. In the long term, property crime has ranked first in the number of crimes and compared to 1993, its decrease is evident. Crime index is a relatively objective indicator of crime level reflecting also the demographic development of the society which improves its objectivity. When we use the crime index to compare these years, we find that in 2000, there were 1,644 crimes committed per 100,000 population, which is less by 1,094 in comparison with 1993. In the period in question expressed through crime index, property crime contributed 980 property crimes per 100,000 population, violent crime covered 249 crimes, economic crime included 124 crimes and moral crime 14 crimes (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2000, electronic version).

8.2. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2001

In the examined period, 93,053 crimes were recorded which is an increase by 4,236 crimes compared to 2000. The trend of crime indicates an upsurge in organised crime, corruption, and decline of moral values. Of the total number of recorded crimes, 50,818 were cleared which amounts to 54.6%. The damages reached SKK 12.2 billion in the examined period, which is a decrease by SKK 6.3 billion compared to the previous period. From the territorial aspect, the largest occurrence of crime was seen in the Bratislava region (20%) but gradually crime is being pushed out of the capital to country's districts. A reverse trend, one of increase in crime, was seen in the Košice and Prešov regions.

Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2001



Property crime (54,022)	Violent crime (14,450)
Economic crime (7,448)	Moral crime (756)
Other crime (16,377)	

Graf 5: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2001

YEAR 2001	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	54,022	14,450	7,448	756	16,377
<i>Share (%)</i>	58.08%	15.53%	8.00%	0.81%	17.60%

Tabuľka 2: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2001

Considering the crime index per 100,000 population it is obvious that the value of the total crime rate slightly increased again to the value of 1,730 crimes per 100,000 population. Crime index saw an increase in the given period in all types of selected crimes except for moral crime. In property crime, the index was 1,004 property crimes per 100,000 population, violent crime included 269 crimes, economic crime 138 crimes, and for moral crime, as it was already mentioned, the index remained unchanged at the value of the year 2000, i.e., 14 moral crimes per 100,000 population (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2001, electronic version).

Starting from 1 August 2001, the amount of the “non-negligible damage” changed to nearly SKK 9,000 which caused part of crimes to become offences. This probably occurred due to political reasons to enable political parties to show success in combating crime.

In the given year, an increase was seen in the number of illegal migrants through the state border of the Slovak Republic. This trend is perceived sensitively, primarily with respect to internationalisation of organised crime, extremism, terrorism, and other forms of criminal activity. The increase in the number of migrants is demonstrated as an example in the following table showing an evident increase in the number of refugee status applicants in the Slovak Republic after 2000.

YEAR	ASYLUM APPLICANTS	ASYLUM GRANTED	ASYLUM NOT GRANTED	GRANTED/ NOT GRANTED/ AP *	PROCEDURE TERMINATED	IN PROGRESS, 1 st instance decision	IN PROGRESS, 2nd instance decision	SLOVAK CITIZENSHIP GRANTED
2000	1556	11	123		1366	400		0
2001	8151	18	130		6154	2248		11
2002	9743	20	309		8053	3609		59
2003	10358	11	531		10656	2769		42
2004	11395	15	1592		11782	775		21
2005	3549	25	827		2930	542		2
2006	2871	8	861		1940	512	92	5
08/2007	2045	8	886	52/491	1222	304	391	16

* AP - Additional Protection

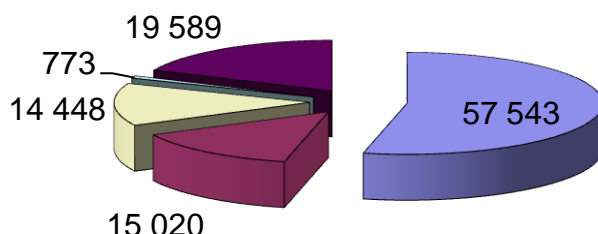
** asylums not granted and rejected applications already included in the “Asylum not granted” column at the stage of appeals to regional courts and to the Supreme Court, i.e., being dealt with further in the appeal procedure.

Tabuľka 3: Overview of the number of refugee status applicants in Slovakia in 2000 – 2006

8.3. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2002

Comparing 2001 and 2002 it should be noted that in 2002, a moderate increase was seen in the number of recorded crimes, this figure being 107,373 (of which 55,212 crimes were cleared). The damages reached SKK 28.8 billion in the examined period, which is more by SKK 16.6 billion compared to the previous period. Of the selected types of crime, the most significantly increasing tendency can be seen in economic crime. The number of economic crimes committed increased after 2001 to nearly twofold (14,448 crimes). This fact was significantly contributed to by an increase in fraudulent actions dominating economic crime and also by successful reduction of latency by law enforcement agencies. After the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 against the World Trade Center in the USA (3,047 innocent people being killed), activity of extremist movements was seen also in Slovakia.

Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2002



■ Property crime (57,543)	■ Violent crime (15,020)
■ Economic crime (14,448)	■ Moral crime (773)
■ Other crime (19,589)	

Graf 6: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2002

YEAR 2002	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	57,543	15,020	14,448	773	19,589
<i>Share (%)</i>	53.62%	13.99%	13.46%	0.72%	18.25%

Tabuľka 4: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2002

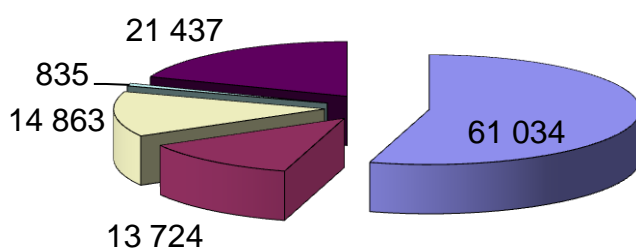
The crime index saw a moderate increase with the total of 1,996 crimes committed per 100,000 population. Property crime included 1,070 crimes per 100,000 population. Other types of crime increased, again with an exception for moral crime. For violent crime, the value of crime index per 100,000 population was 279 crimes, and economic crime saw a considerable increase. In the said year, 131 economic crimes more were committed per 100,000 population, the total value of economic crime index being 269 crimes. Moral crime underwent no change and its crime index reached the value of 14 crimes (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2002, electronic version).

8.4. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2003

The year 2003 was characterised by deepening social and economic differences among individual population groups. What was also seen was an increase in manifestations of radicalism and extremism. Despite the above it should be noted that there were no significant attacks among the citizens and that the given situation was influenced by multiple international attacks abroad. In 2002, terrorist attacks were committed particularly in Moscow with nearly 1,000 hostages held, of whom 130 innocent hostages were killed during police action, and in Bali with 202 people killed, of whom 88 were Australians. Australia is a terrorist target due to complicated reasons but the main reason is that terrorists feel threatened by Australia and by Australian example of a clearly successful modern society. Terrorists mention Australia as an US ally referring to the situation in East Timor, Australia's attitude to Afghanistan, and Australia's participation in the coalition in the war of Iraq as part of the plan of the West and, at the same time, part of a secret plot to humiliate and degrade the Muslim world.

There were 111,893 crimes recorded in the given year. This increase was caused by several factors that created conditions for the commission of crime. 56 451 crimes were cleared and the damage caused by criminal activity reached as many as SKK 61.7 billion. A significant increase in damages was recorded in comparison with the previous year, by as many as SKK 32.9 billion. It is important to note with respect to damages caused that economic crime has been recently increasing in the Slovak Republic with a dynamically growing scope and severity. This increase is influenced by several factors with many economic crimes remaining latent. Economic criminal activity significantly damages protected state interest, particularly considering the financial damage caused, which considerably reduces income items of the state budget.

Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2003



■ Property crime (61,034)	■ Violent crime (13,724)
■ Economic crime (14,863)	■ Moral crime (835)
■ Other crime (21,437)	

Graf 7: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2003

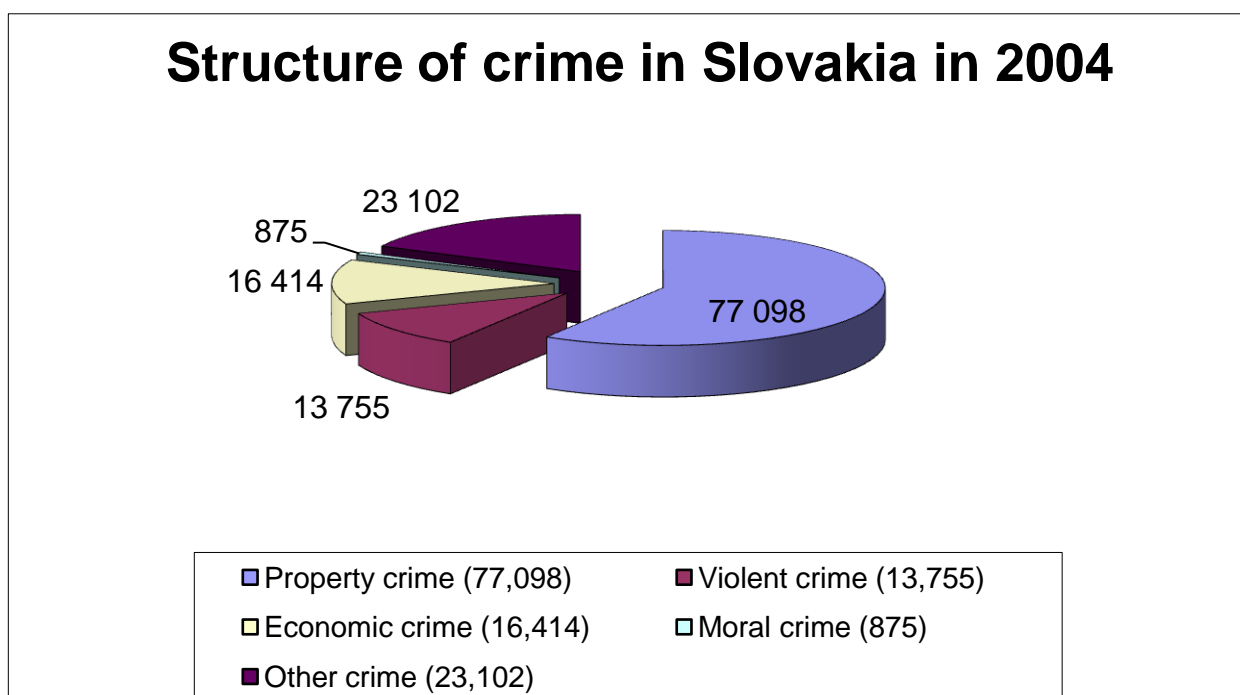
YEAR 2003	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	61,034	13,724	14,863	835	21,437
<i>Share (%)</i>	54.59%	12.27%	13.29%	0.74%	19.17%

Tabuľka 5: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2003

Total crime index in 2003 had the highest value since 1994 (2,078 crimes per 100,000 population). Property crime saw a moderate increase with 1,134 crimes committed per 100,000 population in the examined period. Violent crime decreased, the value of crime index being 255 crimes. The economic crime index per 100,000 population was 276 crimes and for moral crime, the crime index value was 16 crimes (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2003, electronic version).

8.5. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2004

This period may be characterised by an increase in property crime that has a significant impact on the total crime rate. 131,244 crimes were recorded in 2004, which is an increase by 19,287 crimes. 51,635 crimes were cleared in this period but a significant increase in cleared economic crimes should be pointed out. Damages caused in the examined period reached SKK 43.1 billion. The above shows a decrease in the amount of damages by SKK 18.6 billion compared to the year 2003.



Graf 8: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2004

YEAR 2004	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	77,098	13,755	16,414	875	23,102
<i>Share (%)</i>	58.76%	10.48%	12.51%	0.66%	17.60%

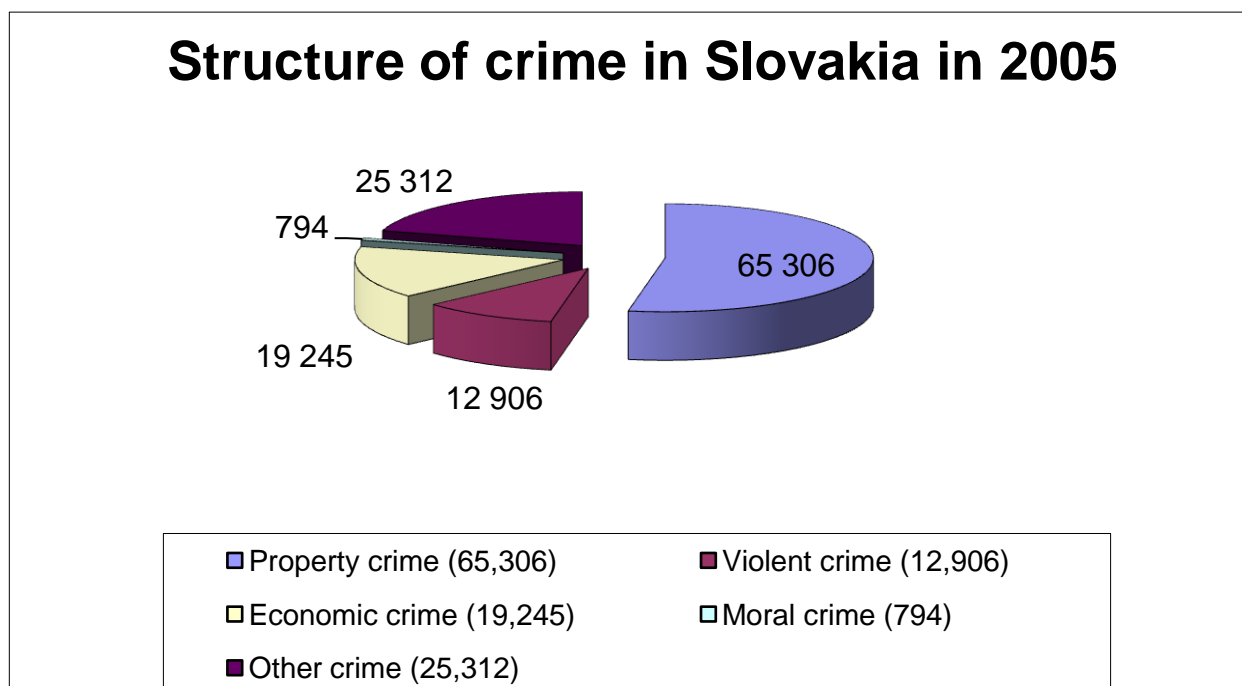
Tabuľka 6: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2004

The total crime index underwent an increase, as there were 2,437 crimes per 100,000 population committed in 2004. Property crime saw an increase and the crime index per 100,000 population was 1,432 property crimes (between 2000 and 2004, a gradual increase in

the value of property crime index was recorded). In violent crime, the index was 255 violent crimes, in economic crime the index was 305 economic crimes, and for moral crime, there were 16 moral crimes per 100,000 population (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2004, electronic version).

8.6. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2005

In 2005, there were 123,563 crimes recorded with 60,093 crimes being cleared, which is the highest figure since 1993. Damages caused by criminal activity in the examined period reached SKK 58.3 billion. This period is characterised by a decrease of not only property crime but also violent crime. In 2005, fewer crimes were committed than in 2004 indicating the fact that economic crime has a rising tendency not only considering the number of crimes detected but also the damages caused by this kind of crime.



Graf 9: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2005

YEAR 2005	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	65,306	12,906	19,245	794	25,312
<i>Share (%)</i>	52.87%	10.45%	15.58%	0.64%	20.49%

Tabuľka 7: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2005

Total crime index moderately dropped and reached 2,295 crimes per 100,000 population. Property crime decreased, as the crime index reached the value of 1,212 property crimes per 100,000 population, violent crime index was 239 violent crimes per 100,000 population, economic crime included 357 crimes per 100,000 population, and for moral crime the crime index had the value of 15 moral crimes (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2005, electronic version).

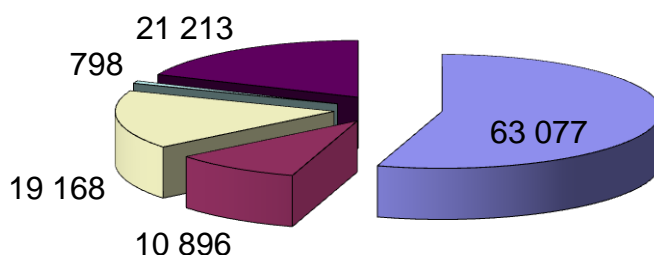
8.7. PHENOMENOLOGY OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2006

In 2006, fewer crimes were detected than in the previous year. 115,152 crimes were recorded in the examined period, of which 53,245 crimes were cleared. Damages caused by criminal activity significantly dropped in the examined period and reached SKK 14.2 billion. The crime development trend continued in the given year and a drop was seen particularly in property and violent crime which followed up the previous years. A moderate decrease was seen also in economic crime. An important point that had been expected to bring a change in economic crime and that was not eventually passed was the effort to introduce criminal liability of legal entities. What was involved was the breaking of the old Roman principle of “societas delinquere non potest” which is the basis of the principle of individual criminal liability applied in this country. From the territorial aspect, the largest occurrence of crime was seen in the Bratislava region (20% share of Slovakia’s total crime rate).

In this year, 2006, a new Penal Code No 300/2005 and the new Criminal Code No 301/2005 came into effect (passed by the National Council of the Slovak Republic in May 2005) concluding the effort of recodifying criminal law in Slovakia. One of the basic tasks of the recodification was to apply the latest criminological knowledge and respond thus to the continuous development of crime. The new criminal codes (in authors’ opinion) abandoned the principles such as decriminalisation and depenalisation which constitute a long-term

strategy for criminal law. And it is particularly the criminological knowledge that should aid in their application.

Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2006



■ Property crime (63,077)	■ Violent crime (10,896)
■ Economic crime (19,168)	■ Moral crime (798)
■ Other crime (21,213)	

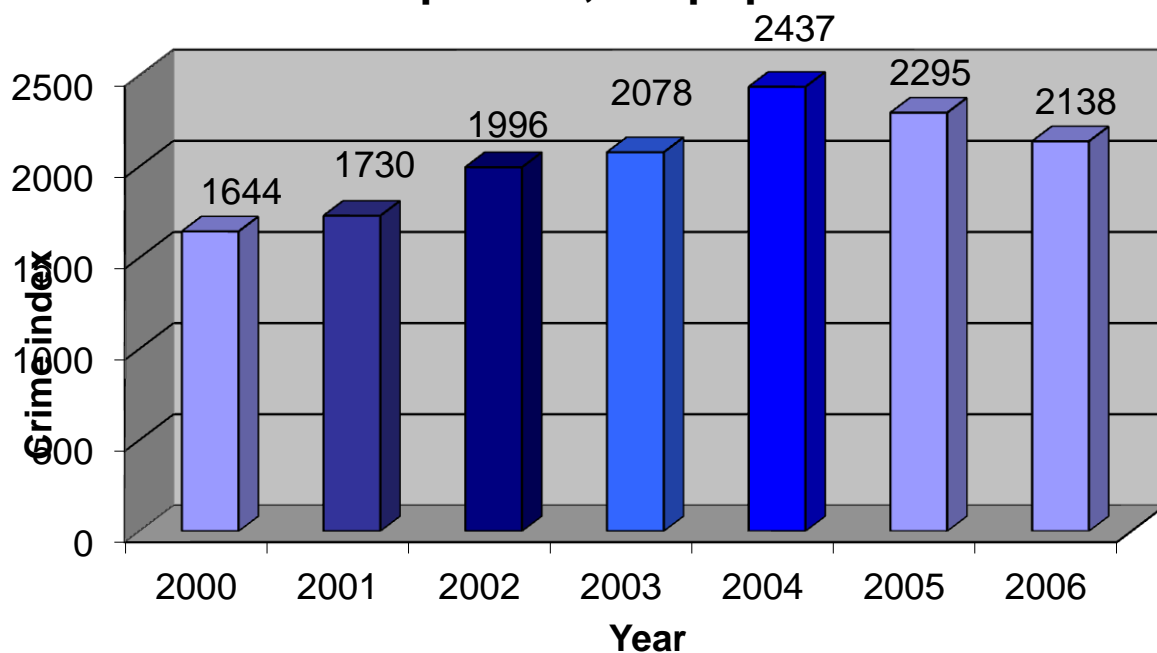
Graf 10: Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2006

YEAR 2006	Property crime	Violent crime	Economic crime	Moral crime	Other crime
<i>number of crimes</i>	63,077	10,896	19,168	798	21,213
<i>Share (%)</i>	54.80%	9.46%	16.65%	0.69%	18.43%

Tabuľka 8: Share of selected crime types in Slovakia in 2006

In 2006, the crime index was 2,138 crimes per 100,000 population, based on which it can be concluded that it moderately declined compared to the previous two years. Property crime had the crime index value of 1,171 property crimes per 100,000 population, violent crime index was 202 violent crimes, economic crime included 355 economic crimes, and for moral crime it was 15 moral crimes per 100,000 population (Report on the Security Situation in the Slovak Republic for 2006, electronic version).

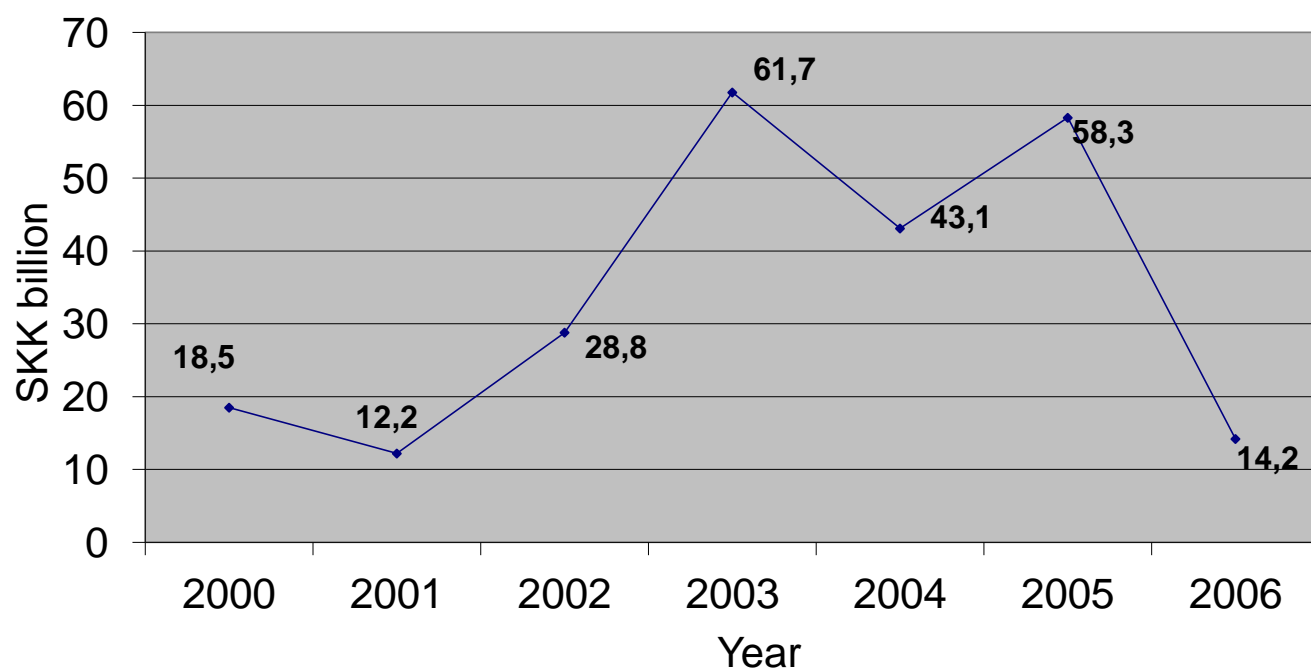
Crime index in the Slovak Republic in 2000 - 2006 per 100,000 population



Graf 11: Crime index in the Slovak Republic in 2000 – 2006

It can be seen from the above table that the crime index had the highest value in 2004, namely 2,437 crimes per 100,000 population. It should also be noted that the crime index gradually decreased to 2,138 crimes per 100,000 population in 2006.

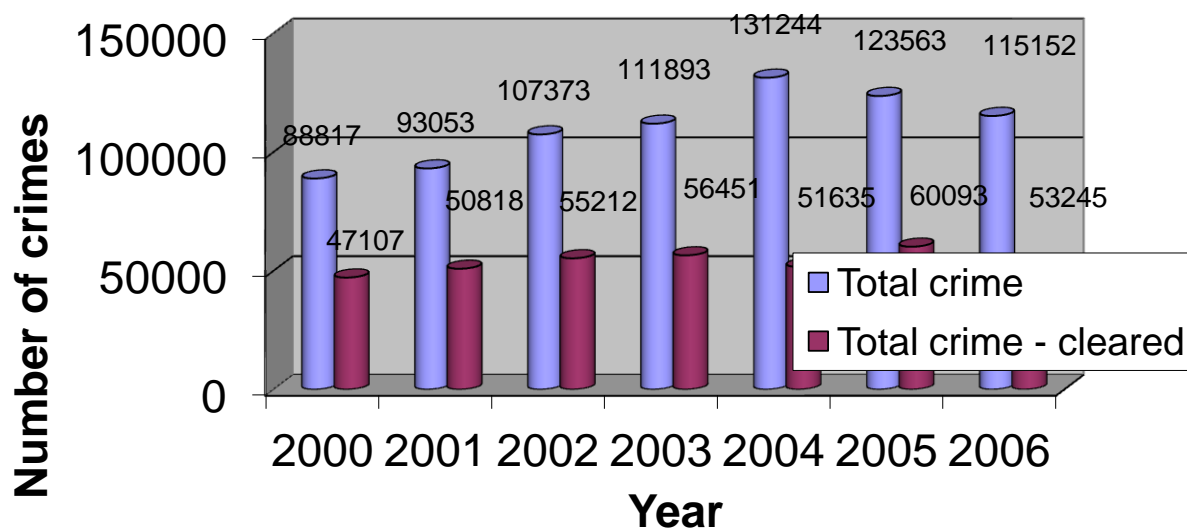
Damages caused by criminal activity in 2000 – 2006



Graf 12: Damages caused by criminal activity in 2000 – 2006

In 2000, damages caused by criminal activity were SKK 18.5 billion. Economic crime accounted for more than two thirds of the total damage recorded (SKK 14.1 billion). The lowest damages caused by criminal activity were documented in 2001, namely in the amount of SKK 12.2 billion (of which as many as SKK 8.0 billion being caused by economic crime). In 2003, the amount of damages caused by criminal activity was as many as SKK 61.7 billion and since then, it was gradually decreasing. In 2006, criminal activity resulted in damages of SKK 14.2 billion.

Development of crime in the Slovak Republic in 2000 - 2006

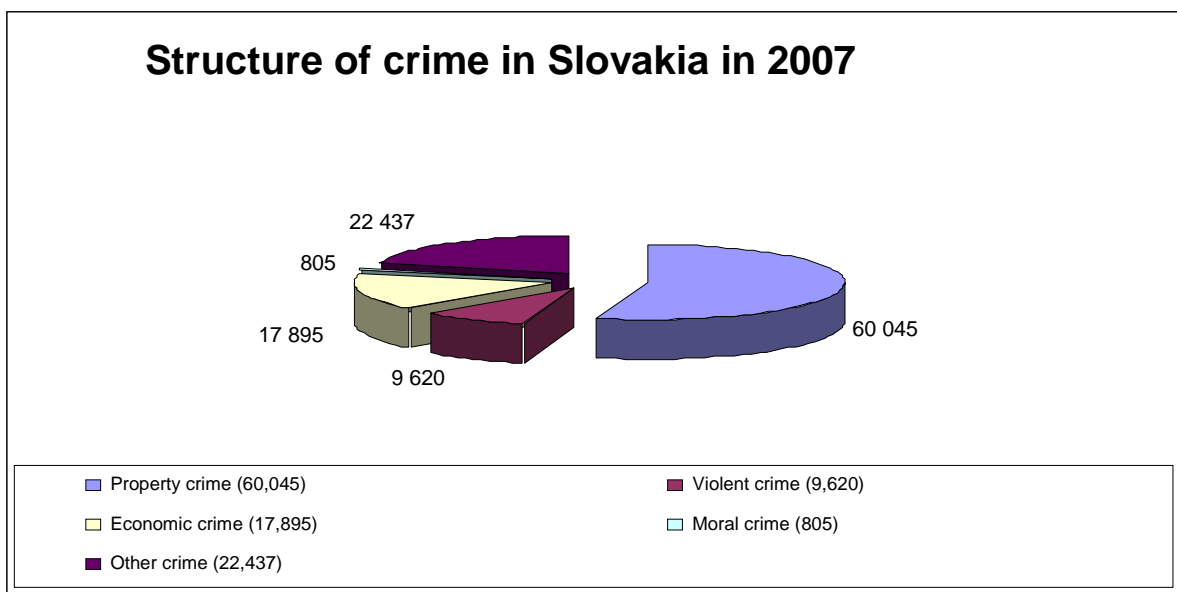


Graf 13: Development of crime in the Slovak Republic in 2000 – 2006

Examining the development of crime in the defined period, a culmination of recorded crimes in 2004 is apparent (131,244 crimes). The crime clearance rate in 2000 was 53% while in 2006, the crime clearance rate amounted to 46%, which is a drop of 7%.

9. STRUCTURE OF CRIME IN SLOVAKIA IN 2007

There were 110,802 crimes recorded in the period under examination. This is less compared to the previous year (by 4,350 crimes). The total amount of damages amounted to SKK 16.8 billion. Damages resulting from economic crime alone reached SKK 11.7 billion. 52,929 crimes in total were cleared. From the territorial aspect, in this year as well, the largest occurrence of crime was seen in the Bratislava region with nearly 23% of all crimes detected in Slovakia.

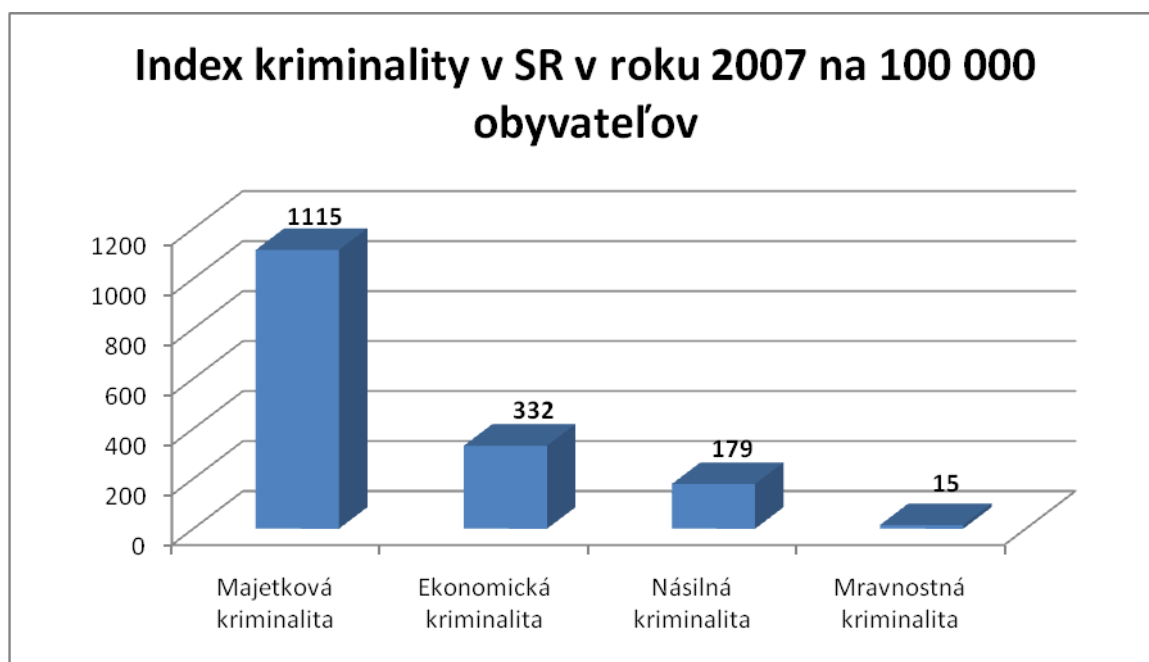


Graf 14: *Structure of crime in Slovakia in 2007*

In 2007, there were 60,045 property crimes, 17,895 economic crimes, 9,620 violent crimes, and 805 moral crimes detected. The share of property crime in total crime was nearly 54%. The structure of property crime comprises, in particular, burglaries amounting to 17,148 cases in the period in question, theft of two-track motor vehicles (4,530), and single-track motor vehicles (189). The structure of economic crime in the period under consideration was as follows: 3,794 cases of credit fraud (§ 222 of the Penal Code), 3,762 cases of fraud (§ 221 of the Penal Code), 639 cases of tax and insurance premium evasion (§ 277 of the Penal Code), 593 cases of curtailment of tax and insurance premiums (§ 276 of the Penal Code), 473 cases of violation of regulations governing state technical measures on goods labelling (§ 279 of the Penal Code), and 269 cases of failure to pay tax (§ 278 of the Penal code), etc. The structure of violent crime comprises, in particular, the crimes of robbery amounting to a total

of 1,429 in the year under consideration (§ 188 of the Penal Code). These crimes (combined with robbery assault) are usually committed in greater metropolitan areas providing the perpetrators with greater anonymity. There were 1,276 cases of robbery assault against persons (§ 188 of the Penal Code), 913 cases of blackmail (§ 189 of the Penal Code), 20 cases of coercion (§ 190, 191), etc. Moral crimes are varied and the victims included especially women and children.

The total crime index saw a moderate decrease compared to 2006, as in 2007, there were 2,058 crimes committed in Slovakia per 100,000 population. The value of the property crime index in the period under examination was 1,115 crimes, the value of the economic crime index was 332 economic crimes, the violent crime index was 179 violent crimes, and the moral crime index was 15 moral crimes per 100,000 population.



Graf 15: *Crime index in Slovakia in 2007*

10. CRIME OFFENDERS

CHARACTERISTICS OF CRIME OFFENDERS IN CRIMINOLOGY

Under criminal law, the perpetrator of a criminal act is a person who has him- or herself committed a criminal offence. Only a natural person can be a perpetrator of a criminal act (Part Two, p. 19). Criminology takes this approach of the criminal law into account and extends its area of interest to include offenders who have no criminal liability, insane persons, and persons who contribute to the continued existence of negative social phenomena. In addition to the quantitative difference, there is also a qualitative one. Criminal law protects the letter of the law and seeks whether there are convincing facts (evidence) that it has been violated. Criminology elucidates the causes of the offender's criminal activity in broader contexts. Its point of interest is the personality of the person involved in criminal activity and its social determinants. It explores these characteristics to understand thoroughly the personality determinants of the offender's behaviour and to estimate his or her behaviour in the future. These findings greatly influence the quality of reintegration of offenders and make it possible to develop effective programmes.

The characteristics of crime offenders that are of interest to criminology include the offender's age, gender, marital status, education, profession, the nature of his or her group or social environment, etc. These characteristics also include the offender's criminal track record (first-time offender or recidivist). For instance, the typical profile of a house robber, which is an issue that we researched into in 1996 as part of an interdisciplinary team, was a man aged between 15 and 30, single, with elementary education, unemployed, and a first-time offender from a working class family environment (Baláž, P., 1996, p. 18). The age of the offender is of particular importance in both criminology and criminal legislation. Each development period has specific psychological qualities and in each of these development stages there are different dynamics of personality development and specific risks of social failure, i.e. of becoming an offender or victim of a criminal act. This issue is the subject of ontogenetic psychology, while forensic psychology gives law authorities (investigators, prosecutors, judges, etc.) recommendations in respect of a possible social failure. This discipline draws attention to the specific characteristics of child, juvenile, adult and regression age and, in this context, to the specific biological, psychological and social aspects of the commission of crime. These findings impact legal practice as such and play an important role in penitentiary

and post-penitentiary care and in preventive activities at all levels. The gender of a typical offender is no surprise despite the higher proportion of women in total population. The dominance of men in this respect is well-known and results from the physical and mental differences between men and women. For instance, an average adult man is 13 cm taller, 9 to 13 kg heavier, has more muscle tissue and 12% less fat than a woman. Men perspire more than women and have one million more blood cells in each drop of blood. They absorb 30% less alcohol into their blood stream and have 10% higher lung capacity than women. The majority of men are physically more aggressive than the majority of women (hunting, duels, fights at the pub...). It is of little surprise then that men dominate criminal statistics. Men commit as many as 89% of the total number of murders, robberies and rapes (Kassin, S., 2007, p. 302).

Characteristics of crime offenders in Slovakia

As the information collected during the monitoring period between 1997 and 2005 has shown, men were the most frequent perpetrators of criminal activity in Slovakia (in terms of total crime, property crime, crime against morality, and violent and economic crime). These offenders were typically aged between 18 and 30, most of them had elementary education with a tendency towards secondary education, they were unemployed or employed but mostly with an average or lower than average standard of living, and they were first-time offenders.

In the recent period, the profile of offenders is becoming more structured. They are no longer automatically persons with a low level of education, low standard of living and pathological family environment (despite the information collected). Some criminal offences are specific in that they are committed by persons with university education and a good social status (see economic crime). There are many mentions of criminality specific for child and juvenile age. Many of the juveniles or even children come from well-heeled backgrounds. Rather than material shortage, their motivations to commit crime include a lack of chastity, desire for adventure, or the effort to identify themselves with, and hold up as part of, an anti-socially oriented peer group (Various authors, Police Force Academy, 2006, p. 77).

As the above considerations suggest, education is an exceptionally dynamic factor playing an increasingly important role in the identification of the personality of the offender and his or her social behaviour. On the one hand, the established trend from the past when the group of offenders was dominated by persons who had incomplete, or major problems to complete, elementary education, continues. On the other hand, along with the increasing proportion of certain types of crime, for instance economic crime, persons with a higher level of education (secondary or higher) play an increasingly bigger role in crime dynamics. The relationship between occupation and criminal activity points towards an interesting

connection. According to surveys, certain groups of offenders commit specific criminal activity (see: Various authors, Police Force Academy, 2003, p. 88):

- unsuccessful entrepreneurs – economic and property crime,
- homeless persons – property and violent crime,
- successful entrepreneurs – economic crime,
- unemployed – property crime,
- pensioners – property crime.

In respect of criminal track record, in particular criminal recidivism, aggressiveness comes to the forefront as a personality dimension of criminal aggression. While aggression is a violent and destructive component of behaviour and an offensive reaction to an impulse, aggressiveness is a relatively permanent behavioural disposition or personality trait (Heretik, 1994, p. 144-145). Aggressiveness is often related to personality disorders – psychopathies (e.g. aggressive psychopath, paranoid psychopath, etc.). Experts emphasise that aggressiveness stems from innate biological factors and learning (especially social learning). In the case of crime offenders, it is frequently multiplied by psychosocial influences which help develop their hostility underlining their unfriendly attitude to other people, negativism, bitterness or aversion.

Testimony from a 30-year old man who has been diagnosed as polymorphic psychopath with an average intellect.

“I don’t know my parents, they’re allegedly dead. I don’t know anything about my siblings. I was in a children’s home since I was three. I didn’t like it there and when I grew older I would often run away. I had no friends and I would often get into fights when I was a child. I finished elementary school in the seventh grade; I didn’t like school. When I was fifteen I started to drink beer. Nobody could drink as many beers as me. I find work boring and I only seldom had a job. I’m not used to following orders. I was also married for two months but I didn’t like it. I’ve already undergone alcohol treatment in prison. I’ve been to a mental hospital shortly for four times. I am locked up for the fifth time and I have served eight years. I was convicted of rape this time. I went to a pub and I drank around ten beers and a few rums. A girl was sitting at the next table that I thought was around eighteen. I liked her so I sat down next to her. We talked. After around half an hour she wanted to go home so I offered that I would accompany her. We weren’t that far from the pub when I grabbed her and wanted to make love with her. She defended herself. So I hit her a few times, she fell down and I left her lying there. I am not sure if I’ve been justly convicted. I killed her but I didn’t rape her.” (Nemec, J, 1993, p. 13).

The personality of the crime offender is of exceptional interest to criminology. The term ‘personality’ comes from the Latin word *persona* – a mask worn by the Antic actor to typify the character that he played. Some criminal acts, such as bank robberies, show us that a

mask can hide the real face of the offender. Therefore, an excursion into the personality of a crime offender lets us get deeper into the essence and causes of their activity. Today, there are many definitions or views on the definitions of personality. Contemporary criminology textbooks show that criminology ever more frequently uses definitions and knowledge of psychology (the system of psychological sciences). In our textbook, we favour the traditional definition by Tardy (1964): Personality is the individual unity of man - a unity of his mental properties and process based on the unity of body and formed and manifested in his social relations. When analysing this and other definitions, certain social attributes can be noticed that could be used as a theoretical basis for considerations on the personality of crime offenders. This includes the following attributes: integrity, integrity of the mental structures that define personality, the unique nature of their development, layout and manifestation, connection between the mental and the physical/physiological, social essence of personality, and the effort to integrate actively into the external world (natural or specifically social).

CONTRIBUTION OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY TO THE EXPLORATION OF OFFENDERS

The personality of an offender contains all of the attributes of the personality definition that we know from personality psychology. This definition of personality is marked by integrity of mental structures, uniqueness, connection between the biological and the mental and social essence. This is complemented by the personality's specific path in life (mental development).

The above attributes contained in the general characteristics of a personality show that personality is an expression of and the only factor enabling transformation of the influence of the external environment on the individual. This also means that personality is not just a structure; it is clearly a complex system harmonically functioning in the social field. This statement stems from the understanding that personality is a diversely differentiated unity of internal determinations (given abilities and capacity of individuals) and external forces (living conditions and influence of the society) complemented by mental regulation. These characteristics count on the personality's activities as such, as well as on the dynamics of the complexly structured living environment (the macro, meso and micro environment).

They also provide an explanation to the following fact: Studies dealing closely with the personality of offenders found certain common attributes for each group of criminal acts. At the same time, they concluded that there is no global personality structure that would typify crime offenders and differentiate them from non-offenders. The differences in the

commission of criminal acts cannot be sought only in stable structural elements of personality. The dynamics of internalisation and adoption of the influences of exogenous factors (the environment or upbringing) in these structures and subsequently their actual projection in the mental regulation of a certain criminal act deserve closer attention.

The most frequent components of the mental structure of a personality and offender's personality include: motivation and determination, abilities, character and temperament.

The issue of **motivation** is most closely related to the dynamics of internalisation of exogenous factors. This is an inner mental process inducing (possibly boosting or weakening), maintaining and targeting the activity of a person. A complex personality dimension develops on this basis – the determination of personality where, in fact, the dominating factors accumulate. These are most markedly reflected in the person's social relations, his life objectives and methods of attaining them. This is a process also present in the personality of an offender.

The motivation behind the acts of house robbers today is in principle identical with that of the ordinary population. The difference lies in the anti-social determination of this activity. From the standpoint of motivation, house thieves are driven by many of the motives that are typical for the preparation and performance of any other human activity. Our findings suggest that the aspect of performance behaviour is reinforced by the fact that thieves consider house robbery, however paradoxically it may sound, to be their job; they ignore the social views of this activity and for it to be successful they have to undertake difficult and dangerous activities involving something mysterious and unexpected. They have considerable aspirations in the sense of the high requirements on their "job" and they find it difficult to quit this activity despite its frequently difficult and risky nature. They have little concern for the future and focus on the current situation and success of their next operation (Dianiška, G. et al.:1999, pp. 91 – 94).

The offender's **abilities** play an important role in his activity. They are a requirement for success and high performance in his anti-social activity. The general intellectual ability – intelligence – holds a key position among the general abilities. This ability, which enables the offender to resolve new situations by getting to the core of them, act efficiently and cope with changes in the environment, has always attracted the greatest attention of researchers exploring the personality of offenders. At the beginning of this century, many studies found abnormally high incidence of mentally underdeveloped individuals in the delinquent population. This led to the erroneous conclusion that mental retardation is a causal factor of delinquent behaviour. It was increasingly confirmed that the initial studies on the relationship between delinquent behaviour and intelligence were based on incorrect presumptions and this relationship was shifted to a more realistic platform.

Intellectual potential as a basic factor in the behaviour of house robbers also played part in how the delinquent activity matured and was performed. The intellectual potential detected is related to the development of the general cognitive framework of the robber's personality and, as has been confirmed by criminological findings, his character and method of social adaptation go in the same direction. The minimum (IQ-67) and maximum (IQ-130) intelligence quotient scores suggest that the idea of a house robber as a person with under average intelligence is no longer valid in today's world. Rather, the range and average of the intellectual potential of prisoners – robbers – indicates that the offenders do not differ from the average of the population in this factor. Imprisonment sentences are served by persons with under-average, average as well as above-average intellectual quotient. The offenders of this serious crime blend with the average population. The increasing level of this criminal activity and the inventive forms and methods of how this activity is committed demonstrates that people with the most varied and increasingly higher intellectual potential become involved in this activity (Ditto: pp. 89 – 91).

The character of a personality represents an essential regulatory constant reflecting its relationship to the society, other people, work and itself. It has a great influence on the volition of any person. Temperament, in close correlation with other structural elements, makes mental activity dynamic and thus greatly affects the strength of reactions of each personality (including offenders) to external forces and the ability to control one's own experience and behaviour.

Thanks to a look through the prism of the above facts, it was understood already in the past that, compared to an ordinary citizens, the personality of an offender is typified by social inadaptability and dangerousness. Obviously, this can be further reinforced by attributes of endogenous origin (heredity, innateness), the development and functioning of a personality. The personality of the offender greatly lacks in the area of self-development and self-control.

Violators of law and ethical norms are frequently quite distinctive in emotional instability, impulsiveness, spontaneous and reactive aggressiveness, adventurousness, intolerance, readiness for risk-taking, negative self-evaluation, and reduced self-control. These attributes gain a more complex form in recidivist personalities where the necessary interiorisation of the influence of exogenous factors and employment of one's own individual capacity for a positive change in their life have not taken place.

The results from the EPQ-R questionnaire (Eysenck personality questionnaire for adults) enabled us to develop a characterisation of a house robber: a house robber is an extrovert who does not differ in any way from average "healthy" population; the low degree of psychoticism (hardness) does not make him an unconventional personality that would differ from the surrounding society. The usual standards of the average population in the

addiction scale are not exceeded. Differences should be sought in the increased level of spontaneous aggressiveness, impulsiveness, social uncontrollability and conformity with criminal groups. Lie is used in particular as an emergency blanket protecting the planning and realisation of the deviant activity. He enjoys risk-taking despite the alternation between positive and negative states. He is not afraid of danger and can regulate the states of anxiety and excitement. Socialisation and the feeling of blame for the consequences of his activity are completely unknown to him (Ditto: pp. 94-98).

The above results of studies into the personality of house robbers show that certain established or one-sided views of psychology and criminology on these issues need to be overcome. It seems that what L. Čírtková and F. Červinka claim in their “Forensic Psychology” (1994, p. 154) textbook is of great methodological importance for future research into the personality of offenders. These authors underline that the concept of absolute, fundamental and permanent deviation of the personality of offenders from the non-criminal majority is a dispelled myth of forensic psychology and, we should add, criminology. Many research activities and experience confirm this trend and underscore the needs for a deeper and more thorough application of the findings of personality psychology.

Below we give twelve contradictory personality dimensions. Circle your chosen value from the eight-degree scale to create your own idea of the personality of a house robber. The description of the scale in the example will help you.									
Example:									
nervous	very nervous	somewhat nervous	quite nervous	slightly nervous	a little bit nervous	quite calm	somewhat calm	very calm	
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Calm
Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Non-aggressive
Discontented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Contented
Excitable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Relaxed
Sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Unsociable, reserved
Calm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Irritable
Dominant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Malleable
Restrained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Spontaneous
Open	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Reclusive
Extrovert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Introvert

<i>Emotionally unstable</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>Emotionally stable</i>
<i>Masculinity (typical male self-description)</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>Femininity (typical female self-description)</i>

From the psychological point of view, the personality type of a typical house robber is one with a strong tendency towards extroversion (sanguine character type). The personality profile is very dynamic and is open to change in the future. The personality profile may also be affected by low detection rate and low sentences imposed by the courts. This may include lengthy criminal processes because it is a long and well known fact that early punishment is effective punishment. This process may be, and is affected, by the upswing of new types of criminal activity, an increase in the number of drug addicts and an increased proportion of organised crime in property crime. The quality of police work, willingness or unwillingness of the public to cooperate with the police in the detection of crime, reduction of influence from primary groups, in particular family, and increased influence from informal antisocial groups, may also play a role in the transformation of the personality profile.

PROCESSUAL AND STRUCTURAL APPROACH TO CRIME OFFENDERS

Personality psychology provides a broad platform for exploring the personality of offenders in criminology. It makes it possible to look at this problem from various perspectives and raises diverse questions. Not only the **personality structure** (as was suggested in the preceding point), but also **personality dynamics** (interpretation of human experience and behaviour) can be the object of attention. Also, we should not forget the issue of the mental development of personality. It is no surprise then that almost every psychological study (even if it is part of an interdisciplinary study) begins and ends with the issue of personality.

The **processual (dynamic) approach** to exploring the personality of offenders is related to the psychology of criminal behaviour. It concentrates on analysis and interpretation of mental processes experienced by the offender prior to, in the course of, and after the commission of a criminal act. Since this concerns a specific activity and criminal personality, personality psychology does not deal with this issue directly. This is an issue of direct relevance to a sub-discipline of forensic psychology - criminological psychology. Knowledge

from other sub-disciplines of the system of forensic psychology – investigative, legal, penitentiary and post-penitentiary psychology – is also employed.

Even though there are differences in opinion between specific concepts, certain consensus has been reached as to what traits are typical for criminal behaviour. These traits provided a basis for a collective monograph entitled “Personality of the Offender” (1985), in which the authors attempt to create a psychological typology of crime offenders. These traits are also mentioned by L. Čírtková and F. Červinka in their Forensic Psychology textbook (1994, p. 151). The personality of offenders is characterised by and, to a certain extent, differentiated from the rest of the population, by:

- an inclination to direct and immediate satisfaction of needs (i.e. lack of chastity)
- an inclination to subjectivity and relativity with respect to moral and legal norms (i.e. egocentrism),
- various modifications and handicaps in motivational processes, e.g. certain phases of decision-making are skipped (i.e. impulsiveness), internal constraints are dysfunctional (i.e. character defects), neutralisation of the consequences of behaviour (rejection of the fact that there is a victim, trivialisation of the damage caused), etc.

These findings are an interesting contribution to the methodology of forensic psychology research and enable us to look for new approaches to the exploration of personality in criminology.

The processual approach requires that we answer the following question: How does an individual mature to be mentally ready to act in a criminal manner? The answer can be found through an analysis of his mental processes, states and qualities that trigger, maintain and give a concrete form to criminal activity.

What mental phenomena are behind criminal behaviour?

A study led by R. R. Hazelwood and J. A. Douglas and commissioned by the FBI analysed the personality of 36 perpetrators of bizarre sadistic murders. These murders manifested an obvious sexual subtext in the manner of behaviour (e.g. assault at genitalia, post-mortem disfigurement of the victim, etc.). It turned out that rather than driven by sexual need in the sense of an activated desire for sexual satisfaction, the criminal acts were planned through aggressive delusional fantasising. According to the FBI study, these are perpetrators who have sadistic

thoughts and fantasies bringing them satisfaction long before they commit the act (Čírtková, L., Červinka, F., 1994, p. 152).

As can be seen, the processual approach to the personality of offenders requires a closer insight into the mental phenomena accompanying a criminal act. In addition to the aforementioned mental processes, criminal behaviour can be motivated by hostility, desire for power (to appear strong and powerful and to control the victim), etc. The anamnesis of such offenders is often dominated by hostile atmosphere in the family and unfair upbringing practices. Physical or mental harassment and sexual abuse is frequently present. In this atmosphere and under the influence of such acts, a child dreams and escapes this environment to a world of bizarre fantasies. The feeling of helplessness and powerlessness is replaced by fantasies about their own strength and power which can bring them respect in the society. A. H. Maslow noted a long time ago: the higher the uncertainty at the level of the need “to be human” (social needs, security and safety), the more marked is the “to be better” level as a compensation (status, power, success, respect).

The **structural approach** deals with **typological concepts**. When trying to answer to the question whether certain specific mental attributes are typical for offenders compared with non-offenders, some attributes can be brought together into certain groups. The **typologies of E. Kretschmer** and **W. H. Sheldon**, which have long been part of personality psychology and provide a basis for forensic psychology, are among the best known typologies. These typologies are based on physical constitution and presume that it is correlated with the mental constitution of personality. In the context of the personality of offenders, they use specific typological attributes as a basis for consideration of the specific forms of criminal behaviour.

Constitutional typologies of E. Kretschmer and typologies of W. H. Sheldon

Author	Body type	Mental type
Kretschmer	<u>PYKNIC</u> medium height, round head, stocky, short forehead, soft muscles, round and wide face	<u>CYCLOTHYMIC</u> realistic, firm, adaptable (to life situations), sociable, emotionally accessible, genial, natural, open, trusting, mostly good-natured, practical, hedonistic, lenient, tolerant
Sheldon	<u>ENDOMORPHIC</u> mostly round shapes, tendency towards obesity	<u>VISCEROTONIC</u> sociable, slowly reacting, relaxed, tolerant, indolent (emphasis on physical comfort)
Criminal behaviour: fraud and violent crime		
Kretschmer	<u>ASTHENIC</u> (leptosomic)	<u>SCHIZOTHYMIC</u> emotionally cold but can be enthusiastic,

	thin, narrow shoulders, narrow chest, thin long limbs with weak muscles, long face, mostly smaller head, sharp profile, visibly bony	resilient or even fanatic, active or inactive, introverted, unsociable, inaccessible, thorough, systematic, one-sided, disciplined or even ascetic
Sheldon	<u>ECTOMORPHIC</u> underdeveloped body parts, fragile, thin, delicate body and thin limbs	<u>CEREBROTONIC</u> rational, fast reactions, emotionally withdrawn, reclusive, touchy
Criminal behaviour: petty crime		
Kretschmer	<u>ATHLETE</u> well-developed bones and muscles, broad shoulders and chest	<u>VISCOUS</u> inwardly balanced even phlegmatic, resilient, taciturn, lacking imagination and sensitivity, adequately active and reliable
Sheldon	<u>MESOMORPHIC</u> firm, strong, high specific weight, physically fit	<u>SOMATOTONIC</u> self-confident, active, dominant, bold, aggressive, adventurous, insensitive, lacking compassion and empathy
Criminal behaviour: mostly violent crime		

There are many other typologies covering both biological and mental types of personality. One of the traditional biological typologies is the aforementioned **Lombroso's concept of born criminal** from the second half of 19th century. **Eysenck's typology** operating with global mental dimensions, such as extroversion, introversion, instability, stability and psychoticism (hardness), is a well know forensic psychology concept. This typology stemmed from the traditional temperament types and gave rise to interesting criminality and addiction scales.

The practical usability of these typologies varies and is sometimes problematic even if only one of them is chosen. Typologies dealing simultaneously with the whole personality, **structure**, **behaviour** and regular psychopathological viewing angles are more meaningful and practical. L. Čírtková and F. Červinka (1994, p. 156) give five basic types of offender personality developed through generalisation of many specific typologies, while taking mental disorders of forensic importance into account:

Five basic types of offender personality	
1.	Socialised (normal) type
2.	Neurotic type
3.	Psychopathic type
4.	Mentally retarded type
5.	Psychotic type

Let's take a closer look at the traits of each of these types:

Socialised (normal) type

- normal personality to which the general knowledge of human experience and behaviour applies,
- the act committed is of an intermittent nature and is a result of situational pressures, negligence or absence of awareness,
- exhibits no marked symptoms of disorders, dealing with such offenders is usually not difficult

1. Neurotic type

- conspicuous personality with minor or major neurotic disorders (anxiety, neurovegetative disorders, depressive moods, hysteric reactions, obsessive intrusive thoughts and acts, etc.),
- criminal behaviour is a result of unresolved emotional conflicts (most frequently in the family),
- they commit criminal acts in their distinctive way and dealing with these offenders is often difficult.

2. Psychopathic type

- very conspicuous (deviated) personality with peculiar and unique behaviour,
- criminal behaviour is an expression of relatively permanent personality disorder (deviation) and rejection, disrespect for and violation of various social and legal norms (sociopath),
- psychopaths account for a large proportion of the criminal population (around 30%) and this proportion increases in

recidivist population (around 70%); dealing with psychopaths is extremely difficult.

In 1964, Gray and Hutchinson conducted a study on psychopaths, patients of almost a thousand of Canadian psychiatrists, using the questionnaire method. Based on their replies, they created a list and ranking of the most significant traits of a psychopathic personality:

1. *unable to learn from experience*
2. *lack of a sense of responsibility*
3. *unable to form meaningful relationships*
4. *unable to control impulses sufficiently*
5. *insufficient moral sense*
6. *chronic or repeated asocial behaviour*
7. *punishment does not change behaviour*
8. *emotionally immature individual*
9. *incapable of remorse*
10. *self-oriented only* (According to: Nemec, J., 1993, p. 19).

3. Mentally retarded type

- personality marked by low intelligence levels. These are persons suffering from mental subnormality or debility,
- the criminal behaviour is a result of primitive personality, which corresponds with the type of their criminal activity (violent crime, sexual assaults against children, animals, etc.); they frequently execute ideas and initiatives of other people,
- recognition of this type of offender is usually easy, but contact with such a person involves the risk of increased suggestibility (uncritical acceptance of the opinions of others, unreliable testimonies, erratic conclusions, etc.).

4. Psychotic type

- a personality suffering from a specific mental illness, i.e. psychosis,
- the criminal behaviour (especially violent criminal acts) is a result of an acute phase of a mental illness, the personality of a psychotic person is often conspicuous due to its bizarre nature, incomprehensibility and often brutality,
- identification of a specific psychosis is very complicated and requires the involvement of psychiatric experts and sometimes clinical psychologists.

A sick person can commit a murder even for 260 dollars

Animal – this was the only word that came to the mind of many in the state of Georgia in 1986 when then 17-year-old Alexander Williams raped and killed beautiful 16-year-old model Aleta Bunch. The only sentence that the prosecution and outraged relatives of the victim were willing to consider was death. The sentence was scheduled to be executed yesterday. However, Alexander Williams is still alive – only few hours before his death, the appeal court commuted the death sentence to life in prison. His defence was able to provide evidence that he suffered from schizophrenia and was abused in childhood.

“The pain and devastation of the parents can never be erased, but by making sure that the offender will remain in a prison cell for the rest of his life is a sufficient punishment and assurance for the society”, said Kathy Browning, spokesperson of the appeal court. She emphasised that this was no precedence in the case of mentally retarded persons, but a “rare combination of the offender’s young age, child abuse and mental illness.”

The U.S. Supreme Court is dealing with a similar case. 18-year-old Daryl Atkins together with an accomplice abducted 21-year-old soldier Eric Nisbett in 1996. They drove him to an isolated location and Atkins shot him eight times in the head. Nisbett had to die only because his murderer needed money for beer. All that the unremorseful murderer took away was 260 dollars – that was the amount for which Atkins committed a murder.

After psychological examination it turned out that due to his low IQ of 59 the murderer probably was not aware of the consequences of his act (Pravda 27.2.2002, p. 8).

OTHER TYPOLOGIES OF CRIME OFFENDERS

Although psychological disciplines boast a wealth of knowledge of the personality of offenders, it is still unfinished and open for further study from the standpoint of the multidisciplinary needs of criminology. So what should be the next steps in research into the personality of crime offenders? An increasing number of authors are raising a different question in this context: How and in what way do offenders differ between each other? Studying the personality of offenders in terms of their specific path in life (mental development) offers many new possibilities. The period of late adolescence and early adulthood, when criminal activities culminate, deserves special attention. An analysis of the positions and roles of men and women in social groups (family, work, etc.) could also provide interesting insights. Many authors agree that there is still a lack of solid information about the latent criminality of women. The personality of offenders is increasingly appearing in unusual and often tabooed topics, such as domestic and child violence. In the future, a growing number of researchers will be interested in the differences between offenders that are a product of migration from developing countries and a result of the opening of the European Union to the acceding countries and allowing for the free movement of persons.

Despite a significant contribution of psychology to the typology of crime offenders, criminology uses a far broader platform for this method, which enables us to create a classification of offenders. This is demonstrated by the fact that typologies were of interest not only to psychological, but also biological, sociological and multi-factor criminological theories. We have already talked about the contributions made by these theories. Also,

typologies emphasising the influence of sociological factors on the formation of the personality of a crime offender have received, and still receive, much attention in criminology. Detailed analysis of these typologies often shows that there are virtually no clean typologies (just like there are no clean temperament types). Typologies always follow a certain purpose and are influenced by the field of specialisation of their authors. For instance, investigators place emphasis on the methods and means of the commission of criminal acts in their typologies and individual types of offenders. We can find classification into bandits, robbers, counterfeiters, thieves (a broad typology divided into further types or specialisations), money forgers, pickpockets, fraudsters and swindlers. The range of types is complemented by racketeers, smugglers and international criminals. In the description, we can find the characteristics of their mental and physical abilities, working habits, the dangerousness of their behaviour for the victims, etc.

An expert witness specialised in clinical psychology does not necessarily have to pay attention only to the insight into the personality of the offender, especially his or her psychopathology. He can also be interested in how the perpetrator of a violent crime comes to terms with his or her moral restraints and the issue of remorse. These internal mental constraints are a strong corrective factor in the majority of people. P. Vavřík (2004, pp. 39-43), clinical psychologist from the Opava Psychiatric Hospital, tried to find an answer to the above question. He analysed the attitude of 47 persons to the violent criminal act that they had committed. This concerned persons who had committed a murder or attempted murder, of whom 36 were men and 11 were women. The age of the offenders was between 16 and 67. The author examined these offenders as an expert witness between 2001 and 2003. The psychiatric examination did not show the presence of any serious psychopathology in any of the offenders; although a dissocial personality disorder was diagnosed in seven cases. P. Vavřík observed the attitudes of the offenders to their crimes, their willingness to accept responsibility and how they tried to diminish or avoid their liability. He divided the sample of 47 offenders into nine typological groups according to their preferred type of gimmicks to avoid their blame and produce an alibi, and, to provide a more graphical depiction, he gave the groups metaphoric names. He did not exclude the possibility of combining these types. He identified nine typological groups of offenders who had committed a murder or attempted murder as follows:

1. Penitent (four from the sample) – unreserved confession, but not dominance of regret.
2. Temporary penitent (three from the sample) – confession with subsequent change in testimony.

3. Unintentional murderer (six from the sample) – confession with the statement that the act was unintentional.
4. Living dead (four from the sample) – trivialisation of the seriousness of the consequences of the assault.
5. Killing touches (four from the sample) – trivialisation of the seriousness of their violence.
6. Sentimental murderer (two from the sample) - rationalising reinterpretation of the motive.
7. Victim of a victim (five from the sample) – interpretation of the assault as provoked violence.
8. Amnesiac (nine from the sample) – denial of memories of their act.
9. Completely innocent (ten from the sample) – denial of the act.

The typology developed by the Czech Criminological Research Institute is an interesting example of acceptance of the multi-factor approach, with prevalence of social determination. The typology identifies eight types of offenders (Marešová, A., 1995, p. 34; according to: Various authors, Police Force Academy, 2003, pp. 98-99).

1. Socialised offender
 - well-formed internal behavioural constraints,
 - commit crime intermittently,
 - mostly first-time offenders,
 - criminal behaviour is usually situation-driven.
2. Unsocialised aggressor
 - aggressive psychopath,
 - self-assertion through aggression,
 - criminal activity “embedded” in the personality,
 - has recidivism prognosis,
 - underdeveloped system of internal constraints.
3. Conforming moron
 - ponderous, obtuse, even subservient,
 - often abused for criminal activity by a dominant individual with higher intellect.
4. Non-abstemious
 - desires satisfaction, high level of instinctive energy,
 - poor (self-)control,
 - most frequently perpetrators of property crime.
5. Neurotic
 - well-developed internal behavioural constraints,
 - criminal behaviour is initiated as a consequence of a failure of these constraints,
 - restricting conscience is present.

- 6. Hostile
 - increased hostility towards the external world,
 - violent crime.
- 7. Submissive
 - identifies himself with the criminal subculture.
- 8. Anxious manipulator
 - assertion of own personality,
 - in a group, inclination to leadership, manipulation of others and assertion of own opinions.

In agreement with Czech (Zapletal, J. et al., 1998, p. 69) and Slovak (Various authors, 2003, pp. 100-101) criminologists, we can argue that, in general, the following applies to crime offenders with regard to the socialisation process:

1. Failure to accept the general norms of the society (do not mistake with the individual's community, the so-called social group, which may be deviant). The degree of internalisation of the norms (i.e. legislation) by the individual to a large extent depends on the tolerance (or rather indifference) of the society as a whole towards the various underlying anti-social manifestations or negative social phenomena.
2. A lack of moral norms as informal constraints to the commission of crime and the related deformation of values. Inadequate moral norms and deformed values are, above all, a result of deviant social microclimate (e.g. violence in the family, a group of thieves, alcoholics, drug addicts, etc.)

11. CRIME VICTIMS

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE VICTIM AND THE OFFENDER

Every crime has an offender and a victim. A person becomes a victim when his or her rights have been objectively and arbitrarily violated and when such a violation is accompanied by a strong emotional experience. The relationship between the victim and offender is a specific perverted form of social interaction. The course of this interaction is influenced not only by the personality structure and dynamics (of both the offender and the victim), but also by the quality of the social relationship and intensity of social situational factors. Hence, the personality of the victim appears to be a situationally structured and bio-psycho-socially uniquely determined system of mental regulation of the social interaction with a dynamically structured and hostile social environment.

Victimology - a relatively young scientific discipline concerned with victims - greatly contributes to the exploration of these issues. J. Musil describes this discipline as part of the criminological science. It deals with crime victims and their role in the process of initiation and course of a criminal act, and in crime detection and investigation. At the same time, it elaborates on the forms of assistance to victims after the crime occurs and methods of preventing the victimisation of potential victims. Victimisation is a process where an individual becomes the victim of a criminal act which was encouraged by the victim's victimity – the predisposition to become a victim of a crime. Analysis of the psychology of victims within the framework of forensic psychology helps, and may help even more in the future, elucidate these issues. The personality of the victim (which qualities lead to victimisation?) is not the only subject of victimology. The relationship between the offender and the victim also has significant psychological and criminological aspects. Similar opportunities can be found through analysing the issues associated with criminal proceedings and the victim's role in the proceedings, finding opportunities for reducing victimisation risks and developing programmes to assist the victims and preventive programmes against victimisation.

From the perspective of psychology (in particular forensic psychology) and criminology, the victim's personality and behaviour are very important in respect to the criminal act, the offender and criminal policy in general. Just like the process of social interaction and its diverse forms (such as social communication), the relationship between the offender and the victim involves two parties. It is always a process involving feedback and it would be neither professionally correct nor just to examine a criminal act without taking this

fact into consideration. Despite these obvious facts, the topic of the victim was, and perhaps still is, one of the most neglected areas of criminal policy. For the time being, the victim mostly has a passive role in criminal proceedings – it poses no threat to the society and thus, in the majority of cases, the society does not consider this role to be dangerous. However, the society's indifference to the fate of victims is of no benefit to them.

In this context, let's mention a few observations or lessons from history:

In the very old days (pre-feudal and early feudal period), the victim chased and punished the offender. When this role was taken over by the feudal lords, the decision-making power and the exercise of rights became the privilege of the newly developing states. As a matter of priority, rather than acts against the victim these states considered acts against the crown to be criminal acts. Victims lost their natural position and found themselves on a sidetrack. The 19th century and the first half of the 20th century provide much evidence of this point. As demonstrated by the number of forensic typologies and criminological theories on crime offenders, major attention was dedicated to offenders and their personality in this period.

Throughout the period of underestimating the issue of the victim, the society developed many communication barriers and social stereotypes. As a result there are private hypotheses being conceived in the heads of judges and private spheres exist where victims have little chance to deal with their situation or harm they may suffer (e.g. violence on children and women, violence in the family, bullying, sexual harassment, etc.) These observations point to the fact that the subjective relationship between the offender and the victim is very close and often disharmonic and unstable. Due to this relationship, identification of the subject and object of a criminal act is often ambiguous and complicated and requires careful analysis. This underlines the need to seek a more balanced relationship between the victim and the offender and correct the disproportion of the relationship to the victim. In connection with this, we should also consider whether the term "injured person" used in criminal law will be adequate in the future (See: Čírtková, L., Červinka, F., 1994, pp. 168 -169).

An extension of scientific knowledge on the relationship between the offender and the victim in the case of criminal acts typical for this relationship offers specific opportunities. Experts talk about four types of relationships between the offender and the victim:

1. personal engagement and bonds,
2. contact before the act occurs,
3. contact while the act is occurring,
4. anonymous victim.

The results of foreign studies provide interesting information for in-depth consideration of these types of relationship. Research findings of our colleagues – Czech criminologists – are of a special practical value in our environment.

In his "Criminology" textbook (1999, p. 109), J. Kuchta cites U.S. studies from 1966. Out of 588 examined cases, 26% were provoked by the victim. In many cases, the victim and the offender shared the same traits and it was a matter of mental resilience or coincidence who would become the murderer. Murders most frequently occurred between persons in a personal relationship or a shared household. Alcohol and sexual deviations played a big part in the murders. Many were murders committed in the heat of passion - a sudden and strong emotional outburst. J. Zapletal (2001, p. 134) documented similar results in Czechoslovakia. He found that only in one fifth of cases the victim was murdered by a completely unrelated person. In two thirds of cases there was a very close relationship between the victim and the offender. In the remaining two thirds of cases the victim and the offender at least knew each other.

J. Musil (2001, p. 134), based on the results of studies from abroad (Jansen, H., 1991) and the Czech Republic (Vernerová, E., 1990), shows that the existence of a relationship between the offender and the victim is typical

for sexual criminal acts, too. H. Jansen found a close relationship between the victim and the offender in 70% of cases. In the case of rape, E. Vernerová found the existence of a close relationship between the offender and the victim in 31% of cases. J. Kuchta cites a Swiss study on sexual abuse from 1977. The majority of victims were girls aged between 12 and 16 who felt neither abused nor seduced. They demonstrated willingness and even sexual activity. 54% of girls from the examined sample had a previous sexual experience, 73% behaved provokingly and 51% fell in love with the offender. The author of the study did not observe any long-term mental damage, which is fairly surprising considering how often raped girls suffer from traumas. These findings, however, had no corrective effect on the established private hypothesis on a just world the effect of which has been observed in criminal trials in cases of raped girls and married and divorced women.

Researchers have also found that there is often a relationship between the victim and the offender even in the case of robberies, although it is not as marked as in the case of murders. In a sample of victims of robbery analysed in 1987, J. Musil (2001, p. 134) found the following: in 59% of the cases the victim and the offender knew each other, of these the relationship was close in 23% of cases and superficial or accidental in 36% of cases. It would be very interesting to investigate whether this data has an influence on the decision-making in courts, i.e. whether they make it possible to look at the issues of blame and degree of harm and compensation more objectively.

The findings of studies on the relationship between the offender and the victim could be of great help in overcoming the stereotypes which that accumulated in the public and greatly influence legal and police practice. Future studies aimed at obtaining data applicable in practice need to avoid the primitive absolutism and polarisation of this relationship. The mutual interdependencies and dynamics of this relationship need to be understood. A deeper examination of the victim's specific path in life (mental development) adds further dynamics to this issue. Experts from the fields of criminology and forensic psychology argue that in addition to certain specific professions, such as policemen, lawyers, postmen, bank personnel, personnel of service stations, taxi drivers, etc., the most endangered groups include people in certain periods of mental development, in particular children and seniors over 60 years of age, and, in terms of gender, women.

J. Kuchta highlighted the following facts with respect to these specific groups: Children are often sexually abused. However, there are contradictory opinions about whether this event in itself can cause permanent damage (see the aforementioned Swiss study from 1977). Some studies show that the general behaviour of the offender, his or her relationship to the child, the phase of mental development of the child, and reactions of the external world can have a more traumatising effect. There are also findings that criminal proceedings often have more harmful impacts on the child than the act itself.

Women are exposed to rape, procuring for prostitution and petty theft. According to surveys conducted in Germany, the proportion of female victims of murders is 58% and this proportion is 44% in the case of murder in robbery and 93% in the case of sexual murders.

Seniors (both men and women) over 60 are most frequently victims of property crime and murders. The offenders exploit their frequent isolation, physical weakness, mental instability, restricted movement and stereotype habits. Stereotypes in social behaviour and

restricted social communication greatly strengthen the feeling of isolation and helplessness and help offenders carry out their criminal activity (Kuchta, J., 1999, pp. 109-110).

The topic of victims raises an urgent need to seek and continuously improve the identification of the risk factors enabling the initiation of the process of victimisation. Below is an example of an inventory of risk factors which, if analysed, could help develop a safe behaviour strategy for an individual:

Based on the risk factors specified below, try to develop your own safe behaviour strategy:

- *clarify and create an overview of your qualities and behaviour that could increase your predisposition to become a victim of a crime,*
- *map out the most frequent situations, activities, times and places in your daily schedule and identify the degree of risk that they may pose,*
- *identify persons whose interest you may attract due to your qualities and behaviour. Identification of these persons may substantially reduce your concerns about anonymous threats and hence narrow the scope of potential offenders,*
- *create a system for the protection of your personal data and information,*
- *consider whether, where and how you could reduce the degree of risk posed by the above factors,*

create an idea, as specific as possible, about the possible course of a pressure situation or incident and prepare and exercise your behaviour.

Typology of victims

Typology as a scientific method enables us to classify crime victims into certain type groups on the basis of similarities and differences between the phenomena under study. Virtually every victim plays a role in the initiation and course of a criminal act as a result of their personality attributes, behaviour, or social situation, role and status. The degree of the victim's involvement in the criminal act may vary. This may cover a broad spectrum from passive to active involvement. As an example, the behaviour may be anywhere on the scale from unintentional encouragement of the offender to direct provocation of hostile aggression. The usual typology criteria include gender, age, and relationship to the offender and the criminal act. Many authors point out that there are victims who desire or seek to be harmed or victims who instigate and provoke the offender. Evidence of this can be found, for example, in Mendelsohn's typology (1963). His typology differentiates between the following victims: innocent, provoking, incautious, unaware, voluntary, ill-meaning and faking.

Along with Mendelsohn, Hentig is another founder of modern victimology (1962, 1978). This author defines the following types in his typology:

1. young victims of inexperience,
2. women – victims of weakness,
3. seniors – victims with physical and mental restrictions,

4. specific groups of victims – mentally ill, mentally retarded, alcoholics, drug addicts, immigrants, ethnic minorities, ponderous, greedy and wanton persons, persons in depression, tyrants and fighters.

These types have above-average risk of becoming a victim. Nevertheless, this risk is not absolute, therefore, in this context, we often talk about a potential victim who has a certain victimogenic potential. In his early deliberations on this issue, Holyst (1985) based his differentiation of the types of victims on the presumption that certain persons are in a way predisposed to become victims. This may be intentional or accidental and may apply to an individual or a group (affiliation to a certain social group or community). For instance, respect for the norms of an anti-socially oriented group may take the form of provocation on the part of the victim, acts of violence by the victim, ignorance of the offender's threats of death, or initiation of a quarrel or fight.

If the social interaction between the offender and the victim is dominated by hostility, the victim may be seen as a dangerous obstacle to the offender's safety and impunity. The offender can either steer clear of the obstacle (and choose a different target) or, if the obstacle is too large, he may leave completely. But often, under the pressure of desire for own security and, in particular, impunity, the offender ironically takes the decision to destroy the obstacle. The social interaction between the offender and the victim needs to be understood as a conflicting process. Even a person pursuing an offender and failing to take the offender's warnings seriously, or disparaging the offender and threatening to file criminal charges, can become a victim. Incautiousness in social interaction very often leads to victimisation.

One of the best known typologies is the **typology of victims according to Fattah** (1976). It is based on the peculiarities of the social interaction between the offender and the victim and takes into **victimogenic factors** account. We usually differentiate between three groups of factors:

- social – this may include affiliation to a social group, profession, position in the family and dominant style of parenting, social atmosphere, social stereotypes, pathology in mental development and family, etc.
- personality – this includes the structure and hierarchy of attributes conditional for victimisation with respect to specific types of criminal acts (e.g. violent, property or sexual crime, and others).

- activity – based on the behaviour of victims, especially risky or incautious behaviour. This includes frequenting dangerous locations, engagement in dangerous activities, at inappropriate hours, verboseness, boasting, etc.

Typology of victims according to Fattah (Čírtková, L., Červinka, F., 1994, p. 170)	
Type of victim	Social interaction
1. Participating victim	The criminal act is preceded by interaction between the victim and the offender which has a great influence on the offender's motivation.
2. Non-participating victim	No interaction between the offender and the victim prior to the criminal act - the motivation behind the criminal act has nothing to do with the victim.
3. Provoking victim	A specific type of interaction between the offender and the victim which has the nature of an activity, e.g. seduction, and usually involves victimogenic personality factors (e.g. lack of chastity).
4. Latent victim	Has attributes of all three victimogenic factors, however, the victim's role and injury are not formally known.
5. Wrong victim	The victim's role is a mistake, misunderstanding or unfortunate coincidence.

Victim typology is not an end in itself. The findings are, for example, used to provide effective psychological services to assist victims (psychological first aid, professional psychological care). Some individuals may find the impact of criminal trauma so difficult that professional, including psychological, support is inevitable.

What we should and should not say to a victim of a criminal assault (e.g. violent or property criminal acts):

Say:

- *This is a normal reaction to a crime.*
- *It is understandable that you feel like this.*
- *It is not your fault that you now feel disgusted by the world and people.*
- *You won't go mad, I can assure you.*
- *Perhaps things will not be the same anymore, but they will be different and you will feel better.*

Don't say:

- *It could have been worse.*
- *You can always replace the stolen or destroyed things with new ones.*
- *The best thing you can do now is to put bars on your doors and windows.*
- *I know how you feel now.*

Live goes on.

Victim psychology not only requires a sensitive and emphatic approach to the victim's personality, but also concentrated attention to the issues of prevention. With respect to the victim, crime prevention represents a **set of diverse activities outside criminal law focusing on the elimination or mitigation of criminogenic factors**. These measures greatly amplify the effect of criminal law action. Preventive activities, if approached **as an active** rather than just an educational matter, can substantially help prevent crime from rising and reduce its impact on the life of the society.

In addition to violent or property crime, which is the most frequent circumstance of becoming a victim, the process of victimisation is also typical for sex crime. The importance of prevention also applies to this type of crime. According to A. Heretik (1994, p. 190), the **prevention of rape and sexual abuse**, just like any type of prevention, has three **levels**:

1. Primary prevention – it is recommended to avoid:
 - *risky communication* (making acquaintances in the street or public transport, without social control),
 - *risky persons* (strangers, especially men below 30, openly sexually communicating persons, drug addicts, asocial persons),
 - *risky situations* (intoxication by alcohol or drugs, in particular in the company of strangers).
2. Secondary prevention – applied in the situation of immediate threat of sexual violence:
 - *resistance* (depends on the personality of the offender, the social environment and place of the act), resistance is effective when there is a real chance to dissuade the offender and not provoke increased brutality. The most risky action a victim can take is to threaten the offender with blowing the whistle, which may end up with a cover-up murder,
 - *self-defence* – effective if well-done (only very few women are capable of reliable self-defence),
 - *changing the context of the situation* (turn the offender's attention to himself, increase his emotional involvement or turn his attention to a different direction). The reason why victims are often able to attempt to change the context of the situation is their strong emotional experience (fear, anxiety).
3. Tertiary prevention – comprehensive (legal, psychotherapeutic and social) assistance of the society to rape victims.

As experts specialised in this field agree (Heretik, A., 1993, Čírtková, L., Červinka, F., 1994), the structuring of the psychology of victims is similar to the exploration of the personality of offenders. In general, we differentiate between two key approaches: **structural** and **processual**.

The **structural approach** presumes that the personality of victims, similarly to the personality of offenders, has certain permanent personality characteristics. A. Heretik (1993) states that these are most often psychopathic traits such as **lack of chastity, extreme extroversion, affective instability, and asocial nature**. These qualities form the psychological background of the aforementioned typologies of victims. At the same time, they have a great effect on the process of victimisation and its dynamics.

The **processual approach** explores, in particular, the reactions of people to a criminal event and the dynamics of experiencing injury. It analyses the social interaction in the course of which one person becomes an offender and another becomes a victim. A. Heretik (1993) argues that the victim and the offender may be in a social relationship that has an objective, time-and-space based dimension (from accidental encounters to permanent coexistence), and subjective dimension (the quality of the social relationship). As for the degree of intensity of the social relationship, they may be **complete strangers** (see each other for the first time when the criminal act occurs) or **they may be in a superficial relationship** (neighbours, colleagues). With respect to violent crime, especially murders, strong relationships filled with deep emotional relations (relatives, spouses, lovers, friends, etc.) deserve special attention. The fact that these relationships may lead to serious crime is, among other things, related to emotions, which are exceptionally dynamic mental processes characterised by **ambivalence**. This important attribute of emotions draws our attention to the fact that the personality of a person may respond to the same phenomenon or person with contradictory emotions (e.g. love/hate) and different will-effort intensity and express incongruous and incompatible attitudes.

Superficial and deep social relationships play an important role in the majority of criminal acts, especially in violent and sex crime. **Social and situational factors** form an important background to the execution of these relationships. The possibility of becoming a victim increases with **public exposure** (celebrities, politicians, businessmen, artists, etc.) and **social anomaly** resulting in isolation (abandoned and lonely people, seniors, homeless persons, etc.).

The findings of criminal geography and criminal ecology in the U.S. (1970) made it possible to specify the typical attributes of victimogenic localities. This includes the following attributes:

- *situated in the vicinity of large areas with cheap rented accommodation and inhabited by a large number of single unemployed men,*
- *interconnected or easily accessible by a dense public transport network,*
- *lack of close neighbourly relations and bonds,*
- *socially non-transparent, locals are not easily recognisable from intruders and strangers.*

Tenants regularly move in and out (Čírtková, L. Červinka, F., 1994, pp. 169-170).

A substantial proportion of offenders come from the above victimological localities. Many authors emphasise that offenders have no professional qualifications and their behaviour is focused on the **satisfaction of their immediate needs**. They make use of every opportunity and use **primitive, brutal violence**. They do not hesitate to use it against their own neighbours.

Victimisation and the dynamics of the victim's experience

Victimisation in general is a process where an individual becomes the victim of a criminal act. Specifically, it is a process where damage and harm is caused to an individual. This process begins with the offender's assault. However, victimisation does not end with this assault. The harm caused by the assault is only a beginning. Further harm-inflicting circumstances or events follow. New or changed circumstances and events provide dynamics to the process of victimisation and each of its stages. Scientific literature (Čírtková, L., 1994, Čech, J., 1998) differentiates **three phases of victimisation**:

Phases of victimisation	Causes of harm	Consequences of harm
Primary	The direct and immediate consequence of the offender's assault and criminal act committed.	<u>Physical injury</u> , i.e. violation of physical integrity (light injury, serious injury or death). <u>Financial loss</u> , i.e. damage to or loss of property, lost profit or cost of recovery. <u>Mental injury</u> , i.e. especially strong emotional experience causing negative mental states (e.g. anxiety) which may reduce performance.
Secondary	Consequence of the reactions of formal institutions or informal social environment.	Mostly mental injuries: <u>Feeling of injustice</u> arising, for example, from lengthy criminal proceedings, mild punishment for the offenders, etc. <u>Feeling of indignity</u> as a result of insensitive interrogation, sensation-hungry media or inappropriate reaction from the close external environment. <u>Feeling of isolation</u> as a result of

		avoidance of contact with the victim by the external world
Tertiary	Consequence of a state when an individual is unable to fully come to terms with a traumatic experience despite rectification, physical recovery and compensation.	<u>Disruption or change in career</u> , e.g. the individual is unable to continue his previous profession and professional career, significant change in lifestyle, revision of orientation, attitudes, etc. <u>Restructuring of the personality system</u> , e.g. changed motivation, determination, correction of character qualities, etc. <u>Correction in behaviour</u> , e.g. inactivity and attempts at self-defence or self-assistance.

Crime has a substantial psychological impact on the victim. It often causes more harm to the victim than material damage. The process of coming to terms with a negative criminal experience is complex, contradictory and the progress and nature of the process varies case by case. The intensity, form and period of the victim's experience of the injury vary. This fact applies to the experience of criminal acts, as well as other negative experiences, such as traffic accidents, air accidents, fire, floods, etc. A criminal act, just like the other above mentioned events, puts mental stress on the individual and this may lead to unusual reactions and specific ways of coping with them.

The scope of victimisation of persons who experienced house robbery (survey results):

Financial damage: offenders were particularly interested in cash (26.5%), jewellery (15.4%), food (12.8%), computer technology and consumer electronics, clothing (9.4%), scrap precious metals (6.8%).

Mental and physical injury: house robbery causes a certain trauma for the victim associated with short-term, and occasionally long-term, health and mental problems. Immediately after the robbery, they most frequently experience surprise (27.8%) and the feeling of fear and anxiety (16%), and face sleeping (11.2%) and gastric problems (11.2%). Sometimes they feel that the whole world wants to take a revenge on them (9.6%), they have depressions (7.5%) and in some cases serious health problems occur.

In a half of the victims, the feeling of fear and anxiety, together with psychosomatic problems, persists even after a longer period of time. Mental problems were reported by 30% and health problems, such as headaches and stomach pain, were reported by 7% of respondents. This data suggests that the importance of health, and especially mental injury, gradually increases in the primary and mainly secondary phase of victimisation (Dianiška G. et al., 1999, pp. 60-65).

As the above survey results show, the victim experiences victimisation as a crisis event posing a threat to his or her personality. Some psychologists talk about invisible wounds in connection with the victim's experience. In an overview of invisible wounds, L. Čírtková (1994, p. 175) accentuates the following mental phenomena:

- Feeling of humiliation: the victims are disgusted by the world, lose their mental balance and do not feel safe with others.
- Loss of the feeling of trust: the trust of persons who became a subject of a crime is shaken and paralysed, the world and people appear to the victim as unpredictable, incomprehensible, and capable of doing harm without a reason.
- Loss of the feeling of autonomy: the victim loses self-confidence in decision-making, the feeling of autonomy is disrupted. The victim feels weak, helpless and disillusioned. Positive view of one's self and the world breaks down.

The dynamics of the victim's experience and coming to terms with the criminal event have certain phases. Three phases are usually cited (Čírtková, 1994, pp. 176-177): 1. The phase of shock 2. The phase of initial adjustment 3. The phase of final adjustment.

Dynamics of the victim's experience	
Phases	Typical signs
Phase of shock (impact)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - sets in immediately after the criminal assault occurs, - the victim stiffens with shock, which is followed by disorientation and confusion. The victim is surprised and sometimes inactive. Speech is inarticulate and unintelligible, rational thinking is poor. Loss of memory may appear. - The length of this phase varies case by case (between several hours to several days).
Phase of initial adjustment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - appears when the criminal assault is over, - the victims process the traumatic experience and integrate it into their personal history. They usually swing between two extremes: <u>the first</u> extreme is that the victims keep reliving the traumatic event. They speak about it and compare it with the experience and feelings of other people. They are full of strong emotions, sadness or angst, fear, disgust and feeling of blame. <u>The second</u> extreme is when the victims refuse to talk about the trauma. They try to suppress their own feelings and retire into themselves. - the length of this phase also varies case by case. In the case of serious criminal acts, it may last for a relatively long time (one year).

Phase of final adjustment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - appears when memories of the trauma lose their emotional load and are integrated into the continuity of experience. - The victims have developed their own way of looking at the trauma suffered. This leads to mental reorganisation. This means that the disrupted, shaken and disorganised personality of the victim reintegrates. - This phase has no clear visible end. The victims never completely forget the trauma experienced. It becomes a permanent part of their personality, whose structural elements have been affected or modified by the trauma.
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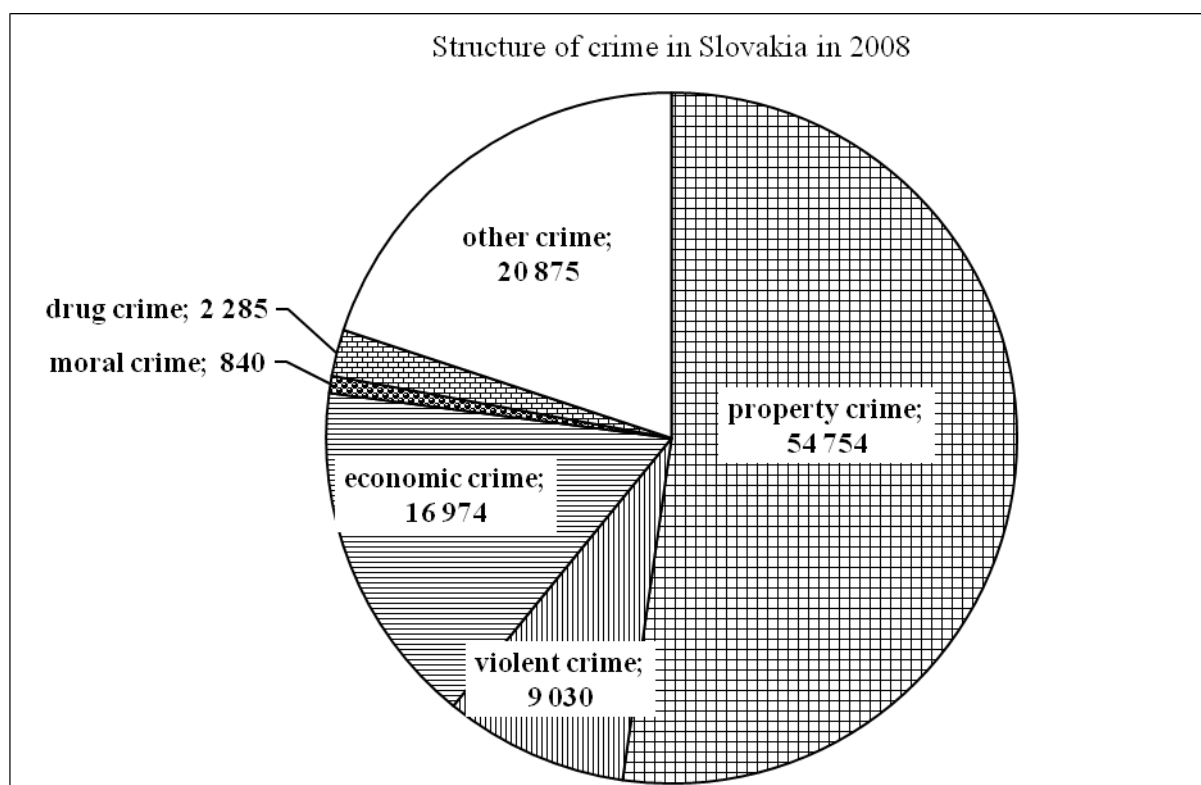
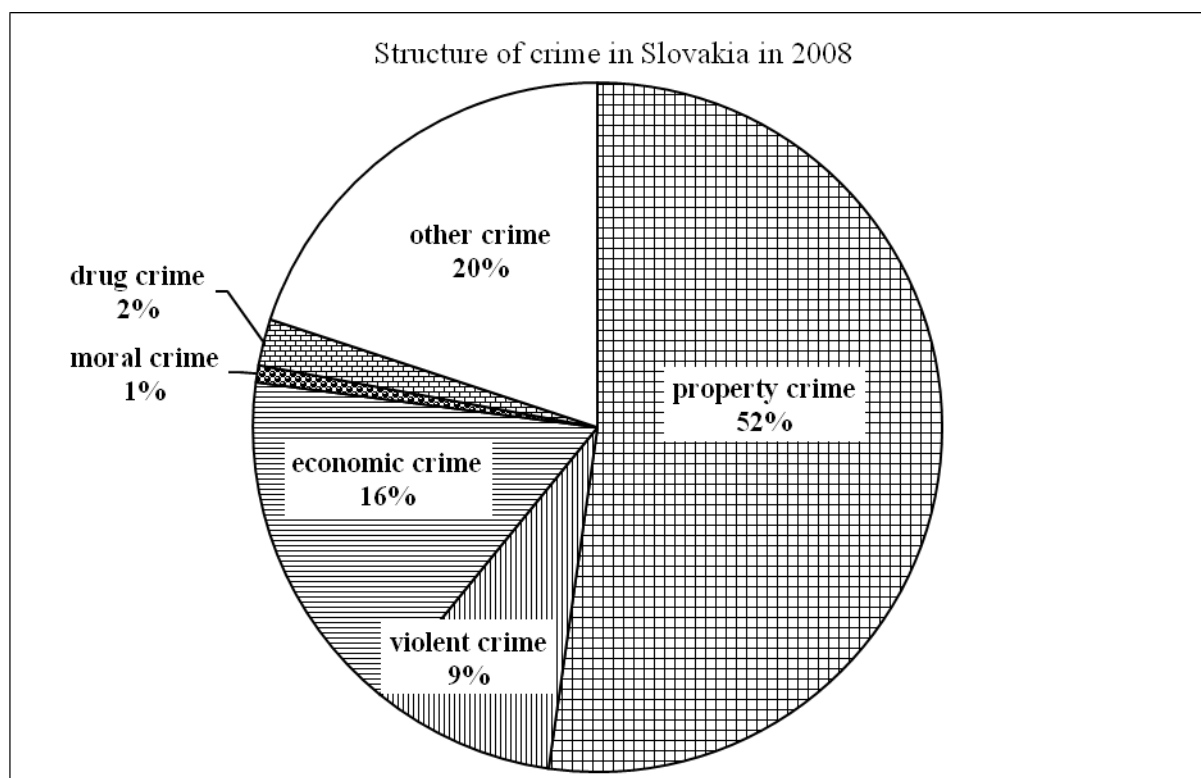
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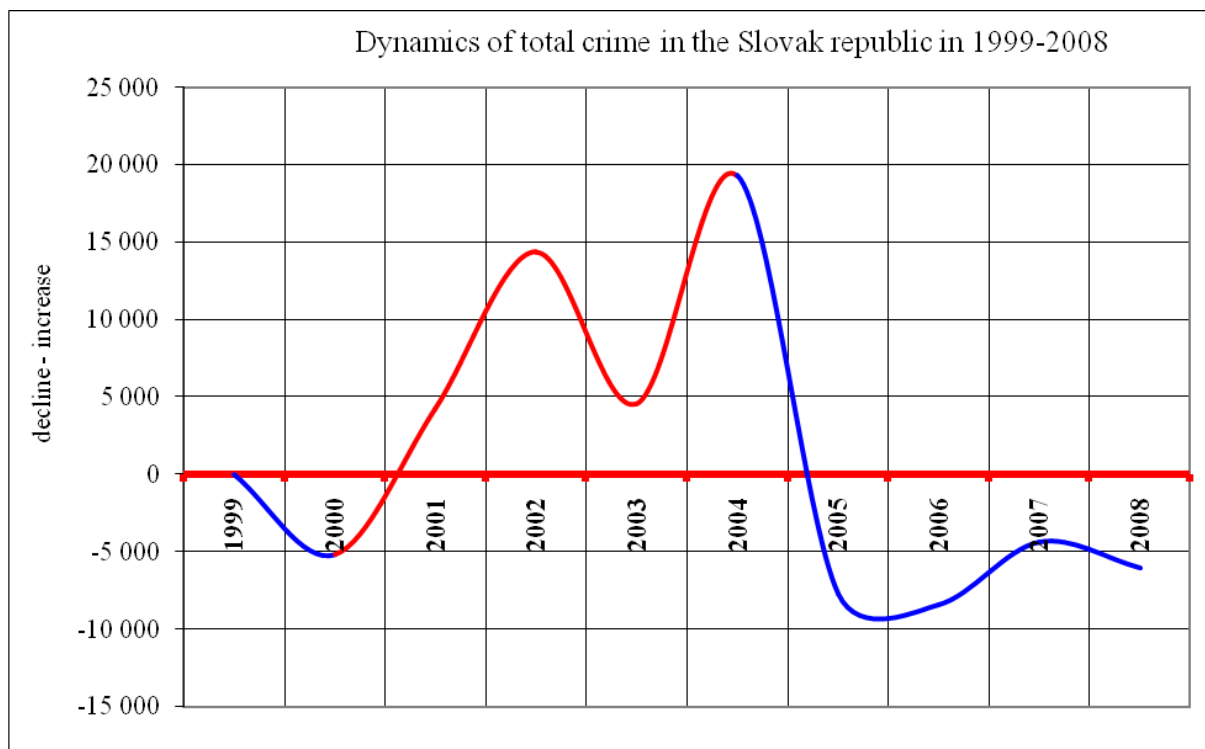
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Attachment

Structure and dynamics of crime in the Slovak republic in 2008





Executive summary

Criminology is a science concerned with crime. The typical definitions of criminology contain the following attributes: empirical, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary nature, the state, structure and dynamics of crime (phenomenology), causality of crime (aetiology), subjects and objects of crime (the victim and the offender), and crime control, including prevention and forecasting. This learning material covers a substantial part of these attributes. This means that it enables the reader to obtain the necessary scope of information to extend his or her knowledge, confront it with information available in the wealth of criminological literature and be able to discuss effectively the application of criminological knowledge in real life.

Due to the limited scope of the learning material, it does not cover the special (specific) parts of criminology. However, we can assure the readers, especially students of the “Introduction to Criminology” course, that another team of authors are intensively working on a learning material on this part of criminology. To satisfy readers’ curiosity, we can say that it will contain a remarkable chapter on juvenile criminality based on the authors’ own empirical findings. It will also include chapters on violent crime and crime against morality. Attention will also be paid to the issue of property, economic, computer and drug crime. The issues of the mass media vs. crime and organised crime are attracting an increasing amount of attention from the public; therefore, these topics will also be included in the material on the special (specific) parts of criminology.

Authors’ experience from writing textbooks and learning materials says that their content and methodology improves in interaction between the author and the reader (student). The same applies to the content of this learning material. Thus, naturally, the authors will be readily open to well-intended comments and ideas that could be used to improve its future edition.

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