**Sample edit by Dani May**

**APA referencing**

Recent decades have witnessed a proliferation of headlines about white collar crimes, in Israel and elsewhere. The spread of such stories is exemplified for instance by Nochi Dankner’s illegal stock manipulation in Israel, and Bernard Maydoff’s Ponzi scheme in the United States. In the wake of these crimes, some segments of the population have called for harsher punishments for the perpetrators (Holtfreter et al., 2008; Huff et al., 2010). The hope is that such measures would prove to be a satisfactory deterrent to white collar criminals.

There is no single definition of the term ‘white collar crime’, nor is there a consensus on its interpretation (Ragatz & Fremouw, 2010). Ever since the term was coined by

Sutherland (1939), various definitions have been proposed and debated, attesting to the complexity of the phenomenon. According to Mann (1990), the term ‘white collar offender’ suggests a prototype with certain parameters: the offender is in a position of privilege; they abuse their position; they use camouflage and/or deception; their crime inflicts economic damage; and their crime is committed either privately or within an organizational framework. The absence of any one of these parameters does not necessarily alter the fundamental nature of the prototype.

Over time, attempts have been made to identify sub-types of white collar criminals.

Friedrichs (2009) makes a distinction between organizational/corporate crime, which is defined as being oriented toward promoting the interests of an organization, and occupational crime, which is committed in a professional capacity for the sake of personal gain. ‘Grey collar crime’ contains some elements of white collar crime, such as being an abuse of trust, but from a legal point of view it has more shades of grey (Menard et al. 2011). It can apply for instance to job poaching, insurance and credit card fraud, and tax evasion.

The present article refers in particular to the white collar (organizational or

occupational) felon who is a member of society’s privileged elite and abuses his or her senior position in order to commit and conceal financial crime (Logan et al., 2017; Onna et

al., 2014; Sutherland, 1983). The offences that are normally associated with this

category include fraud, blackmail, falsification of official documents, embezzlement,

money laundering, breach of trust by means of bribery, insider trading, illegal stock

manipulation, tax offences, and tech crimes.

White collar offenders of the above type generally hold positions that provide them

with a unique opportunity for committing their crime. Unlike in blue collar crimes, the victims of white collar crimes are faceless, since there is rarely any physical contact between perpetrator and victim (Soltes, 2016). The crimes white collar criminals commit are usually sophisticated, with only a few targets and a host of anonymous collaborators. Discovery of the felony usually takes a relatively long time, since there is a tendency for such cases to be wrapped up within the organizations in order for the company to avoid public disgrace. Law enforcement agents are therefore often unsuccessful in exposing these crimes, and even if they do succeed, they sometimes find it difficult to get a conviction in court (Marriott, 2018; Xie, 2015). If convicted, the perpetrators suffer the ignominy of sullied reputations (Marriott, 2018), but are rarely faced with severe punishments such as prison.

Various estimates have been proposed as to the propensity for perpetration of

white collar crimes. Some claim (e.g. Ben Zvi & Volk, 2011) that the propensity is low

relative to other crimes, while others estimate a high percentage of recidivism.

Weisburd et al. (2001), for example, examined criminal dossiers on white collar

criminals and found that a high percentage of them were habitual offenders.