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PREVENTION
OF CRIME

Handbook on the crime prevention guidelines
Making them work

UNITED NATIONS OFFICE ON DRUGS AND CRIME
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Handbook on the Crime Prevention Guidelines

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Acknowledgements

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Introduction

A. Introduction to the *Handbook*

All countries experience crime, violence and victimization. This may lead to some of the following situations: countries with high proportions of young men who are killed before they become adults; societies with families who lose a parent or have members in prison, who are living in poverty and without access to support or legitimate sources of income; neighbourhoods experiencing gang wars or where there seems to be little public protection and security; women who are subjected to violence in their homes, or who are at risk of sexual assault in public spaces; neighbourhoods where levels of crime and insecurity have led businesses and families to cut themselves off from other citizens and public life behind gates and using private security; and migrants and minority groups living in dilapidated and isolated areas or informal settlements and subject to racial harassment and victimization.

All countries strive to ensure safety and security for their citizens and to increase the quality of their lives. The guidelines on crime prevention developed by the United Nations incorporate and build on years of experience and experiments in responding to these problems. Such experience has shown that countries can build safer communities using practical, concrete approaches that are very different from, and less costly than repressive and deterrent reactions and responses.

The present *Handbook* is one of a series of practical tools developed by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) to support countries in the implementation of the standards and norms in crime prevention and criminal justice. These standards and norms support the rule of law, human rights and a culture of lawfulness through the development of crime prevention and criminal justice reform. The *Handbook* can be used in a variety of contexts, including as part of UNODC technical assistance and capacity-building projects, whether as a reference document or a training tool. A number of companion projects already exist,

including the *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool*,[1] and the *Handbook on Planning and Action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions*.[2]

The *Handbook* offers a concise overview of the main considerations to be taken into account in planning and implementing crime prevention strategies and interventions. It also recognizes that there are some major differences between regions and countries in terms of the challenges posed by crime and victimization and the importance of adapting programmes to local contexts. The main emphasis is on how crime prevention strategies based on the guidelines developed by the United Nations can be entrenched and sustained over time.

Two sets of crime prevention guidelines have been adopted by the Economic and Social Council, in 1995 and 2002. They are the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention (Economic and Social Council resolution 1995/9, annex), and the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime (Council resolution 2002/13, annex). Together with more recent resolutions, they stress that crime prevention strategies must be established alongside criminal justice reform. In 2002, for example, the General Assembly, in its resolution 56/261, invited States, inter alia, to support the promotion of close cooperation between sectors such as justice, health, education and housing to support effective crime prevention and work with civil society. In its resolution 2005/22, a resolution of the Economic and Social Council requested UNODC to pay due attention to crime prevention with a view to achieving a balanced approach between crime prevention and criminal justice responses.

Given the increasing concentration of crime and victimization in cities, the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention focus on how to design and implement crime prevention in urban areas. They recommend that cooperation projects for urban crime prevention be based on a local approach to crime problems and the use of an integrated crime prevention action plan that should be based on a local diagnosis of problems and involve a range of actors, consider the relevance of such factors as housing, health and education and consider providing for action ranging from primary prevention to the prevention of recidivism.

The Guidelines also lay out some of the obligations of the authorities at all levels in implementing the action plan, including respect for fundamental principles of human rights, encouraging or implementing appropriate training and information, and regular evaluation of the strategies implemented to assess their effectiveness and revise them as necessary.

The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime build on the guidelines adopted in 1995. They outline the considerable benefits that good crime prevention can bring to cities and urban areas, from enhancing the quality of the social and economic life of cities

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[1] United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *Cross-Cutting Issues: Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* (HS/1232/09E), Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit, No. 5 (New York , 2009).

[2] United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.IV.1.

and their inhabitants, to helping to bring about long-term reductions in expenditure on criminal justice, health and other services:

> There is clear evidence that well-planned crime prevention strategies not only prevent crime and victimization, but also promote community safety and contribute to the sustainable development of countries. Effective, responsible crime prevention enhances the quality of life of all citizens. It has long-term benefits in terms of reducing the costs associated with the formal criminal justice system, as well as other social costs that result from crime. Crime prevention offers opportunities for a humane and more cost-effective approach to the problems of crime. (para. 1 of the Guidelines)

Since the adoption of these Guidelines, there has been renewed attention to the impact of globalization and the rapid growth of urbanization on levels of crime and victimization, especially in crowded urban areas. Economic recession reinforces concerns about the impact of globalization and urbanization on safety and security. The importance of developing planned responses to broader changes has become more and more evident. In its resolution 2008/24, the Economic and Social Council again called for greater attention to urban crime prevention and stressed the importance of an approach that integrates crime prevention considerations into relevant social and economic policies and programmes.

In recent years, the international community has recognized that development in general, and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals in particular, are contingent on the establishment of safety and security in societies. High levels of violence in cities and communities are detrimental to social and economic progress, as well as to the morale and well-being of citizens. As stated in the report of the Secretary-General on the rule of law and transitional justice in post conflict societies (S/2004/616): "prevention is the first imperative of criminal justice".

B.   Target audiences of the *Handbook*

The present *Handbook* was written for a number of audiences. The primary one is Governments, since, as the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime emphasize, Governments have a key role in developing overall policies, and in promoting, coordinating and supporting crime prevention. The principles on which the Guidelines are based are relevant for all countries, and all levels of government, regardless of their political or administrative structures or stage of economic development. Thus national Governments, regional governments and local governments all have significant opportunities and roles to play. The present *Handbook* provides examples of strategy and programme development that will be of value to policymakers and practitioners at all levels of government, and in high-, low- and middle-income contexts. One of the most important aspects of investing in crime prevention policies is that they can result in significant reductions in the costs of criminal justice and other public services, and bring considerable benefits to society.

The second audience includes donors and cooperation agencies, whether national, regional or international. Crime prevention and violence reduction play an increasingly important role in the development programmes of such bodies. The present *Handbook* provides guidance on tools to determine the main components of these programmes and the technical assistance work they support.

Finally, personnel with different skills and roles in crime prevention, whether policymakers, police officers, judges and prosecutors, probation officers, social workers, health service and other practitioners, researchers, civil society organizations or communities, will all find examples, references and resources that can aid project development and implementation.

The present *Handbook* aims to address all these different audiences. It covers the basic principles of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime and explores the range of approaches to crime prevention that now exist, and the main recommendations on organizing a crime prevention strategy or programme based on these principles. It includes information on the kinds of methods and tools that can be utilized and are becoming increasingly available.

Chapters I, II and III provide an overview of crime prevention and the different approaches that can be used, the importance of government leadership in developing strategic policies and facilitating their implementation, and the kinds of information and resources that are necessary for effective programmes. Senior government policymakers responsible for issues concerning safety and security at national or local levels will find these sections particularly relevant.

Chapters IV, V and VI look in more detail at planning and implementation, at the challenges of working in multisector partnerships, and at the rich role civil society can play. Practitioners, policy administrators and directors and researchers working more directly on the ground, as well as civil society organizations, will find these sections helpful.

Some examples of techniques, projects and tools are included. There is also information on useful sources and resources.

C. The importance of context in crime prevention: high-, medium- or low-income countries[3]

Many crime prevention programmes were initially developed and evaluated in high-income countries with considerable resources, but the experience of those countries is not always directly applicable or appropriate in less developed settings. Discussion about what types of programmes and interventions are effective has also been

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[3]The definition of high-, middle- and low-income countries is based on the Human Development Index used by the United Nations Development Programme. It combines measures of life expectancy, literacy and school enrolment and gross domestic product per capita. In 2009, a fourth category, "very high income", was created, but in the present *Handbook* the original three categories are used.

disproportionately informed by research in developed countries. Claims about the effectiveness of interventions have led a number of countries to attempt to replicate programmes implemented in other countries. For example, in the 1990s, South Africa attempted to replicate a number of approaches to policing and prevention that had been effective in the United Kingdom or the United States.[4] Such replication of programmes has often not been successful, because of the different constraints in the different settings, and because the success of a programme is largely dependent on how well it is adapted to local needs and implemented.

Fortunately, in recent years, this problem has been recognized and the focus has shifted from determining what works to understanding how projects work. This has resulted in greater awareness of the need to tailor and adapt crime prevention strategies to the context of individual countries and regions. The economic and social circumstances of a country, its levels of development and its capacity, as well as its political history, are all factors that will influence the needs of that country, the crime problems it faces, and the feasibility and appropriateness of interventions. The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime recognize this and emphasize the importance of adapting good practices to suit local contexts.

D.   Donor aid, effectiveness and sustainability

Developing countries may have a recent history of war and conflict, which creates considerable constraints. There are often severe shortages of educated and trained personnel, while poor infrastructure and basic services and high levels of unemployment create huge challenges, apart from high levels of violence and victimization. Nevertheless, experience is increasing in low- and middle-income countries, and there are some well-evaluated effective practices. South-South exchanges between countries facing similar economic and social constraints have also begun to increase. Rather than transplanting programmes from high-income countries, low- and middle-income countries are becoming increasingly innovative in shaping projects to respond to their circumstances, and building on their own strengths.

In some of these countries, nevertheless, public pressure to strengthen and toughen criminal justice responses is strong in the face of seriously high levels of crime and violence, with the result that prevention has rarely been fully funded or implemented.

Another concern is that donor-assisted aid to developing countries in the area of crime prevention and criminal justice has often been ineffective or unsustainable once programmes have ended. This is partly attributable to the tendency of donor countries or organizations to impose their own financial and reporting timetables, needs assessments or programmes, rather than working with recipient countries. There has been increased attention to these problems. The Paris Declaration on

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[4]Erich Pelser, ed., *Crime Prevention Partnerships: Lessons from Practice* (Pretoria, Institute of Security Studies, 2002).

Aid Effectiveness: Ownership, Harmonization, Alignment, Results and Mutual Accountability, for example, emphasizes among other factors that recipient countries need to be involved in defining problems and solutions from the start.[5] Donors need to be flexible and sensitive to the financial and administrative timetables of recipient countries.

The Paris Declaration is concerned with the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and sets out the ways in which donor countries should deliver and manage aid to increase its impact in reducing poverty and inequality, increase growth, build capacity and accelerate the achievement of the Goals. The Declaration outlines five partnership commitments, based on the lessons of experience, concerning ownership, alignment, harmonization, results and mutual accountability. These are designed with a view to increasing the effectiveness of aid through adaptation to different country situations, and include 12 specific indicators to spur progress, with a timetable and targets. They also stress the importance of monitoring and evaluating implementation. Capacity development is seen as a major objective of national development and poverty reduction.[6]

The partnership commitments contained in the Paris Declaration are as follows:

Ownership	Partner countries exercise effective leadership over their development policies and strategies and coordinate development actions
Alignment	Donors base their overall support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures
Harmonization	Donors' actions are more harmonized, transparent and collectively effective
Managing for results	Managing resources and improving decision-making for results
Mutual accountability	Donors and partners are accountable for development results

More recently, there has been an increased focus on reducing armed violence, given its huge costs to countries and populations and its impact on development, human rights and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. The importance of prevention and reduction is clearly recognized. The Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development (A/63/494, annex I), the work of the multiagency Armed

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[5] Margaret Shaw and Yvon Dandurand, eds., *Maximizing the Effectiveness of Technical Assistance Provided in the Fields of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*, HEUNI Publication Series, No. 49 (Helsinki, European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations, 2006).

[6] Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *The Challenge of Capacity Development: Working Towards Good Practice*, DAC Guidelines and Reference Series (Paris, 2006). See also World Health Organization, *Preventing Violence and Reducing its Impact: How Development Agencies Can Help* (Geneva, 2008) and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*, Conflict and Fragility Series (Paris, 2009).

Violence Prevention Programme and a review of existing and promising policy approaches by the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, in 2009 are all examples of the concerted commitment at the international level to developing viable strategies to prevent armed violence.[7]

E.   Extensive experience

Crime prevention requires a change in the way Governments, institutions and organizations work, and countries in all regions have faced a variety of challenges in implementing prevention. There are many lessons to be drawn from both successful and unsuccessful experiences in the North and South. The present *Handbook* draws, therefore, on recent experience from a range of countries in all regions, to illustrate not just good practices and outcomes, but also initiatives that, while well-planned and implemented, have had some unintended consequences, or in some cases, totally failed to meet their objectives. It is vital to learn from such experiences in continuing to apply the standards and norms adopted by the United Nations.

The next chapter of the present *Handbook* provides an introduction to crime prevention concepts and the benefits of their application by Governments, as well as an overview of the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention, the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime and other international standards and norms which support them.

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[7]Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*, Conflict and Fragility Series (Paris, 2009).

I. Crime prevention: an introduction

This chapter has two main aims. Firstly, it aims to introduce some of the concepts and terms that are commonly used in crime prevention (section A) and secondly, it aims to look at the conceptual frame of reference for crime prevention laid out in the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, including the central importance of collective approaches and the role of Governments, the benefits that sustained prevention strategies and programmes can bring, the principles on which such strategies should be based, and other international instruments that support preventive approaches (section B).

The guidelines on crime prevention adopted by the Economic and Social Council in 1995 and 2002 reflect the evolution of knowledge and experience about prevention which has taken place over approximately the past two decades. Based on practical experience, research and evaluation in many different countries and regions, prevention has grown from a fairly narrow field of work undertaken primarily by the police to a much more developed range of activities involving many institutions and sectors of society.

Crime prevention is defined in paragraph 3 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime as comprising:

> strategies and measures that seek to reduce the risk of crimes occurring, and their potential harmful effects on individuals and society, including fear of crime, by intervening to influence their multiple causes.

A. Crime prevention concepts

Underlying factors driving crime and victimization

Crime prevention has become an increasingly important component of many national strategies on public safety and security. The concept of prevention is grounded in the notion that crime and victimization are driven by many causal or underlying

factors. These are the result of a wide range of factors and circumstances that influence the lives of individuals and families as they grow up, and of local environments, and the situations and opportunities that facilitate victimization and offending.

Determining what factors are associated with different types of crime can lead to the development of a set of strategies and programmes to change those factors, and prevent or reduce the incidence of those crimes.

These underlying or causal factors are often termed risk factors.[8] They include global changes and trends that affect the social and economic conditions of regions and countries; factors affecting individual countries and local environments and communities; those relating to the family and close relationships; and those that affect individuals. Figure I illustrates the multifaceted nature of the factors influencing crime and violence:

Figure I.   Factors influencing the risks of crime and violence[a]
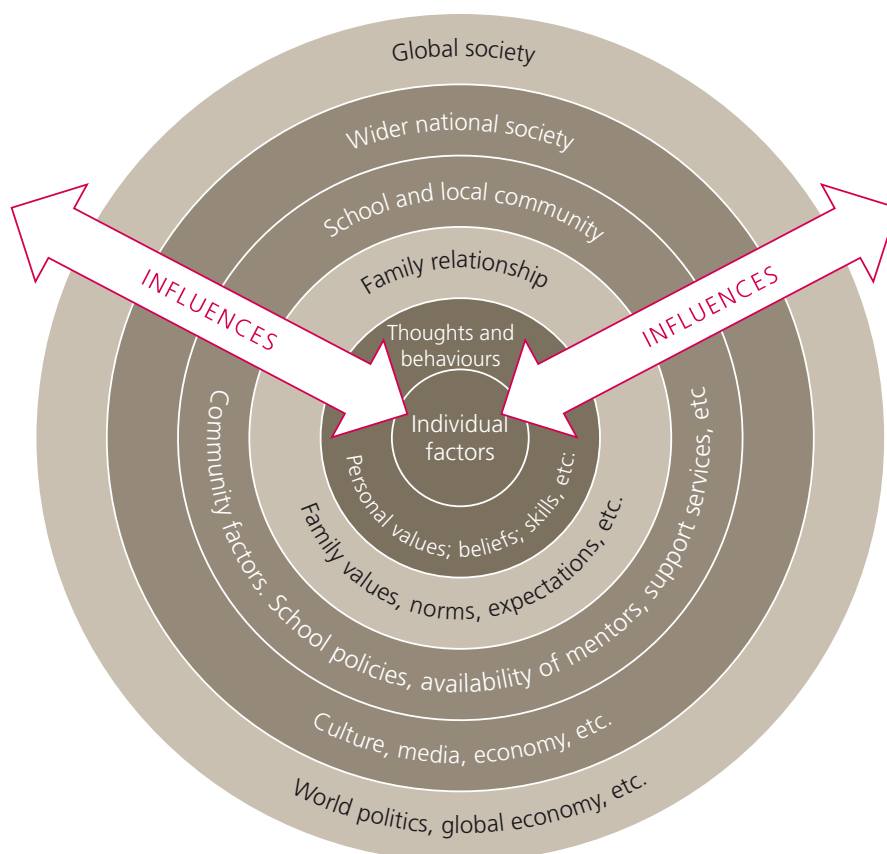
[a]Adapted from Ann Masten and Jenifer Powell, "A resiliency framework for research, policy and practice:" in *Resilience and Vulnerability: Adaptation in the Context of Childhood Adversities*, Suniya Luthar, ed. (Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 2003), pp. 1-29. The World Health Organization ecological model for understanding violence similarly stresses societal, community, relationship and individual factors (see Etienne G. Krug and others, eds., *World Report on Violence and Health* (Geneva, World Health Organization, 2002), p. 12).

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[8]"Risk factors" is a term used especially in the area of developmental prevention, to refer to characteristics affecting individuals or crime patterns. It is used here in a wider sense.

At the global level, major population movements, rapid urbanization, environmental disasters, economic recessions and changes in patterns of trade and communications or in patterns of organized crime can all have serious consequences for regions and countries. Such events can influence the state of a region or a country's political economy, and the infrastructure and capacity to govern may also be affected. International organized crime often capitalizes on weak government structures and institutions, and increased trafficking in drugs, guns or people can greatly exacerbate levels of crime and violence. The impacts of such global patterns are also affected by regional or national policies that can exacerbate or ameliorate them. Migration policies, for example, may affect the extent of trafficking in persons and the numbers of victims and perpetrators of that crime.

At the national level, the extent of the disparity in household income between the poorest and the wealthiest populations of a country, levels of corruption, the quality of the infrastructure and institutions and social and cultural patterns can all create situations that increase the risks of crime and victimization. The Gini coefficient measures income equality within a country, providing a useful tool for comparing levels of disparity between countries.[9]

At the local level, inadequate infrastructure and fiscal and administrative powers, poor housing and neighbourhood conditions, lack of facilities such as good education and health services, high unemployment and easy access to drugs or small arms can all increase risks. Within cities, there are often marked discrepancies and inequalities between different geographical sectors. Poor or disorganized schools can result in poor achievement, dropping out of school, bullying behaviour and exclusion from school, all of which have been identified as risk factors for offending and victimization among children and young people.

At the individual level, risk factors for offending and victimization include biological and personal factors that may lead to early aggressive behaviour or serious substance abuse, for example. Risk factors connected with relationships include family characteristics such as harsh or erratic parenting, family conflict and violence and abuse, family circumstances such as poverty and isolation, and relationships with friends and peers that can lead to risk-taking and law breaking.

Knowledge about the factors that put populations, communities and individuals at risk enables prevention programmes to be targeted to areas and neighbourhoods at high risk, or to groups of individuals who are already involved in offending or at risk. At the national level, this assists Governments in prioritizing crime problems, and in targeting programmes to the regions, cities or sectors that seem most vulnerable. Such targeting of programmes and funds to tackle the greatest needs has been shown to be an effective and economical way of reducing levels of crime and victimization.

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[9]See United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), *The State of the World's Cities 2008/2009: Harmonious Cities* (London, Earthscan, 2008) for a discussion of the Gini coefficient and the links between inequality and crime and victimization, especially in urban areas.

There is always a tendency, nevertheless, to overemphasize the role of individual factors in prevention programmes, by focusing on the disruptive or offending behaviour of individual young men or youth gangs, for example. This leads to a neglect of the wider social and economic factors, which may seem more difficult to address. A well-planned prevention strategy will work to address both individual and social and economic issues.

The concept of risk highlights the negative factors that can underlie crime. A more positive approach involves examining the quality known as resilience, and the capacity of cities, communities and individuals for avoiding crime and victimization in spite of their circumstances. So-called protective factors help to build or strengthen the resilience of communities and individuals to risks. They include factors such as well-governed cities with low levels of inequality, and effective and fair leadership, effective and transparent criminal justice systems, adequate funding for social, environmental and economic programmes and citizen participation.

For local communities, the availability of appropriate education and employment, strong community links and relationships, including those associated with cultural and faith-based groups or respected elders and good recreation, transport and other facilities are important. For children and youth, caring and consistent parenting, good role models and staying in school are all important. Thus, improvements in neighbourhood services and facilities, increasing the social capital of an area and providing opportunities for education and training can all help to protect neighbourhoods or individuals and develop their resilience to crime and victimization.

Types of crime prevention

Various approaches to preventing crime have been developed over approximately the past two decades on the basis of a considerable amount of research and evaluation. The major fields of crime prevention include a range of responses developed over many years, including developmental, environmental, situational, social and community-based crime prevention, and interventions may be classified into a number of groups. One system refers to social intervention mechanisms, individual treatment mechanisms, situational mechanisms and policing and criminal justice mechanisms, for example.[10]

The various prevention approaches and programmes are grouped into four main categories in the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime:

1. *Crime prevention through social development* includes a range of social, educational, health and training programmes, such as those that target at-risk children or families when the children are very young, to provide them with support and child-rearing skills. Some early intervention programmes are also referred to as developmental crime prevention, since they try to intervene to develop resilience and social skills among children and their families. Programmes may also target groups

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[10]Nick Tilley and others, *Problem-Solving Street Crime: Practical Lessons from the Street Crime Initiative* (London, Home Office, 2004).

of children in areas where children and young people are at particular risk, such as street children or children living in informal settlements or disadvantaged areas. Other examples include education projects in schools, or recreation and skills training projects for children and young people in the community, also in an attempt to increase awareness and resilience as they grow up and develop.

According to paragraph 6 *(a)* of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, prevention programmes of this type: "Promote the well-being of people and encourage pro-social behaviour through social, economic, health and educational measures, with a particular emphasis on children and youth, and focus on the risk and protective factors associated with crime and victimization."

2.   *Community, or locally-based crime prevention,* instead of targeting individuals, targets areas where the risks of becoming involved in crime or being victimized are high. This includes areas with high levels of deprivation, both in terms of infrastructure, services and wealth, or lack of community cohesion. This can include slums and informal settlements, or inner-city or suburban housing projects, often areas with a concentration of economic and social problems.

Such programmes work to increase the sense of safety and security of the residents of particular communities, to respond to community concerns and crime problems affecting the population and to increase the services and social capital or social cohesion in the community. "Social capital" generally refers to the network of social relationships, trust and shared values, community involvement or a sense of civic identity that exist in a neighbourhood.[11]

Community crime prevention often involves the active participation of local residents and organizations in those communities and neighbourhoods. They may be involved in identifying local priorities as well as implementing responses. The term "community" can refer to small neighbourhoods, areas within a city, or small villages or towns, or in some cases groups of citizens with particular concerns.

According to paragraph 6 *(b)* of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, such programmes aim to "Change the conditions in neighbourhoods that influence offending, victimization and the insecurity that results from crime by building on the initiatives, expertise and commitment of community members."

3.   *Situational crime prevention* covers approaches that aim to reduce the opportunities for people to commit crimes, to increase the risks and costs of being caught and to minimize the benefits.

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[11]Social capital is a term now widely used and variously defined, but is a way of describing the social relationships and connections between people which help to contribute to healthy societies. For example, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development has defined it as "networks together with shared norms, values and understandings which facilitate cooperation within or among groups", *The Well-being of Nations: The Role of Human and Social Capital* (Paris, OECD, 2001). Three types of social capital are sometimes distinguished: bonding, bridging and linking, which refer to ties with those within a group; ties to different social, ethnic or age groups; and links to local services. Bridging and linking ties tend to be the weakest in communities with weak social capital. (See Michael Woolcock, "The place of social capital in understanding social and economic outcomes", *Isuma Canadian Journal of Policy Research*, vol. 2, No. 1 (2001), pp. 1-7.)

According to paragraph 6 *(c)* of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, such approaches help "Prevent the occurrence of crimes by reducing opportunities, increasing risks of being apprehended and minimizing benefits, including through environmental design, and by providing assistance and information to potential and actual victims."

Five specific categories of situational prevention strategies have been identified:

- Those that increase the effort of offenders
- Those that increase the risks for offenders
- Those that reduce the rewards for offenders
- Those that reduce the provocation to offend
- Those that remove the excuses for offending[12]

Situational techniques are designed to be directed at highly specific forms of crime, and assume that would-be offenders make rational decisions about the potential risks and rewards of breaking the law. They involve the management, design or manipulation of the immediate environment in a systematic and permanent way.

For example, such techniques include designing public spaces or housing to make it more difficult for people to break equipment or enter buildings without permission, or marking products so that they can be identified if they are stolen. Other examples include the use of closed-circuit television to protect car parks or the development of pedestrian pavements, gardens and seats in a public area to encourage greater public use, with increased surveillance of that public space. Situational crime prevention is closely associated with environmental crime prevention and crime prevention through environmental design, which is more specifically concerned with changes to the built environment or landscape.

4.   *Reintegration programmes.* Crime prevention through reintegration refers to all programmes that work with children, young people or adults already involved in the criminal justice system, including those in custody and returning to the community.

According to paragraph 6 *(d)* of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, it is important to "Prevent recidivism by assisting in the social reintegration of offenders and other preventive mechanisms."

Those convicted of offences run the greatest risk of re-offending, given that they have already broken the law, have few opportunities and skills to pursue legitimate non-criminal lifestyles, and may have strong links with other offenders and offending lifestyles. Providing them with life and job skills, training, education, alternative lifestyles and role models and good support and housing in the community are all ways to assist with their reintegration. Programmes in prison may help to prepare them for release by providing them with new work skills, for example, or increasing their educational levels and social skills, including the ability to mediate conflict

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[12]See Ronald Clarke and John Eck, *Becoming a Problem-Solving Crime Analyst in 55 Small Steps* (London, Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science, 2003).

situations, and through the use of other restorative approaches.[13]

Programmes may take place in the community, or in halfway houses or sheltered homes that provide safe accommodation and in-house support and advice, and may include apprenticeship programmes, job-creation schemes, life-skills training, micro-credit facilities and long-term support. Programmes that teach conflict resolution skills or use restorative justice approaches, such as victim-offender mediation or family or community group conferencing, are other examples of ways in which offenders can be assisted in returning to civil society. These are all examples of crime prevention focusing on re-integration, with the overall aim of preventing re-offending.[14]

Combining crime prevention approaches

No one approach (or underlying theory of intervention) is inherently better than the others. All of them have advantages and disadvantages. Some social development approaches can be long-term and require commitment and investment continuing over a number of years. Community or locally based approaches can require considerable patience with the difficulties of engaging citizens in positive ways, or maintaining the momentum of projects. They are more difficult to evaluate, so clear and rapid results from interventions may be hard to identify.

Situational prevention has often been criticized for focusing too much on opportunistic crime and target-hardening techniques or surveillance, (because it can displace crime and disorder to other areas); for encouraging unequal access to security (for example, with the development of private space and gated communities); and for failing to tackle the social or economic causes of crime problems. Some of the recent developments in situational prevention have focused on better use of regulations, such as municipal and local by-laws and their enforcement, and this is seen as a valuable tool that encourages businesses or local residents to change and regulate their own behaviours.[15]

No specific crime prevention approach should be considered superior to the others. Rather, any approach selected should form part of a strategic and balanced plan, and the advantages and disadvantages of each approach in a particular context should be considered.

Thus, a project in a city neighbourhood, for example, may combine a range of initiatives such as changes to traffic layout, better lighting, employing and training young people to act as guardians and local mediators, providing support to low-income families and providing better recreation facilities and opportunities in

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[13]For more information on restorative approaches see *Handbook on Restorative Justice Programmes*, Criminal Justice Handbook Series (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.06.V.15).

[14]For more information on reintegration programmes see *Cross-Cutting Issues: Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* (see footnote 1).

[15]A. Crawford, "Crime prevention and community safety", in *Oxford Handbook of Criminology*, 4th ed., Mike Maguire, Rod Morgan, and Robert Reiner, eds. (Oxford, Oxford University Press, 2007); Derek Cornish and Ronald Clarke, "Opportunities, precipitators and criminal decisions: a reply to Worthy's critique of situational crime prevention", in *Crime Prevention Studies*, vol. 16, *Theory for Practice in Situational Crime Prevention*, Martha J. Smith and Derek B. Cornish, eds. (Monsey, New York, Criminal Justice Press, 2003), pp. 41-96.

disadvantaged residential apartments.

Overall, as figure II illustrates, these four broad categories are all aspects of the overall practice of crime prevention, and provide a menu of approaches from which to select when developing an overall strategy. They offer a range of short- and longer-term responses to crime problems. All of them offer valuable options, and have different advantages and disadvantages.

Figure II.   Different approaches to crime prevention

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│  Crime prevention   │
│      concepts       │
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         │   ┌──────────────────────┐
         ├───│ (a) Prevention through│
         │   │  social development   │
         │   └──────────────────────┘
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         │   ┌──────────────────────┐
         ├───│ (b) Locally-based     │
         │   │   crime prevention    │
         │   └──────────────────────┘
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         │   ┌──────────────────────┐
         ├───│ (c) Situational crime │
         │   │      prevention       │
         │   └──────────────────────┘
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         │   ┌──────────────────────┐
         └───│ (d) Reintegration     │
             │     programmes        │
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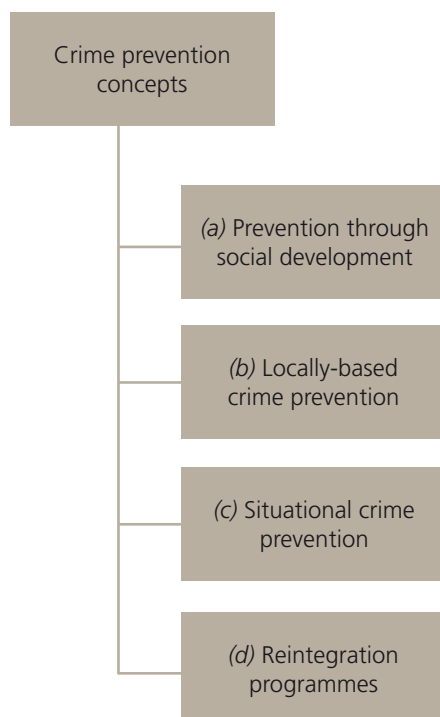
Timing of crime prevention strategies

Specific terms are sometimes used to refer to the stages at which crime prevention programmes can be applied, regardless of the approach used. The public health-inspired typology, using the terms primary, secondary and tertiary prevention to reflect the stages of (possible) entry into the criminal justice system, is still commonly used, but does not fully reflect the range of issues involved in preventing crime and developing safe communities:

- Primary prevention refers to programmes or initiatives aimed at those who have never been involved in the criminal justice system, such as programmes to educate or alert the general public or young people about domestic violence or bullying in schools.

- Secondary prevention refers to programmes specifically targeted to children and young people who are identified by the social services, educational or justice systems as being at risk of involvement in crime.

- Tertiary prevention refers to programmes for those who are in the criminal justice system and/or returning to the community, with the aim of preventing re-offending.

Crime prevention and community safety

One of the most common assumptions about crime prevention is that it can be clearly separated from other areas of activity, and that it is restricted to academia, or solely the province of the police and justice system. In fact, as observers have often pointed out, many interventions that help to prevent crime are called something else, whether early childhood intervention, educational and employment support, drug treatment or urban renewal.[16]

Crime prevention is not the only term commonly in use internationally. In different contexts and countries, other terms such as safety and security, crime reduction and community safety are often used. The term community safety is commonly used to refer to the broader range of issues that must be tackled to promote safer cities or communities, and with outcomes that bring benefits beyond an absence of crime:[17]

> Crime prevention has been deemed a police term, while community safety is preferred in local authorities in Britain to signify a broader set of interests in crime consequences.

Thus, what is important, regardless of the terminology preferred, is the use of a strategic approach that enables policymakers and practitioners to tailor interventions to the problems they confront, selecting from a wide range of interventions, finding a balance between the need for short-term and longer-term outcomes, as well as protecting human rights.

Sustainable crime prevention

Crime prevention can also be linked to the notions of sustainable development and sustainable livelihoods, in the sense that it should meet the needs of the present, without compromising those of future generations. This is especially relevant in middle- and low-income countries. Efforts should be aimed at increasing the capacities and resources of populations, providing opportunities for the next generation and helping to increase intergenerational capital.[18] Sustaining crime prevention strategies beyond the life of a Government is an important part of this process. Figure III shows crime prevention strategies that can contribute to sustainable development.

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[16]Janet Foster, "'People pieces': the neglected but essential elements of community crime prevention", in *Crime Control and Community: The New Politics of Public Safety*, Gordon Hughes and Adam Edwards, eds. (Cullompton, Devon, Willan Publishing, 2002), pp. 167-196.

[17]See Nick Tilley, ed., *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety* (Collumpton, Devon, Willan Publishing, 2005); and Margaret Shaw, "Communities in action for crime prevention", background paper prepared for the 6th Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, Canberra, 2006.

[18]The notion of sustainable development originated at the World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987; the concept of sustainable livelihood was advanced at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in 1992, in connection with the broad aim of reducing poverty.

Figure III.   Crime prevention and sustainable development[a]
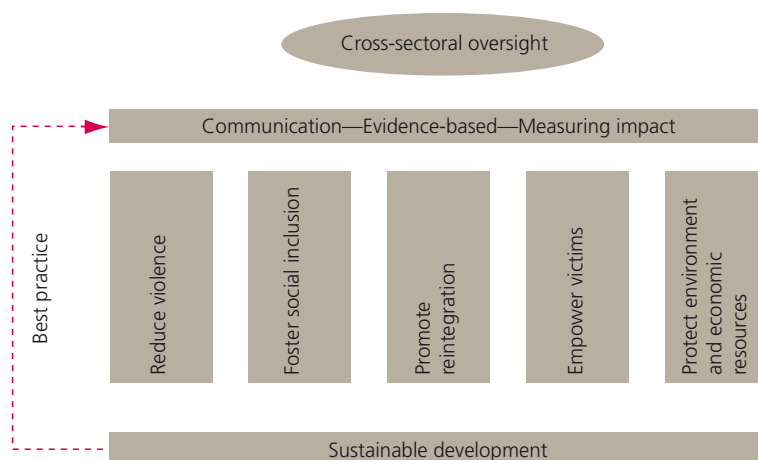
[a]Adapted from the draft social and development crime prevention action plan of the Caribbean Community.

There are now a number of tools and techniques that provide guidance on how to develop a prevention strategy and support the development of sustainable crime prevention, as subsequent chapters of the *Handbook* will discuss.

The next section of this chapter looks at what Governments can do through the collective and proactive crime prevention approaches recommended by the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime and the basic principles underlying effective and sustainable prevention.

B.   Collective approaches to crime prevention and the important role of Governments

Chapter II of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, entitled "Conceptual frame of reference", states in paragraph 2:

> It is the responsibility of all levels of government to create, maintain and promote a context within which relevant governmental institutions and all segments of civil society, including the corporate sector, can better play their part in preventing crime.

Over the past few decades, there has been a major shift from the traditional view that crime prevention is the responsibility of the police to the view that it is a collective responsibility. Since the 1980s, it has been argued that it is more effective, and cost-efficient and beneficial, to take a collective and proactive approach to preventing crime.[19] The importance of collective action is recognized in both the

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[19]See, for example, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives* (Montreal, 2008); D. Sansfaçon and B. Welsh, *Crime Prevention Digest II: Comparative Analysis of Successful Community Safety* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 1999); Irvin Waller, *Less Law, More Order: The Truth about Reducing Crime* (Westport, Connecticut, Praeger Publishers, 2006).

Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention and the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime.

There are a number of compelling arguments. First, since the factors that cause crime and violence to increase or decline are closely linked to many social, economic and environmental issues, governments at all levels cannot rely solely on the criminal law and justice system to ensure safety. Multisector partnerships between ministries such as those responsible for housing, health, education and employment, recreation, social services and the environment, as well as the police and justice sector, can all make a significant difference to crime levels by establishing proactive rather than reactive strategies to prevent crime and victimization.

Secondly, the value of collective approaches has become apparent from evaluations of crime prevention programmes in high-income countries in particular, which have shown the limitations of the police role. In almost all countries, for example, the majority of crimes are never reported to the police. It has also been demonstrated that prevention helps reduce the costs of criminal justice interventions.[20] The criminal justice system is primarily reactive, that is, acting after offences have been committed. Crime prevention takes a proactive approach. Moreover, there can be other benefits from timely prevention programmes, such as improving social functioning and employment prospects, and rebuilding communities, all of which can help to reduce social and economic costs in a city or country.

The costs of crime and the benefits of crime prevention

As indicated above, investing in prevention programmes saves money. For example, the costs of prevention programmes have been shown to be lower in the long run than those of criminal justice interventions. Box 1 illustrates the costs of criminal justice interventions in Canada.

Box 1.   Justice spending in Canada

In Canada, it costs more than Can$ 11.1 billion per year to fund the police, courts and correctional system.* This means that Can$ 360 per Canadian is being used each year for law enforcement and the criminal justice system.

*Andrea Taylor-Butts, "Justice spending in Canada, 2000/01", Juristat, vol.22, No. 11 (2002) available from www.statcan.gc.ca.

The criminal justice system is very costly to maintain in all countries, so any reductions in rates of crime and in the numbers of people processed through the courts and prisons are likely to save on policing, prosecution, defence and court costs, and the considerable expenses of running prison and parole systems. Apart from the criminal justice costs of crime, there are many long-term social and economic costs associated with lost productivity, and the social and welfare services incurred by

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[20]Steve Aos and others, *Benefits and Costs of Prevention and Early Intervention Programs for Youth* (Olympia, Washington, Washington State Institute for Public Policy, 2004); Irvin Waller and Daniel Sansfaçon, *Investing Wisely in Crime Prevention: International Experiences* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2000).

offenders and their families, for example, when breadwinners are imprisoned or children taken into care. The costs of crime also include the costs for victims, in terms of their health and their ability to work or go to school or to care for their own families. Estimates of the costs of crime for victims and society in terms of health, lost earnings and productivity suggest that these can be even higher than the criminal justice costs.

Finally, all expenditure on protective security such as technological systems, private policing or fencing and barriers must be included in the costs of crime.

Figure IV illustrates the estimated costs of crime in Canada in 2003, some Can$ 70 billion. This was broken down into expenditure on criminal justice resulting from crime (police, courts, prosecution and corrections—Can$ 13 billion), on defensive measures such as improved locks or closed-circuit television cameras (Can$ 10 billion), and the economic, social and health costs to victims of crime (Can$ 40 billion). Thus, victims bore the largest share of the costs of crime.

Figure IV.   Cost of crime in Canada in billions of dollars (2003)
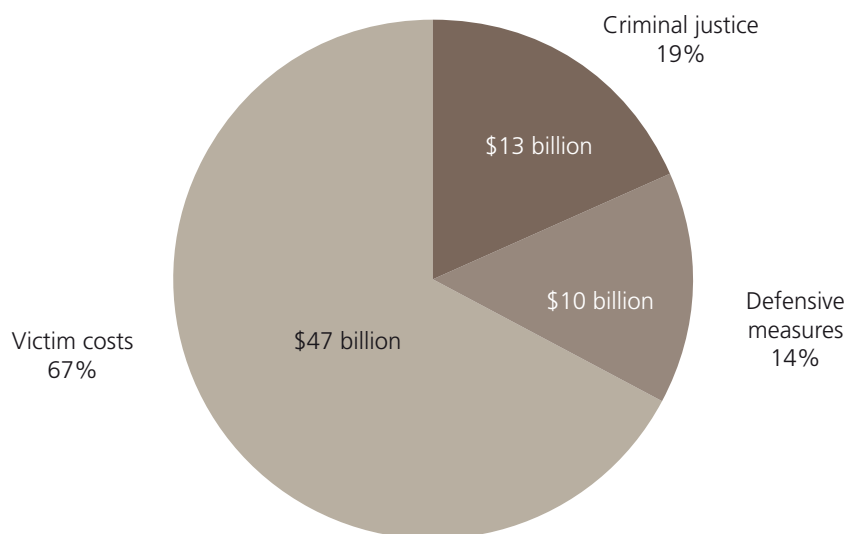
Source: "Costs of Crime in Canada", *JustResearch No.12*, Department of Justice Canada, 2003.

Over the past decade, a number of studies of the costs and benefits of crime prevention programmes have been conducted. They have shown, for example, that early intervention programmes to provide support to children and families at risk, or working with young people to encourage them to stay in school and complete their education, lead to considerable reductions in long-term criminal, social and economic costs that exceed the sums invested in those programmes.[21]

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[21]Peter Greenwood and others, *Diverting Children from a Life of Crime: Measuring Costs and Benefits* (Santa Monica, California, Rand, 1998); Irvin Waller and Daniel Sansfaçon, *Investing Wisely in Crime Prevention: International Experiences* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2000); P. Homel and A. Morgan, *Evaluating Crime Prevention Pathways for Australia and Asia* (Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology, 2008).

As a return on the money invested, prevention programmes not only reduce expenditure on the criminal justice sector, but also on social service interventions. They also bring other social and economic benefits, such as increased earned income or lower health costs, as the example given in box 2 indicates.

Box 2.   The Child-Parent Centre

The Child-Parent Centre Program in Chicago, United States of America, began providing pre-school and educational and family support services to disadvantaged families in 1967. This included pre-school programmes and parenting support. The children were followed up for a number of years and their progress was compared with a control group of children from similar backgrounds. By the time they reached their twenties, the Centre children were less likely to have been arrested and more likely to have completed school and got jobs than their peers.

The programme cost an average of $6,730 per child per year, but showed that the benefits in savings amounted to $47,759—or $7 of savings per child or family. This included increased lifetime earnings, savings on the justice system, victim services and special education.

Source: Irvin Waller, Less Law, More Order: The Truth about Reducing Crime (Westport, Connecticut, Praeger, 2006), p. 24 ff.

All of these factors help to demonstrate the benefits for Governments of working in a collective way. Thus, national Governments that develop a national strategy on crime prevention through a multisector partnership across ministries can help to facilitate and support the development of strategic and planned responses at the subregional level, and with local governments and civil society.

Local governments are in the best position to understand their own needs and strengths, as well as citizens' concerns. Working in partnership with local service sectors, citizens and stakeholders can be a difficult process, but such partnerships are likely to be more effective than imposing a strategy. The Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention place particular emphasis on the importance of a local approach to crime.

It is not just national or local authorities and service sectors, however, that can help to prevent crime; the role of local communities is crucial. The involvement and cooperation of local civil society demonstrates that government action alone cannot succeed in creating healthy and safe communities. Governments need to work in partnership with communities and civil society organizations.

Contemporary crime prevention is therefore a strategic process and methodology for responding to crime and safety issues. It recognizes that crime affects people in their daily lives, at the local level, and is a major factor affecting the quality of their lives.

C.   The basic principles underlying the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime

The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime set out eight basic principles underlying the development of crime prevention strategies in chapter III, as follows:

Government leadership

7.   All levels of government should play a leadership role in developing effective and humane crime prevention strategies and in creating and maintaining institutional frameworks for their implementation and review.

Socio-economic development and inclusion

8.   Crime prevention considerations should be integrated into all relevant social and economic policies and programmes, including those addressing employment, education, health, housing and urban planning, poverty, social marginalization and exclusion. Particular emphasis should be placed on communities, families, children and youth at risk.

Cooperation/partnerships

9.   Cooperation/partnerships should be an integral part of effective crime prevention, given the wide-ranging nature of the causes of crime and the skills and responsibilities required to address them. This includes partnerships working across ministries and between authorities, community organizations, non-governmental organizations, the business sector and private citizens.

Sustainability/accountability

10.   Crime prevention requires adequate resources, including funding for structures and activities, in order to be sustained. There should be clear accountability for funding, implementation and evaluation and for the achievement of planned results.

Knowledge base

11.   Crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad, multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices.

Human rights/rule of law/culture of lawfulness

12.   The rule of law and those human rights which are recognized in international instruments to which Member States are parties must be respected in all aspects of crime prevention. A culture of lawfulness should be actively promoted in crime prevention.

Interdependency

13.   National crime prevention diagnoses and strategies should, where appropriate, take account of links between local criminal problems and international organized crime.

Differentiation

14.   Crime prevention strategies should, when appropriate, pay due regard to the different needs of men and women and consider the special needs of vulnerable members of society.

In essence, the principles laid out in the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime and the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention establish the normative basis, stressing the importance of the rule of law and respect for human rights, of the social and economic inclusion of populations, whatever their status and background, and the importance of ensuring that the particular needs of vulnerable minorities, as well as gender differences, are taken into account.

They also emphasize that crime prevention action should focus on local communities, and that it should be conducted through partnerships across government sectors and with civil society and the participation of communities. It should also be sustained and accountable, rather than short-term, and based on sound evidence-based practice.[22]

Crime prevention as a continually evolving process, not a magic bullet

Crime prevention is not to be viewed as an exact science that inevitably produces good results. In many countries, resources are limited and social and economic and sometimes political difficulties are chronic. This makes it difficult to adapt programmes which have been successful elsewhere and expect them to be successful in more challenging contexts, or to be sustained. Some societies can be seen as chaotic rather than orderly, with high levels of endemic corruption, and with key institutions such as the police or national ministries that are weak, poorly resourced or resistant to change.

South Africa is an example of a country that developed a comprehensive national strategy on crime prevention; it did so following the adoption of its White Paper on Safety and Security in 1998. It has, however, experienced many setbacks in its attempts to implement the national strategy. In part, this was because of Northern optimism that programmes could easily be transposed to countries in the South, but also because of lack of capacity at the local level, the increasing levels of violent crime that followed the establishment of the new Constitution and some of the extraordinary challenges the country has faced since the end of apartheid.[23]

Transnational organized crime can overwhelm national or local attempts to be proactive. This has been the recent experience of many States in Central America and the Caribbean, which have been affected by shifts in drug trafficking routes and patterns. Levels of violence in such countries as Trinidad and Tobago have risen

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[22]See Slawomir Redo (2008), "Six United Nations guiding principles to make crime prevention work", in *International Perspectives of Crime Prevention: Contributions from the 1st Annual International Forum*, Marc Coester and Erich Marks, eds. (Mönchengladbach, Forum Verlag Godesburg, 2008).
    [23]Pelser, Crime *Prevention Partnerships* (see footnote 4).

sharply since 2000. El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua and small Caribbean states such as Saint Lucia have been similarly affected by events outside their borders in addition to internal events. In such cases coordinated regional crime prevention strategies are an important complement to national crime prevention strategies.

These problems are not limited to middle- or low-income countries. In high-income countries, progress in crime prevention over the past 20 years has been patchy and sometimes circular. Sometimes expectations that crime prevention will bring swift results are set too high. There can be strong resistance to change among the police and criminal justice sectors, and a lack of capacity to work in partnerships at local levels, while public demands to increase reactive responses to violent events can put heavy pressure on Governments to shift their focus away from prevention.

England and Wales, for example, established strong national policies on crime reduction from 1997, with mandatory requirements for local authorities to develop Crime Reduction Partnerships with local police and other sectors on a regular basis. They also instituted a national, evaluated funding programme targeting specific types of crime problems such as residential burglary, street crime and school violence. Their success has been hampered by a number of factors, including a lack of local capacity and the imposition of national target setting. Target setting required local authorities to reduce particular types of crime by specific amounts, and militated against local community concerns and responses to the local crime patterns identified.[24] Since 2007, the requirements for local authorities and the police to meet national targets have been dropped to enable them to focus on the most important local problems.

D.   International support for the guidelines on crime prevention adopted by the United Nations

The guidelines on crime prevention are supported by and grounded in a number of other international standards and norms adopted by the United Nations. These include resolutions relating to children's rights, women's rights and the rights of victims. For example:

- The Convention on the Rights of the Child[25]
- The United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (the Riyadh Guidelines)[26]
- The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women[27]

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[24]Mike Maguire, "The crime reduction programme in England and Wales: reflections on the vision and the reality", *Criminology and Criminal Justice*, vol. 4, No. 3 (2004), pp. 213-237; Peter Homel and others, *Investing to Deliver: Reviewing the Implementation of the UK Crime Reduction Programme*, Research Study No. 281 (London, Home Office, 2004); A. Morgan and P. Homel, *Assessing the Impact of Community Safety and Crime Prevention Plans* (Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology, 2009); Enver Solomon, "New Labour and crime prevention in England & Wales: what worked?", *IPC Review*, vol. 3, 2009, pp. 41-67; Adam Crawford, ed., *Crime Prevention Policies in Comparative Perspective* (Cullompton, Devon, Willan Publishing, 2009).

[25]United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 1577, No. 27531.

[26]General Assembly resolution 45/112, annex.

[27]General Assembly resolution 48/104.

- The Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power[28]

In terms of transnational crime, the United Nations Convention against Corruption,[29] the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime,[30] and its Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime[31] similarly provide an important context supporting the implementation of the guidelines on crime prevention at the national and local levels.

Migrant women workers, another group particularly vulnerable to victimization, are the subject of general recommendation No. 26 adopted by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women at its forty-second session, in 2008. In addition, the Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice[32] have recently been revised and updated.[33]

Preventing crime and victimization is also closely linked to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. Adopted in 2000, the Goals are, by 2015:

- To eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- To achieve universal primary education
- To promote gender equality and empower women
- To reduce child mortality
- To improve maternal health
- To combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases
- To ensure environmental sustainability
- To develop a global partnership for development. (See www.un.org/ millenniumgoals.)

While crime prevention is not referred to explicitly in the Goals, their achievement can help to reduce future crime and victimization. More importantly, the Goals are unlikely to be achieved unless safety and security are established in a region or country.

In Africa, for example, the impact of crime on development has been clearly outlined. Everyday crime destroys confidence among citizens as well as businesses, affects quality of life, adversely affects employment and productivity, destroys human and social capital, discourages investment and undermines the relationship between citizens and their Governments. According to Crime and Development in Africa, published by UNODC in 2005:

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[28]General Assembly resolution 40/34, annex.
[29]United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 2349, No. 42146.
[30]Ibid., vol. 2225, No. 39574.
[31]Ibid., vol. 2237, No. 39574.
[32]General Assembly resolution 52/86.
[33]E/CN.15/2010/2.

- *Crime destroys Africa's social and human capital:* Crime degrades quality of life and can force skilled workers overseas; victimization, as well as fear of crime, interferes with the development of those who remain. Crime impedes access to possible employment and educational opportunities, and it discourages the accumulation of assets.

- *Crime drives business away from Africa:* Investors see crime in Africa as a sign of social instability, driving up the cost of doing business. Corruption is even more damaging, perhaps the single greatest obstacle to development. Further, tourism, of large and growing importance to Africa, is an industry especially sensitive to crime.

- *Crime undermines the State:* Crime and corruption destroy the trust relationship between people and the State, undermining democracy. Aside from direct losses of national funds due to corruption, crime can corrode the tax base as the rich bribe tax officials and the poor recede into the shadow economy. Corruption diverts resources into graft-rich public works projects, at a cost to education and health services.

One of the fundamental principles of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime is the importance of the rule of law and respect for human rights. An international working definition of the rule of law was issued by the Secretary-General in a report on the rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies:

> A principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards. It requires, as well, measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency.[34]

Crime prevention is seen as an integral aspect of the rule of law. As the Secretary-General stated:

> in matters of justice and the rule of law, an ounce of prevention is worth significantly more than a pound of cure ... prevention is the first imperative of justice.[35]

The significance of the rule of law for development has also been reiterated more recently by the Executive Director of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime:

> The rule of law is not one of the Millennium Development Goals, but it is the key to achieving them all ... . Where the rule of law is weak or absent, crime and corruption hold back development and democracy. This can cause

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[34]S/2004/616, para. 6.
[35]Ibid., para. 4.

conflicts, mass poverty and environmental degradation, creating further instability. (www.unodc.org/unodc/en/press/releases/2008-04-14.html)

E. Putting the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime into practice: key components for developing comprehensive and effective crime prevention strategies

The following sections of the present *Handbook* look in more detail at the practical application of these principles, and the kinds of organization, methods and approaches that are outlined in the Guidelines for implementing them.

The key components include:

- The role of governments at all levels, and what this entails
- Knowledge-based crime prevention and what this involves
- Strategic planning, monitoring and evaluation
- Multisector approaches and working in partnerships
- Engaging communities and civil society, including the private sector

Each of these components is discussed in more detail below.

II. The key role of Governments

A. Crime prevention as a permanent feature of government

Paragraph 2 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

> It is the responsibility of all levels of government to create, maintain and promote a context within which relevant governmental institutions and all segments of civil society, including the corporate sector, can better play their part in preventing crime.

The Guidelines emphasize the need for Governments to ensure a permanent place for crime prevention in their structures and programmes. The role of the Government is to provide leadership, coordination, and adequate funding and resources. How can this role be played by national, regional or local governments? The recommendations include the establishment of:

- A permanent central authority

- A crime prevention plan with clear priorities and targets

- Coordination and partnerships between government agencies and civil society

- Public education and work with the media

- Sustainability and accountability of programmes

- Training and capacity-building for government and other bodies

This chapter examines the types of government structures recommended, and provides some examples of national, regional and local strategies, showing the different ways in which they have developed and organized their crime prevention capacities. It also discusses some of the challenges that can arise.

From the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, paragraph 17:

Government structures

Governments should include prevention as a permanent part of their structures and programmes for controlling crime, ensuring that clear responsibilities and goals exist within government for the organization of crime prevention, by, inter alia:

(a)   Establishing centres or focal points with expertise and resources;

(b)   Establishing a crime prevention plan with clear priorities and targets;

(c)   Establishing linkages and coordination between relevant government agencies or departments;

(d)   Fostering partnerships with non-governmental organizations, the business, private and professional sectors and the community;

(e)   Seeking the active participation of the public in crime prevention by informing it of the need for and means of action and its role.

B.   A permanent central authority

One of the first recommendations in the Guidelines is the establishment of a permanent central authority at government level responsible for the implementation of crime prevention policy. This has been undertaken both in centralized countries such as France, and in federal countries such as Canada, Chile and South Africa.

At the national level, countries may choose to place responsibility for crime prevention within a ministry such as one responsible for justice or public security, or a group of ministries, or to establish a separate body at a high level. The role of the permanent central authority is to provide leadership, working with other government sectors, other levels of government, and civil society to develop a national plan, and to implement and monitor it. The central authority facilitates action at lower levels of government. In some cases, countries have chosen to enact legislation to support a national plan and require other sectors to work together with the central authority. In all cases, resources will be needed for the implementation of plans. Below are some examples of national crime prevention programmes:

- Canada has had a National Crime Prevention Strategy since 1994, which forms part of its public safety agenda. Its National Crime Prevention Centre is located in the Ministry of Public Safety and supports a range of programmes at the local level through funding streams targeting specific topics and problems. Currently, there is a focus on youth and youth gangs, among other groups, and on the evaluation of programmes (www.publicsafety.gc.ca).

- Chile established its National Public Safety Strategy in 2006 under the responsibility of the Ministry of the Interior which was to work in partnership with other key departments including justice, education, labour, health, urbanization, defence, planning and the national women's and youth services. It supports a range of programmes in partnership with these departments. Work is coordinated by the Subsecretaría del Interior and the División de Seguridad Pública (www.seguridadciudadana.gob.cl).

- Sweden established a permanent National Council for Crime Prevention in 1974, which was reinforced in 1996. Its role is to implement crime prevention strategies at the national and local levels. It is a permanent structure that receives funding for programmes and for the thorough evaluation of their outcomes and impacts (www.bra.se).

In some countries, state or provincial governments may also have responsibilities for crime prevention, often in partnership with national and/or local governments. Many subregional governments at the state or provincial level have established their own central structures responsible for the promotion and coordination of prevention plans:

- In Australia, the State of Victoria has experimented with a series of prevention strategies involving several ministries since 1999. For example, within the Department of Justice it established Crime Prevention Victoria to take responsibility for developing the "2002-2005 safer streets and homes strategy". These have been multisector strategies involving state justice, health, school and police services and local authorities, as well as local communities. Other states, such as New South Wales, South Australia and Western Australia, have similarly developed their own strategies.

- In Germany, the Crime Prevention Council of Lower Saxony was set up in 1995 by a resolution of the state government to reduce crime in the state and improve feelings of security among citizens. It now includes 250 member organizations (government departments, authorities, associations) and 200 municipal crime prevention bodies and associations. The Council undertakes projects to support state-level policies. Its work has focused on community safety, establishing standards for the management of crime prevention projects (the Beccaria Standards), hate crimes and the implementation of the state action plan on violence against women. It has developed the Beccaria Standards for quality management to guide the implementation and evaluation of local programmes and projects (www.lpr.niedersachsen.de; www.beccaria.de).

- In Mexico, the State of Querétaro placed primary responsibility for crime prevention under the Ministry of Public Safety, which established its five-year provincial safety plan entitled "Order, safety and justice 2004-2009" in 2004. It has worked in close partnership with other ministries. The strategy is modelled on the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime.

- In Nigeria, the State of Lagos established the Lagos State Security Trust Fund by law in 2007, as a public-private partnership to assist the state in fostering

crime prevention partnerships with civil society, through assessing and reviewing projects and needs and providing training and fund-raising to support prevention initiatives (www.lagosstatesecuritytrustfund.org).

The example below illustrates the crime prevention responsibilities of the three levels of government in South Africa, following the adoption of the national crime prevention policy, the *White Paper on Safety and Security*, in 1998:

How institutional characteristics influence and determine the local crime prevention approach

South Africa has three distinct, interdependent levels of government: national, provincial and local.

Crime prevention roles of the national Government

The South African Cabinet approved the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) in 1996, which describes the strategic focus of South Africa in terms of crime prevention. NCPS adopts two key principles recognizing crime as a social phenomenon and the importance of multisectoral partnerships in the fight against crime. In 1998, the Government adopted the White Paper on Safety and Security. This policy document supports the implementation of NCPS by specifying the roles of the different spheres of government. The National Secretariat for Safety and Security, under the Department for Safety and Security, is tasked with the monitoring of the South African Police Service as well as the implementation of the crime prevention principles as laid out in NCPS. The Justice Crime Prevention and Security cluster informs crime prevention efforts in South Africa, and is composed of national and provincial departments responsible for security, law enforcement and crime prevention.

Crime prevention roles of provinces

Provincial departments and secretariats of safety and security coordinate crime prevention initiatives at the provincial level. The White Paper on Safety and Security created a crime prevention mandate for provinces. The crime prevention responsibility of provinces includes initiation, coordination and mobilization of resources for social crime prevention programmes, evaluation and support for the social crime prevention programmes at the local government level and the establishment of public-private partnerships to support crime prevention.

Crime prevention roles of local authorities

Municipalities in South Africa are required to compile community informed Integrated Development Plans, which consist of sectoral plans to address the socio-economic priorities of residents. In the same context, municipalities in South Africa, in liaison with local police and the provincial department of

safety and security, are required to develop locally specific sectoral plans for law enforcement and crime prevention to address the safety needs of their communities. The process of developing a policy on community safety forums that are local partnerships to coordinate and lead municipal crime prevention initiatives has been initiated.[36]

C.   A plan with clear priorities and targets

A national Government plan or strategy needs to be based on consultations with a wide range of sectors, including the public, as well as research findings and data collection and analysis. (See chapter III for more details on data and research.) This will help to identify the main concerns about crime, victimization and insecurity across the country, including in cities, and possibly rural areas. Examination of some of the causes, and possible interventions in the short-, medium- or longer-term, will help to establish priorities for action. Such plans need to indicate their main objectives, what funding and resources will be needed or available, over what period of time, and who will be involved in implementing the plan. It is important to establish key areas where action should be focused and select the main types of offence or groups at risk. Setting strict national targets for achieving a reduction in crime problems at the local level has been found to be too inflexible an approach, however, since it does not allow for local communities and services to respond to local concerns.

- Australia is a federal country, and while the states and territories have primary responsibility for criminal justice and crime prevention, the national Government plays a key leadership role, including in the prevention of crime and violence. It launched its National Crime Prevention Programme in 1997, with funding of A$ 38 million for policy, research and practical projects, in two phases. The most recent programme under the Office of the Attorney General was the National Community Crime Prevention Programme launched by the Prime Minister in 2004. It provided a total of A$ 65.5 million for local level and grass-roots security-related projects, over a period of four years.

- Japan adopted its five-year Action Plan to Create a Crime-Resistant Society in 2003. The plan included 5 major objectives with 148 related targeted actions to support them. It included social, community-based and situational measures to support families and communities and reduce juvenile offending, encouraged greater citizen involvement in prevention, and initiatives to target drugs and cybercrime and to strengthen controls against organized crime. The Action Plan was under the responsibility of the National Police Agency, in partnership with ministries, and two inter-ministerial groups were set up to implement it. An associated Nationwide Plan to Build Safe and Reassuring Communities involved a number of ministries, as well as the police. A revised Action Plan was adopted in 2008 with renewed target objectives (www.npa.go.jp/english/seisaku2/crime_reduction.pdf).

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[36]*Source*: UN-Habitat, *Making Cities Safer from Crime–A Toolkit* (Nairobi, 2007), p. 23.

- Morocco has adopted a four-year Security Action Plan 2008-2012, which includes national and local initiatives. It aims to strengthen the capacity of the police through modernization and training, as well as devolving authority and resources to provincial and local authorities, giving them a greater ability to respond to local needs. Local police stations will be developed in urban areas where levels of crime are highest. The plan includes the establishment of partnerships between relevant ministries and the public and private sectors to help improve safety and security.

- In the United Kingdom, Scotland has a 10-year Strategic Violence Reduction Plan launched by the Scottish Violence Reduction Unit in December 2007. The plan, under the authority of the Ministry of Justice and the Police, aims to deliver a permanent and sustainable reduction in violence, and was launched by the Cabinet Secretary for Justice, and the Chief Constable of Strathclyde Police. It was circulated to local authority and health service directors, community safety partnership managers, major non-governmental organizations and other groups in Scotland. The plan is designed to initiate discussion, inform local planning and encourage and strengthen local engagement around a shared violence prevention agenda. It sets out six key objectives, which include changing tolerance of and levels of violence, and a series of measures to be achieved by 2010 and 2017. It is expected to be modified on the basis of experience and progress (www.actiononviolence.com).

Depending on the country, funding may be allocated to targeted areas or regions, or to specific problems, such as youth violence, women's safety, drug abuse or trafficking. National funds may be matched with funding from state or local governments, universities, donor countries and/or organizations, or the private sector:

- Burkina Faso established a National Action Plan against Internal and Cross-Border Trafficking in Children (2004-2008). The country has also implemented a national strategy targeting youth at risk.

- The 2010-2014 Country Assistance Strategy developed by the United States Agency for International Development and Jamaica is addressing the social and economic issues which contribute most directly to violent crime and vulnerability to transnational criminal activity. The first priority goal is to increase peace and security by reducing crime and corruption. This will include strengthening community policing and civil society capacity for working in partnerships (http://jamaica.usaid.gov/en/Article.1193.aspx).

D.   Multisector coordination and partnerships

One of the biggest challenges for Governments often lies in encouraging departments and other sectors to operate multisector partnerships instead of confining their activities to discrete areas of responsibility. It is not always easy to persuade departments of health, urban development or labour that they can make an important contribution to crime prevention and community safety. Many departments commonly see crime as a police or justice responsibility and tend to cede power to

those sectors. There is often an unwillingness to share data and information with other departments or with non-governmental actors, as well as reluctance to allocate departmental resources to joint prevention projects.

Under the lead department or central authority, advisory and coordinating committees, with representatives of key stakeholders from other sectors, are often created:

- In the Province of Quebec, Canada, a consultative committee was established in 2000, following the launch of its provincial Crime Prevention Policy under the responsibility of the Ministry for Public Security. The consultative committee includes representatives from other ministries, the police, cities and civil society.

- Hungary adopted its 2003 National Strategy for the Social Prevention of Crime and appointed a National Crime Prevention Board to implement the strategy, under the responsibility of the Crime Prevention Unit of the Ministry of Justice. The five prevention priorities targeted were youth delinquency, urban crime, domestic violence, victimization and recidivism. The Board includes representatives from key departments such as health, housing and education, the police, corrections, local governments, academic institutions, churches and non-governmental organizations.

- In Indonesia, the Indonesian Crime Prevention Foundation undertakes national coordination of crime prevention initiatives with the Ministry of Justice and Human Rights, the Ministry of Social Affairs, the Ministry of External Affairs and the Ministry of the Interior.

- In Norway, while the Police Directorate has a central role in crime prevention, the National Crime Prevention Council established by the Government, provides advice on prevention to them and other government departments and undertakes project implementation on their behalf.

- The Philippines established its annual National Crime Prevention Plan in 2004 under the responsibility of the Philippines National Police. It is a combination of action programmes and strategies for implementation by the sectors of the criminal justice system, national government agencies and all local government sectors. A Technical Committee and an ad hoc Committee of Experts bring together all the relevant sectors to implement the plan.

A wider range of sectors and stakeholders are usually invited to join official representatives in developing specific projects and plans. This includes civil society stakeholders—community representatives, non-governmental organizations and those representing specific interest groups such as youth, women and minority cultural and ethnic communities—as well as the private and business sectors.

Brazil is in the process of developing a national strategy on prevention, in part guided by the experience of its comprehensive national programme on crime prevention, the National Programme for Public Security with Citizenship (PRONASCI) (www.mj.gov.br/pronasci). This programme involves both a series of structural changes to

key institutions and targeted local programmes. It is based on multisector partnerships at the government level, sets objectives and targets the intervention to priority metropolitan areas. The programme outlines a series of priority interventions for which funding is available. It is significant that a condition of funding is the willingness of local municipalities to establish integrated management offices themselves. Currently, 112 municipalities, 21 states and the Federal District are involved in PRONASCI. The programme is described in detail in box 3.

Box 3. Public safety programme in Brazil

Brazil launched its new public safety programme, the National Programme for Public Security with Citizenship (PRONASCI), in 2007. It is based in the Ministry of Justice, and involves 94 structural actions and local programmes. All of these involve partnerships with other ministries on specific issues. The structural actions include modernization of the police forces and penitentiary system and training for professionals. The overall goals of the programme are to directly benefit some 3.5 million public safety professionals, young people and their families, and to reduce the homicide rate from 29 per 100,000 to 12 per 100,000 over the next four years.

The local programmes target high-priority metropolitan regions and involve three funding streams:

(a) The "Territory of peace" programmes are intended: to help establish integrated municipal management and partnerships between local services, including the police and civil society (Offices of Integrated City Management); to establish Communitarian Councils of Public Safety—forums for public safety discussions; to establish mechanisms to increase public knowledge of citizens' roles and rights; to provide financial incentives for young people at risk in connection with cultural projects; to provide services for women victims of violence; to provide human rights training for judges, prosecutors and public defenders; and to establish 10 centres for access to justice and conflict resolution;

(b) The areas covered by the "Family and youth integration" programme are: assistance and training for youth exposed to urban and domestic violence with citizenship, leadership, conflict resolution, sports and cultural activities; a "Citizen reservist" project for young people coming out of compulsory military service, to prevent them from being lured into crime; a "Women of peace" project to provide training in citizenship, human rights and leadership skills to women living in areas where they are at a high risk of trafficking in persons and violence; a series of education projects to raise educational levels for those in the justice system and in prison; a "Painting freedom, painting citizenship" project for prisoners, to manufacture sports equipment for schools and provide job-skills on release;

(c) The "safety and sociability" programme is focused on: recovery of urban spaces and areas in poor communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Cities; intensive education projects in selected communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Education; a series of cultural projects on libraries, museums and youth spaces in targeted areas of deprivation.

States and municipalities are invited to apply for funding for specific projects, and must meet a number of conditions including their willingness to establish integrated management offices. States and municipalities running existing projects outside the designated areas can also apply for funding. A total of R$ 6.707 billion (equivalent to approximately 3.780 billion US$) has been allocated for the period 2007-2011.

Brazil's National Strategy on Public Security is being established following a comprehensive series of participatory discussions with key stakeholders in all regions

of the country. A first National Conference on Public Security was held in August 2009, with representatives from across government sectors, state and local governments and civil society, to shape and support the development of the strategy.

See chapter V for more detailed discussion of multisector and partnership approaches, and chapter VI on civil society engagement.

E. Public education and the media

There are some major reasons why Governments must engage with the public and the media on crime prevention issues and their strategy. Public policy can be driven by public anxiety and demands for tougher action, in the absence of a clear understanding of the alternatives. In almost all countries the media tend to focus on the most violent offences and events, and are a powerful influence shaping public attitudes towards crime. It is evident, nevertheless, that when people are given more balanced information, they are willing to support crime prevention.

In Canada, for example, while media coverage sometimes suggests that the public would like more police and tougher sentencing of offenders, when public views are specifically sought, strong support for a preventive approach is often apparent. A number of public opinion surveys have indicated strong positive attitudes towards investment in prevention programmes.[37]

- 73 per cent of Canadians believe that giving at-risk youth opportunities to get involved in positive activities is the best way to prevent youth crime, compared to 25 per cent who thought handing out tougher sentences is the best solution.

- 67 per cent of Canadians believe that crime prevention is more cost-effective than law enforcement in reducing the economic and social costs of crime to society.

In El Salvador, a study of public perceptions of crime and insecurity found that while many of those questioned saw more police and strong laws as important, many more thought that developing prevention programmes and citizen awareness were the best ways to combat crime.[38]

- 97 per cent of the public in El Salvador thought raising citizens' awareness of their responsibility to prevent crime was the most important response.

- 96 per cent of the public in El Salvador thought prevention programmes an effective way to respond to crime.

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[37]J. V. Roberts and M. Grossman, "Crime prevention and public opinion", *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, vol. 32, 1990, pp. 75-90. Similar results have been found in a number of polls, such as that conducted by the Environics Research Grouping, 1997; and Ekos Research & Associates in 2002 and 2004.

[38]José Simeón Cañas, "La victimización y la percepción de inseguridad en El Salvador en 2009", Instituto Universitario de Opinión Pública (IUDOP), *Boletín de Prensa*, año XXIV, No. 5, 2009.

In many countries, the general public still assumes that it is the sole responsibility of the police to ensure safety and security. Governments therefore need to engage in dialogue with members of the public and to develop concerted campaigns to educate them about the ways in which other sectors can contribute to prevention, about innovative programmes and about how they can personally help to ensure safer communities and minimize their vulnerability.

When developing strategies, it is important for all levels of government to engage with the public on their experiences and the problems and priorities that they see as important. Keeping the public informed about the positive outcomes of programmes, or the challenges being faced, and working with the media to generate more in-depth and balanced reporting on prevention, are important ways to help ensure that programmes are better understood.

Public education is an obvious tool for alerting the public to new and expanding crimes, such as trafficking in persons, trafficking in organs, trafficking in cultural property or cybercrime, and the associated identity theft, economic fraud or sexual exploitation. However, it also needs to be used with care to avoid increasing levels of fear and insecurity among the population. In England and Wales, for example, while there has been a marked drop in the incidence of many crimes over approximately the past 10 years, levels of fear of crime have remained the same or even increased.

Finally, public education is a major resource for working to change the attitudes of the public in general, or those at risk or victims of particular crimes, about the kinds of services available to support them. For example:

- As part of its strategy to prevent violence against women, the Federal Government of Brazil launched a public education campaign aimed at changing attitudes to this crime. This included providing information on services, a 24-hour hotline for victims and a series of public forums on women's safety to increase debate and awareness.

Public education and communication are therefore important for:

- Engaging the public in local programmes

- Alerting the public to emerging crime problems

- Changing attitudes to and awareness of specific types of crime

- Giving information about services and resources

- Assessing public views on local problems

- Assessing public views on priority issues

- Assessing public views on possible solutions

For more detailed information on communicating with the public see chapter VI.

F.   Sustainability and accountability of programmes

Paragraph 10 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

> Crime prevention requires adequate resources, including funding for structures and activities, in order to be sustained. There should be clear accountability for funding, implementation and evaluation and for the achievement of planned results.

Paragraph 20 states:

> *Sustainability*
>
> Governments and other funding bodies should strive to achieve sustainability of demonstrably effective crime prevention programmes and initiatives through, inter alia:
>
> *(a)*   Reviewing resource allocation to establish and maintain an appropriate balance between crime prevention and the criminal justice and other systems, to be more effective in preventing crime and victimization;
>
> *(b)*   Establishing clear accountability for funding, programming and coordinating crime prevention initiatives;
>
> *(c)*   Encouraging community involvement in sustainability.

National strategies and programmes are often established for a set number of years. Crime problems, Governments and government and public priorities can change. The Guidelines pay particular attention to the importance of establishing and sustaining crime prevention as a permanent part of government activity—as part of a balanced approach to safety and security, along with policing and criminal justice systems.

There are a number of ways in which this can be supported if not ensured. One of the main mechanisms is financial and resource commitment in national, State and local budgets. This can include:

- Ongoing financial support for centres responsible for crime prevention

- Improvements to data collection systems

- Investment in victimization surveys

- Training and capacity-building

- Funding mechanisms that encourage local programme development and innovation

A second approach is to establish clear accountability mechanisms for the expenditure of funds and the integrity and completion of programmes, and to guide future

initiatives. It should be a normal procedure for Governments to assess the viability of programmes and accountability for funds. For example:

- The Government of Australia commissioned an independent review of its National Community Crime Prevention Programme. This was commissioned by the Ministry responsible for administering the programme, to assess how money was allocated, the types of project funded and their outcomes in relation to the objectives and goals of the overall programme. The report made recommendations on future programme development based on the identification of strengths and weaknesses in the implementation of the programme.[39]

Sustainability can also be ensured through the adoption of long-term strategies:

- The city of Bogotá, Colombia, published its "Libro blanco" in 2007, outlining its long-term goals for improving the safety and quality of life of its citizens. It sets out ongoing funding mechanisms inviting local boroughs to apply for funds to undertake prevention initiatives.

Finally, sustainability can be enhanced by involving civil society and promoting a clearer understanding of how prevention can improve neighbourhoods and reduce victimization to foster ongoing interest and involvement in programmes. Communities that have become aware of their needs and capacities to act in partnership with Government are more likely to support the continuation of prevention policies.

Nevertheless, sustaining a strategy is not always easy. Some Governments have perhaps placed too much emphasis on financial accountability issues such as evidence of clear and effective results from programmes. In New Zealand, for example, an external evaluation of the national crime prevention strategy pointed to a number of less successful aspects of the strategy which could be changed. The response of the Government was to close down the initiative. This raises the broader issue of good governance. Establishing crime prevention as one of the characteristics of good governance can take time. Sustainability relies in part on taking the prevention of crime off the political agenda, which is not easy, so that all potential Governments understand its value. This is something that the city of Bogotá and some others appear to have achieved.

There are now a number of practical tools and mechanisms that can be used to support sustainable prevention, which is discussed in chapters III-VI, including:

- Tools to support the routine collection of information; the diagnosis of crime problems in a city or local area; and the development, implementation and evaluation of strategies;
- Training in crime prevention techniques and approaches, project implementation, monitoring and evaluation, for practitioners and professionals as well as civil society, including local community organizations, youth groups, women's groups, cultural minorities or new migrants;

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[39]P. Homel and others, *The Review of the National Community Crime Prevention Programme: Establishing a New Strategic Direction* (Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology, 2007).

- Publications, resources and networks to disseminate well-planned or evaluated practices addressing particular issues, such as youth participation and employment projects, effective projects with street children, prevention of residential burglary or gang-related violence;

- Publications and resources to provide information on funding and institutionalizing strategic prevention approaches to ensure their sustainability.

G. Training and capacity-building for Governments and other bodies

Paragraph 18 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

Training and capacity-building

Governments should support the development of crime prevention skills by:

(a) Providing professional development for senior officials in relevant agencies;

(b) Encouraging universities, colleges and other relevant educational agencies to offer basic and advanced courses, including in collaboration with practitioners;

(c) Working with the educational and professional sectors to develop certification and professional qualifications;

(d) Promoting the capacity of communities to develop and respond to their needs.

A final key role for Governments at all levels is to support training and the building of capacity to undertake crime prevention. Working in multisector partnerships, developing comprehensive information systems, analysing data from different sectors, engaging communities, developing effective communication with the public and implementing and evaluating programmes all require specific and often new skills. Governments cannot assume that policymakers and practitioners will necessarily have the requisite skills, resulting in a need for investment in training and capacity-building. Local communities will also need to learn how to use and develop their skills more effectively.

In many countries, training and capacity-building have been undertaken by establishing strong links between Governments and university and research institutions. They may play a number of roles, such as:

- Providing research advice

- Helping to develop policy options

- Assisting with the selection of projects for funding

- Evaluating policies or programmes which have been implemented

- Undertaking research studies on specific crime problems
- Helping develop data collection systems
- Developing and delivering training and capacity-building programmes and curricula for professionals, elected officials, practitioners and civil society groups

The examples below illustrate some of the close working relationships between national and State governments and universities or specialized research centres that have been established in recent years:

- The Government of Australia has worked closely with the Australian Institute of Criminology, a specialized government-funded research institute, in developing its crime prevention programmes and monitoring and evaluating them. It has also funded significant university-based research projects on issues such as early intervention, policing, violence against women and crime prevention and aboriginal communities. The Ministry of the Attorney General, for example, commissioned a major study of preventive strategies entitled Pathways to Prevention, which has resulted in action programmes initiated by State and local governments.

- The State of Minas Gerais and the city of Belo Horizonte in Brazil work very closely with the Study Centre on Crime and Public Safety (CRISP) of the Federal University of Minas Gerais. Apart from developing strong data analysis systems and training programmes, the Centre has collaborated in the development and evaluation of an effective youth homicide prevention programme entitled Fica Vivo ("Stay alive").

- In Chile, the Ministry of Justice collaborates with specialized university centres such as the Programa de Seguridad Urbana at Hurtado University to undertake evaluation of national programmes. The university also offers a diploma programme on urban safety. The Centre for the Study of Citizen Security at the University of Chile runs a series of diploma and masters programmes and professional training and capacity-building in the areas of youth offending, intervention and prevention and local and community prevention (www.cesc.uchile.cl).

- In South Africa, the Centre for Scientific and Industrial Research collaborates extensively with national and State government ministries and with the South African Police Service. It has helped to develop crime prevention guides and toolkits, to design and implement programmes on the ground, and it has supported local municipalities in developing their own prevention strategies, organized conferences to facilitate exchange and the dissemination of good practices and undertaken training programmes for local authority and State government staff.

Many Governments have established online information resource centres to provide advice and practical support for policymakers, practitioners and researchers working at all levels of government.

- In the United Kingdom, the Home Office established the crime reduction website to assist the statutory Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships

(England) or Community Safety Partnerships (Wales). These partnerships must be maintained by every local government municipality. Among other things, the website provides:

○   Information on legislation and new national initiatives

○   An effective practice database

○   Toolkits

○   Downloadable publications and information on journals

○   Links to information about crime prevention awards and related Government initiatives

○   Information on funding resources and on how to apply for these

○   Online learning resources and technical needs assessment

○   Research reports on a range of local community safety topics

○   A discussion forum

○   Mini-sites with information and resources on 25 specific crimes or local safety topics

○   Links to the sites of academic institutions, central government, local groups, police, professional associations and voluntary groups (www.crime reduction.homeoffice.gov.uk)

○   In the State of New South Wales, Australia, the government has created a website to support community-building, including in the area of action on crime prevention at the local level. It is an electronic clearing house providing a range of tools and resources and information on funding sources (www.communitybuilders.nsw.gov.au).

There are now an increasing number of educational and professional courses and qualifications in aspects of crime prevention, to meet the increasing demand and interest in the field. Many are taught by specialized university centres, others by police colleges.[40] Online courses, study visits and graduate courses are now available in many regions. Regional research organizations include organizations such as the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences (FLACSO), which brings together university and research centres in Latin America to work on security and prevention issues.

Non-governmental and international organizations are another valuable source of specialized skill training. Organizations such as the Institute for Security and Democracy (INSYDE) (see box 4 below) and Democracia, Derechos Humanos y Seguridad (DHSS), both based in Mexico, work to support the development of prevention strategies including police training. In Brazil, the Brazilian Forum on Public Security and the Instituto Sou da Paz are examples of non-governmental organizations that undertake training with the police and other public sectors on aspects of prevention. The Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention in South Africa specializes in issues affecting children and youth. It develops tools and training, as well as undertaking research and project development and implementation.

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[40]International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives, 2010* (Montreal, 2010); Beccaria Project (www.beccaria.de).

Box 4. The Institute for Security and Democracy, Mexico

The Institute for Security and Democracy (INSYDE) in Mexico promotes effective policing that is respectful of citizens' rights using models of accountability and democratic policing. In order to increase the capacity of the police to respond to violent crime, the Institute provides training to help them to establish new procedures that discourage corruption and hold officers accountable for abuse, while promoting democratic practices that respond to citizens' needs. It has developed training manuals and provides outreach and technical support to assist the police in improving their performance and oversight systems.

Similarly, numerous international and regional non-governmental organizations provide support to Governments and cities and facilitate technical assistance, training and capacity-building in crime prevention and criminal justice. The Washington Office on Latin America, based in the United States, undertakes research, training and capacity-building to encourage Governments, non-governmental organizations and civil society to work together on violence and security in Latin America. Much of the work of the Office focuses on gangs and youth violence prevention. The European Forum for Urban Safety, based in France, works with European cities, as well as in Latin America and Africa, to support cities in developing prevention initiatives. Many international and regional organizations are members of the United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice programme network, including:[41]

- International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC), based in Canada

- Naif Arab University for Security Sciences, in Saudi Arabia

- Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, based in Costa Rica, and the Institute's office in Brazil

- European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations, based in Finland

- United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, based in Italy

- Korean Institute of Criminology

- African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, based in Uganda

- Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, in Japan.

A capacity-building method that is used with increasing frequency is the exchange of information and experience between countries and cities. Learning directly from those with experience about how they have undertaken projects and dealt with problems is often more efficient than distance learning. Networks such as the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences, ICPC and the European Forum for Urban

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[41]For the full list of the institutes in the United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice programme network, see www.unodc.org/unodc/en/commissions/CCPCJ/institutes.html.

Safety, the European exchange and learning programme promoting sustainable urban development (URBACT), and the Safer Cities Programme of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat) have considerable experience in facilitating such exchanges. The following are some examples:

- The Safer Cities Programme of UN-Habitat was established in 1998, at the request of African mayors. Apart from its work in supporting cities in developing comprehensive prevention strategies, it has held a series of international and regional conferences in Africa and Latin America over the past twelve years. These have brought together mayors and other stakeholders to promote exchange on such subjects as local government crime prevention, women's safety, youth at risk and youth participation programmes and projects (www.unhabitat.org).

- The UNODC South-South project on regional cooperation for determining best practices for crime prevention in the developing world, linked policy-makers and researchers in Southern African and Caribbean countries to provide technical assistance and build capacity between regions experiencing very high levels of violence. A number of exchanges took place, good practices were identified and a Handbook published.[42]

- International workshops on crime prevention, held during the United Nations Congresses on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, in Vienna in 2000, in Bangkok in 2005 and in Salvador in Brazil in 2010 have provided opportunities to exchange experience across regions on specific policies and projects.

- ICPC supported a three-year city-to-city exchange between the French-speaking cities of Montreal, Liège and Bordeaux. This enabled the cities to work together in the development of an analysis of problems related to prostitution and drugs and to develop, implement and evaluate a plan. The outcome was a detailed manual to guide other cities concerned about similar issues.[43]

Finally, major international financial institutions such as the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank support training and capacity-building projects. Similarly, many high-income countries such as Australia, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Japan, Norway, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States facilitate bilateral exchanges and study visits or placements in partnership with medium- and low-income countries. Norway and Serbia, for example, have worked together on a long-term technical assistance programme for Serbia. This has included a series of training programmes for Serbian police in Norway and in Serbia, with practical exchange visits to Norway. The programme includes ongoing mentoring by Norwegian police of Serbian police and local government officials, for example on developing good police-community practices and relationships.

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[42]*Handbook on Planning and Action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions*, Criminal Justice Handbook Series (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.IV.1).

[43]Julie Savignac, Isabelle Lelandais and Valérie Sagant, *Nuisance publiques liées aux drogues et à la prostitution: Manuel pratique pour l'action locale* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007).

Tools and resources

For more information and examples of national, subregional and local strategies on crime prevention see:

- *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives* (Montreal, ICPC, 2008).
- *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives* (Montreal, ICPC, 2010).
- *UN-Habitat, UN-Habitat for Safer Cities.* Safer Cities Programme (Nairobi, 2007).[44]

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[44]See www.unhabitat.com and select Safer Cities Programme and Publications.

III. Knowledge-based crime prevention

A. The foundation of proactive and effective prevention

Paragraph 11 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime is about the use of a knowledge base as one of the basic principles:

> Crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad, multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices.

In relation to the methods for implementing that principle, paragraph 21 states that:

> As appropriate, Governments and/or civil society should facilitate knowledge-based crime prevention by, inter alia:
>
> *(a)* Providing the information necessary for communities to address crime problems;
>
> *(b)* Supporting the generation of useful and practically applicable knowledge that is scientifically reliable and valid;
>
> *(c)* Supporting the organization and synthesis of knowledge and identifying and addressing gaps in the knowledge base;
>
> *(d)* Sharing that knowledge, as appropriate, among, inter alia, researchers, policymakers, educators, practitioners from other relevant sectors and the wider community;
>
> *(e)* Applying this knowledge in replicating successful interventions, developing new initiatives and anticipating new crime problems and prevention opportunities;
>
> *(f)* Establishing data systems to help manage crime prevention more cost-effectively, including by conducting regular surveys of victimization and offending;

(g) Promoting the application of those data in order to reduce repeat victimization, persistent offending and areas with a high level of crime.

The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime place a strong emphasis on the importance of using appropriate knowledge and information to promote well-founded knowledge about the current crime situation, of the underlying causes of crime and of potential preventive strategies. A variety of terms are used by policymakers and researchers working in the area of prevention to refer to this knowledge, including the terms evidence-based and evidence-led prevention. Whatever term is used, the understanding is that data are collected in systematic ways from a variety of reliable sources, and that scientifically valid information derived from research and evaluation of projects on the ground is used.

As has been discussed in previous chapters, since there are many different types of crime and victimization, and many causal factors, it is important to collect information from a wide range of service sectors and sources. In almost all countries, many crimes are never reported to the police, so that police information on the location and victims of crime may not be accurate or comprehensive. Police records of reported crimes can be supplemented by quantitative data from victimization surveys, hospital records on injuries, school records, data from justice and social services, as well as qualitative data such as information from interviews with key stakeholders or groups. A good knowledge base is essential for assessing policy effectiveness and sustainability, and for helping to modify programmes to meet their objectives.

The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime outline some of the ways in which Governments can facilitate the development of a sound knowledge base and its maintenance. This chapter looks at:

- Why the information base for crime prevention needs to be extensive and inclusive

- The main types of information needed—about the extent of crime, causal factors, existing and effective policies and practices, and the implementation and evaluation of programmes

- How a knowledge base can be developed

- Some key data sources and tools which can assist in developing and implementing prevention strategies

B.   Extensive and inclusive knowledge

Paragraph 8 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, on socio-economic development and inclusion, reads:

> Crime prevention considerations should be integrated into all relevant social and economic policies and programmes, including those addressing employment, education, health, housing and urban planning, poverty,

social marginalization and exclusion. Particular emphasis should be placed on communities, families, children and youth at risk.

Paragraph 14, on differentiation, reads:

> Crime prevention strategies should, when appropriate, pay due regard to the different needs of men and women and consider the special needs of vulnerable members of society.

The Guidelines place a strong emphasis on socio-economic development and inclusion and differentiation in the basic principles. Social inclusion refers to the importance of taking account of the needs and experiences of all sectors in society. This includes the poorest and most dispossessed, women, and minority groups such as ethno-cultural populations or migrants. The experience of crime and daily life among these groups is often very different from that of the rest of the population, and they are often excluded socially, economically and even culturally.

Differentiation is a means of ensuring that this difference is addressed. When conducting research into crime and its causes and implementing and evaluating programmes, Governments should consider the effects of crime on these groups, and possible ways of addressing their needs.

For example, Governments should pay particular attention to gender, and the different impacts and experiences of crime for girls and boys, and women and men.

Women are less likely to participate in violent crime, but more vulnerable than men to sexual assault, harassment, domestic violence and trafficking in persons, as well as rape in conflict situations. Rates of reporting of such crimes also tend to be low. Women generally experience higher levels of fear and insecurity in public spaces than men.

To ensure that such differences are understood and systematically included in the overall knowledge gathering process, it is important to disaggregate all data collected in terms of men and women and to seek specific information on both genders. This can be done, for example, through victimization surveys specifically designed to ask women about their experiences of crime. Thus one of the main ways to ensure that the different needs of men and women are considered in prevention strategies is through the mainstreaming of gender.

Gender mainstreaming was defined as follows by the Economic and Social Council:

> **Definition of the concept of gender mainstreaming**
>
> Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's

as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.[45]

The same approach needs to be applied to minority groups, or sectors of the population likely to be excluded from government studies or data collection exercises, which are often based on households. Residents of informal settlements, those without tenure, street children and other children and young people, migrant communities and refugees and minority groups are likely to have experiences of crime and victimization which are not captured in official surveys or police records. Their needs and experiences may require specific investigation in assessing crime problems and causal factors, as well as in developing interventions.

C.   Types of knowledge required

Different types of evidence-based knowledge are required by Governments and practitioners, whether they are developing national, regional or city strategies or planning a specific programme intervention. At each stage of the development of a crime prevention strategy or programme, evidence-based knowledge is needed to assess the size and scope of crime problems, to analyse their causes, identify possible solutions, and select and evaluate programmes. This information can be grouped under four main headings:

Knowledge about the incidence and prevalence of crime-related problems

This requires collecting quantitative and qualitative information from a range of sectors, not relying solely on crime information reported by the police or other security sectors. Information about the prevalence and incidence of unreported crimes and of fear of crime can be collected through victimization surveys. Relevant and reliable information on crime and social problems can be collated from a variety of sources such as hospital accident and emergency departments, schools, housing, transport, recreation and environmental departments, family, youth and social services.

Civil society organizations and local communities are an important resource. They are likely to have in-depth experience and knowledge about specific groups that are hard to access, such as street children, young people at risk or in youth gangs, women victims of violence and socially marginalized populations. The organizations working with these groups can be helpful in reaching such groups to listen to their views. Qualitative information from interviews and observations will help to supplement quantitative data.

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[45]Economic and Social Council agreed conclusions 1997/2 on mainstreaming a gender perspective into all policies and programmes in the United Nations system (see *Official Records of the General Assembly, Fifty-second session, Supplement No. 3* (A/52/Rev.1), chap. IV, para. 4).

National and State or provincial governments will want to look at the incidence of crime in both urban and rural settings. Local governments will need to examine patterns of crime and related problems in their area of jurisdiction, and in relation to their region, or other cities in the country.

Knowledge about the causes of crime and victimization

Once information on crime and related social and economic problems has been identified, information on when and where such problems occur, and who is involved, will help to build a picture of the main patterns and trends, and the likely causal factors. This will help to identify the most vulnerable populations and the targets or places most commonly associated with certain types of crime.

As before, such information needs to be analysed by a variety of sectors and disciplines, involving inputs from a range of services including urban planners, housing departments, youth services, police and justice, and civil society, as well as research expertise. A clear pattern of violent crimes by young people may be identified in certain areas, for example, but there may be a number of contributing factors, from a lack of street lighting which reduces the risks for offenders, an absence of recreational facilities and resources, or an increase in drug trafficking, all of which could be addressed through different types of interventions.

It is important to examine patterns of crime and social problems in relation to the specific context of each country or city. In general, the factors affecting crime and victimization risks are similar across regions and countries. It is the scale of the problems that differs. There are likely to be specific factors affecting individual middle- or low-income countries, such as levels of corruption, levels of trust in the police or rates of poverty and social and economic problems that attract transnational crime. Risk factors such as high unemployment levels among young people, the situation with access to schools and education or access to guns will vary considerably.

Knowledge about existing policies and good practices

In order to select interventions that appear likely to respond to the crime and social problems identified, it is important to look at what programmes and services already exist in a country or city, and how they might be improved. It is also valuable to look at the experience of effective crime prevention practices in other countries, locally, regionally and internationally. This includes interventions with short-, medium- and longer-term outcomes.

Research on the effectiveness of crime prevention interventions has grown extensively in recent years as Governments and researchers have invested in prevention. Identifying programmes that have been well run, meet their objectives, and appear to have promising outcomes, is important in helping to inform decision makers about the most appropriate projects to undertake.

Most of the carefully controlled scientific studies which enable the impacts of a programme to be measured accurately have been conducted in high-income

countries. They have been able to draw on extensive data collection resources and skilled researchers, and assume that institutions and service sectors are relatively strong.

Prevention programmes evaluated by the international research network the Campbell Collaboration (www.campbellcollaboration.org), for example, involve only those programmes that have met a series of scientific standards such as the use of a control group and a clearly identified type of intervention. By studying groups of similar programmes in different settings, the Campbell Collaboration is able to identify the effectiveness of those types of programmes.[46] This approach is particularly adapted to the evaluation of certain types of crime prevention, such as situational or early childhood intervention. It is more difficult to apply to strategies or community interventions that involve a range of different activities. Further, much of this work has been conducted in high-income countries, and is not necessarily directly transferable even within a region.

Information on policies and practices developed by countries, cities and local organizations can be found in inventories and compendiums on promising and successful crime prevention strategies and programmes, which are now widely available in several languages. They include award-winning prevention projects in different regions and countries such as the European Union Crime Prevention Network or the "Local innovation awards scheme" in England and Wales (www.npia. org); inventories and reports on effective practices, such as those compiled by the Campbell Collaboration; or model programmes that have been evaluated and replicated, such as the Blueprint programmes developed in the United States; and compilations of programmes on specific topics such as urban crime prevention, youth at risk, women's safety, youth gang interventions, safe schools and the management of public spaces. More information is provided in publications of the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (www.crime-prevention-intl.org).

In Europe, the European Union Crime Prevention Network and the Beccaria and CRIMPREV projects have generated useful studies of evidence-based prevention. Regional networks such as the European Forum for Urban Safety, and international networks such as ICPC similarly provide information on comparative research and prevention practices that appear promising or have been shown to be effective in specific settings.

Scientifically reliable studies from regions such as Latin America and the Caribbean and Africa are becoming increasingly available and are an important resource for Governments assessing their own situation. The Safer Cities Programme of UN-Habitat, for example, has undertaken a number of studies of crime and victimization across African cities. In Latin America, regional research organizations such as the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences (FLACSO), country-based university centres such as the Study Centre on Crime and Public Safety (CRISP) in Minas Gerais, the Centre for Studies on Public Security and Citizenship (CeSeC)

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[46]See Lawrence Sherman and others, *Preventing Crime: What Works, What Doesn't, What's Promising*, report to the United States Congress prepared for the National Institute of Justice (Washington, D.C., 1997).

in Rio de Janiero, Brazil, and the Programa de Seguridad at Hurtado University in Chile are important resources. Regional sources can be valuable for identifying projects in neighbouring countries with similar experiences and contexts. South-South exchanges such as the UNODC regional project linking Southern African countries and the Caribbean have all helped in the identification of good practices and project ideas in countries facing similar challenges.

Some examples of compendiums and reports on specific prevention themes include:

- *Preventing Gender-Based Violence in the Horn, East and Southern Africa: A Regional Dialogue* (UN-Habitat, 2004) is a review of good practices for increasing the safety of women through a range of programmes in the community and with local authorities. The report was developed in three phases: an extensive field review of some 400 organizations, individuals and local authorities asking them about their key objectives, programmes and lessons learned in relation to gender-based violence; a regional dialogue which brought together practitioners responsible for the most promising programmes; publication of the findings and recommendations.

- *Daring to Care: Community-Based Responses to Youth Gang Violence in Central America and Central American Immigrant Communities in the United States* (Washington, D.C., Washington Office on Latin America, 2008) is a review of the successful elements of anti-gang strategies and programmes in the Central American region and the United States. It is based on a detailed analysis of six programmes.

- *Urban Crime Prevention and Youth at Risk: Compendium of Promising Strategies and Programmes from Around the World* (Montreal, ICPC, 2005) is a compendium of local government and city initiatives, and those targeting young men and women at risk of victimization or offending, providing a brief synopsis of the objectives and outcomes of projects and contact information. It was prepared for the eleventh session of the United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice.

Knowledge about the process of implementing programmes and measuring their outcomes and impacts

Perhaps the most neglected areas of crime prevention knowledge have been the practical implementation of programmes and policies, and methods for evaluating them. This is an integral aspect of effective prevention, in which Governments need to invest time and resources.

As discussed in the introduction, much has been learned in recent years about the need to pay attention to how policies and programmes are implemented, and how they are evaluated. Many programmes can fail because of a lack of the necessary skills or understanding among those implementing the programmes or because the objectives were unclear or unrealistic. Being able to demonstrate which aspects of a programme helped reduce crime, and which aspects seemed less effective, or had unexpected results, forms a major part of evidence-based prevention. Similarly, being

able to demonstrate that a policy has helped to reduce problems by raising aware-
ness,
and by providing services and advice, is important for guiding future policy
development.

The monitoring and evaluation of programmes relies on the development of logical
and detailed frameworks for each intervention, with a clear set of objectives, target
populations and areas, expected outcomes and distribution of responsibilities. This
lays the foundation for programme management and monitoring after implementa-
tion and assessment of the progress of the project and the extent to which it meets
the objectives established. Measuring the outcomes and impacts of programmes on
the crime and social problems identified requires particular sets of skills and
knowledge, and Governments often work with universities and research centres which
can provide support.

As with promising or effective crime prevention practices, information and guidance
on implementing programmes, and on monitoring and evaluating them, can now be
found through many of the government, academic, and specialized crime prevention
centres mentioned in the present document. There is also information on many of
the problems commonly encountered.

Implementation and evaluation approaches are explored in more detail in chapter IV.

D.   Developing evidence-based knowledge

Considerable work has been done by Governments at all levels to develop and
support a good crime prevention knowledge base. In the United States, for example,
the Department of Justice regularly funds research and evaluation of crime
prevention programmes through its National Institute of Justice. For example, it
funded a five-year evaluation of the implementation of a series of court-based
programmes to prevent domestic violence against women.[47] It has supported a
number of programmes on safer communities and youth-gang and gun interventions,
such as "Project safe neighbourhoods", which is an effective nationwide programme
to reduce gun violence.

In the Crime Reduction Programme introduced by the Government in England and
Wales in 1997, 10 per cent of the funds were allocated to evaluation of the
programme, and universities were invited to apply for funding to evaluate specific
projects funded by the programme, such as school-related crime, residential burglary
or violence against women. The Australian Ministry of the Attorney General funded
a long-term research programme entitled "Pathways to prevention", to identify the
key factors influencing delinquent behaviour. It has subsequently provided some of
the funding for the application of the findings from that study in the context of an

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[47]Adele Harrell and others, *The Judicial Oversight Demonstration: Culminating Report on the Evaluation* (Wash-
ington, D.C., United States Department of Justice, National Institute of Justice, 2009). Available from: www.ojp.
usgov/nij/pubs.

action research project.[48] Many Governments now make the inclusion of monitoring and evaluation in a project a prerequisite for funding.

Governments can provide support for the development of new or improved data sets. The Government of Canada, for example, supported the development of detailed geographical databases which combine police and local mapping data for crime prevention purposes. The results have been made available to the public.[49] A number of countries have regular household or victimization surveys that provide ongoing sources of information on crime trends, fear of crime, and public attitudes, all of which generate valuable information for the development of prevention strategies.

Facilitating workshops and forums to discuss research results, and the publication of resources and research findings, are very effective ways to disseminate information to key stakeholders, such as the police and city planners, and to civil society organizations. A number of countries or regions have instituted awards to encourage good prevention practices on the ground. Others have established specific mechanisms for collecting information on practices and policies, and for the dissemination of that knowledge. These include the European Union Crime Prevention Network established in 2001 by European Governments, the Ministry of the Attorney General in Australia and the Home Office in England and Wales.

E. Data sources and tools for implementing a knowledge-based approach

Data on crime and related problems

Crime statistics

Police reports on crime contribute significantly to any analysis of the incidence and prevalence of crime, its location and who might be involved. Reliable statistical data on crime rates and trends are a central component of knowledge-based prevention, but are not always easily obtainable, or sufficient for a well-founded understanding of crime problems. It is universally acknowledged that police statistics do not provide an accurate account of the crime that people experience.[50] Rates of crime reported to the police are highly dependent on the willingness of people to report them, on the capacity of the police to record them and on data-collection systems themselves.

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[48]R. Homel and others, *Pathways to Prevention* (Canberra, Australian Government Publishing Services, 1999); Ross Homel and others, *The Pathways to Prevention Project: The First Five Years 1999-2004* (Sydney, Griffith University and Mission, 2006).

[49]Josée Savoie, *Analysis of the Spatial Distribution of Crime in Canada: Summary of Major Trends*, Canada, Statistics Canada, Crime and Justice Research Paper Series, No. 15 (Ottawa, 2008).

[50]Jan Van Dijk, *The World of Crime: Breaking the Silence on Problems of Security, Justice and Development Across the World* (Thousand Oaks, California, Sage Publications, 2008); *Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit* (New York, UNODC, 2006).

In all countries, regardless of the level of income, the majority of crime is not reported to the police for a variety of reasons, including fear of the consequences, or mistrust of the police. In other cases some police forces may not maintain reliable and routine police statistics, and there may be problems of overlapping jurisdictions when state and city police, for example, collect information in different ways. Difficulties in accessing police data can be common.

Further, certain types of crime are more likely to be underreported than others, including violence against women, crimes against children and young people, drug offences, corruption, white collar crime and fraud, and organized crime, including trafficking in persons, drugs or guns.

Partly in a bid to overcome these problems, population-based victimization surveys have become a major source for supplementing police statistics on recorded crime, and providing countries with a way of identifying the location of crimes and measuring trends in crime over time.

Victimization surveys

Victimization surveys are an important resource for collecting information about the extent of crime and victimization experienced by individual citizens in a country or a city. Usually based on households, they can also provide information about whether or not people report offences, and why or why not, perceptions of insecurity and priority issues in an area.

Victimization surveys have been extensively used by UNODC and UN-Habitat under the Safer Cities Programme in individual countries and cities in Africa, and in Papua New Guinea, for example, where representative police statistics are not easily available. (See www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/Data-for-Africa-publications.html.)

Considerable work has been undertaken to standardize victimization surveys and provide assistance to countries and cities on their development and use. The International Crime Victim Survey, which uses a standardized questionnaire to allow for comparisons between countries, has been conducted several times in an increasing number of countries. In 2005 this included over 30 countries in most regions of the world. For more information, see www.unicri.it/wwd/analysis/icvs/index/php.

UNODC and the Economic Commission for Europe have developed a *Manual on Victimization Surveys* published in 2009, which has been piloted in a number of countries including the United Republic of Tanzania, Rwanda and Uganda.[51] This provides guidance to national Governments on standards and common definitions, and ways of dealing with methodological problems. Below are some examples of victimization surveys commissioned by local authorities:

- *Victimisation in Tanzania: Surveys of Crime in Arusha, Dar es Salaam and Mtwara* (UN-Habitat, 2007) reports on a survey commissioned by three municipalities

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[51]ECE/CES/4.

in the United Republic of Tanzania. A total of 3,350 people were interviewed about their perceptions of crime and safety, opinions about the police and the courts, corruption, and their experience of crime. Demographic data for 13,373 households from the three areas were also collected. The study raised a number of issues about crime and its prevention: law enforcement officers needed to increase their presence and interaction with the public in all three municipalities; relations between the police and the local private police (Sungusungu) needed to be formalized and improved, with clearer roles, rights and obligations; corruption was a priority for the police force and local authorities; and corruption and crime should be seen as priorities for the social and economic development agenda of the three municipalities.[52]

- In the absence of any census-based data, a series of victimization surveys have been used in Southern Sudan to assess the scale and distribution of armed violence in the region. Working with local communities, the surveys provided vital information on health, education and prevention needs. They helped to *(a)* identify priorities for future interventions; *(b)* measure the outcomes of interventions over time; and *(c)* act as capacity-building for the local communities involved.[53]

- In Nigeria, the Lagos State Crime and Safety Survey was completed in 2009. The survey was conducted in 20 local government areas across the State by the Lagos State Security Trust Fund and the CLEEN Foundation. It looked at levels of victimization, experience of official corruption, fear of crime and public perceptions of governance and performance. (www.lagosstatesecurity-trustfund.org and www.cleen.org)

Victimization surveys are also used to look at specific crime problems or populations, such as violence against women in the home or in public, youth victimization, or school safety. Violence against women is one of the main categories of crime which is under-reported.

The International Violence Against Women Survey is an example of an international instrument and resource which has been adapted for use in a range of countries. A recent report on results from 11 countries provides valuable information on the extent of such violence, where it occurs and who is involved, the characteristics of the victims, and reasons for failure to report incidents.[54] The World Health Organization (WHO) similarly used victimization surveys with trained interviewers in 10 countries, for their 2005 *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women*.[55]

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[52]UN-Habitat, Safer Cities Programme, *Victimisation in Tanzania: Surveys of Crime in Arusha, Dar es Salaam and Mtwara* (2007).

[53]Robert Muggah and others, "Surveying armed violence, arms and victimization in Southern Sudan: findings and challenges", in *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*, Conflict and Fragility Series (Paris, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2009).

[54]Holly Johnson, Natalie Ollus and Sami Nevala, *Violence Against Women: An International Perspective* (New York, Springer, 2008).

[55]Claudia García-Moreno and others, *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women Initial Results on Prevalence, Health Outcomes and Women's Responses* (Geneva, World Health Organization, 2005).

Other information sources

Population censuses and household surveys provide valuable information on, for example, population size, age, ethnic background and gender, as well as geographical distribution; and on family or household size and income factors. Specialized ongoing surveys can provide information over time about family and child development. Such longitudinal surveys follow children and young people as they grow. The National Longitudinal Survey on Children and Youth in Canada is one example.

Public health information is a major source of information on injuries, accidents and violent deaths. *The World Report on Violence and Health* published by the World Health Organization in 2004 argues for taking an approach to all forms of violence that is based on public health, rather than exclusively on criminal justice. A wide range of data on drug and alcohol use, accidents and assaults, or infant mortality, can provide valuable information to increase understanding of patterns of crime and victimization.

Health data have been used extensively in Latin America and the Caribbean in the absence of routine victimization survey data, notably through the work of the Pan American Health Organization (www.paho.org). The World Health Organization, the Pan American Health Organization, the Violence Prevention Alliance, which is a network of World Health Organization member States, international agencies and civil society organizations, as well as the Inter-American Coalition for the Prevention of Violence, are all valuable sources and resources on violence prevention (www.who.int/violenceprevention). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development report *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*, published in 2009, illustrates how a public health approach can be applied in fragile and post-conflict situations, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America, to help to reduce youth and adult armed violence (www.who.int/violenceprevention).[56]

Housing and environmental departments can provide information on land use, tenure, environmental conditions and services, and on the availability and condition of public facilities such as recreation centres and parks. They can also provide data on the location of problems arising from vandalism or drug misuse for example.

Justice and prison services are a major resource for information on offender characteristics and sentencing patterns; the characteristics of prison and youth custody populations, the types of treatment and training services offered, and on reoffending rates. This information can be supplemented by information from prisoners and those being released on what their needs are to avoid reincarceration.

Other data sources include schools and education services, family and social services, victim services and fire departments, as well as civil society organizations and the private sector.

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[56]*Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development* (Paris, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2009).

Self-report surveys offer a further source of information to measure the extent of minor offending. Groups of respondents, often children or young people, are asked whether they have committed various acts. Annual self-report offending surveys were initiated in England and Wales in 2003, to collect information on lifetime offending, attitudes towards the justice system and victimization experiences.[57]

Qualitative sources include a range of methods to provide in-depth information about particular groups or neighbourhoods or hard-to-reach populations such as street children. Some examples are community interviews, focus groups, participatory decision-making, and participatory appraisal mechanisms such as youth or women's safety walks and audits of public space.

Some Governments have developed protocols on the sharing of data that aid the pooling of information for the purposes of analysing crime problems and developing prevention plans (see chapter V).

Tools for analysing data and assessing options

Observatories

A number of regions, countries and cities have established permanent mechanisms for collating and assessing information on crime and related problems. Often called observatories, or monitoring centres (see box 5), these are specialized centres that bring together data and information from multiple sectors, as well as the agencies and personnel who work in different sectors. By definition, therefore, observatories involve multidisciplinary and multisector coordination and collaboration. By establishing such centres, Governments can facilitate the analysis of the incidence, causes and trends in crime and violence and related problems, as well as monitoring progress with strategic plans over time.

Box 5. Observatories on crime and social problems

Numerous countries, regions and cities have developed crime trends observatories to improve information and understanding about crime and the social and economic problems associated with it. This enables them to target resources more efficiently to reduce crime and insecurity, and build community safety. The territory covered by observatories varies. The observatories may be local—for instance Madrid and Bogotá have city observatories—subregional (Regional Observatory on Security Policies, Italy), national (l'Observatoire national de la délinquance, France), or regional (Observatorio Centroamericano sobre Violencia (OCAVI)). Many observatories focus on overall safety issues (Crime Observatory in Trinidad and Tobago), but others are concerned with specific topics (Canadian Observatory on School Violence and l'Observatoire français des drogues et des toxicomanies (OFDT) in France).

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[57]*Guidance on Local Safety Audits: A Compendium of International Practice* (Paris, European Forum for Urban Safety, 2007); and Home Office (www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/index.html).

Crime observatories primarily aim to inform policy decisions based on information that goes beyond police data. They build on partnerships between public, quasi-public and/or private actors (municipal services, transport services, social housing, landlords, business, traders and so forth) to access data from each sector. They often develop and use geographical information systems, victimization and fear of crime surveys, and self-report delinquency surveys, as well as information from qualitative interviews and focus groups, in order to develop a fine-grained understanding of local crime and violence issues.*

The city of Bogotá has established a number of observatories since 1995 as part of its strategy to reduce violent deaths and promote citizen security. They include an Observatory on violence and crime (SUIVD), a parks observatory, and others on integrated transportation. All of them enable the city to strengthen its knowledge and oversight with continuous monitoring and evaluation of policies, and systematic analysis of trends.

*See the proceedings of two international meetings on observatories organized by ICPC in 2007 and 2009, available from www.crime-prevention-intl.org/menu_item.php?code=other_icpc_events.

Geographical information systems

Geographical information systems (GIS) are another tool that has come to be widely used to support policing and crime prevention. These are computer-based systems for combining police crime data with spatial location information. A well known example was the introduction of the GIS system COMPSTAT in New York City in the 1990s, together with a daily analysis of crime events and rapid police responses to prevent future incidents.

For the police, GIS can be used for operational, tactical and strategic purposes. This includes mapping patterns of different types of offence (such as household burglaries, thefts and robberies), identifying the areas where they occur most frequently (hot spots), and identifying some of the causal factors. Hospital record information, school information and other data can also be added to such maps. This analysis enables pro-active measures to be implemented, such as changing traffic flows, introducing street lighting, or patrolling. Such mapping can be used by crime prevention partnerships for both short- and longer-term planning of prevention programmes.

One of the main inputs for GIS is geo-coded data. This is precise geographical information on local neighbourhood streets and addresses. It requires cities to have accurate address data and good analytical models. Accurate data are less likely to be available in overcrowded cities, however, especially those with informal settlements in middle- and low-income countries. The use of such data also raises issues of confidentiality and data sharing, and since police records are dependent on the willingness of people to trust and report incidents to them, these systems cannot give a precise indication of the incidence of all crimes committed.

Examples include the following:

- The city of Diadema, São Paulo, Brazil, introduced a GIS system in 2000, as part of its policy on public safety and the prevention of crime. It was used by the newly-created Municipal Department of Social Policies and Public Security, to assist with the diagnosis, monitoring and strategic planning of prevention measures.[58]

- The Centre for Studies on Public Safety (CRISP), at the Federal University of Minas Gerais, in Brazil, has created an Atlas of Criminality for the City of Belo Horizonte, as well as for the State of Minas Gerais. This has combined data from the 1980s to 2000 from the military and civil police, the Ministry of Health, socio-economic information and census data. Similar work has been undertaken by CRISP in other Brazilian cities and the State of Minas Gerais, on specific topics such as homicides, drug offences, domestic violence and robbery (www.crisp.ufmg.br).

- In Canada, the Federal Government has piloted an analysis of neighbourhood crime in six cities. This combined geo-coding information and police uniform crime statistics data. It helped to highlight high and low crime neighbourhoods, youth crime, patterns of travel to commit crime, and trends over time in those cities. The study was undertaken by Statistics Canada and the National Crime Prevention Centre.[59]

Safety audits and local governments

One of the major tools for aiding the systematic analysis of local crime problems and the development of a detailed plan is a safety audit or safety diagnosis. This tool provides a practical and detailed guide and checklist on who should be involved, the kinds of data to collect and how to assess the information.

Safety audits, like observatories, promote commitment and ownership in relation to crime prevention plans among the partners whose collaboration is necessary. Safety audits are sometimes also referred to as security diagnoses, and may include crime profiles and environmental scans. What is essential is that the safety audit examines not just crime and victimization, but their links to social and economic factors, and existing services, as well as the wider political and institutional context in which problems occur.

Many examples now exist, adapted to the situations in different countries. A major resource is the *Guidance on Local Safety Audits: A Compendium of International Practice*,[60] which provides clear and detailed advice and examples relevant to high-, medium- and low-income countries.

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[58]See José de Filippi Jr., "The experience of Diadema, São Paulo, Brazil", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention, in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007).

[59]Savoie, *Analysis of the spatial distribution of crime in Canada* (see footnote 49).

[60]*Guidance on Local Safety Audit* (see footnote 57). Available in Arabic, Chinese, English, French, German, Russian and Spanish from www.fesu.org.

Written primarily for those working at the city level, the *Guidance* covers the safety audit process including why such audits are important, the stages of preparing and implementing an audit, and how to engage the community; specific issues which audits might look at such as children or youth at risk, interpersonal violence including gender-based violence, reintegration of offenders, trafficking in persons, alcohol and drugs, businesses and crime, and high-crime neighbourhoods. The *Guidance* also provides information on sources, techniques and tools, including using secondary sources, collecting survey data and qualitative information.

The three sections of the *Guidance* provide increasing levels of detail and are designed to inform those at three levels of responsibility: policymakers at national and local government levels; those overseeing a safety audit process (a local consultative or steering committee); and practitioners undertaking the audit work.

Safety audits are discussed in more detail in chapter IV.

This chapter has looked at the main types and sources of knowledge needed to develop crime prevention strategies and some of the ways Governments can develop their own resources. The following chapter looks in more detail at the planning process, and at monitoring and evaluation.

IV. Planning, monitoring and evaluation

A. The planning process

The previous chapters have outlined the key role of Governments in providing leadership and facilitating the development of overall policies and programmes on crime prevention, and the importance of using an evidence- or knowledge-based approach. Some of the tools that can be used have also been outlined.

This chapter considers in more detail how a policy or programme can be developed, and the kinds of monitoring and evaluation that can be used.

As the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime emphasize, a systematic process for development and management is needed, whether planning at the national or local level:

Planning interventions

22. Those planning interventions should promote a process that includes:

   (a) A systematic analysis of crime problems, their causes, risk factors and consequences, in particular at the local level;

   (b) A plan that draws on the most appropriate approach and adapts interventions to the specific local problem and context;

   (c) An implementation plan to deliver appropriate interventions that are efficient, effective and sustainable;

   (d) Mobilizing entities that are able to tackle causes;

   (e) Monitoring and evaluation.

Support evaluation

23. Governments, other funding bodies and those involved in programme development and delivery should:

   (a) Undertake short- and longer-term evaluation to test rigorously what works, where and why;

(b)   Undertake cost-benefit analyses;

(c)   Assess the extent to which action results in a reduction in levels of crime and victimization, in the seriousness of crime and in fear of crime;

(d)   Systematically assess the outcomes and unintended consequences, both positive and negative, of action, such as a decrease in crime rates or the stigmatization of individuals and/or communities.

Ensuring standards in project planning and implementation

Many guides to project planning in crime prevention have been developed over the years. Essentially, such guides set out a series of stages which, if followed, will help:

- To aid decision-making

- To improve the quality of information obtained

- To ensure that interventions and outcomes are appropriate

- To guide future interventions by showing what problems were encountered, and how interventions can be improved

A number of different terms are used for this evidence and process-based approach to project planning. The acronym SARA, for example, stands for scanning, analysis, response and assessment, and is widely used by police forces that have adopted a forward-looking problem-solving approach. The European Union Network on Crime Prevention uses the "Five I's":

> The "Five I's"—a series of headings to capture the essential elements of a crime prevention or reduction initiative so that lessons learned can be clear and decisions made about replication. [They] comprise: intelligence, intervention, implementation, involvement and impact.[61]

The European Beccaria Standards (available from www.beccaria-standards.net) for ensuring quality management in crime prevention projects provide a more detailed summary of the various steps involved in each of these main stages in project planning and management.[62] They were developed as part of a partnership project among European Union countries. The purpose of the project is to improve awareness of the importance of evidence-based crime prevention, to help improve practices through the development of the Standards, and to promote training in crime prevention.

The Beccaria Standards set out the measures and steps that should be taken in the planning, execution and assessment of crime prevention programmes and projects.

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[61]Tilley, *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety* (see footnote 17), p. 762.

[62]See also Erich Marks, Anja Meyer and Ruth Linssen, eds., *Quality in Crime Prevention* (Norderstedt, Books on Demand, 2005).

They contain a set of detailed requirements for each of seven key steps:

1. Description of the problem

2. Analysis of the conditions leading to the emergence of the problem

3. Determination of previous targets, project targets and targeted groups

4. Termination of the interventions intended to achieve the targets

5. Design and execution of the project

6. Review of the project's implementation and achievement of objectives (evaluation)

7. Conclusion and documentation.

B.   Linking transnational organized crime and national and local strategies

Paragraph 13 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

Interdependency

National crime prevention diagnoses and strategies should, where appropriate, take account of links between local criminal problems and international organized crime.

Paragraph 27 reads:

Prevention of organized crime

Governments and civil society should endeavour to analyse and address the links between transnational organized crime and national and local crime problems by, inter alia:

(a)   Reducing existing and future opportunities for organized criminal groups to participate in lawful markets with the proceeds of crime, through appropriate legislative, administrative or other measures;

(b)   Developing measures to prevent the misuse by organized criminal groups of tender procedures conducted by public authorities and of subsidies and licences granted by public authorities for commercial activity;

(c)   Designing crime prevention strategies, where appropriate, to protect socially marginalized groups, especially women and children, who are vulnerable to the action of organized criminal groups, including trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants.

While the Organized Crime Convention and the Protocols thereto provide considerable guidance to national Governments, transnational organized crime also affects safety and security at the local level, and cannot solely be combated through strengthening border security or targeting international traffickers.

All transnational crime relies on networks of individuals willing to take risks and for whom there appear to be benefits in doing so. Those living in impoverished and disadvantaged communities may feel they have little option but to become involved, and organized crime often preys upon families and young people in such communities, giving them little opportunity to refuse to become involved. This includes youth forced or recruited into organized drug trafficking or prostitution, or children trafficked for sexual exploitation or forced labour.

The UNODC *World Drug Report 2009*[63] highlights the links between drugs and crime and the importance of action at the city level, where drug deals take place and where drug-related crimes such as robbery and homicides occur. It emphasizes the importance of adopting preventive measures to reduce demand, to balance control of the supply. In the past, education, prevention and treatment of illicit drug use have received less attention than enforcement. This report reinforces the importance of strategic prevention approaches, especially in cities: "Housing, jobs, education, public services, and recreation can make communities less vulnerable to drugs and crime." ("World Drug Report 2009 highlights links between drugs and crime", press release No. UNIS/NAR/R059, 24 June 2009. Available from www.unis.unvienna.org.)

In the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, national Governments are invited to consider addressing circumstances that promote and favour organized crime. Organized crime thrives in situations where there is a weak culture of lawfulness, where governance is ineffective and levels of corruption high, and where there are lax regulatory systems so that property, business and financial institutions are vulnerable to exploitation.

The Guidelines set out some of the measures that Governments can take to help reduce such opportunities, such as programmes to educate the public, to prevent recruitment, or to improve regulations on the use of commercial property and strengthen administrative and legislative controls.

As an example, in the Czech Republic, a national anti-trafficking policy was adopted by the Government in an effort to respond to increasing rates of trafficking in persons in the 1990s. Its purpose was to prevent the trafficking of primarily young women and girls into and out of the country. While legislative and criminal justice changes were made to strengthen responses, it was evident that effective prevention and victim support needed to be core elements of the strategy. The strategy included the development of a general public awareness campaign, targeted campaigns among drug users and other at-risk groups, and the development of teaching and awareness materials for teachers and other sectors; the creation of a partnership coalition between the police and non-governmental organizations; training for all partners including border guards and special police units, regional authorities, non-governmental organizations and other bodies providing support services for victims of trafficking; and the development of targeted activities at the local level.[64]

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[63]United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.XI.12.

[64]Radim Bures, "Youth sexual exploitation: a strategic approach to combating trafficking of youth in the Czech Republic", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention, in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007).

In another example, in Italy, organizations such as the non-governmental organization On the Road undertake a variety of initiatives in collaboration with local authorities, and at the national level, to help prevent the sexual exploitation of young girls and women, many of them irregular immigrants or trafficked persons. The organization also provides support services (www.ontheroadonlus.it). In Sicily, a programme to create awareness among children about the mafia and organized crime has been developed and used in schools for a number of years.

The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking is a valuable resource for information on planning prevention measures, including developing victim services (un.gift@unvienna.org).[65]

C.   Planning and implementing national policies

As discussed in chapter II, national plans need to be based on consultation across sectors and with civil society stakeholders, as well as research findings and data collection and analysis. This process will help to indicate various types of crime, levels of insecurity and public concerns, and associated social and economic problems identified across the country. A national plan needs to indicate:

- The main safety and crime and victimization challenges facing the country, its cities and rural areas
- Their likely causes
- Priorities for intervention in the short, medium and longer term
- A set of proposed initiatives to address those priorities
- The actors to be involved in implementing the plan
- The funding and resources to be made available or matched

Setting priorities will depend in part on the extent and seriousness of problems, where they occur, the extent to which they appear to be increasing, levels of injury and fear associated with them and the social and economic costs associated with them. They will include priority places and neighbourhoods or urban areas where offences are occurring, and priority groups that are offending or victimized or both.

There may be concerns in many urban areas about the safety of public spaces, public transit, taxis or cars. Residential and commercial burglary may be increasing in certain areas and cities, but there is a lack of information about its incidence in slums and disadvantaged areas. There may be problems of disorder and violence associated with nightclubs and bars, suggesting the need to establish a specific set of policies control-ling access to alcohol, or licensing regulations. There may be an increase in gun-related deaths in disadvantaged neighbourhoods. Evidence of trafficking in persons and exploitation may be emerging.

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[65]An example of a publication is: International Organization for Migration, United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking and London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, *Caring for Trafficked Persons: Guidance for Health Providers* (Geneva, International Organization for Migration, 2009). Available from www.ungift.org.

In relation to vulnerable groups, there may be serious problems of homelessness among children and youth and vulnerability to victimization. Violence and intimidation in and around schools may be a concern. Girls and women may be at high risk of sexual assault and rape outside their homes and vulnerable to violence in their families. Violent adult gangs may be recruiting teenagers into organized armed violence. Migrant communities and refugees may be targeted and victimized. There may be few or no facilities and programmes for those coming out of custody.

The UNODC Crime Prevention Assessment Tool outlines some of the questions that need to be considered in terms of the specific crime and victimization issues and the specific groups that may be affected.[66] Developing a picture of the most vulnerable places and populations helps to establish priority areas, priority offences and priority groups that can benefit from the prevention strategy. Chile, for example, developed an Index of Criminal Vulnerability to help target programmes to those municipalities at the highest risk of crime and victimization. Brazil similarly selected high-priority metropolitan areas as the target areas for its local funding initiative, part of its national public safety programme, PRONASCI.

Any plan needs to set very clear objectives showing what is to be achieved, how the objectives are to be achieved and over what time period. In some cases, countries have instituted targets on reductions in crime problems; in others, indicators have been established to assess progress in meeting the objectives. It is important to balance target-setting with realistic interventions, however, to avoid raising expectations and provoking a loss of confidence in preventive approaches.

In most cases, plans are established for a set period of time, such as 3, 5 or even 10 years. This allows for implementation and for assessment of their impacts and outcomes, before subsequent review and adaptation of strategies.

Governments often choose to use a competitive process for the allocation of funds, inviting applications from local authorities and civil society organizations. These are all ways to encourage local governments and community organizations to develop prevention programmes that meet local needs. For example, in Canada, Chile and Mexico, a competitive process for allocating funds to targeted priorities was employed under certain programmes:

- In Canada, the Province of Alberta has a Community Crime Prevention Grant Program administered by the Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security. It is available to support community crime prevention projects targeting priority groups and issues: at-risk individuals and their families, aboriginal people and communities, measures enhancing the reporting of crime, or interventions that are linked to a local Safe Community Strategy. This may require linking to special education programmes, outreach schools, mental health clinics, addiction centres, child welfare agencies, police agencies, the Alternative Measures Program, the Extrajudicial Sanctions Program, or strategies addressing high-crime neighbourhoods. Targeted, evidenced-based approaches

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[66]UNODC and UN-Habitat, *Cross-Cutting Issues 5: Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* (see footnote 1).

are given priority over universal prevention initiatives. A total of Can$ 600,000 was available for the 2009 phase, when applications for projects costing up to Can$ 50,000 were invited (www.solgps.alberta.ca).

- The Comuna Segura Programme in Chile was initiated in 2001 as one of the principal national Government strategies to strengthen community safety. It formed part of the Government's decentralization approach, giving greater autonomy to mayors and local authorities and empowering them to develop their own public safety policies. The national Community Safety Division selected municipalities based on an Index of Criminal Vulnerability (levels of poverty, education, unemployment, drug use and other factors, and crime rates). Priority was given to the most vulnerable municipalities, and some received a percentage of funds directly from the Government for high-impact projects, but the competitive bidding process was the primary method of allocating funds. These were for specific targeted projects for vulnerable groups, on subjects such as violence against women and children, school violence, and young people at risk. Funds were also allocated for community safety projects involving local organizations as well as the municipalities. In the first four years of the project, a total of US$ 23.3 million was allocated to the programme and 2,727 projects were funded.[67]

- The Federal Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL) in Mexico established its Recover Public Spaces programme in 2007. The programme provides funding to local authorities and communities to increase the safety and use of public spaces through the principles of environmental design. Cities and metropolitan areas with populations of over 50,000 are eligible to apply for funds, working in partnership with local communities and organizations.

The example from the Federal Government of Germany given in box 6 outlines the evolution of the national prevention policy on violence against women. It shows how the Government worked with other levels of government and civil society, and invested in research and evaluation of practices to support the policy over a period of years with successive action plans.

Box 6: Action plans in Germany to combat violence against women

The Federal Government of Germany issued two action plans to combat violence against women in 1999 and in 2007. The 1999 action plan included a range of interventions:

   (a)   Prevention;

   (b)   Legislation and administrative regulation;

   (c)   Cooperation with the German Crime Congress and non-governmental organizations;

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[67]Alejandra Lunecke, "Public safety policy in Chile: the 'Comuna Segura' Programme", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention, in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007).

(d)   Work with perpetrators;

(e)   Activities to sensitize experts and the public;

(f)   International cooperation.

These interventions were intended to shift attitudes and practice so that women would no longer be forced to leave violent homes. Instead, the courts would provide them with protection, work with perpetrators to change their behaviour and attitudes, and make it clear that domestic violence was a public, not a private matter.

Secondly, to provide better understanding and information on the extent of the problem, a study of violence against Women in Germany was commissioned by the Federal Ministry of Families, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth and published in 2004. It was based on over 10,000 interviews with women aged 16 to 85 years. Some of the results of the study were used for civil society discussions on the services and support women needed.

Thirdly, the Ministry commissioned an evaluation of intervention projects on domestic violence.

The "Cooperation, intervention, research" project in 2004 examined progress in changing attitudes to recognizing violence against women as a social problem, also identifying the elements of good, sustainable prevention strategies.

The second action plan, in 2007, contained a series of nine measures, based on the experience and lessons drawn from the implementation of the 1999 plan. These included:

(a)   Prevention;

(b)   Legislation and administrative regulations;

(c)   A system of aid to provide support and counselling for women affected by violence;

(d)   National networks for the system of aid;

(e)   Cooperation between Government institutions and non-governmental support agencies;

(f)   Work with perpetrators;

(g)   Qualification, and increased awareness;

(h)   European and international cooperation;

(i)   Measures to support women abroad.

As an example of the implementation of the plan at the State level, the plan was coordinated by the Crime Prevention Council of Lower Saxony. The Council brings together over 250 member organizations, Government, community councils, non-governmental organizations and research centres, and was responsible for implementing a State action plan on

domestic violence as a cross-ministry task. The Council worked with ministries, worked with the police on crisis intervention, criminal prosecution and victim protection, developed support services, and instituted round tables for consultation and discussion of local interventions.*

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*Erich Marks, Presentation at the 8th Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, Querétaro, Mexico, from 12 to 14 November 2008.

D.   Planning at the local government level

As will be clear from earlier discussion, a number of useful tools now exist to guide the development of local government crime prevention. They have been developed on the basis of considerable practical experience in many countries, and include:

- The *Local Government Toolkit* developed by the Crime Prevention Centre in South Africa, based on the experience of working in communities on the ground. It provides a step-by-step guide to the development and implementation of a local prevention plan (www.crimeprevention.csir.co.za).

- *Making South Africa Safe*, National Crime Prevention Centre, Department of Safety and Security (Pretoria, South Africa, 2000).

- *A Resource Guide for Municipalities: Community Based Crime and Violence Prevention in Urban Latin America* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2003).

- A toolkit entitled *The Key to Safer Municipalities* developed in Canada (Montreal, ICPC/Fondation Phillippe Pinel, 2005).

- *Making Cities Safer from Crime—A Toolkit* (2007). Developed under the UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme on the basis of ten years of working with African and other mayors and their cities to develop local crime prevention strategies.[68]

- *Making Cities Safer: Action Briefs for Municipal Stakeholders* (Institute for the Prevention of Crime, 2009, available from www.ipc.uOttawa.ca). A series of 10 briefs developed for Canadian municipalities, including 4 on why and how municipalities should become involved in crime prevention (why invest; invest smartly; take responsibility; plan strategically; engage the public) and a series of briefs on specific topics: safe streets; women's safety; aboriginal people's safety; property safety; and policing and safety.

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[68]UN-Habitat, *Making Cities Safer from Crime–A Toolkit* (Nairobi, 2007).

- *Manual de Seguridad Ciudadana "La clave para municipios más seguros en América Latina"* (Washington, D.C., Inter-American Development Bank, 2009).

Using safety audits

A major tool that can be used to analyse local problems is the local government safety audit discussed in chapter III. As with all types of strategic planning, the development of a safety audit follows the mobilization of the key departments and stakeholders and the creation of a local steering group, preferably under the mayor as the head of the local authority. Figure V suggests the composition of a local authority steering group for the development of the local audit and safety plan.[69]

Figure V.   Local safety audits: the community safety steering group
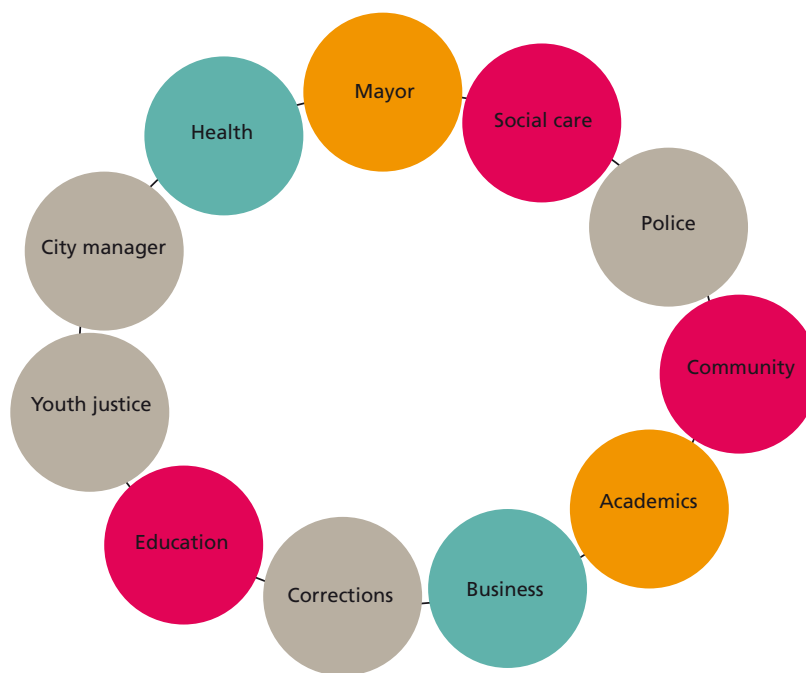

Figure VI provides a visual outline of the sequence of the planning process, from mobilization of the steering group, conduct of the safety audit, developing a local strategy, implementing the strategy in the action plan, and evaluating its progress and outcomes, which in turn provides input to the next safety audit. This allows for problems encountered in the first action plan and implementation, or new concerns, to be addressed in subsequent phases.

[69]*Guidance on Local Safety Audits* (see footnote 57).

Figure VI. Local safety audits: the crime prevention process*

At all stages of the process, the inclusion and participation of both men and women and of hard-to-reach populations such as minority groups, the elderly, children and young people need to receive specific attention.

The safety audit phase will usually involve the following steps:[70]

- Establishing the context with an overview of the characteristics of the city (such as demographic or economic characteristics) and comparing these with the region and country as a whole

- Analysing crime, violence, disorder in terms of their scale, trends and distribution

- Profiling victims and offenders (age, gender, ethno-cultural and socio-economic patterns)

- Investigating patterns of risk factors

- Assessing the effectiveness of projects and services (such as health, housing, welfare, education) in relation to prevention

[70]Ibid., pp. 10-11 (adapted).

- Assessing the political and institutional environment to identify opportunities for developing preventive action
- Identifying the opportunities, strengths and potential for the area, including social capital, civil society and existing projects on which a future strategy may be built

The *Guidance on Local Safety Audits* provides detailed information on the conduct of an audit in terms of the agencies that should be involved, the skills and knowledge required, establishing timetables to guide the audit process, and the types of information that can be sought from key sectors such as housing, environment, health, education, victim services, police and justice, and social services.

Information to include in a safety audit:[71]

Environment	Size of city, land use, economic structure, political situation
Demography	Total population, gender balance, age structure, ethno-cultural diversity, employment/unemployment
Crime and disorder	Offence types, occurrences, offenders, victims, targets, distribution
Impact and economic costs of crime	On individuals and communities (such as violence-related injuries), demand on hospital emergency services, value of property stolen, cost of security and justice
Perceptions	Of risk, vulnerability, police, justice, other services
Risk factors	Such as relative poverty, violence, growing up in care, dropping out of school, mental illness
Services	Providers, range, quality, access, usage
Initiatives	Existing projects and programmes, effective practices
Stakeholders	Interests, capacities, resources

Source: UN-Habitat Safer Cities Toolkit

An example of an audit timetable is given in figure VII.

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[71]Ibid., p. 15.

Figure VII.   Example of an audit timetable*

		Month											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Planning	Set up Audit Steering Group	■	■										
	Appoint audit team and agree on a work programme		■	■									
Implementation	Initial appraisal of problems, risk factors and responses (Stage 1)				▨	▨	▨						
	Researching topics requiring further investigation (stage 2)						▨	▨	▨				
	Identifying priorities for action and opportunities (stage 3)								▨	▨	▨		
	Consulting stakeholders and communicating findings (stage 4)										▨	▨	▨

* Guidance on Local Safety Audits (see footnote 57)

Examples of the outcome of safety audits undertaken in cities in Cameroon and Papua New Guinea as part of the UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme, and in the semi-rural Central Karoo, South Africa, are given below:[72]

- **Safety audit in Yaoundé (Cameroon)**

  A safety audit completed in 2001 drew together available official statistics, as well as the findings of questionnaire surveys, studies of specific topics (such as street children and violence against women), consultations with civil society and many other sources. It brought together key stakeholders that previously did not communicate; clearly identified priorities; and was instrumental in catalysing action around a number of pilot projects. It also led to the establishment of municipal police; further analysis and planning on juvenile justice; and ongoing infrastructural developments (including lighting) being targeted at crime prone areas.

- **Safety audit in Port Moresby (Papua New Guinea)**

  The Safer Port Moresby Initiative was launched in 2002 with support from the United Nations Development Programme and UN-Habitat. This citywide venture was built on partnerships with public, private and "popular" institutions.

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[72]Ibid., pp. 11 and 13.

City authorities and the central Government Department for Community Development worked closely together. The first task was to complete a diagnosis of local insecurity, which assessed underlying causes of crime, as well as victim and offender characteristics. The results were used to identify priorities and agree on a strategic plan. The second phase focused on strengthening partnerships to enable an action plan to be implemented.

- **Safety audit in Central Karoo (South Africa)**

  The Crime Prevention Strategy for the Central Karoo in Western Cape Province was firmly based on an analysis of qualitative and quantitative data from a variety of sources:

  - A literature review, looking at research reports and studies, police statistics and the strategic plans of local departments
  - An audit of current and future investments that were addressing causes of crime and victimization
  - Community mobilization sessions, at which leaders and representatives of the different settlements in the Central Karoo gave an insight into the local situation and to the perceptions and attitudes towards crime and development in those areas
  - Business mobilization sessions, aimed at harnessing support and ownership for the process of implementing a local crime prevention strategy
  - Individual and group interviews with local stakeholders

The analysis provided the foundations for a targeted crime prevention strategy, based not only on the visible symptoms of criminal activity, but also on its underlying causes.[73]

Developing comprehensive local strategies

Cities in many regions have developed local strategies in recent years that illustrate well the value of careful planning and implementation, and the use of a variety of interventions to respond to the different types of problems identified. In a number of cases, national Governments have devolved certain powers and fiscal options to give cities greater autonomy in shaping public safety and prevention strategies. This has been the case in Chile and in Colombia, for example. In other cases, such as England and Wales in the United Kingdom, all local authorities are required by law to develop and implement local strategies on a regular three-year basis. Local strategies may include institutional changes to improve municipal services, setting up systematic monitoring of trends and opinions, infrastructure improvements, community mobilization and support, targeted initiatives to tackle specific crime problems such as youth violence, enforcing local regulations and laws and general public education programmes.

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[73]The audit was conducted as part of a programme facilitated by the Crime Prevention Centre, South Africa.

The examples from Brazil and Colombia given in boxes 7 and 8 illustrate how two cities responded to rising violence and homicides in a systematic and planned way, and implemented a series of initiatives that have been very effective in reducing violence and in involving citizens.

Box 7.   Diadema, São Paulo, Brazil

In 2000, the city of Diadema had the highest homicide rate of all municipalities in the metropolitan area of São Paulo, Brazil. From 2000, Diadema developed a crime prevention strategy under the leadership of the Mayor José de Filippi Junior and his council. Careful analysis identified the times and places where most violent incidents and other problems occurred. The strategy included elements of public health approaches such as closing bars and restaurants at night, urban renewal, especially in slum areas, policing and enforcement changes, and social and community interventions.

A vibrant participatory process was also established, with regular meetings between each local ward and the council to discuss concerns and developing plans, and the allocation of dedicated municipal funds to be used for projects selected by residents through the participatory budgeting process. By 2004, the rate of homicides had fallen substantially, and the city's ranking dropped from number 1 to number 18 among the municipalities in the region.

The 10 interventions were as follows:

1.   The creation of a Municipal Department of Social Policies and Public Security, and geographical mapping of all criminal activity daily

2.   The integration of all police forces in the city (municipal, military and civil regional)

3.   A new law enforcing the closure of all establishments selling alcohol from 11 p.m. to 6 a.m.

4.   Launching the Municipal Council for the Safety and the Prevention of Crime

5.   Increasing the Municipal Police Force by 70 per cent and establishing "The neighbourhood angels", who patrol on bicycles

6.   Establishing "The young apprentice project" for young people at risk

7.   Social and environmental policies including favela and school projects

8.   The installation of surveillance cameras

9.   Inspections and law enforcement operations

10.   Launching of three major public education campaigns:

   •   Disarmament of firearms campaign

   •   Children's disarmament of toy guns campaign

   •   Drug and alcohol awareness campaign.*

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*See José de Filippi, Jr., "The experience of Diadema, São Paulo, Brazil", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention, in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007).

Box 8. What worked in Bogotá

In the period 1993-2002 homicide rates in Bogotá plunged from 80 to 28 homicides per 100,000 people; accidents were reduced by half; and the police increased capture rates by 400 per cent without an increase in the size of the police force. The Bogotá success in violence reduction illustrates the importance of political commitment, sustained across three different administrations, and of the allocation of sufficient resources to combat crime and violence. According to the available evaluation data, the reduction in violence is attributable to:

- Campaigns to promote citizen disarmament and control of alcohol consumption: Effective information systems provided detailed information on violent crime events, resulting in the formulation of the "Plan desarme" that controlled the circulation of firearms. In 2001, for instance, about 6,500 firearms were voluntarily returned to the police as a result of the plan. In addition, with the implementation of Ley Zanahoria, alcohol sales ended at 3 a.m. at the weekend to reduce the rates of violent crimes. Firearms and alcohol control had a significant (although not large) effect on violence reduction.

- Action to rehabilitate decayed urban spaces: Two of the most violent areas in Bogotá— Avenida Caracas and the Cartucho zone—underwent urban and transport infrastructure renewal. As a result, levels of crime and violence declined substantially in both areas. In Avenida Caracas, the levels of homicide declined by 60 per cent from 1999 to 2003. At the same time, in the Cartucho zone, robbery went down by 70 per cent between 2000 and 2003.

- Frentes de seguridad: Neighbourhood crime monitoring committees encourage collaborative relationships between community police officers and local residents, promoting greater levels of trust between the police and the community. As a result, there has been an increase in crime prevention efforts.

- Family police stations: Evaluation data show that the protective measures available through these police stations established to control family violence were more effective than conciliation measures in reducing physical violence against women in the family.

- Professionalization of the police: Police reform and modernization were accomplished through a plan emphasizing results-based performance. An epidemiological approach was introduced to monitor crime and violence data, which allowed the design of crime prevention actions. Training in preventive policing has been widely accepted by citizens as an efficient alternative for reducing violence and improving coexistence.*

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*Cited in Mayra Buvinić Erik Alda and Jorge Lamas, *Emphasizing Prevention in Citizen Security: The Inter-American Development Bank's Contribution to Reducing Violence in Latin America and the Caribbean* (Washington, D.C., Inter-American Development Bank, 2005).

E.   Implementation and evaluation

Implementation and evaluation need to be incorporated into action plans at the planning stage, not added as an afterthought. The training and support that Governments can provide to projects and practitioners should also address these processes.

As discussed in chapter II, if Governments do not have the capacity and knowledge to conduct cross-sector planning, data collection and analysis, there are a growing number of university and research centres and specialized non-governmental organizations that can provide the requisite advice or technical assistance.

In the case of England and Wales, for example, two national non-governmental organizations, Crime Concern and Nacro, with expertise in project planning, implementation and evaluation in crime prevention, were contracted by the national Government to support local projects that had received funding under the Crime Reduction Programme. This followed the launch of the programme, when it became clear that there was a major need, at the local level, for expert support and guidance during project implementation and evaluation. Regional research coordinators were subsequently appointed to provide ongoing support to local project staff.

Monitoring and evaluation

> Evaluation is a necessary tool for improving accountability, informing crime prevention policy and practice and developing a sound evidence base and understanding of what works best and can be considered good practice in addressing crime problems. Evaluation reflects on the design and implementation of a programme to determine whether the chosen strategy has achieved its stated objectives.

As with any social or economic policy initiative, Governments need to monitor and evaluate the implementation of programmes and projects to ensure financial accountability, so that programmes meet the objectives set, and to assess the impact of those programmes. This is not a necessarily straightforward or easy process, however.

Monitoring generally refers to the ongoing process of keeping track of trends in crime and victimization or other relevant information, or to information about project or programme activities, and the outputs they produce. For example, the number of street children given shelter and training could be established, or the number of streets that now have lighting to increase safety.

Evaluation is generally concerned with measuring the outcomes or impacts of a project or programme. For example, the number of street children successfully reintegrated into stable family or community life could be established, or a decrease in assaults and thefts in areas provided with street lighting could be determined.

As the definition of evaluation below indicates, there is much dispute about the evaluation techniques used in crime prevention, and the extent to which they are able to prove that the changes are truly attributable to the project interventions:

> Evaluation: The systematic assessment of the processes, outputs and outcomes of initiatives, policies and practices. The methods used in evaluation in crime prevention are much contested. Strong evidence on outcome effects is often difficult to obtain, though it is frequently requested.[74]

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[74]Tilley, *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety* (see footnote 17), p. 762.

A considerable variety of techniques and approaches to aid monitoring and evaluation have been developed. These include the application of "logic models", performance management (see below), benchmarks and indicators, which all help to establish a rational or logical framework around what is to be achieved (such as a reduction in residential burglary and an increased sense of security); what is to be done to reach those objectives (such as improving the security of doors and windows, appointing caretakers and holding regular residents' meetings); and what factors will be used to measure those activities and outcomes (number of doors and windows reinforced, numbers of caretakers in posts, numbers of meetings held and attendance at meetings, changes in residents' views, among other factors).

Other terms and approaches include process evaluation, which focuses primarily on how a project is implemented; action research, which allows changes to the design of a project to be made while it is still running to increase achievement of its objectives; self-evaluation and internal audits, which are undertaken by project personnel and can be very valuable for improving project functioning, but can be open to bias; and independent evaluation conducted by an outside agency, auditor or researcher to ensure that the evaluation is objective. Randomized controlled trials are regarded as the most objective and scientific method of evaluation, since they measure levels of crime and other factors before and after an intervention, and against a control group which was not subjected to the intervention. Finally, cost-benefit evaluation takes account of the costs of all inputs into a programme and the outputs and outcomes, and estimates the expenditure and projected savings. All of these approaches can be used at different stages. In developing and piloting a programme, for example, it is often useful to use process and action research approaches to help to adapt to the local context. When a project has been well established, it becomes more important to build in evaluation of the outcomes.

Thus, an evaluation of a national or local crime prevention programme or policy usually looks at three main components:

- How well policies and programmes have been implemented, and have achieved the objectives set;

- The immediate outcomes of projects, both expected and unexpected;

- The long-term outcomes and impact of those programmes, for example, in terms of reduction of violence, or improved employment and life skills, and any negative outcomes such as the displacement of street crime to another area. This can include evaluating the costs and benefits of the programme or policy.

The example below, from Chile, illustrates how the implementation of a national programme was evaluated and the programme redesigned to meet the problems identified:

> At the end of the first four years of the national Comuna Segura programme in Chile, five independent evaluations of different aspects of the programme

were commissioned by the Government. These were undertaken by two consultancy firms, two universities and the Ministry of Finance, to look at the results, draw lessons and identify challenges. They concluded that the programme had not been very successful in targeting its funding, allowing time for developing training, reaching a consensus on action or achieving results at the local level, and municipalities had not had sufficient flexibility to adapt funding regulations and project expectations to local circumstances. This led to a restructuring of the programme, which replaced the competitive bidding process with medium- and long-term prevention strategies, promoted more effective collaboration at national and local levels, introduced greater decentralization and flexibility, redefined community participation, and recognized the need for municipalities to work together on regional municipal strategies, since crime problems are not defined by administrative boundaries.[75]

Performance measurement has been defined as "the practice of reviewing program performance, identifying factors which may be impacting upon current and future performance, and making informed decisions regarding appropriate action to improve the performance of a program."[76] The example below is taken from an assessment of a Community Safety and Crime Prevention Partnership programme (CSCP) in Western Australia:

> A performance measurement framework provides the foundation for the structured and systematic collection and reporting of information relating to programme performance. It most commonly refers to the set of performance indicators and processes for producing performance information. The framework for CSCP Partnerships and Plans includes a set of high-level objectives; indicators of how these will be measured; where the data will come from over what time period and who will be responsible; and how these measures will be integrated into programme decision-making. For example:
>
> - A set of long-term, short-term and immediate objectives (planned outcomes) reflecting what the CSCP Partnerships and Plans, and the planning process generally, aim to achieve. For example in the long term: reduce crime and disorder problems of concern to the local community; increase community safety; improve the amenability of public space. In the intermediate term: reduce environmental conditions which promote crime; increase community participation in crime prevention; achieve positive changes among project participants. In the short term: increase public awareness and support for crime prevention; improve access to projects for high-risk groups; increase development of community-based partnerships etc.

[75]Lunecke, "Public safety policy in Chile" (see footnote 67).
[76]A. Morgan and P. Homel, *A Model Performance Framework for Community-Based Crime Prevention*, Technical and background paper (Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology, 2010).

- A set of performance indicators to show how those involved in the programme will know that these desired outcomes have been achieved. For example: number, rate and trends in personal and property offences recorded by the police; calls to the police; levels of victimization; incidents detected by security agents; numbers and trends in people reporting greater satisfaction with community safety; number of local projects completed which include environmental crime prevention principles; numbers of householders seeking information on improving their security; positive evidence of change in attitudes and skills among project participants; numbers of targeted participants completing project programmes; number of hits on crime prevention websites and requests for information; number of community forums held; number of people attending meetings etc.

- What performance information is required when and who is responsible for its collection. For example: collection of police data from Western Australia Police on a monthly basis, by the Office of Crime Prevention staff; collection of data from annual survey of community satisfaction with the police, annually by Office of Crime Prevention staff; data from local government administrative records, annually by local government staff; data from project administrative records, annually by Partnership Interagency Committee.[77]

Experience in the use of performance measurement for assessing local government prevention programmes suggests that the process should not be limited to checking financial accountability or making sure that any legal requirements have been met. It should also be used to look at the outcomes of those initiatives. Experience including that in England and Wales and Australia has shown that it is important:

- To communicate the importance and value of performance measurement to key stakeholders

- To develop clear and precise definitions of key concepts within the framework

- To develop strategies to address resource constraints

- To provide training and development to ensure adequate knowledge and skills exist to support the framework.[78]

Different types of performance indicators are needed to assess different aspects of a programme: indicators of outcome, output, process and input, as shown in the table below.[79]

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[77]Ibid., see in particular table A1 pp. 78-96.

[78]Ibid., p. 10.

[79]Source: Audit Commission (2000), reprinted in Morgan and Homel, *A Model Performance Framework*, p. 58.

Table 1. Different types of performance indicators

Indicator type	Definition	Key performance questions
Outcome	The impact or consequences that result from having delivered the programme and producing the outputs.	What is the impact of the service or programme? Is the programme achieving its objectives? Does the problem that led the programme to determine these outcomes still exist?
Output	The products and services project made available to target group.	What level (quality) of service is being provided? How many units of service are being provided? Is the programme efficient in its delivery of this service or services?
Process	All of the things that individuals and organizations involved in the design and/or delivery of a programme actually do.	Is what needs to be done to deliver the output being done? Is the programme on track to meet targets?
Input	The range of resources (financial, material and/or human) used to carry out the work.	What resources are used to deliver the service or programme?

Long-term project development and scaling up

A good example of the use of the findings of a carefully implemented and evaluated project to guide projects in other cities is that of Operation Ceasefire in Boston in the United States. The success of the Boston project in reducing gun-related homicides among young people led to the approach being applied in 10 other United States cities, with the support of the National Institute of Justice under the project known as the Strategic Approaches to Community Safety Initiative (see box 9). The project and its scaling up illustrate many of the principles and approaches outlined in the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, and the findings have helped inform countries and technical assistance projects outside the United States.

Box 9. Paving the way for the safe neighbourhoods project: the Strategic Approaches to Community Safety Initiative in 10 United States cities*

In the early 1990s, the Boston Police Department partnered with Harvard University researchers to analyse the problems of juvenile homicide and gun crimes and to work together to implement appropriate intervention strategies. This collaboration, called Operation Ceasefire, was considered successful—the youth homicide rate dropped from an average of 40 deaths annually to between 10 and 15.

To see if Boston's approach could be replicated in other cities, the Department of Justice launched the Strategic Approaches to Community Safety Initiative. This report presents the main findings of a national assessment of the project approach in 10 cities.

The SACSI strategies in each city were developed by multiagency, multidisciplinary core groups led by United States attorneys' offices.

Nine of the ten SACSI sites targeted homicide, youth violence or firearms violence. Memphis was the exception, where the SACSI partnership focused on reducing rape and sexual assault.

What did the researchers find?

The study found that the SACSI approach, when implemented effectively, is associated with reductions in targeted violent crimes, sometimes by as much as 50 per cent. Successful elements of the SACSI approach include the leadership provided by United States attorneys' offices, the integration of research into the planning and intervention strategies, collaborative strategic planning and implementation of a range of intervention strategies.

What were the study's limitations?

Because the SACSI programme did not involve random assignment or perfectly matched controls for the target areas, it is not possible to say definitely that SACSI alone was responsible for the reductions in crime, or whether it was SACSI in combination with other anti-crime efforts (or other factors altogether). Cities of similar size across the United States experienced decreases in violent crime in the late 1990s, but the decreases were significantly greater in the SACSI cities.

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*Adapted from: Jan Roehl and others, "Paving the way for Project Safe Neighbourhoods: SACSI in 10 US Cities", United States Department of Justice, *NIJ Research in Brief*, April 2008, available from www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/pubs-sum/216298.htm.

The success of the project at its 10 sites has in turn led to the scaling up of the national Safe Neighbourhoods Project, which, since 2001, has targeted youth firearm crimes with rigorous enforcement of gun laws, supervision and prevention strategies. For example, strong links were established with local community leaders, police and probation officers conducted night-time home visits to ensure that young people on probation were complying with their curfew, and there was a concerted re-entry project to work with parolees prior to their release.[80] The project has been flexible,

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[80]See Edmund McGarrell and others, *Project Safe Neighbourhood: A National Program to Reduce Gun Crime—Final Project Report* (Washington, D.C., 2009).

allowing local partners to adapt to local circumstances, and a major aspect of its success has been strong leadership and commitment, which have been matched by strong partnerships with other service sectors and the community.

This chapter has looked at planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating prevention strategies and projects at the national and local levels. All of this requires working in partnerships with other services and the community, and chapter V looks at the challenges this presents.

V. A multidisciplinary approach and working in partnerships

A. Partnerships: a challenging but important component

Paragraph 9 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

> Cooperation/partnerships should be an integral part of effective crime prevention, given the wide-ranging nature of the causes of crime and the skills and responsibilities required to address them. This includes partnerships working across ministries and between authorities, community organizations, non-governmental organizations, the business sector and private citizens.

As the Guidelines outline, crime prevention requires Governments to work in partnerships with a range of sectors. This chapter examines some of the challenges of working in partnerships and how they can be overcome, and some of the key institutional partners, whether at the national, state or provincial or local level. Chapter VI considers the role of civil society in more detail.

Experience over many years has shown that working in partnerships is not simple. Partnerships can be time-consuming and frustrating. It takes time for ministries or service sectors to work with others, and to be willing to share areas of work which have been under their exclusive jurisdiction. Some sectors may not appreciate the importance of their potential contribution to crime prevention, and cede authority to more traditional sectors such as justice or policing. Confidentiality issues can affect the sharing of information, and unless there is strong leadership, sectors may be unwilling to allocate resources to a joint venture. Continuity of personnel is also a significant factor, since constant changes in membership of national coordinating committees or local partnerships can weaken resolve and collective energy.

Consequently, experiences vary:

> On the basis of experience with the 16 cities in the United States that formed part of the federally funded Comprehensive Communities Program, George

Kelling noted that the term partnership is used in many different ways, and organizations and citizens could be simultaneously involved in very different kinds of relationships, depending on the problem at hand. He developed a continuum to describe these relationships ranging from: collaboration – coordination – cooperation – consent – indifference – objective – passive – protest – defiance to active resistance.[81]

All of this underlines the importance of strong Government leadership in establishing a central ministry or agency to take on responsibility for the development and implementation of crime prevention strategies. It also underlines the need for those working in partnerships to have sufficient authority and seniority to be able to commit time and resources. Some partnerships need to be permanent; others may be set up on an ad hoc basis to develop a specific initiative.

One of the major challenges in partnerships relates to the willingness of service sectors and institutions to share data and information. It cannot be assumed that health sectors will be willing to provide confidential information to a crime prevention committee, for example. The police may not want to share intelligence information which is pertinent to particular crime problems or areas with other departments, and even less with the community. Community organizations providing assistance to victims, such as those who have been sexually assaulted or victims of domestic violence, are often unwilling to share personal information with the police or social services. One way to respond to this problem has been through the use of agreements or protocols between different ministries or sectors.

A number of Governments have developed protocols on the sharing of data, which have aided the pooling of information for the purposes of analysing crime problems and developing prevention plans. These are especially important at the local level. The Safer Leeds initiative in the city of Leeds, United Kingdom, for example, has established a set of protocols governing the sharing of personal information between service sectors and organizations in the city and beyond. The example in box 10 relates to the protocol developed by the city partnership responsible for implementing the city safety strategy.

Box 10. Safer Leeds: tackling drugs and crime—information-sharing protocol

The Safer Leeds Partnership was formed in 2005 and is responsible for ensuring the implementation, delivery and performance management of the Safer Leeds strategy for the city. It works in partnership with other sectors and uses a multi-agency approach to problem solving across the city.

The protocol is an agreement between a series of partners in the city and the West Yorkshire region, to govern the exchange of information. Its purpose is to facilitate and support the exchange of information in a secure and confidential environment. It sets out how information will be used, explains the use of personalized and depersonalized data,

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[81]G. Kelling, "Community crime reduction: activating formal and informal control", in *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety*, Nick Tilley, ed. (Cullompton, Devon, Willan Publishing, 2005).

details the general principles, specifies how sensitive data is handled, provides information on data security and disclosure, and explains the complaints procedure.

The parties to the protocol include Education Leeds; Leeds City Council: Neighbourhoods and Housing, Leisure and Learning, Chief Executives Department, Development, Corporate Services, City Services and Social Services; Leeds Mental Health Services, Teaching Hospitals Trust, Primary Care Trust; Leeds Prison Service and Youth Offending Service; West Yorkshire Ambulance Service; West Yorkshire Fire Service; West Yorkshire Police; West Yorkshire Probation; and additional parties (www.saferleeds.org.uk).

Extensive experience of working in partnerships at the local level in England and Wales—where every local authority has to establish a partnership—has helped to identify the key components for successful partnerships and working in a multisector and multidisciplinary way. These include strong leadership; a clear sense of mission for the partnership; a structure that separates overall strategic management from operational and implementation activities; appropriate resources in terms of time, information, funding, and expertise; and sustainability which can be ensured by long-term funding and stability of staff allocated to the partnership.[82] A more detailed list follows:

- A clear mission or purpose for the partnership, together with agreement on intended outcomes

- A solid level of trust between partner agencies

- Leadership, including resources from senior managers to enable the partnership to function

- Clear lines of communication and accountability at all levels, both across and within agencies

- Management that is focused on strategic as well as operational or project outcomes

- Partnership structures that are relatively small, businesslike and focused on crime prevention

- Expertise to ensure access to a good problem-oriented knowledge of crime prevention

- Continuity in partner representation and participation, including good documentation

- Staff with enough time away from agency core business to provide input to the partnership[83]

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[82]D. Gilling, "Partnership and crime prevention", in *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety*, Nick Tilley, ed. (Cullompton, Devon, Willan Publishing, 2005).

[83]Australian Institute of Criminology, "Partnerships for crime prevention", *AICrime Reduction Matters*, No. 49, 5 September 2006 (see www.aic.gov.au).

The example below, from Western Australia, indicates the range of different partners, both institutional and from civil society, involved in the development and implementation of their crime prevention plan. An attempt was clearly made to ensure that the partnership was representative of all sectors in the State, including those often excluded:

> In Western Australia, the Office of Crime Prevention, the central coordinating body, establishes Community Safety and Crime Prevention Partnerships (CSCP) which include the following sectors: the State Police; departments of corrective services, health, education and training, housing and works, indigenous affairs, and community development; national government agencies; aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities; businesses; young people; minority groups (ethnic communities and people with disabilities); community volunteers; local schools; religious organizations; and local media.[84]

In El Salvador, a government-community partnership was originally initiated by civil society:

> In 2003, a broad-based coalition, Society Without Violence, was formed to work on the issue of armed violence. With the support of the United Nations Development Fund for Women, a comprehensive and detailed assessment was made of the extent of the problem, its sources and the kinds of interventions needed. Together with the National Council of Public Security, the coalition lobbied the Government to enact changes.

> The Ministry of Security responded by enacting legislation in 2006 to increase controls over firearm use in terms of registration, ownership and the carrying of weapons in public, and a tax on firearms whose revenue was to be used to improve health services. The Ministry also decreed that municipalities could restrict the carrying of firearms in public, and a number of communities reported decreases in violence.

> The coalition also successfully lobbied the Government on establishing a National Commission on Community Safety and Social Peace, representing all five political parties, universities, the private sector, and religious and other community groups. Their 2007 report contained 75 proposals for reducing armed violence.[85]

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[84]A. Morgan and P. Homel, *Assessing the Impact of Community Safety and Crime Prevention Plans* (Canberra, Australian Institute of Criminology, 2009), pp. 22-23.

[85]Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*, Conflict and Fragility Series (Paris, OECD Publishing, 2009).

B.   A key partner: the police

Paragraph 12 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

> *Human rights/rule of law/culture of lawfulness*
>
> The rule of law and those human rights which are recognized in international instruments to which Member States are parties must be respected in all aspects of crime prevention. A culture of lawfulness should be actively promoted in crime prevention.

Crime prevention, as reflected in the Guidelines, relies on some key partners, including the police. Countries vary considerably in terms of the characteristics of their policing, the number and types of police forces they have, their history and orientation, and distribution of responsibilities. In post-conflict settings, they may be highly centralized and militaristic in their style and training, and in many countries there may be a lack of trust in the police on the part of the public.

Nevertheless, the police have an important but not exclusive role in strategic prevention at national and State levels, especially at the local government level. It is not uncommon for the police to be seen as having the main responsibility for crime prevention and as the natural lead institution in all questions of safety, rather than as a partner with other institutional sectors.

Community-oriented policing

A proactive and problem-oriented approach to policing is important for developing effective crime prevention strategies. Many different forms of policing that work in a proactive way with local communities and other partners have emerged. They are referred to by various terms, such as community policing, problem-oriented policing or reassurance policing. However, the core elements of such policing have been defined as:[86]

- Community involvement
- Problem-solving orientation
- Decentralization

This means that police structures need to be less hierarchical, allowing flexibility for decision-making at lower levels, work with local governments and other partners and the community, and develop proactive rather than reactive responses to crime problems. As the list below suggests, many other specific terms have been used,

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[86]Jean-Paul Brodeur, "Trust and expertise in policing", in *The Role of the Police in Crime Prevention*, Proceedings of ICPC's seventh Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007); Dennis Rosenbaum, "Police innovation post 1980: assessing effectiveness and equity concerns in the information technology era", *IPC Review*, vol. 1, March 2007, pp. 11-44.

especially in North America and Europe, which reflect the different emphases of the work, but all have the three core characteristics of community involvement, a problem-solving approach and decentralized management:

(a) Problem-oriented policing: policing that sees its role as reducing rather than just responding to incidents, based on sound theory and evidence;

(b) Broken-windows approach: the notion that disorder and fear of crime are strongly linked, and that if attention is not given to disordered and neglected areas, community controls will break down and those neighbourhoods will be vulnerable to crime. The police role is to help maintain order and reinforce informal controls;

(c) Pulling-levers policing: related to problem-oriented policing, this approach emerged from the Boston gun project in the United States, which aimed to reduce youth gang violence. It involves pulling together all criminal justice agencies to work together in a concerted way to enforce compliance, also matching this with strong community-based involvement, interventions and direct services;

(d) Third-party policing: police efforts to persuade or coerce other sectors such as public housing agencies, property owners and businesses, health and building inspectors, and parents to take responsibility for preventing crime;

(e) Hot-spots policing: a form of policing that focuses on identifying places where crime is concentrated and developing problem-solving responses;

(f) Evidence-based policing: the application of the highest quality scientific standards and methods to the evaluation of information and interventions;

(g) "Compstat": a combination of administrative and management changes combined with advanced computerized crime data, analysis and geographical mapping, regular crime strategy meetings, and greater decentralization of policing responsibilities at the local neighbourhood level;

(h) Reassurance policing: a model of neighbourhood policing to improve public confidence in the police. Police and auxiliary police often work together in a community to identify problems and respond to local community concerns;

(i) Chicago alternative policing: a form of policing that involves changing decision-making processes and creating new cultures within police departments (see below);

(j) Intelligence-led policing: a model of policing developed in England and Wales which aims to provide an effective strategy to respond to all enforcement needs such as organized crime and road safety, not local crime alone. It uses problem solving based on good information and cooperation with other agencies and bodies.[87]

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[87]Adapted from Brodeur, "Trust and expertise in policing".

The experience of a community-oriented policing model in Chicago, United States, demonstrates how one city implemented a model that appears to be effective both in terms of better community relations and reduced crime problems. This was the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy, initiated in Chicago in 1993 (population in 2005, 2.8 million, 4.7 police officers per 1,000 inhabitants) in five city districts with three objectives: the reorganization of decision-making powers and police functions, the resolution of local problems using neighbourhood crime-related data and active community participation, and increased coordination among local actors. The 25 police districts are divided among 279 patrol teams, each consisting of 10 officers and responsible for an average of 4,100 households. Some officers are assigned to a rapid intervention team to respond to emergency calls; others patrol to resolve local problems in cooperation with citizens. Patrol units hold monthly meetings with representatives from community organizations and residents in order to identify the most important crime issues in a local neighbourhood. The implementation has been carefully evaluated. The results indicate an increase in citizen trust of the police and a decrease in crime rates. Although police reform is not the only factor that might explain the decreased crime rate, the results show that crime decreased to a greater degree in the sectors that implemented the model than in the control zones.

Community-oriented policing systems in Colombia, Japan and the Philippines all provide good examples of locally accessible police systems, with small police stations located in neighbourhoods and working closely with the community. They are designed to be accessible to the public and to respond to the concerns of local residents and users. In the case of Bogotá and in the Philippines, there was no tradition of community-oriented policing.

- Colombia, Bogotá Cia system: a system similar to that in Japan, placing small police stations in local parks and neighbourhoods across the city.
- Japan, Koban police box system: a community-based policing system by which small police stations are placed in villages and municipalities throughout the country so that they can respond to local problems.
- Philippines: the Community-Oriented Policing Strategy combines full-service policing with problem-solving and community partnerships at the local Baranguay level.[88]

Women's police stations are now widely used in Latin America, especially in Brazil, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Peru, and outside Latin America in India, among other countries. They form part of Government strategies to prevent violence against women. Their aim is to increase the willingness of women to report violence they have experienced either in the family or public domain. They also help to raise awareness of the problem.[89] They employ primarily women police and support staff,

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[88]Miguel Coronel, "The Philippine strategy and best practice for crime prevention: the community oriented policing system", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention in Particular in relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2007).

[89]Cecília MacDowell Santos, *Women's Police Stations: Gender Violence and Justice in São Paulo, Brazil* (New York, Palgrave Macmillan, 2005); N. Jubb, "A comparative study of women's police stations in Latin America", presentation given at the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime 15th Anniversary Colloquium, Montreal, 8 December 2009.

who receive special training on violence against women, on legal responses and victim support and services available, and work in partnership with the regular police and other local services. Since they were first established in 1985 in Brazil there are now over 400 women's police stations, 31 in Ecuador and 36 in Nicaragua.

Auxiliary and municipal police and civilian adjuncts to the police

A wide range of auxiliary or municipal police forces with limited authority have been created in a number of countries. This includes countries with no local policing tradition, and their purpose has been to provide more community-based and locally-responsive policing. They often have fewer powers than State or national police, but this does not prevent them from playing a significant partnership role with local services and the community. The creation of such groups, especially civilian adjuncts, also raises a number of challenges about their adherence to the rule of law and the extent of their knowledge and training.

In Dar es Salaam, an Auxiliary Police Force was established as part of the Safer Cities Programme in the 1990s, responsible for local trafficking and order problems, and patrolling to provide a greater police presence. In South Africa, major cities such as Johannesburg have now established municipal police forces which administer the city's crime prevention strategy, and provide policing services to the area, but have more limited powers and responsibilities than the national South African Police Service. Similarly, municipal guards exist in some 700 municipalities in Brazil. They are civilian uniformed police responsible to the mayor, who are trained as public safety officers. Further details are given below:

- The Municipal Guard in Guarulhos, São Paulo, Brazil was created in 1998, largely to provide security for buildings and property. Since 2001, it has become a central component of the municipal public safety strategy. The Guard is now professionally trained, and decentralized with an increase in the number of stations, and officers work on community policing principles in close cooperation with designated neighbourhoods, their communities and schools.[90]

- The Johannesburg Metropolitan Policing Department manages and coordinates the city's crime prevention strategy under the authority of the city. Its functions include:

  - Preventive policing and patrolling of high-risk areas
  - Establishing an information management system to share crime data with the South African Police Service
  - Closed-circuit television in public places
  - Anti-fraud technology
  - Signs warning pedestrians and tourists of risk areas
  - Effective street lighting in high-risk areas

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[90]Luiz Fabbri, "Local government and public security in Brazil: general framework and lessons learned", available from ww2.unhabitat.org/programmes/safercities/documents/LF001.pdf.

- ○ Private security partnerships and partnerships with businesses in high crime areas
- ○ Family and community programmes for high-risk areas
- ○ Community police forum partnerships (www.joburg.org.za)
- The Dar es Salaam Auxiliary Police is a uniformed police force created in 2001. Its personnel received training from the Police College, and were initially allocated to four municipal authorities in the area, to provide visible policing and patrolling, and to enforce the law and municipal by-laws. They also work in collaboration with local volunteer patrols (SunguSungu) at the ward level and provide support during ward tribunal sessions. An early evaluation found that they were heavily overworked and there was a need for a much larger number of officers.[91]

Many countries and cities have also created civilian adjuncts to the police, to provide greater on-the-ground presence and community support, as well as freeing up police time. In some cases there is an absence of good State policing.

In England and Wales, specialized Community Support Officers employed and trained by the local police force, and Neighbourhood Wardens employed by the local authorities, perform a variety of functions to promote safety and security in local communities, and work closely with other local services. In countries such as Belgium and France, unemployed youth or adults are recruited and trained to carry out local patrolling and mediation functions in public places, on transport and in neighbourhoods.

Some concerns about the legitimacy of the actions of volunteer civilian adjuncts, or local militia not associated with the police have arisen, however, and such volunteers cannot be expected to provide public safety functions without careful attention to their training and oversight. In middle- and low-income countries, where the public police forces may be very limited, the main issues have been the quality of the training, oversight and accountability of volunteer forces. Without attention to these crucial factors, the volunteers may infringe the rule of law. In some countries, the absence of State policing in rural or remote areas has encouraged vigilante groups to provide policing to their communities.

- India: the Panchayat Policing System in Mumbai was developed to provide better policing access to the inhabitants of slums, where lack of confidence in the police was a major factor affecting willingness to report crimes. Residents of slums had much poorer security and safety protection and higher risks of victimization than those in planned and established neighbourhoods. Local women residents have been trained to work in the police stations in the slum areas. They interact with the public and help to increase the confidence of the slum population in the police and willingness to report incidents.[92]

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[91]Anna Mtani, "Local innovations for crime prevention: the case of Safer Cities Dar es Salaam", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention, in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for Crime Prevention, 2007).

[92]A. N. Roy, A. Jockin and A. Javed, "Community police stations in Mumbai's slums", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 16, No. 2 (2004), pp. 135-138.

- Philippines: the "BAC-UP" component of community policing was initially developed in Bacolod City in the 1980s, where the single police station was replaced with eight precincts, and some 3,000 volunteer Youth Barangay Tanods were trained in crime prevention to assist the police. There was a marked decline in organized crime and crime in general the city in the ensuing years.[93]

- United Republic of Tanzania: part of the Dar es Salaam Safer Cities Programme, the SunguSungu are a youth crime prevention group providing security and environmental services to disadvantaged communities on a voluntary basis. The group receives training and works closely with the Auxiliary Police in Dar es Salaam. The project also acts as an income generation and job creation project, so that its members can earn money and gain other job skills when they are not patrolling.[94]

Private security and technology

Private security now plays a major role in countries in the North and South. In many high-income countries, as well as middle- and low-income countries, private police, such as security guards for residential and business premises, outnumber the public police. Policing in many low-income countries is now provided by State and non-State entities, as well as formal and informal police, and needs to be accountable and effective, as well as equitable. Thus private security needs to be considered in national and local government plans and partnership consultations for a number of reasons, especially to ensure the inclusiveness of prevention strategies and interventions and the equality of security provision.

In regions such as Africa, there are likely to be fewer public police per head than elsewhere, and both State and non-State policing may be necessary to provide security for different communities.[95] Many communities may rely on informal and private police systems in the absence of State police, or because they are fearful or mistrustful of State police. The challenge in high-, medium- and low-income countries is to ensure regulation and oversight mechanisms for both public and private policing, so that they are equitable and accountable.

A second concern is that private security has become associated with the exclusion of certain groups of citizens through such practices as the increased construction of gated communities, or enforcing restrictions on entry into shopping facilities or the expulsion of groups from commercial and business areas.[96] Much of this relies on

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[93]Coronel, "The Philippine strategy and best practice for crime prevention" (see footnote 88).

[94]Mtani, "Local innovations for crime prevention" (see footnote 91).

[95]Julie Berg and Elrena van der Spuy, "Challenges for the good governance of security in the Africa context", in *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives, 2010* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2010).

[96]See Laura Capobianco, *Sharpening the Lens: Private Sector Involvement in Crime Prevention* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2005); Patricia Arias, *Seguridad Privada en América Latina: El Lucro y los Dilemmas de una Regulación Deficitaria* (Santiago, Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, 2009).

private security guards as well as new technologies including the use of closed-circuit television cameras and entry control techniques, and there is a widespread movement to privatize public space.

Interventions based on situational approaches can be very effective but need to be carefully monitored since their outcomes can sometimes be counter-productive. Displacement of crime from one street which is upgraded to another street can occur. Closed-circuit television cameras raise concerns in some countries in connection with the rights of individuals. Many closed-circuit television schemes have been implemented in cities in public and private spaces, but they do not necessary prevent crime if they are poorly sited or not watched. Selective use of closed-circuit television would appear to be less costly.

Thus, in developing partnerships with the private sector, it is important to consider, through discussions with all partners and the local community, ways:

- To restrict the expansion of private security which excludes the poor and disadvantaged

- To integrate the skills and expertise of private security personnel in crime prevention plans

- To regulate the activities of the industry, so that the rule of law and human rights are respected

- To ensure the accountability and transparency of the private security sector through, for example, national and State legislation, encouraging training, working with professional associations to ensure greater awareness of account-ability issues

Fostering cooperation between the police and other partners

A number of mechanisms have been developed to foster partnerships and coopera-tion between the police and other partners and the community, especially at the local level. They range from statutory partnerships such as the Crime and Disorder Partnerships in England, and the Community Safety Partnerships in Wales, public dialogue forums such as those developed by the Brazilian Forum for Public Security, to local Community Police Forums developed in South Africa, or Mesas Seguridad Ciudadanas in Central America.

The Mesas de Seguridad Ciudadanas in Honduras are local community consultation councils. They replaced the earlier national Government Programa de Comunidad más Segura. They work on a regular basis with local municipal police and the justice and other sectors.

Further information on fostering partnerships with the private sector and civil society can be found in chapter VI.

C. Some key partners: the urban planning and environment sectors

Services responsible for urban development and regeneration are also key partners that need to be involved in planning policies and programmes at national, State and local levels. Along with housing departments, they can contribute to improvements in housing and urban design, transport and road safety, and the use of public space, all of which can influence opportunities for crime and victimization, and the sense of security of the population. Urban regeneration that encourages inclusion and access to the city was a major aspect of the effective public safety strategies of the cities of Medellín and Bogotá (Colombia), São Paulo (Brazil) and Durban (South Africa).

An example of a national initiative is the work of the Neighbourhood Renewal Unit in England and Wales, set up in 2001 within the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister. It was responsible for supporting the development of a range of programmes in the 88 most deprived areas.[97] The programmes encourage and provide funding to local authority services for cooperation in meeting a series of targets related to common concerns including crime levels, unemployment, poor housing and environmental conditions and health. Thus the unit works with and across central Government departments and local governments.

At the local government level, urban regeneration projects have played a significant role in the overall citizen security initiatives of the city of Bogotá over the past decade. Based on the notion that cities should be people-friendly, and that their quality of life will affect social capital and the strength of community ties, the city has invested in a number of urban regeneration projects. These draw on situational and environmental design and public health principles to prevent and reduce crime and accidents. This has included public transport improvements such as:

- A dedicated bus system, the Transmilenio, with controlled access to reduce theft and fare-dodging
- The development of pedestrian streets with parking restrictions and the establishment of stalls to create pedestrian-friendly areas
- The creation of a chain of bicycle paths across the city
- The creation of new parks and improvement of existing ones to improve services, facilities and surveillance by neighbouring residential buildings
- Building of public libraries
- Improvements to residential slum areas

Another example of urban regeneration contributions to prevention is the Warwick Junction Project in eThekwini (Durban), South Africa. This began in 1997 with an effort to improve the safety and quality of life in the area around the transport hub

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[97]Now under the Ministry of Communities and Local Government.

of Durban.[98] The project office was in the neighbourhood itself rather than City Hall. The project included urban renewal projects using the principles of safety through environmental design, and also took account of community and social issues, with extensive consultation with the users of the area. This included the informal traders selling goods brought in daily from rural and township areas. The herb traders' market was created after some 18 months of negotiation and consultation between the city, the project staff and the traders, who created their own association. The traders now help to regulate and oversee the new market area. Lock-ups provide overnight security for produce, and single toilets which are overseen by nearby stallholders are safe and clean. The impact on crime has been clear, with a reduction in incidents and violent deaths and major health and economic gains. Some 14,000 connected jobs were created across the municipality, and the area has become a tourist attraction. The project was followed by iTRUMP, a scaling up of the initial project to other areas of the city.

D. Some key partners: the justice sector and reintegration services

Strategies to support the reintegration of offenders into the community, and to prevent re-offending, are one of the four main approaches to prevention recommended in the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime. They form an important part of a comprehensive public safety strategy, since many of those dealt with by the criminal justice system and who are incarcerated will eventually return to the community. This return is a difficult time for many ex-prisoners who have been cut off from society and find it difficult to get jobs and accommodation because of their criminal history. In most countries, rates of re-offending after release from prison are very high, and it is likely that the majority will re-offend and return to prison unless there are services and support which will enable them to become reintegrated into the local community. Given the high costs of running prisons, re-offending is very costly compared with reintegration programmes.[99]

Key partners can include the prison, parole or probation services, the prosecution service, courts, one-stop justice centres, as well as family and health services, community-based organizations working in this sector and community members. Programmes concerned with the social reintegration of people coming out of prisons or youth custody centres provide them with a range of support services such as temporary or longer-term shelter, placement services for jobs, and training in employment and job skills to provide alternatives to re-offending. The programmes may

[98]Richard Dobson, "Urban regeneration as a crime prevention strategy: the experience of Warwick Junction, eThekwini (Durban) South Africa", in *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention, in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*, Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, eds. (Montreal, International Centre for Crime Prevention, 2007).

[99]M. Borzicki and T. Makkai, "Prisoner reintegration post-release", in *Selected Papers on Successful Crime Reduction and Prevention Strategies in the Urban Context* (Riyadh, Naif Arab University for Security Services, 2007); Curt T. Griffiths, Yvon Dandurand and Danielle Murdoch, *The Social Reintegration of Offenders and Crime Prevention*, Research Report No. 2007-2 (Ottawa, National Crime Prevention Centre, Public Safety Canada, 2007).

offer help with problems such as substance abuse, or work with specific groups such as youth gang members who want to get out of gangs, or sex offenders.

A variety of approaches exist from in-prison programmes in preparation for release; transition programmes which provide sheltered accommodation to enable people to adjust to living outside prison; programmes which offer both surveillance and supervision and support in the community; and those which provide support and training in prison which is sustained in the community following release.

The following are some examples of such programmes:

- In Guatemala, the non-governmental organization Grupo Ceiba runs a series of programmes to keep young people out of gangs. They work in the poorest neighbourhoods, developing good relationships with the community in providing alternatives to gang recruitment and violence. They use a peer-to-peer outreach model to initiate contact with young people, and run a series of programmes including a street university, alternative schools and educational centres, day-care centres for young mothers, and business and technology training. They now work in partnership with the Government and the prison service providing technology centres in some of the main prisons in preparation for release from prison.[100]

- In the Philippines, a Volunteer Probation Aide system has been in place since 1978. The aides are recruited and trained and work with probation officers in the supervision and support of people coming out of prison, and they help to empower communities to accept ex-offenders. The programme has been revitalized since 2003, with support from Japan and the Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, and there are now some 10,000 aides working with local governments and probation services.[101]

- In Uganda, social workers work with prisoners before their release, to help them establish links and plans for their release. This is followed by support in the community from probation officers and community members. Close contact with community leaders and elders forms an essential aspect of this post-release programme.[102]

A number of reintegration programmes include restorative justice components which aim:[103]

- To restore community order and relationships and promote peace
- To reaffirm community values

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[100]Washington Office on Latin America, *Daring to Care: Community-Based Responses to Youth Gang Violence in Central America and Central American Immigrant Communities in the United States* (Washington, D.C., 2008).

[101]Masahiro Tauchi, "Technical assistance project for the revitalization of the volunteer probation aides system in the Philippines", in *Maximizing the Effectiveness of the Technical Assistance provided in the Fields of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*, Margaret Shaw and Yvon Dandurand, eds., HEUNI Publication Series, No. 49 (European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations, 2006).

[102]N. Masamba Sita and others, *From Prison Back Home: Social Rehabilitation and Reintegration as Phases of the Same Social Process (The Case of Uganda)* (Kampala, African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, 2005).

[103]*Handbook on Restorative Justice Programmes* (see footnote 14).

- To support victims by giving them a voice
- To encourage concerned parties, particularly offenders, to take responsibility for their actions
- To identify restorative and forward-looking outcome
- To prevent recidivism by encouraging change and the re-integration of offenders into the community

Restorative justice programmes may take place before a sentence, as part of an alternative to a custodial sentence, in prison, or in the community after release. They include mediation between the people immediately affected by a crime, the offender and the victim; a wider group of people close to offenders and victims and affected by the crime, who take part in family or community group conferencing; and sentencing and peacemaking circles which include support for both victims and offenders and government officials, and are often used in indigenous communities.[104]

This chapter has looked at the important but challenging task of establishing and maintaining effective working partnerships for implementing crime prevention strategies. These include working horizontally across government and vertically, with other ministries, service sectors, levels of government and civil society. The role of civil society, a major partner, is considered in more detail in chapter VI.

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[104]Ibid.

VI. Working with communities and civil society

Paragraph 16 of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime states:

Community involvement

In some of the areas listed below, Governments bear the primary responsibility. However, the active participation of communities and other segments of civil society is an essential part of effective crime prevention. Communities, in particular, should play an important part in identifying crime prevention priorities, in implementation and evaluation, and in helping to identify a sustainable resource base.

A.   Improvements resulting from crime prevention

The term community may refer to groups of people who know each other and have similar interests, to a specific neighbourhood and its inhabitants or to a group with similar characteristics and concerns.[105] It is often used quite generally to refer to local civil society and to the environment that prisoners return to when they are released.

As stressed in the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, Governments cannot prevent crime and victimization or develop safe societies without the participation and involvement of citizens. It is an aspect of good governance. The Guidelines emphasize the contributions that can be made by private citizens, community organizations, non-governmental organizations, the private sector and the business community. All of these are civil society actors that should be involved in all stages of the development, planning and implementation of policies. They can offer in-depth knowledge and creative insights based on their experiences, and innovative responses

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[105]See Margaret Shaw, "Communities in action for crime prevention", Background paper prepared for the 6th International Centre for the Prevention of Crime Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, 14-15 September 2006, Canberra (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2006).

to problems. The Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific identi-fied eight major characteristics of good governance:[106]

- It is participatory
- It is consensus-oriented
- It is accountable
- It is transparent
- It is responsive
- It is effective and efficient
- It is equitable and inclusive
- It follows the rule of law

Not all communities or community organizations have the time or funds to play an active role, however, and many will benefit from capacity-building and training programmes adapted to their needs. Governments need to be willing to engage with them as partners so that they can take an active part in consultations, advisory groups and decision-making. Governments need to develop a good system of communication with communities and to make information and data on crime and related issues available for them.

The involvement of civil society is also a crucial component of the development or maintenance of a culture of lawfulness, one of the basic principles of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime. There is likely to be greater opportunity to change attitudes and behaviour, and a greater sense of ownership of programmes, if communities are included in a participatory way. The public safety policies of Bogotá over the past decade have included creative approaches aimed at changing attitudes towards lawlessness.

B.   Mobilization of civil society

A variety of mechanisms for mobilizing communities have been developed and used. They range from the inclusion of representatives of civil society on national, state or local advisory boards or partnerships responsible for developing safety strategies; holding public meetings on prevention issues at national and local levels; undertaking public opinion surveys on specific issues; allocating municipal budgets for prevention projects to be selected through a participatory budgeting process; becoming directly involved in project development and implementation or through direct participation in crime prevention activities such as family or youth support programmes or local mediation initiatives.

Public information campaigns can utilize the traditional media of television, radio and newspapers, local community newspapers and networks, as well as the Internet,

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[106]Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, "What is good governance?", available from www.unescap.org/pdd/prs/projectactivities/ongoing/gg/governance.asp.

using public service announcements or videos to give general information about crime problems, information on services, or updates on new strategies and project developments.

An example of the use of public dialogues to mobilize specific groups and to help inform national policy directions is given below:

> Under the "Mulheres: dialogos sobre segurança publica" programme in Brazil, a series of public dialogues on women and their safety were held in four regions of the country, prior to the first National Conference on Public Security in August 2009. The purpose was to assess women's perceptions of urban violence in a range of cities and to develop some constructive proposals to be presented at the national conference. The discussions took place in seven major cities. Over two days, groups of about 30 women between 15 and 69 years old shared experiences and developed recommendations. They represented a wide variety of social, educational and ethnic backgrounds, and included women who had been incarcerated, as well as other marginalized groups.

The *Guidance on Local Safety Audits* provides further information on community mobilization.

Participatory mechanisms

Participatory budgeting has been particularly successful in Latin America as a mechanism for encouraging civic participation in municipal planning and decision-making. Allocating a portion of the municipal budget for projects chosen by residents has enabled them to contribute to changes and decisions in their local neighbourhood. Among others, the city of Diadema has used this method effectively to engage local residents (see chapter IV). This method has also been used to enable young people to elect representatives for each local district or borough, and to decide how the municipal funds should be used.[107]

Participatory audits

The use of participatory appraisals or audits by local community groups and organizations is another mechanism that helps to empower communities and encourage their engagement with local authorities. Women's safety audits, for example, have been used by women's organizations, in particular, to effect changes in safety in local neighbourhoods or public places. In Latin America, cities such as Rosario, in Argentina, Bogotá, and Santiago, participatory women's safety audits have been used by local women residents to develop recommendations for local authorities to improve areas where women feel unsafe. This has resulted in improved lighting, in the establishment of play spaces for children and in the upgrading of

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[107]United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *Youth, Children and Urban Governance*, Policy Dialogue Series, No. 2 (Nairobi, 2004); Yves Cabannes, "Children and young people build participatory democracy in Latin American cities", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 18, No. 1 (2006), pp. 195-218.

public spaces that women were formerly unwilling to use.[108] Women's safety audits have been used by UN-Habitat in implementing its Safer Cities programmes in Africa, and in other regions. In India, for example, women's organizations have used the results of their safety audits to work with local authorities in Mumbai and Delhi to make changes to public transport sites, in the training of bus and taxi drivers, and to help raise awareness about violence against women.[109] Similar approaches have been used with groups of children and young people.

These are examples of bottom-up action initiated by non-governmental organizations. Governments can also facilitate the work of such groups as discussed in the following section.

C. The contribution of non-governmental organizations

For a number of reasons, non-governmental organizations are a major resource for national or local governments in developing prevention strategies. They often have specialist expertise in a specific area (such as police ethics, street children or rehabilitation services); they work closely with citizens on the ground as advocates for, and providers of, services (such as women's shelters or legal advice services); and they tend to be trusted by local communities because of their non-governmental status.

Non-governmental organizations are often flexible and evolving, and have the ability to launch new programmes and pilot projects relatively quickly with Government if resources are made available. They can also help Governments in building the foundation for new policies. They usually have contact with a variety of groups, including key community members, victims and professionals, officials and media personnel working on specific issues.

Non-governmental organizations and other civil society sectors can contribute at different stages of the development of strategies, for example:

- By sharing and creating knowledge, and offering expert advice to Government or the police in the definition and analysis of crime problems, especially in terms of vulnerable populations or specific issues

- By assisting in the design and implementation of projects

- By helping to identify key stakeholders in a community or city and by playing a key role in coalition-building and collaboration across communities, which can lead to multiagency cooperation

- By helping to develop, identify and disseminate good practices

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[108]Ana Falú and Olga Segovia, eds., *Ciudades para convivir: sin violencias hacia las mujeres* (Santiago, Ediciones SUR, 2007).

[109]Women in Cities International, *Women's Safety Audits: What Works and Where?* (Nairobi, United Nations Human Settlements Programme, Safer Cities Programme, 2008).

- By developing public education: organizing public forums to raise awareness, or mobilizing local populations on specific issues such as gun laws or urban development

- Through training and capacity-building, for example by developing or running training programmes for local city staff or municipal police; citizen leadership, youth leadership and skills training and development; support for families

- By helping to develop citizen audits, evaluation tools and programmes, indicators of crime and the external evaluation of programmes

- By providing tools for police monitoring and evaluation

- Through training and collaboration in working with the media, disseminating success stories

- By promoting conflict resolution and mediation mechanisms, and by acting as mediators in inter-community conflicts (a function which often cannot be performed by the Government).

A growing number of non-governmental organizations use innovative approaches to engage with partners on public safety and security issues. These include organizations such as Viva Rio, Sou da Paz and the Brazilian Forum for Public Security in Brazil, Jagori in India, CLEEN in Nigeria, and Raising Voices in Uganda, all of which work in partnership with national, state and municipal governments, universities, the police and civil society. More details on two of these organizations are given below:

- The Brazilian Forum for Public Security is a non-governmental organization that works with all levels of government. It was founded in 2006 initially to create a dialogue between the police and civil society on safety and security issues. It hosts an annual conference, which has become a meeting place for government policymakers, the police, practitioners and non-governmental organizations to exchange views and discuss developments and good practices. It publishes annual statistical information on violence in Brazilian cities and organizes workshops to bring together municipalities to exchange ideas on prevention (www.forumseguranca.org.br).

- CLEEN is a non-governmental organization based in Lagos, Nigeria, which promotes public safety, security and accessible justice, in partnership with government and civil society. It was established in 1998 and acts as a resource centre and undertakes research and demonstration projects, organizes seminars and exchanges and publishes reports on relevant topics such as good practices in youth crime prevention, policing and police ethics and procedures, citizenship, accountability and governance (www.cleen.org).

Examples of civil society organizations that work with Governments in the development of programmes with youth at risk, and/or in the delivery of reintegration programmes, include the Central American Coalition for the Prevention of Youth Violence (CCPVJ) and the National Institute for Crime Prevention and Reintegration Programme and Khulisa in South Africa. More details are given below:

- The Central American Coalition against Youth Violence (CCPVJ) brings together some 16 non-governmental organizations. They have produced a

compendium of best practices for prevention and rehabilitation for youth involved in violence in the region.

- In El Salvador, a series of youth gang-prevention projects has been developed in partnership with civil society by the National Council for Public Security. These have included a rehabilitation farm school for persons aged 12 to 25, a tattoo removal project and in-prison rehabilitation programmes.

- NICRO is a national non-governmental organization in South Africa providing diversion services for children in all provinces through five programmes: the Youth Empowerment Scheme life skills programme; a Pre-Trial Community Service programme; a victim-offender mediation programme; family group conferencing; and "the journey", life skills programme for children at high risk. The organization has been very successful in reintegrating children, preventing offending and diverting cases from the justice system. It handles more than 10,000 cases each year (www.nicro.org.za).

- Khulisa works in correctional facilities and on diversion programmes, as well as with schools, victims and the community. It runs a series of reintegration initiatives such as the Young Offender Reintegration Programme, and the Make It Better Programme (www.khulisaservices.co.za).

A review of the characteristics of effective projects concerned with youth gang violence in Central America and the United States highlights the importance of comprehensive and balanced approaches that are community-based and include prevention, intervention, rehabilitation and law enforcement. Effective projects involve cooperation with schools, local organizations, faith groups and community networks.[110]

D.   Private sector involvement

The private sector is a major component of most societies, and is as much a stakeholder as other sectors of civil society, including local non-profit organizations. Businesses, factories and commercial premises can be significantly affected by high levels of crime and violence in neighbourhoods and cities, so that working to reduce crime is in their interests. The private sector in turn provides employment and helps to contribute to the social and economic progress of communities. Businesses can bring innovation, resources and skills to local communities. (See the website of the University College London Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science, www.jdi.ucl.ac.uk.)

Prevention initiatives may be designed to reduce problems of crime associated with business, commercial and industrial areas. Many national Governments and cities are increasingly working with the business sector to improve security in those areas. What is important, however, is to ensure that such initiatives do not perpetuate exclusionary practices, as discussed in chapter V.

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[110]Washington Office on Latin America, *Daring to Care: Community-Based Responses* (see footnote 100).

The private sector can contribute substantially to wider public security and community safety policies in positive ways, for example:

- By contributing to local social programmes that tackle causal factors
- By helping to reduce opportunities and incentives to commit crime through situational and environmental changes, including designing products to reduce opportunities for theft
- By contributing to the revitalization of public or semi-public areas and spaces
- Through involvement in urban renewal projects
- By helping to prevent offending and recidivism through developing apprenticeship programmes and job skills training and by providing job opportunities.[111]

Engaging the private sector in crime prevention strategies is therefore a valuable vehicle for helping to build effective programmes, bringing additional resources, sensitizing the public to problems, involving them in developing a sense of shared community-building and commitment.

A number of national and local governments have created mechanisms for securing private sector participation in crime prevention. These include specific committees to promote private sector involvement and partnerships on local initiatives:

- In Canada, the Business Network on Crime Prevention, made up of representatives from Canadian business associations, was created in 1999, to develop partnerships among businesses (locally, nationally, internationally), in support of social crime prevention measures.
- In the Netherlands, the National Platform for Crime Control, composed of representatives from relevant ministries, police, local authorities, insurance companies, banks, the retail trade, and organizations of employers and employees, was set up in 1992 to combat crime problems affecting the business sector.
- In Nigeria, the Lagos State government established the Lagos State Security Trust Fund by law in September 2007. It is a public/private partnership whose role is to assist with the State security issues through fostering effective partnerships for crime prevention and control, seeking funding, and helping with police training and resourcing. It provides updated information on safety information and crime prevention developments through its website, and has undertaken a victimization survey of Lagos State in collaboration with the non-governmental organization CLEEN.
- In South Africa, Business Against Crime was established in 1996, following a Government request that the business sector play a key role in combating crime in the country.
- In Scotland, United Kingdom, the Scottish Business Crime Centre was created in 1996 under the Business Crime Reduction Strategy for Scotland, and to

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[111]Capobianco, *Sharpening the Lens* (see footnote 96).

provide practical advice to the business and commercial sectors on how to develop business crime reduction and prevention strategies.

Examples of government-private sector initiatives to reduce specific types of crime include:

- In Australia, the National Motor Vehicle Theft Reduction Council is an independent, incorporated not-for-profit association, and a joint initiative between all Australian governments and the insurance industry. The Council began operation in 1999 initially for a five-year term, which was subsequently extended. The Council seeks to lower Australia's high level of vehicle theft by reducing vehicle thefts connected with organized crime and opportunistic theft. Theft reduction strategies include increasing the national flow of police and registration information, diverting young offenders from vehicle theft and closing loopholes exploited by professional thieves. The website of the Council contains valuable vehicle theft prevention information and publications on reducing the risks of vehicle theft.

Some examples of social crime prevention partnerships involving the private sector include projects on social housing, youth gang prevention and school violence projects:

- The San Romanoway Revitalization Association based in Toronto, Canada, works with all three levels of government to combat some of the social causes of crime in the local housing area. The San Romanoway community has a high youth population, limited employment and recreational opportunities for young people and a large immigrant population. The Cultural Social Enrichment Programme received funding of Can$ 300,000 over three years from the Business Action Program of the National Crime Prevention Strategy. The programme includes changes to environmental design such as outdoor lighting and landscaping, and after school and other social programmes. The private sector has played a central part in the project, helping to develop a strong support network and highlight the positive developments in the community. They helped to construct a neighbourhood playground (Home Depot), improved the office space for the San Romanoway Revitalization Association, and provided job opportunities for high school dropouts or those previously involved with the criminal justice system. One private sector partner provided Can$ 75,000 to hire and train youth in the construction industry. A number of private sector companies donated computers and Internet access for a computer centre, refinished the tennis court and provided free tennis instruction during the summer months. Evaluation of the programme at the end of three years showed that there was a marked reduction in violence and property crime in the area, and an increase in the sense of security among residents.[112]

- In South Africa, Business Against Crime managed Tissa Thuto, a school-based crime prevention programme involving pupils, teachers, parents and

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[112]Laura Capobianco, *Compendium of Practices: Public-Private-Community Action Towards Safety—A Focus on Housing in Disadvantaged Neighbourhoods* (Montreal, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2006).

communities. It combines the expertise of a series of partners including the police and community police forums, education, and organizations specializing in sports, mediation and conflict resolution, peer counselling, trauma and abuse and victim issues. Each partner provides its specific skills-training, resources and modules. The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation, for example, trains parents, teachers and school governors in trauma management, provides peer counselling and helps develop school safety teams. The project structure includes conflict resolution, trauma management, school safety committees, HIV/AIDS, sexuality, leadership, resourcing and management, teacher empowerment and mentorship programmes. Some outcomes of the programme include improved parent-teacher-child relations, better teacher support and a swifter response to children's needs. Tissa Thuto has been implemented in 500 schools in three provinces.

This chapter has looked at the rich variety of ways in which civil society works with governments and other partners to promote safer societies. Many local organizations bring specialist knowledge about local problems, awareness of the concerns of their local community, and the trust of those residents. This helps to create the conditions for sustaining projects beyond their initial phase, and to increase the capacity and willingness of community members to take on projects in partnership with Governments. Similarly, private sector organizations have begun to act as members of local communities who contribute actively to local initiatives.

VII. Conclusion

The purpose of the present *Handbook* is to provide a concise account of the key issues outlined in the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention and the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, in terms of developing and implementing comprehensive policies that aim to prevent crime and promote community safety. Both sets of Guidelines emphasize the importance of Government leadership and of the contribution of all sectors of society. They represent a multisectoral approach, working across government departments and horizontally between governments and with civil society.

The Guidelines reflect the general recognition that responsibility for safety and security is shared, and that approaches to combating crime need to be forward-looking and proactive, not deterrent and reactive. The Guidelines recognize that the formal criminal justice system is not sufficient for preventing crime, and that both formal and informal systems are important for creating safe and equitable societies.

The Guidelines also build upon a wealth of knowledge and understanding about how societies can work together more effectively towards the prevention of crime, and an understanding of the value of developing policies and programmes built on sound information and careful assessment.

The present *Handbook* focuses on aspects of the process of developing strategic prevention plans and initiatives, rather than on the kinds of programmes that can be implemented. Some examples have been included to illustrate the ways in which different countries have approached a problem, but many other examples exist. After 20 or more years of pilot projects and experimentation, there are numerous examples of effective policies and practices that can provide information and lessons. The topics covered by the programmes and projects vary widely and include: prevention of youth violence; reintegration of children and adults into communities; prevention of violence against women and promotion of women's safety in public spaces and in the home; prevention of residential and commercial burglary and theft; the design of safe housing and public spaces; and the prevention of trafficking in persons.

High-, middle- and low-income countries have widely differing histories, circumstances and capacities. It is essential that a strategic crime prevention plan responds

to the specific national and local context. Any plan must reflect the concerns of citizens and build on the capacity and resources available.

Approaches to prevention range from tackling the social and economic roots of crime and violence to strengthening the capacities of local communities to modifying environments in order to deter offenders or promote an increased sense of safety. There is no one approach that is optimal, but a careful strategy will balance and utilize a range of approaches which can respond to specific problems of crime and victimization in both the short and longer term. Such a strategy will respond to the needs of all sectors of society, in a way that does not increase the social or economic exclusion of particular groups and will promote respect for the rule of law.