THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE
On 25 September 2015, a new set of development goals was agreed by all 193 UN member states. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the ‘2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development’ came into force on 1 January 2016 and comprise 17 goals to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure prosperity for all. The international community agreed 169 targets and indicators to monitor and review progress towards the goals. The SDGs replace and build on the UN Millennium Development Goals.

Limited consideration has been paid and little data collected so far on the impact of criminal justice policies on development. This Special Focus, therefore, summarises why criminal justice and prison reform must play a part in achieving the goals set out in the 2030 Agenda. It does so by drawing on illustrative examples from a range of countries and highlighting specific issues addressed in the targets and indicators.

THE COMMITMENT TO ‘LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND’ IN IMPLEMENTING THE SDGS MUST INCLUDE PEOPLE IN PRISON.

Goal 1
Ending poverty in all forms everywhere

People in prison are overwhelmingly from poor socioeconomic backgrounds; they are more likely to have lived below the poverty line, and to have been homeless. For example, in one US study, about two thirds of people in jail reported previous incomes below the poverty line. In the United Kingdom, 15 per cent of nearly 1,500 prisoners surveyed in 2012 reported having been homeless before custody, and in another study a fifth of homeless people admitted to committing an imprisonable offence in order to get shelter.

Many people are convicted of criminal offences as a direct result of their poverty or marginalisation. In many African countries, for example, it is still possible to be arrested for being a ‘rogue’, ‘vagabond’ or an ‘idle and disorderly person’. In one reported case, a school teacher with a psychosocial disability missed his medication due to a local drug shortage and was walking down the road singing – he was arrested, charged with being ‘idle and disorderly’, and subsequently spent three months in prison. In Costa Rica and Colombia, many imprisoned women cited economic survival as their reason for having committed small-scale drug dealing and other low-level transactions, saying that they needed to provide for their children.

ABSURDLY, REGULATIONS THAT PENALIZE BEHAVIOURS ASSOCIATED WITH POVERTY AND HOMELESSNESS OFTEN IMPOSE FINES THAT PERSONS LIVING IN POVERTY ARE UNABLE TO PAY.

UN Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights

In a 2014 report, the UN Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights noted with concern the increasing penalisation of poverty through the criminalisation of activities the poorest engage in to support themselves, such as street vending or petty bartering. Law enforcement officers also frequently use ‘poverty, homelessness or disadvantage as an indicator of criminality’. The impact on marginalised people is bigger still. Women offenders are one such group. The feminisation of poverty has been identified as one likely cause for the increase in the female prison population, at a faster rate than that of men.

Women are twice as likely as men to live in poverty and data suggests that their economic and social position is deteriorating relative to men. A survey of female prisoners in Uganda revealed that three quarters of the women identified as poor or very poor, and in a similar survey in Tunisia the figure was two thirds.

WITHOUT EFFECTIVE DRUG CONTROL STRATEGIES THAT COUNTER OR PREVENT DRUG-RELATED HARMS, POVERTY, INEQUALITY AND EXCLUSION WILL PERSIST AND WE WILL NOT DELIVER ON THE 2030 AGENDA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT.

UN Development Programme

There is also a link between poverty, drug offences and imprisonment. Many people who use drugs belong to vulnerable, poor and socially excluded groups, and are easier targets for law enforcement. The UN Development Programme has noted that poverty can push people into the drug trade, which is seen as a viable option for the ‘disadvantaged, including..."
unemployed youth, indigenous populations, and marginalized groups for whom there are few opportunities to make a living.\textsuperscript{15}

Poverty is also a determining factor behind high rates of pre-trial detention. In recent years, increasing attention has been paid to the high number of people on remand because of unaffordable bail amounts. In South Africa, for example, a 2014 study found that roughly 10,000 prisoners awaiting trial qualified for bail but could not afford the bail sum. In half of these cases the amount was less than 1,000 Rand (approximately USD $75).\textsuperscript{16}

For most, imprisonment is not a one-off event, but triggers a downward spiral affecting the next generation.\textsuperscript{17} Research shows that children of imprisoned parents have no or little access to primary education, are more likely than their peers to commit offences, and to abuse drugs and alcohol. This gives their poverty an enduring quality, lasting over a lifetime and often over generations.

The loss of a family member’s income because of their imprisonment (often the primary income) creates a financial strain for families of those detained. In Sierra Leone, for example, research showed that for every four detainees in pre-trial detention, there were five family members who no longer had the support of a main breadwinner. Most pre-trial detainees in the country are men in the prime of their working lives, who have on average four dependents.\textsuperscript{18}

As well as loss of employment and earnings, contact with the criminal justice system also has direct costs, including legal fees and expenses relating to visits, phone calls and the provision of necessities such as medication and food. A US study involving a survey of 712 imprisoned people found that the cost of legal expenses and visitation could amount to as much as a year’s total household income for a family.\textsuperscript{19}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{goal_2.png}
\caption{Goal 2
End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture}
\end{figure}

The consequences of inadequate food – in terms of calories and/or food safety standards – for the 10 million people in prison are wide ranging and include starvation, ill-health, premature death, the spread of infectious diseases, increased violence and corruption.

Many prison systems fail to meet the basic nutritional needs of prisoners. During the 2016 political and economic crisis in Venezuela, there were food shortages in prisons, causing starvation in some cases.\textsuperscript{20} Prison authorities in Haiti blamed insufficient funds from the State for the 42 deaths in the first two months of 2017 from malnutrition-related diseases.\textsuperscript{21} In post-conflict situations, the UN Department of Peacekeeping has highlighted a lack of food for prisoners, who are ‘the lowest priority’ in such environments.\textsuperscript{22}

Prisoners who are sick or elderly, women and children, as well as persons with disabilities may have specific dietary needs and be particularly badly affected by food shortages, often with serious consequences.

The World Health Organization identified adequate nutrition as the most immediate and critical need of HIV/AIDS patients, for example, and an integral part of any response to the epidemic, which is affecting many prison systems.\textsuperscript{23} Malnutrition and food security are risk factors for HIV infection, and worsen the severity of the HIV disease.\textsuperscript{24}

Pregnant and breastfeeding women also have specific nutritional needs which, if not met, impact both the mother’s and the child’s health. The UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women has highlighted that when food is scarce in women’s prisons it can easily become a ‘commodity traded for sex’.\textsuperscript{25} In Zambia, for example, women in police custody were reportedly isolated from visitors who would bring food as an attempt to coerce them into sex.\textsuperscript{26}

Children who live in prison with their mother may also receive insufficient food, sometimes because children are not accounted for in prison budgets.\textsuperscript{27} UN reports on prisons in Mexico and Benin described cases where women had to split their already meagre food rations to feed their children.\textsuperscript{28}

\begin{figure}[h]
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\caption{Goal 3
Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages}
\end{figure}

There is a higher prevalence of disease, substance dependency and mental illness among prisoners – both as a cause and consequence of imprisonment.\textsuperscript{29}

Prisoners have complex health needs, often due to untreated conditions and unhealthy lifestyles, both regularly linked to poverty. While in prison, it is common for their health to deteriorate due to inadequate health services, unhealthy conditions and overcrowding. Mortality rates have been shown to be as much as 50 per cent higher for prisoners than for people in the community,
and prisoners are also more likely to suffer from health issues such as diabetes and infectious diseases.  

However, the provision of healthcare for prisoners is routinely underfunded, understaffed and lacks the full spectrum of treatment available in the community, even more so in overcrowded facilities. In Colombia, for example, the Ombudsman found that there was only one doctor for every 496 prisoners.  

Communicable diseases are a particular concern in prison, with infection rates for TB between 10 and 100 times higher than in the community. It is estimated that up to 90 per cent of people who inject drugs are imprisoned at some point in their lives, and prisoners have been found to be five times more likely to be living with HIV than adults in the general population.  

Moreover, the healthcare needs for specific prison sub-populations are rarely catered for. For example, despite the increasing number of elderly people detained, age-related health issues such as dementia usually go undiagnosed and untreated.  

The specific healthcare needs of women prisoners, including preventive healthcare or distinct psychological care needs, are also often unmet.  

Children and young people in detention also have distinct medical needs and are usually in a poorer state of mental health, leading to a higher risk of self-harm and suicide than their peers outside prison.  

Health concerns do not end with release from prison. Continuity of care is vital as an interruption to treatment can lead to drug resistance, further illness and can even be fatal. Research also suggests that people who have left prison face a multitude of problems (including housing, employment, and stigmatisation) and consequently deprioritise their health. In turn, ill health contributes to social exclusion and increases the risk of re-offending.

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**Goal 4**

Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

A high proportion of people who come in contact with criminal justice systems have been excluded from ‘equitable quality education’ and life opportunities – factors playing a significant role in their pathways to offending. In Scotland, for example, the prison service revealed in 2010 that 81 per cent of prisoners lacked functional literacy and 71 per cent lacked functional numeracy. A survey of Ugandan women prisoners showed that 32 per cent had never been to school and in Jordan nearly a quarter of women interviewed in judicial detention were illiterate.  

These barriers to education are further exacerbated by imprisonment. As the UN Special Rapporteur on the right to education has established, penal systems fail to identify prisoners with special educational needs, and – where it is provided at all – education is usually not individualised or age/skill-level appropriate. Moreover, an over-emphasis on safety and security, combined with understaffing, can lead to prison administrations’ unwillingness to provide access to education and vocational programmes.  

For women and girls, well-documented gender disparities in educational and vocational programmes in prison lead to additional disadvantages. A UN report noted such discrimination stating: ‘[i]n many countries, the quality and range of programmes is poorer than those provided for men and, where they are offered, they often reflect traditional female roles such as sewing, kitchen duties, beauty care, and handicrafts’.  

For many children and young people, failures in the education system are part of the pathway to detention. Many children in conflict with the law have a history of school failure and/or learning disability. Once detained, their chance of child-oriented education is even more remote. Upon release, for a whole host of reasons including continued exclusion and being released in the middle of the academic year, over two thirds of children do not return to school.

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“One learning in prison through educational programmes is generally considered to have an impact on recidivism, reintegration and, more specifically, employment outcomes upon release.”

UN Special Rapporteur on the right to education

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4 | Penal Reform International and Thailand Institute of Justice | Global Prison Trends 2017
**Goal 5**

Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

It is widely recognised that gender inequality and disempowerment is a primary factor in women’s pathways to offending, and that women continue to face multi-faceted discrimination and violence when in contact with the criminal justice system.

“THERE IS A STRONG LINK BETWEEN VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND WOMEN’S INCARCERATION, WHETHER PRIOR TO, DURING OR AFTER INCARCERATION.”

*UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women*

Criminal laws are discriminatory in many countries, penalising women exclusively or disproportionately including for example, for violation of dress codes, extramarital affairs, prostitution or witchcraft. In Afghanistan, approximately 50 per cent of women in prisons were estimated to have been convicted of ‘moral’ crimes.

Abortion is criminalised in a number of countries, even in cases of rape, and prostitution and ‘running away’ also tend to largely penalise women. The phenomenon of ‘protective detention’, where women are detained to ‘protect’ them from family violence (including ‘honour crimes’), is an extreme example of gender discrimination.

High levels of poverty among women, linked to unequal access to economic resources, are a major factor behind offending and bring disadvantages in the criminal justice system. Many are unable to afford legal representation, bail or fines. Eligibility for legal aid is often based on household income, discriminating against women who do not have access to family budgets.

A clear link has been recognised between the increasing number of women imprisoned for low-level drug-related offences and poverty, violence and inequality. In 2016, over 90 per cent of women in prison in Indonesia and the Philippines were charged with or convicted of drug-related offences, and the same was true for over 60 per cent of women imprisoned in Argentina, Brazil, Costa Rica and Peru.

Common factors leading to their involvement with drugs include coercion by violent partners, low levels of education, and high levels of poverty and unemployment.

Furthermore, non-custodial alternatives to detention are invariably tailored to men and often not accessible to women on an equal basis. For instance, in Sierra Leone, research has highlighted that women are held in pre-trial detention because by law they cannot own property and hence rely on a male family member to provide a ‘surety’ as a bail condition.

Prison systems also are designed for the male majority population. Gender inequality characterises all aspects of the prison regime, from security procedures to healthcare, rehabilitation programmes and contact with the outside world.

**Goal 6**

Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

Lack of sufficient and clean drinking water and poor hygiene conditions are common problems in prison settings and have serious health consequences.

Where there are no water sewage systems, diseases from diarrhoea and contagious skin infections to hepatitis flourish. In Ugandan prisons, for example, poor sanitation and the ongoing use of the bucket system for sewage leads to frequent outbreaks of cholera and diarrhoea, which are a major cause of morbidity and death among prisoners.

In the absence of clean water, prisoners may be forced to drink contaminated water. For example, in a case in the US State of Texas where prisoners drank water with unsafe levels of arsenic, a federal judge ruled that safe water must be provided. The judge explained that the option of finding alternative sources of water, which people in the community do have, obviously does not exist for prisoners.

As a basic need, water is also commonly used as a commodity in corrupt practices. A report on prisons in Cambodia, for example, stated that ‘everything has a price’, including drinking water.

As a minority in prison systems, women prisoners can face additional challenges in accessing water and hygiene facilities. A report on Chad described how women share toilets and bath facilities with men, which puts them at risk of sexual violence, including rape, by male prisoners and guards working in the male quarters.
Unemployment or low-paying jobs may lead to offending in the first place. Moreover, a lack of suitable rehabilitation programmes in prison and reintegration support following release has been shown to make reoffending more likely.

Employment is a prerequisite for securing housing, supporting family and gaining self-confidence. Providing work opportunities in prison serves the dual purpose of giving prisoners meaningful activity and improving their prospects of employment following release.

However, in many countries, there are no opportunities for prisoners to work. In others, labour is of little vocational value or prisoners work in exploitative and/or unsafe conditions.

Examples of abusive practices include forced labour on prison farms and misappropriation of profits from prisoners’ work. Inequalities faced by women in the labour market are usually mirrored in prison by fewer or lower quality opportunities for work and vocational training. Where programmes exist, they are often ‘gendered’, involving work traditionally thought appropriate for women or only equipping them for low-paid jobs – as noted by the UN Special Rapporteur on the right to education.

“SOCIAL REINTEGRATION IS MORE DIFFICULT FOR OFFENDERS WITH POOR BASIC EDUCATION AND UNMARKETABLE SKILLS. INSUFFICIENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR PRISONERS TO PARTICIPATE IN VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL TRAINING MAKE IT HARD FOR THEM TO PLAN FOR A SUCCESSFUL AND LAW-ABIDING RETURN TO THE COMMUNITY.”

UN Office on Drugs and Crime

Upon release, prisoners face multiple obstacles in securing employment, including due to having a criminal record, facing legal bans on employing former offenders, stigmatisation and low levels of education and skills. Research shows this comes at a significant cost to society.

Inequalities in society are mirrored in criminal justice systems. Discriminatory laws along with higher levels of poverty contribute to the over-representation of minorities in criminal justice systems.

Racial profiling by law enforcement agencies, higher arrest rates and longer periods spent on remand are common. Discrimination also impacts judicial procedures and influences sentencing, with minorities more likely to receive a prison sentence, and longer prison terms.

The so-called ‘war on drugs’ also affects minority groups disproportionately. In the US, for instance, African Americans account for 33 per cent of drug arrests and 37 per cent of people sent to state prisons on drug charges, while making up only 13 per cent of the population. Despite comparable drug usage, black people are 3.7 times more likely to be arrested for marijuana possession than white people. Similar racial disparities in the application of drug policies have been observed elsewhere, including in the UK, Canada and Australia.

“RESEARCH INDICATES THAT MINORITIES OFTEN FACE A GREATER LIKELIHOOD OF A PRISON SENTENCE RATHER THAN CONDITIONAL RELEASE, GREATER LIKELIHOOD OF LONGER TERMS OF IMPRISONMENT OR A SENTENCE OF LIFE IMPRISONMENT WITHOUT POSSIBILITY OF PAROLE, AS WELL AS GREATER LIKELIHOOD OF IMPOSITION OF THE DEATH PENALTY.”

UN Special Rapporteur on minority issues

Indigenous peoples also constitute a disproportionate share of the prison population in several countries. In New Zealand, for example, Māori make up over half of the prison population, although they only comprise about 14 per cent of the country’s population. In Canada, the number of Aboriginal women in federal institutions grew a staggering 97 per cent between 2002 and 2012, compared to 34 per cent for Aboriginal men.
Goal 16
Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build, effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.

Goal 16 is closely linked with criminal justice and prison reform. The Goal recognises the importance of the rule of law, accountable and transparent institutions, peaceful and inclusive societies, the prevention of violence (and related deaths), and tackling corruption as critical elements in achieving sustainable development.

Fair and effective criminal justice systems build trust between people and the state, which is an essential element for a peaceful and inclusive society. Within peacekeeping contexts, it has been acknowledged that the ‘strengthening of police, justice and prison systems play[s] a key role in the restoration and consolidation of peace’.75

“LAW AND ORDER CANNOT BE ESTABLISHED, AND THE SAFETY AND SECURITY OF CITIZENS AND OF THE STATE CANNOT BE PRESERVED, WITHOUT POLICE AND OTHER LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES OPERATING IN CONJUNCTION WITH FUNCTIONING JUSTICE AND CORRECTIONS SYSTEMS.”

UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations76

To contribute to peaceful and inclusive societies, prisons need to have sufficient resources and capacity to fulfil their purpose, i.e. to protect society and rehabilitate those under their supervision. However, many systems are thwarted by high numbers of pre-trial detainees. Extensive research has illustrated the socioeconomic impact of pre-trial detention,77 showing that achieving health, gender equality, and universal education for all has been inhibited directly ‘by the significant expense incurred and opportunity lost when someone is detained and damaged through pre-trial detention’.78

Pre-trial detention infringes access to justice because it impedes the presumption of innocence and the ability of suspects to defend themselves. Evidence shows that defendants who are free as they await their trial have a significantly better chance of being acquitted than those in pre-trial detention.79

Violence and violence-related deaths are a prevalent problem in prisons, and often exacerbated by overcrowding and lack of staffing. It may be perpetrated by prison staff against prisoners, by prisoners against each other or by prisoners against guards, but in most countries prison violence results in deaths, although to a varying degree. In Brazil, for example, nearly 100 prisoners were killed in January 2017 in riots between two rival criminal gangs vying for control of the prison, with prisoners decapitated, mutilated, burned and shot. There is a link between the lack of effective control in prison and the level of violence, and where detention conditions do not meet the minimum standards, levels of violence rise.80

High levels of violence against children in the criminal justice system and cases of torture are common, with often irreversible and life-long consequences.81

In a survey in Kazakhstan in 2015, 55 per cent of the children in conflict with the law said they were treated cruelly or violently by police and 37 per cent said they had been abused by staff in a detention centre.82 A cycle of violence can be triggered by such ill-treatment; children who have been abused are more likely to go on to perpetrate violence against others and engage in other high-risk behaviours such as smoking, alcohol and drug use.83

Corruption occurs throughout the criminal justice chain, including by police, prosecution, judges, lawyers – and in prison. The police may misuse their power of arrest to extort money. During criminal proceedings, victims and their families may have to pay bribes to move a case forward with the police or prosecution. In Nigeria, a Federal High Court Judge explained: ‘Corruption is the only reason that can explain the snail’s speed at which the administration of criminal justice works’.84 The Inter-American Commission on Human Rights identified corruption as one of the reasons for the excessive use of pre-trial detention.85

It is a common scenario in some systems for prisoners to be forced to pay to access basic commodities they are entitled to, such as food, water, medical care, living space, family visits – or for safety.86

In Bulgaria, allegations of corrupt practices included prisoners having to pay money to prison and healthcare staff to be transferred to a hospital or access work programmes.87 In Cambodia, reports cite corrupt practices including prison officials demanding payment for processing release papers.88

In Mali, the UN Subcommittee for the Prevention of Torture described the prison system as ‘riddled with corruption’, with detainees who did or could not pay never leaving their cells, sometimes for several years, except to use the toilet once or twice a day.89

RECOMMENDATION 17
States should recognise the relevance of criminal justice and prison reform for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals of the 2030 Agenda and include information on progress in their Voluntary National Reviews. Donors should consider favourably requests for assistance in implementing criminal justice reform.
An overview of international criminal justice standards that are relevant to the Sustainable Development Goals

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<td><strong>GOAL 1: END POVERTY IN ALL ITS FORMS EVERYWHERE</strong></td>
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<td>1.1 Eradicate extreme poverty (people living on less than $1.25 a day) for all people everywhere</td>
<td>1.1.1</td>
<td>Nelson Mandela Rule 4. Bangkok Rule 58. Tokyo Rule 1.5.</td>
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<td>1.2 Reduce at least by half the proportion of people living in poverty in all its dimensions, per national definitions</td>
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<td><strong>GOAL 2: END HUNGER, ACHIEVE FOOD SECURITY AND IMPROVED NUTRITION AND PROMOTE SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE</strong></td>
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<td>2.1 End hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round</td>
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<td>Nelson Mandela Rules 22, 35, 114. Bangkok Rule 48.</td>
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<td>2.2 By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition. Address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons</td>
<td>2.2.1</td>
<td>Bangkok Rule 48. Havana Rules 37, 73.**</td>
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<td><strong>GOAL 3: ENSURE HEALTHY LIVES AND PROMOTE WELL-BEING FOR ALL AT ALL AGES</strong></td>
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<td>3.3 End the epidemics of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases</td>
<td>3.3.1-3.3.4</td>
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<td>3.7 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services</td>
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<td>Nelson Mandela Rules 24, 26, 28. Bangkok Rules 6(c), 17-18, 38, 46.</td>
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<td>3.6 Substantially increase health financing and the recruitment, development, training and retention of the health workforce</td>
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<td>Nelson Mandela Rules 25(2), 27, 78(1). Havana Rule 81.</td>
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<td><strong>GOAL 4: ENSURE INCLUSIVE AND EQUITABLE QUALITY EDUCATION AND PROMOTE LIFELONG LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES FOR ALL</strong></td>
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<td>4.1 Ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary, primary and secondary education</td>
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<td>4.3 Ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university</td>
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GOAL 5: ACHIEVE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER ALL WOMEN AND GIRLS


5.2 Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation 5.2.1 Bangkok Rules 1, 6, 7, 19, 25, 31-32, 36, 38, 41, 42(4), 44, 56-57, 59-62, 66. Nelson Mandela Rules 11, 34, 81.

5.5 Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life 5.5.2 Bangkok Rules 29, 30, 32. Nelson Mandela Rules 74(3), 81. Beijing Rule 22.2. Havana Rule 83.

5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights 5.6.1 Nelson Mandela Rules 24, 26, 28. Bangkok Rules 6(c), 17-18, 38, 48.

5.6 Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls 5.c.1 Nelson Mandela Rule 10. Bangkok Rules 1, 67-69.

GOAL 6: ENSURE AVAILABILITY AND SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT OF WATER AND SANITATION FOR ALL


6.2 Achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations 6.2.1 Havana Rules 34, 37, 73.

GOAL 8: PROMOTE SUSTAINED, INCLUSIVE AND SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC GROWTH, FULL AND PRODUCTIVE EMPLOYMENT AND DECENT WORK FOR ALL

8.5 Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities 8.5.1 Nelson Mandela Rules 4, 74, 92, 96, 98, 102, 116.

8.6 Substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training 8.6.1 Beijing Rules 24, 26.1. Havana Rules 42-43, 45.

8.7 Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour and end child labour 8.7.1 Havana Rules 44, 46.


GOAL 10: REDUCE INEQUALITY WITHIN AND AMONG COUNTRIES


GOAL 16: PROMOTE PEACEFUL AND INCLUSIVE SOCIETIES FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT, PROVIDE ACCESS TO JUSTICE FOR ALL AND BUILD EFFECTIVE, ACCOUNTABLE AND INCLUSIVE INSTITUTIONS AT ALL LEVELS

16.1 Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere 16.1.1 Nelson Mandela Rules 1-2, 11, 32(1)(d), 34, 47, 71, 82.


16.2 End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children 16.2.1 Bangkok Rules 36, 38. Havana Rules 1, 2, 64-65, 87.


† All 70 Bangkok Rules provide for the non-discriminatory treatment of women, girls in prison, sentencing and non-custodial regimes.
Endnotes

All website links cited were accurate at the time of going to press in April 2017.

1 The High-level Political Forum is convened under the auspices of the Economic and Social Council. For more information, see https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/hlpf/.


4 Randeep Ramesh, ‘A fifth of all homeless people have committed a crime to get off the streets’, The Guardian, 23 December 2010.


6 WOLA, the International Drug Policy Consortium (IDPC), Dejusticia, and the OAS Inter-American Commission of Women.


10 For example, in Brazil, ‘experts have complained that police use the legislation to target ‘presumed’ traffickers arrested with small quantities of drugs who are in fact poor, first-time offenders and the ‘weakest link in the chain of drug production and sales.’ See Jessica Jacobson, Catherine Heard and Helen Fair, Institute for Criminal Policy Research and Fair Trials, Prison: Evidence of its use and over-use from around the world, 2017, p.10.


12 There is evidence that having a parent or relative in prison is a significant risk factor for antisocial behaviour and mental health problems, drug abuse, school failure, and unemployment. See, Murray J, Farrington D, The Effects of Parental Incarceration on Children, 2008. Studies have also indicated that parental imprisonment reinforces cycles of imprisonment, for example, children of prisoners in Scotland were found to be three times more likely to engage in anti-social or offending behaviour than their peers who did not have a parent in prison; see Ministry of Justice, Children of Offenders Review, 2007, p.5.


21 UN General Assembly, Pathways to, conditions and consequences of incarceration for women, Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, Rashida Manjoo, 21 August 2013, A/68/340, para 52.


23 See Target 2.1 under Goal 1 which mentions that ‘...by 2030, end the practice oflock in the chain of drug production and sales.’ See Jessica Jacobson, Catherine Heard and Helen Fair, Institute for Criminal Policy Research and Fair Trials, Prison: Evidence of its use and over-use from around the world, 2017, p.10.


27 See note 45, para12.


29 See the National Technical Assistance Centre for the Education of Neglected or Delinquent Children and Youth, IDEA and the Juvenile Justice System: A Factsheet, 2011.

30 Andrea Huber, Penal Reform International, Women in criminal justice systems and the added value of the UN Bangkok Rules, 2015, citing reports on Afghanistan by UN Office on Drugs and Crime and Human Rights Watch.


36 For other examples see, Andrea Huber, Penal Reform International, Women in criminal justice systems and the added value of the UN Bangkok Rules, 2015, p15-16; and UN General Assembly, UN General Assembly, Pathways to, conditions and consequences ofincarceration for women, Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, Rashida Manjoo, 21 August 2013, A/68/340, para 68.

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41 See World Health Organization, Prisons and Health, 2014.


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89 UN Subcommittee on Prevention of Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, Report on the visit of the Subcommittee on Prevention of Torture to Mali, 20 March 2014, CAT/OP/MU/1, para. 51.
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The Sustainable Development Goals and criminal justice

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