

# E-administracja

**Wyzwania  
dla cyfrowych  
usług publicznych  
w Unii Europejskiej**

# E-Government

**Challenges  
for Digital  
Public Services  
in the EU**

REDAKCJA / EDITED BY

**Sławomir Dudzik · Inga Kawka · Renata Śliwa**

Krakow Jean Monnet Research Papers





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**3**

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Sławomir Dudzik   
Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków  
✉ s.dudzik@uj.edu.pl

Inga Kawka   
Uniwersytet Jagielloński, Kraków  
✉ inga.kawka@uj.edu.pl

Renata Śliwa   
Uniwersytet Komisji Edukacji Narodowej, Kraków  
✉ renata.sliwa@up.krakow.pl

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ul. św. Anny 6, 31-008 Kraków  
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MIOMIRA P. KOSTIĆ<sup>1</sup>

## DEVELOPMENT OF SMART CITIES AND ON-LINE PUBLIC SERVICES DUE TO QUALITY OF THE CITIZENS' CRIMINAL POLICY PROTECTION<sup>2</sup>

**ABSTRACT:** The term *smart city* was first used in the nineties of the 20th century, and then the focus was on the application of innovative technologies as part of modern infrastructure within cities. Nowadays, a smart city means an instrumented, interconnected and intelligent city. European cities are not sufficiently tolerable, inclusive or productive for the needs of the modern age. Smart cities of the present and future should improve social life, but also, for example, the organization of public transport. In addition, the policy of developing smart cities should prevent difficulties rather than find ways to solve them. The aging of the European population, the integration of migrants, social exclusion and the unsustainability of the natural environment, as well as unemployment, delinquency and a weak local economy are seen as pressing difficulties. Human and social ecology describes the relationships between people who share the same habitat or local territory, and these relationships are clearly related to the

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<sup>1</sup> Full Professor Miomira P. Kostić, Faculty of Law, University of Niš, Republic of Serbia, <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1802-7733>.

<sup>2</sup> This work is the result of theoretical research as work on the project, financed by the Ministry of Science, Technological Development and Innovation of the Republic of Serbia, according to Contract No. 451-03-47/2023-1/200120, February 3, 2023. The parts of this paper, related to the subject issue, in the form of an oral communication, was presented at the International Scientific Conference "Law Before the Challenges of the Modern Age", held on April 13-14, 2018, at the Faculty of Law of the University of Niš.

character of the territory itself. It is, in fact, learning about social structure in relation to the local environment. So sociologists, in the later years of the 20th century, included ecology in studies of social development and the evolution of human institutions, and widely incorporated that concept from the domain of natural sciences into the domain of social sciences. Representatives of the Chicago School of Criminology, in the concept of ecological theory, argued that there is a connection between school absenteeism, younger adult offenders, child mortality, tuberculosis, mental disorders, as well as other factors, such as the level of delinquency and criminality of adults and minors. The development of smart cities, by itself, will not eliminate delinquency. Therefore, it is necessary to consider a special concept of crime prevention, which would primarily refer to the prevention of criminal behavior within a community, within the city.

**KEYWORDS:** smart city, delinquency, ecological theory, delinquent area, prevention, population.

#### ROZWÓJ INTELIGENTNYCH MIAST I INTERNETOWYCH USŁUG PUBLICZNYCH A JAKOŚĆ OCHRONY LUDNOŚCI ŚRODKAMI POLITYKI KRYMINALNEJ

**ABSTRAKT:** Terminu *smart city* użyto po raz pierwszy w latach dziewięćdziesiątych XX w., a następnie skupiono się na zastosowaniu innowacyjnych technologii w ramach nowoczesnej infrastruktury miast. W dzisiejszych czasach *smart city* oznacza wyposażone w odpowiednie narzędzia oraz łączność inteligentne miasto. Europejskie miasta nie są wystarczająco tolerancyjne, inkluzywne ani produktywne na potrzeby współczesności. Inteligentne miasta teraźniejszości i przyszłości powinny usprawniać sferę życia społecznego, ale także organizację np. transportu publicznego. Ponadto polityka rozwoju inteligentnych miast powinna zapobiegać trudnościom, a nie tylko znajdować sposoby ich rozwiązywania. Starzenie się społeczeństwa europejskiego, integracja migrantów, wykluczenie społeczne lub nie zrównoważony charakter środowiska naturalnego, a także bezrobocie, przestępczość i słaba gospodarka lokalna są postrzegane jako palące trudności. Ekologia człowieka/społeczna opisuje relacje między ludźmi, którzy dzielą to samo siedlisko lub terytorium lokalne, a relacje te są wyraźnie związane z charakterem samego terytorium. W rzeczywistości jest to nauka o strukturze społecznej w odniesieniu do lokalnego środowiska. Tak więc socjologowie w późniejszych latach XX w. włączyli ekologię do badań nad rozwojem społecznym lub ewolucją instytucji ludzkich i szeroko przenieśli tę koncepcję z dziedziny nauk przyrodniczych do dziedziny nauk społecznych. Przedstawiciele Chicago School of Criminology w koncepcji teorii ekologicznej argumentowali, że istnieje związek pomiędzy: bezczynnością szkolną, młodocianymi przestępcami, śmiertelnością dzieci, gruźlicą, zaburzeniami psychicznymi, a także innymi czynnikami a poziomem wykroczeń i przestępczości dorosłych i nieletnich. Rozwój inteligentnych miast sam w sobie nie wyeliminuje przestępczości. W związku

z tym konieczne jest rozważenie szczególnej koncepcji jej przeciwdziałania, która odnosiłaby się przede wszystkim do zapobiegania zachowaniom przestępczym w obrębie społeczności, w obrębie miasta.

**SŁOWA KLUCZOWE:** inteligentne miasto, przestępczość, teoria ekologiczna, zaległy obszar, zapobieganie, populacja

## 1. Introduction

The questions included in the explanations of criminal phenomenology refer, among other things, to the dynamics of criminality, which unites the changes in the extent of criminality as a mass social phenomenon at a certain period of time and in a certain space. In addition to the dynamics of overall crime, it is possible to observe and statistically monitor the dynamics of certain forms of crime: economic, political, property, juvenile delinquency and women's crime, or, on the other hand, study the regional distribution of different types of crime on a global and national scale (the geography of crime), in certain national and state areas, and in cities and villages, that is, in certain parts of a city (the ecology of crime in urban settlements).<sup>3</sup> Particularly in the study of ecology,<sup>4</sup> crime is also emphasized in classic textbook literature in the field of sociology, one of whose prominent representatives is Anthony Giddens, who uses the term crime ecology to highlight the influence of local conditions on the distribution of crime in rural and urban areas.<sup>5</sup> The study of regional characteristics of crime, as one of the most important areas of interest in criminal phenomenology,<sup>6</sup> is traditional, criminological study in a socio-spatial sense and includes two central questions: the explanation of the spatial distribution of delinquency and explanation of the spatial

<sup>3</sup> S. Konstantinović-Vilić, V. Nikolić-Ristanović, M. Kostić, *Kriminologija* [Criminology], Niš 2009, p. 30.

<sup>4</sup> The term "ecology" is taken from physical science and refers to the study of the adaptation of plant and animal organisms to the external environment. Cities are also distributed territorially according to the "natural order" through the processes of competition, invasion and replacement, i.e., similar processes that take place in biological ecology.

<sup>5</sup> A. Giddens, *Sociologija* [Sociology], Belgrade 2005, p. 586.

<sup>6</sup> S. Konstantinović-Vilić, V. Nikolić-Ristanović, M. Kostić, *Kriminologija* [Criminology], Niš 2013, p. 94.

distribution of delinquents. Also, the study of the spatial distribution of antisocial behavior was added to these topics<sup>7</sup> at the city and village level.<sup>8</sup>

In recent domestic criminological literature,<sup>9</sup> when explaining the phenomenological characteristics of crime, the premise that “it is a basic and long-established criminological truth that the level of crime is higher in urban than in rural areas” is already stated in introductory texts.<sup>10</sup> On the other hand, criminologists, with a gender-oriented approach, point to the gender perspective of a longstanding controversy, according to which “the urban lifestyle, no matter how hard it was, influenced the emancipation of women more than rural life or life in suburban households.”<sup>11</sup> Empirical research shows that crime and delinquency increase with the process of urbanization. Illich<sup>12</sup> believes that due to immediate industrial development, numerous dangers threaten modern urbanites. Industrial growth, which exceeds its limits, threatens one’s right to connect with the environment in which one was born and threatens one’s right to autonomy in action.

Apart from the phenomenological approach to the ecology of crime, in criminal etiology, another important area of criminology, ecological theory stands out as one of the basic explanations within the direction of criminal sociology. The ecological

<sup>7</sup> As an illustration of this scientific attitude in criminology, a journalist’s research on suicides in Serbia, conducted at the beginning of the 20th century and published in the daily newspaper “Politika” in 1929, can be cited: “From January 1, 1919 to December 31, 1928, there were In Belgrade, there are 285 male suicides and 225 female suicides. Regarding the number of suicides, the following general rules apply: firstly, that the number of suicides in cities is regularly, everywhere and always (two to three times) higher than in the countryside, and secondly, that suicides are more numerous in larger cities than in smaller ones. In Belgrade, on the other hand, from 1806 to 1900, calculated per 100,000 inhabitants (because Belgrade really had only 59,750-65,598 of them at that time), there would have been 18 suicides, and in the rest of pre-Cuman Serbia, for the same period of time and for the same number of students, there were only 4 suicides. From 1919 to 1928, there were 30-33 suicides per 100,000 population in Belgrade.” *Svake godine ubija se sve više ljudi u Beogradu* [Every Year More and More People Are Killed in Belgrade], Dnevni list [Daily newspaper] “Politika”, Saturday 13 April 1929, year 26, no. 7526, p. 7.

<sup>8</sup> A.E. Bottoms, *Place, Space, Crime, and Disorder*, 2007, p. 530 [in:] *The Oxford Handbook of Criminology*, M. Maguire, R. Morgan, R. Reiner (eds.), Oxford 2007, pp. 528-574.

<sup>9</sup> M. Kostić, S. Konstantinović-Vilić, *Razlike u fenomenološkim obeležjima kriminaliteta na selu i kriminaliteta u gradu* [Differences in the Phenomenological Features of Crime in the Countryside and Crime in the City] [in:] *Selo u tranziciji* [A Village in Transition], XIV Međunarodni naučni skup: „Vlasinski susreti 2008“, Belgrade-Vlasotince 2008, pp. 482-495.

<sup>10</sup> D. Cressey, *Delinquency, Crime and Differential Association*, chap. 3, The Hague 1964 [in:] *The Oxford Handbook...*, pp. 528-574.

<sup>11</sup> E. Wilson, *The Sphinx in the City: Urban Life, The Control of Disorder, and Women*, Berkeley 1992 [in:] *The Oxford Handbook...*, p. 528.

<sup>12</sup> I. Illich, *Selbstbegrenzung, Ronjohlt*, Reinbek bei Hamburg 1980, p. 88 [in:] I. Cifrić, *Socijalna ekologija* [Social Ecology], Zagreb 1989, p. 104.

school in criminology tends to explain crime as a function of social change, which occurs in accordance with changes in the environment. In other words, according to the definition written by Reid,<sup>13</sup> the ecological school is an approach, or teaching, of the quantitative relationship between geographic phenomenon and crime.

The aforementioned issues have been extensively discussed in criminological literature with an emphasis on the field of victimology, as well as on research in the field of criminal policy. However, all the mentioned examples, along with available illustrations of the endless reading of published results of theoretical and empirical research in criminology, still do not emphasize the appearance of a smart city as a concept of a different quality of life, in the present or in the future. The topics covered by the approach of the criminological retro-perspective do not mean that new searches for the quality of life for human beings in urban agglomerations are not already visible now.

In the second decade of the 21st century, in the literature in the field of social and humanistic sciences, as well as technical and technological sciences, it is stated that even 20 years ago the concept of a smart city found a significant place in discussions in the aforementioned scientific fields, where it was also determined to be an internationally oriented direction of lifestyle change in cities.<sup>14</sup>

The principles of action and decision-making at the level of urban living require changes in the global framework. There is a claim that European cities are not sufficiently sustainable, inclusive or productive enough for the needs of modern people. Financial crises or mistakes in decision-making policy in many areas of life should teach citizens how to design new principles of living.<sup>15</sup> In her book *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*, Jane Jacobs, one of the most famous philosophers of urban life today, wrote: "Cities have the ability to offer something to everyone, only and only when they are created by everyone."<sup>16</sup>

On the other hand, recalling retro-criminological writings turns the attention of criminologists to the contemporaneity of classical themes, as well as the observations made from their theoretical and empirical studies, that the history of human

<sup>13</sup> S. T. Reid, *Crime and Criminology*, New York 2003, p. 120.

<sup>14</sup> V. Albino, U. Berardi, R. M. Dangelico, *Smart Cities: Definitions, Dimensions, Performance, and Initiatives*, "Journal of Urban Technology" 2015, vol. 22, no. 1, p. 3.

<sup>15</sup> *Smart Cities Citizen Innovation in Smart Cities Baseline Study*, [http://urbact.eu/sites/default/files/import/Projects/SMART\\_CITIES/documents\\_media/SmartCities\\_BaselineStudy\\_01.pdf](http://urbact.eu/sites/default/files/import/Projects/SMART_CITIES/documents_media/SmartCities_BaselineStudy_01.pdf) (18.01.2018).

<sup>16</sup> W. D. Eggers, J. Guszczka, M. Greene, *Making Cities Smarter: How Citizens' Collective Intelligence Can Guide Better Decision Making*, 23 January 2017, <https://www2.deloitte.com/insights/us/en/deloitte-review/issue-20/people-for-smarter-cities-collective-intelligence-decision-making.htm> (25.08.2018).

civilization, as Morris points out, “is largely assessing man’s effort to free himself from the constraints imposed by his natural environment; not only can he now practically live and work under all possible climatic conditions, but he can inhabit vast urban agglomerations which, since they cannot support themselves, can survive in terms of ingenious technology and efficient transport.”<sup>17</sup>

However, what has resulted, Morris further argues, is that humans have created their own new environment which, in turn, begins to manifest its own limitations in relation to other humans. A large city or a suburb can set limits on human activity which, although derived from a very different sense, are no less real than those set in the past, in relation to mountains and rivers, deserts and oceans. Acknowledging the existence of diversity between urban and rural lifestyles is an appreciation of the underlying association between behavior patterns and local community characteristics.

There are many definitions of a smart city. Examples of different conceptual approaches lead to the replacement of the word “smart” with the words “intelligent” or “digital,” thus indicating the inconsistency of the name. Originally, in the 1990s the use of the name “smart city” implied the incorporation of information technologies into the urban environment. However, this proved to be too narrow a definition. The meaning of the definition of a smart city is in the way the city is managed, with an emphasis on the role of social capital and relationships between people in urban development.<sup>18</sup>

## **2. Urban criminology as part of urban sociology**

From the very beginnings of the development of criminology as an independent science, socio-spatial analyzes of crime from the first half of the 19th century stand out, with the fact that for the purposes of modern criminological explanations, works from the period between the two world wars are usually considered, while the contribution of the Chicago School has not been neglected in sociology.

The study of the spatial distribution of criminality within cities led to the creation of the term “delinquent area,” which represents a natural area that exists in the city, such as a ghetto, which arises in the process of urbanization and development and is significant for its characteristic patterns of antisocial behavior. Within the boundaries of a delinquent area, delinquent or criminal behavior is expected among its residents. This affects the development of a hostile attitude towards the social services

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<sup>17</sup> T. Morris, *The Criminal Area*, London 1971, p. i.

<sup>18</sup> V. Albino, U. Berardi, R. M. Dangelico, *Smart Cities: Definitions, Dimensions...*, p. 4.

and the police, and therefore forms a kind of cultural enclave that separates it from the rest of the city. The formal features of the delinquent area are usually manifested as physical depravity, overcrowding and mobility of the population, mainly towards industrial and commercial zones. On the other hand, social characteristics are mostly reflected in a small number of informal social control services, as a result of which the norms of behavior accepted by the wider society persist.<sup>19</sup>

The concept of a delinquent area comes directly from the concept of a natural area in ecological theory, and the epithet “delinquent” refers to the dominant pattern of behavior expressed by a large number of residents of that area. Human, or social, ecology is viewed through the study of spatial and temporal relationships between human beings that are influenced by the selective, transferable and adaptive forces of the environment.<sup>20</sup> The term human ecology<sup>21</sup> is analogously taken from botany, a sub-discipline of plant ecology.<sup>22</sup> Regardless of the early works from the second half of the 19th century, which indicate the relationship between the environment and delinquent behavior, it should be emphasized that the development of the modern criminology of the environment, i.e., interest in studying the relationship between crime and the environment, began to increase starting in the 1970s until today. Official statistics at the time indicated a sharp increase in the volume of crime, particularly by hostile young males who lived in high-rise buildings in inner-city areas. At the same time, dissatisfaction grew among scientists and politicians, caused by looking for the cause of crime within the individual, while the feminist movement focused on issues of victimization, which neared the newly developed theory of leftist realism.<sup>23</sup>

Civil society, in its essence, implies social involvement, political equality, solidarity, trust, tolerance and strong social life. In this sense, following these basic assumptions, Putnam determined the meaning of the idea of social essentiality: “Given

<sup>19</sup> T. Morris, *The Criminal...*, p. 19.

<sup>20</sup> E. Bottoms, *Place, Space, Crime...*, p. 530.

<sup>21</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 531.

<sup>22</sup> Ecology is a term from the field of biology and was first used in 1878 by the German biologist and philosopher Ernst Haeckel (Ernst Haeckel, 1878). The Dane Warming (Eugenius Warming, 1895) brought this term much closer to the social sciences in his book *Plant Communities* (1895), by drawing attention to the fact that different types of plants tend to grow together and, similar to human societies, have a temporal beginning, experiential changes and finally enter a period of decline, during which they are gradually replaced by other plants. This is exactly the form of manifestation of the dynamic aspect of ecology which perhaps brought it closest to the field of sociology. So sociologists, in the later years of the 20th century, included ecology in studies of social development or the evolution of human institutions and widely incorporated that concept from the domain of natural sciences into the domain of social sciences. T. Morris, *The Criminal...*, p. 3.

<sup>23</sup> S. Jones, *Criminology*, Oxford 2008, p. 102.



that physical essentiality refers to physical objects, and human essentiality refers to what an individual possesses, social essentiality refers to the connections between individuals – the social network and to the norms of reciprocity and trust that arise from it. In this sense, social relevance is closely related to what some call ‘civic power’. The difference is that social essentialism pays attention to the fact that social power is most powerful when it is embedded in a web of consciousness of reciprocal social relations. A society composed of virtuous but isolated individuals is not necessarily rich in social significance.”<sup>24</sup> This means that interaction allows people to build social communities, to surrender to each other and to “put the social fabric together” themselves. The awareness of belonging to the experience of social networking can bring people many advantages.

Essentially, the idea that social importance can function as “social glue” that strengthens integration and cohesion among people, on the one hand, but it can also provide a “conceptual tool that policy makers can develop when promoting strong societies.”<sup>25</sup> Nevertheless, in many political debates, unanimous views have been expressed that the connections between social importance and economic and human importance is often underdeveloped. The sources of social importance are insufficiently distinguished from welfare and the favorable circumstances that result from it. As some criminologists note: “The concentration of multiple forms of what constitutes harm tends to diminish shared expectations for collective action, especially that involving children.”<sup>26</sup>

Urbanism, as a way of life, does not include questions related to the internal differentiation of cities to that extent, but rather to the form of social existence within them. The epithet “urban” with the word “world” does not only refer to the proportion of the total population living in cities. Sociologists believe that “the effects that cities exert on the social life of a person are greater than what the percentage of the population in cities indicates; because the city is not only the place of residence and work of modern man, but also the driving center of all economic, political and cultural life, which brought the most remote communities of the world into the sphere of its activity and united different areas, peoples and activities into a kind of cosmos.”<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>24</sup> R. Putnam, *Social Capital and Civic Community*, 2007, [http://infed.org/mobi/robert-pCutnam-social-capital-and-civic-community/#\\_Social\\_capital](http://infed.org/mobi/robert-pCutnam-social-capital-and-civic-community/#_Social_capital) (25.08.2018).

<sup>25</sup> A. Crawford, *Crime Prevention and Community Safety*, 2007, p. 885, [in:] *The Oxford Handbook...*, pp. 866-909.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>27</sup> L. Wirth, *Urbanism As a Way of Life*, “American Journal of Sociology” 1938, vol. 44, no. 1, p. 2.



One of the first detailed comparisons of rural and urban populations was made by Ibn Khaldun in the 14th century. This famous Arab historian compared life in the city with the life of nomadic tribes. He argued that nomads are characterized by good behavior, honesty and courage, while evil, corruption, lies and cowardice are widespread in the city, and likewise the city causes rot, disables initiative and makes people alienated and weak.<sup>28</sup> This polarized view of the impact of cities on the quality of social life was maintained until the 18th century, at the time of the emergence of large urban agglomerations, but such understandings, with almost the same strength of arguments, extend to the present day.<sup>29</sup>

In writings dealing with the analysis of the change from a rural to an urban way of life, the example of Britain is most often highlighted, as it was the first country affected by the process of industrialization, so it developed very early from a rural to an urban environment. In 1800, less than 20% of the British population lived in towns and cities of more than 10,000 inhabitants. In that same year, about 1.1 million people lived in London, and by the beginning of the 20th century that number grew to 7 million. Giddens draws a parallel with the situation in the U.S. during the same period, noting that the U.S. was then mostly a rural country, compared to the leading European countries. Between 1800 and 1900, New York's population rose from 60,000 to 4.8 million.

The process of the expansion of cities is connected with the increase in the number of inhabitants due to natural growth, but also with the migration of the population from villages and smaller towns, as well as from the poor to economically richer countries or regions. Internal migration between the countryside and the city are especially characteristic of Europe. The rural population immigrated, and is immigrating, to cities primarily because the possibility of employment in rural areas is less, but also because of the obvious advantages of cities, where the streets are "paved with gold," because financial and industrial power is concentrated in them.<sup>30</sup>

Therefore, it was important to briefly point out the beginnings of the study of human ecology in criminology, although they date back to the 19th century, so the use of the term modernism of human ecology really reflects the relevance of already

<sup>28</sup> M. Clinard, *Sociology of Deviant Behavior*, New York 1969, p. 98.

<sup>29</sup> Some authors are of the opinion that cities are the embodiment of the "virtue of civility", dynamism and cultural creativity. According to them, cities provide the greatest opportunities for economic and cultural development, as well as a comfortable and satisfying life. Others describe the city as a smoky hell, filled with aggressive and distrustful crowds and where crime, violence and corruption flourish. A. Giddens, *Sociologija*, p. 585.

<sup>30</sup> *Ibidem*.

expressed opinions related to the study of the relationship between the environment and human behavior, whether allowed or not.

In the period between the 1920s and 1940s, a number of criminologists in the U.S. presented ideas in their works that were the basis of theoretical and empirical research within urban sociology. The Chicago School, created as a result of the development of these ideas, has two of its concepts: one is the ecological approach to urban analysis, which was designed by Robert Park, and the other is urbanism as a way of life, presented by Wirth.<sup>31</sup> Park's work had an immediate impact on a large number of American sociologists, as well as on the theory devised by Clifford Shaw and presented in the book *Delinquency Areas*.<sup>32</sup> Representatives of the Chicago School sought to explain the relationship between ecology and crime in Chicago. They viewed the city as a living, growing, organic whole, and different areas in the city as means to achieve different functions. Studies on different areas of Chicago, where high crime rates and other forms of deviant behavior occurred, indicated that even the world of deviance is characterized by different social roles, which are determined and stratified by the rules that are imposed.

The concept of the park began with the consideration of social changes and their consequences on the immigrant population. From the 1860s, immigrants from all over Europe began to settle in the Midwestern United States. The speed and strength of social changes and the dramatic difficulties associated with the emergence of cultural conflict were social facts that were difficult not to notice, and which had an impact on the later formulation of sociological theories.<sup>33</sup> A "natural area" is part of the core concept of the city. This area consists of blocks of buildings and inevitable subcommunities, from where clustered urban areas rise. From the idea of the ecological approach formulated in this way, it can be concluded that natural areas are products of forces that continuously act in such a way that they exert their influence on the usual distribution of the population and function within the urban complex. Natural areas bear this epithet because they are not planned and because the order that is seen is not the result of any design, but rather the manifestation of tendencies inherent in the urban situation, tendencies that require control and correction.<sup>34</sup>

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<sup>31</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>32</sup> T. Morris, *The Criminal...*, p. 3.

<sup>33</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>34</sup> B. D. Smith, *A Presentation of the Urbanization and Human Ecology Theories of Robert Ezra Park*, Atlanta University Center, Robert W. Woodruff Library 1975, p. 8, <http://digitalcommons.auctr.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3601&context=dissertations> (28.08.2018).

City characteristics, social changes and the distribution of people and their actions were observed by representatives of the Chicago School through the prism of a concentric circle. The concentric circle theory divides the city into five zones. The city center is Zone 1, or the central business district. This area is characterized by light manufacturing, small trade and commercial entertainment. Zone 2, which surrounds the central business district, is a transit zone from residence to work. This part of the city is popular with people who make their money legally and live in very expensive, luxury apartments. Zone 3 is an area of working-class housing that is less "spoiled" than the transit zone and populated largely by "workers whose economic status allows them to afford many of the comforts, even some form of luxury, that the city has to offer."<sup>35</sup> Zone 4, the area of the middle class, is widely populated by professionals, priests, small business owners and managers. On the outer edge of the city is Zone 5, or the area of transient population. This zone includes satellite towns and suburbs. Many of its residents leave the area during the day and go to the city to work.

According to the opinion represented by Park, the key area for explaining criminality/delinquency is Zone 2, i.e., the transit zone. Due to the relocation of jobs to this zone it is becoming an undesirable place to live. Housing is deteriorating; the legitimate way of life in that area is changing. People who could afford it are moving out and there is no progress in improving housing without government financial assistance. The population in the towns is stratified by economic status and occupations. People with low incomes, usually unskilled workers, live in Zone 2, and this often leads to racial and ethnic segregation. This zone is characterized by: warehouses, pawnshops, cheap theaters, restaurants, as well as a complete breakdown in the application of the usual institutional methods of social control. Therefore, researchers have hypothesized that crime, vice and other types of deviance will continue to occur in such socially disorganized environments.<sup>36</sup>

Clifford R. Shaw and Henry D. McKay, primary researchers in the concept of ecological theory, argued that there is a connection between school absenteeism, juvenile delinquency, child mortality, tuberculosis, mental disorders, as well as other factors and the level of delinquency and criminality of adults.<sup>37</sup> They pointed out that "there is not a single instance in which there is no intertwining between these elements... Based on the facts presented, it is clear that delinquency is not an isolated phenomenon."<sup>38</sup>

<sup>35</sup> S. T. Reid, *Crime...*, p. 121.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>37</sup> B. Petrović, M. Gorazd, *Kriminologija [Criminology]*, Sarajevo 2008, p. 120.

<sup>38</sup> S. T. Reid, *Crime...*, p. 121.

From certain criticisms of these explanations, however, it is clear that Shaw and McKay did not claim that Zone 2 causes crime, but warned that a cause-effect relationship should not be assumed simply because of the high correlation between existing variables. Regardless of the fact that Zone 2 may attract or even gather criminals, the next explanation for the high crime rate may be related to the lower performance of members of formal social control. It may be that the police who will have to make a lot more arrests in Zone 2 than in other zones.

### **3. Contemporary context – crime prevention in the city/modern city**

The development of attitudes and understandings about crime prevention, or according to some authors the preventive mentality,<sup>39</sup> went through many stages, turns and innovations, “which began to outline the terrain, focus and technologies of prevention.”

It is necessary to emphasize that the term “crime prevention” is a widely used concept with rather freely defined meanings that are in use. For some authors, this term refers to the conventional operation of criminal justice. Again, others such as Dijk and Waard argue for a definition that helps to focus alternative or special crime prevention programs. Therefore, they emphasize that crime prevention is “a set of all personal initiatives and state policies, to a greater extent than the retribution of criminal law, with the aim of reducing the damage caused by actions that the state incriminates as criminal acts.”<sup>40</sup> This definition also includes programs for reducing the fear of crime, since fear can also be seen as damage caused by crime; then – victim assistance programs – because they can be seen as a form of damage control as well as preventive police activity, such as ongoing supervision and treatment or training of current and ex-offenders. The investigation and conduct of criminal proceedings against perpetrators, punishment and execution of conventional sentences are excluded from this definition of crime prevention.

Comprehensiveness responds to numerous issues of crime prevention, however, they must also refer to the characteristics of the emergence of human settlements. Those settlements have always strived to ensure the safety, security and well-being of citizens in terms of design and proximity to the availability of water, food and meeting other vital needs. Safety and security have always been important issues, historically speaking, from early prehistoric times and cave life, all the way to the emergence of

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<sup>39</sup> A. Crawford, *Crime Prevention...*, p. 870.

<sup>40</sup> J. M. Dijk, J. Waard, *A Two-Dimensional Typology of Crime Prevention Projects*, *Criminal Justice Abstracts*, 1991, p. 483, <https://pure.uvt.nl/portal/files/987925/TWO-DIME.PDF> (29.08.2018).

medieval and modern cities. However, with the development of new technologies, settlements have become suitable for reflecting new and growing threats aimed at the improvement and well-being of the population's life.

These threats appeared alongside the processes of urbanization and industrialization, as well as through the accelerated unplanned expansion of cities under the influence of capitalism, which resulted in overpopulation, pollution, poverty, disease, crime and anomie.<sup>41</sup> Added to this description is the fact that cities have become "containers" of infinite difficulties, on the one hand, as well as places that steal vitality, excitement and enjoyment of life, on the other. Paraphrasing Shakespeare, Calvino writes: "It is the same with cities as with dreams: everything that is imagined can be dreamed, and even the most unexpected dream is a rebus that hides desire, or vice versa, fear. Cities, like dreams, are made of desires and fears, and when the thread of their speech is secret, their rules are absurd, their perspective is fickle, and everything is a cover-up for something else."<sup>42</sup>

The theory of crime prevention through the appearance of the environment is based on the simple idea that crime originates in part from opportunities found in the physical environment. This leads to the conclusion that it would be possible to change the physical environment so that crime is less likely to occur.<sup>43</sup>

There are three separate approaches or theories that go under the basic name of crime prevention theory through the appearance of the environment. The original variant and the very name of the theory are linked to the criminologist C. Ray Jeffery, who published a book in 1971 in which he criticizes sociologically oriented criminologists because they consider only those factors of a social nature as the causes of crime, while ignoring both biological determinants and determinants originating from the environment. Therefore, this criminologist states that prevention should be focused on biological factors (brain damage, for example) and eliminating opportunities for committing crimes.

<sup>41</sup> L. Wirth, *Urbanism as a Way...*, p. 2.

<sup>42</sup> I. Calvino, *Invisible Cities*, 1972, [in:] P. Cozens, *Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design in Western Australia: Planning for Sustainable Urban Futures*, "International Journal of Sustainable Development and Planning" 2008, vol. 3, no. 3, p. 272-292, <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.521.5510&rep=rep1&type=pdf> (29.08.2018).

<sup>43</sup> R. Clarke, *Theoretical Background to Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) and Situational Prevention*, 1989, Paper presented at the Designing Out Crime: Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) convened by the Australian Institute of Criminology and NRMA Insurance and held at the Hilton Hotel, Sydney, 16 June 1989, pp. 1-7, <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/fcf7/b40f588fdd5dfe4e089eb34864d9323d5344.pdf> (16.06.1989).

Another approach to this theory is the that of “defended space,” related to Jane Jacobs,<sup>44</sup> who made serious criticisms of postwar urban planning, emphasizing its destructive component in relation to the natural processes of order within a neighborhood. Nevertheless, Oscar Newman<sup>45</sup> is considered its founder, whose thought developed on the basis of criticism of the views expressed by Jane Jacobs. Newman was able to identify architectural solutions that would discourage crime and strengthen preventive social control. Hence, the theory of defended space is “a model for a residential environment that prevents crime by creating the physical appearance of a social structure that defends itself.”<sup>46</sup> Newman argued that architectural form can unleash a latent sense of territory and community among residents, so that these features become integral parts of what residents appropriate as part of their responsibility for maintaining a safe environment and for well-being of life within it. Newman identified several components of good environmental design that encourage a network of social control: territoriality, constant surveillance, appearance and surroundings. Essentially, territoriality requires a physical space that separates areas of control, while constant surveillance requires a form of buildings that allows and facilitates easy observation of territorial areas.

Post-World War II mass housing projects displaced important processes of social control. In their place there was a “swelling” of “undefended space,” which included anonymous footpaths, passageways, corridors in which there are stairs from the ground floor to the top floor of the house, elevators and long dark passages, all easily accessible. They thereby created “confusing” areas that belong to no one, that no one takes care of and no one supervises.<sup>47</sup> These theses were sharply criticized by criminologists and other sociologically oriented scientists, who accused him of “environmental determinism” and an overly simplistic explanation of human behavior based on territorial behavior in animals.<sup>48</sup>

The third approach to this theoretical determination arose from criminological research on situational prevention, which was carried out at the request of the British government in the 1970s. It would be a general approach to reduce the opportunities for committing any form of crime which occurs anywhere, such as: airplane hijack-

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<sup>44</sup> J. Jacobs, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*, New York 1992.

<sup>45</sup> O. Newman, *Defensible Space: People and Design in the Violent City*, London 1972, p. 3 [in:] *The Oxford Handbook...*, p. 875.

<sup>46</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>47</sup> *Ibidem*.

<sup>48</sup> R. Clarke, “Situational” Crime Prevention: Theory and Practice, “The British Journal of Criminology” 1980, vol. 20, no. 2, p. 136.

ings, theft of welfare funds, making harassing phone calls, violence in cafes, domestic violence, as well as committing any form of blood and sexual offences, and which were committed by persons who would not ordinarily be said to be delinquent.<sup>49</sup>

The dynamic, based on the risk of offending, is also evident in some prevention programs at the community level. Since a high level of crime often coexists with a high level of victimization, such programs can be “solved” by targeting the most vulnerable social groups, in the sense that crime prevention is focused on “repeat victimization.” This may lead to bias, but not necessarily eliminate the stigmatization of potential in such programs. Communities can develop a reputation that in the extreme is difficult to eliminate, as places lose their appeal to live in.

Contrary to the assumptions related to a strictly communitarian approach, it is emphasized that “more community” is not equated in any simple way with “less crime.” A local community and the normative values shared by its members can be extremely criminogenic. Strong social ties, networks of mutual relationships and mutual trust form the very essence of organized crime, gang culture and hate crimes. On the contrary, a lack of strong social and community ties do not inevitably lead to noncompliance with behavioral norms. Areas with a low crime rate, in which a high level of civilized behavior is expressed, do not always show the characteristics of closeness of its inhabitants, connectedness and mutual support.

Assumptions about the nature of the community and the relationship between the community and the perpetrators create dilemmas about the implementation of prevention strategies. But there is no reason that would justify not applying the previous experiences in the prevention of crime in the smart city, while devising a way to connect technical achievements and way of life in a smart city.

Crime prevention within a smart city is necessarily connected to the use of the most modern technical achievements. An example is the developed countries of the world, not only western Europe and the American continent, but also Asia. In the Republic of Korea, the concept of crime prevention in smart cities has taken root in several urban agglomerations. In the city of Namyangju, with a population of about 650,000, the promotion of the smart city project is continuously carried out, starting from 2008 until 2020, primarily in the area of reducing carbon emissions in urban transport, which is used by over 60% of the population. Along with the regulation of traffic, so that optimal intersections in the routes of bus arrivals and departures are monitored via mobile phones, the issue of the safety of senior citizens using public transport also arose. The latest devices of modern technology for crime prevention are installed on

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<sup>49</sup> *Ibidem*, p. 137.



public transport routes and bus stops, with bells for emergency activation of crime prevention centers. These systems are accompanied by the appropriate way of installing street lighting, as well as traffic signals, in order to use the road infrastructure as efficiently as possible.<sup>50</sup>

#### 4. Conclusion

In criminological literature it is noted as paradoxical that the modern focus on communities appeared at a historic moment in which the decline of the relevance of communities as a source of strong connection between its members is empirically observed. In most of the political rhetoric aimed at the prevention of crime within a community there is the frequent expression of “slippage” between the community, the meaning of which has long been lost, and the community, as the point around which modern democratic institutions are built. The ideals of a community – reciprocity, intimacy and trust – seem to have an inappropriate connotation in today’s understandings of individuality, freedom and mobility.

Accordingly, community-based initiatives sometimes tend to hold unrealistic expectations of what a community can do to reduce crime. The crime prevention literature even points to the danger of communities becoming a party around which individuals and groups can be mobilized to take greater responsibility for their own well-being and safety. This abdication of responsibility by the state has implications for where the cost of providing security should lie in the same measure as the blame for failure. With the development of the security market and increased funding for additional security patrols in communities, there is concern that some communities will have to do better in how they carry that burden, while others may be criticized for their inability to prevent crime.

Focusing on communities bearing the burden of prevention raises a much more important question: to what extent are complementary aspects of the community and society of the same rational range of management or differentiation and potential level of management competence? Justice in one community does not mean social justice. Certain solutions within a community tend to be particular and local, with little regard for the external and wider social environment. Well-defended local communities may have the purpose of locating crime to less well-defended residential areas. Or, as some

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<sup>50</sup> S. K. Lee et al., *International Case Studies of Smart Cities*, 2016, p. 1, <https://publications.iadb.org/bitstream/handle/11319/7724/International-Case-Studies-of-Smart-Cities-Namyangju-Republic-of-Korea.pdf?sequence=1> (15.09.2018).



criminologists claim, “the safety of one community can be at the expense of another.” Therefore, it would be desirable that security as a public good is not transformed into a local or exclusive good. Therefore, community security is much less of a misnomer if it offers a space for political and ethical collective security, which together is much more than an individual security initiative.

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Prezentuje ona analizę wdrożenia i funkcjonowania cyfrowych usług publicznych w Polsce i w Europie ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem związanych z tym wyzwań. Dotyczą one m.in. rozwoju infrastruktury teleinformatycznej, zapobiegania wykluczeniu cyfrowemu oraz zapewniania ochrony prywatności i bezpieczeństwa obywatelom.

Książka adresowana jest do badaczy zajmujących się administracją, prawem administracyjnym i europejskim oraz do praktyków w wymienionych dziedzinach. Mamy nadzieję, że publikacja poszerzy wiedzę czytelników na temat cyfryzacji usług publicznych oraz zachęci środowisko naukowe do dalszych badań w tym zakresie.

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The book presents an analysis of the implementation and functioning of digital public services in Poland and Europe with a particular focus on the challenges involved. These include the development of ICT infrastructure, preventing digital exclusion and ensuring privacy and security of citizens.

The monograph is addressed to researchers in administration, administrative and European law as well as to practitioners in the mentioned fields. We hope the publication will broaden the readers' knowledge of the digitization of public services and encourage the scientific community to further research in this area.



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