

# Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines

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## MAKING THEM WORK

A guide for implementing the UN Crime Prevention Guidelines

ADVANCE UNEDITED VERSION

CRIMINAL JUSTICE HANDBOOK SERIES

**UNITED NATIONS OFFICE ON DRUGS AND CRIME**  
Vienna

**Handbook on the  
United Nations  
Crime Prevention Guidelines  
- Making them work**

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## 1 Introduction

### Introduction to the Handbook

All countries experience crime, violence and victimization. They may have high proportions of young men who are killed before they become adults; families who lose a parent or with family members in prison, living in poverty and without access to supports or legitimate sources of income; neighbourhoods experiencing gang wars or where there seems little public protection and security; women who are subjected to violence in their homes, or 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 private security; 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 the safety and security for their citizens and increase the quality of their lives. The UN Guidelines on crime prevention incorporate and build on years of experience and experiments in how to respond to these problems – showing that there are very practical and concrete ways in which countries can build safer communities, and which are very different from, and less costly than repressive and deterrent reactions and responses.

This handbook is one of a series of practical tools developed by 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*, part of UNODC's *Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit*, and the *Handbook on planning and action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions*.

The handbook offers, in a brief, accessible and practical format, an overview of some 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 UN Guidelines, can be entrenched and sustained over time.

Two sets of crime prevention guidelines have been adopted by the United Nations Economic and Social Council – in 1995 and 2002. They are the **Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention** (ECOSOC Resolution **1995/9**. Annex), and the **UN Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime** (Resolution **2002/13**. Annex). Together with more recent resolutions, they encourage the implantation of crime prevention *along with* criminal justice reform. In 2002, for example, the General Assembly adopted a resolution urging States to promote closer cooperation between sectors such as justice, health, education and housing to support effective crime prevention, and work with civil society using a variety of prevention approaches.<sup>1</sup> In 2005, an ECOSOC resolution urged UNODC to balance its criminal justice and prevention work by placing a greater emphasis on crime prevention, rather than relying on law enforcement and the courts and correctional system alone.<sup>2</sup>

Given the increasing concentration of crime and victimization in cities, the **1995 UN Guidelines** focus on how to design and implement crime prevention in urban areas. They recommend a local approach to crime problems; the use of an integrated crime prevention action plan which is based on a local diagnosis of problems and involves a range of actors; looks at the links to other local policies on e.g. housing, health or education; and considers action on a continuum from preventing crime from occurring, to preventing recidivism.

The 1995 guidelines lay out some of the considerations which should be taken into account in the implementation of the action plan by authorities at all levels, including respect for fundamental principles of human rights, the importance of appropriate training and information, as well as regular evaluation of strategies implemented to assess their effectiveness and adapt them as necessary.

The **2002 UN Guidelines** build on those adopted in 1995. They outline the considerable benefits which good crime prevention can bring to cities and urban areas, from enhancing the quality of social and economic life of cities and their inhabitants, to helping to bring about long-term reductions in expenditures 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

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<sup>1</sup> GA Resolution 56/261, 31 January 2002, 'Plans of action for the implementation of the Vienna Declaration on Crime and Justice: Meeting the Challenges of the Twenty-first Century'.

<sup>2</sup> ECOSOC Res. July 22<sup>nd</sup> 2005/22, 'Action to promote effective crime prevention'.

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 more humane and cost-effective approach to the problems of crime. (art.1)

Since the adoption of these guidelines, there has been renewed attention to the impacts 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 on safety and security. The importance of developing planned responses to such broader changes has become more and more evident. An ECOSOC resolution in 2008 again calls for greater attention to crime prevention, especially in urban areas, and the importance of an integrated approach and citizen involvement.<sup>3</sup>

In recent years, the international community has recognized that development, and the achievement of the *Millennium Development Goals*, is highly dependent on the establishment of safety and security in societies. High levels of violence in cities and communities are very destructive of social and economic progress, apart from the morale and well-being of citizens. As the 16th Commission on Crime prevention and Criminal Justice put it: 'prevention is the first imperative of criminal justice'.<sup>4</sup>

### Who is this handbook for?

- The handbook has been written for a number of audiences. The primary one is **governments**, since, as the UN Guidelines emphasize, they have a key role in developing overall policies, and in promoting, co-ordinating and supporting crime prevention. The principles on which the UN 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 handbook provides examples of strategy and programme development which will be of value to policy makers and practitioners at all levels of government, and in high and 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

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<sup>3</sup> E/CN.15/2008/L.8 Prevention of urban crime: public safety and the role of citizenship; ECOSOC Resolution 2008/24 Strengthening prevention of urban crime: an integrated approach.

<sup>4</sup> See Report of the 16<sup>th</sup> Commission 2007.

criminal justice and other public services, and bring considerable cost-benefits to society.

- The second audience includes **donors and co-operation agencies**. Whether they are national donor agencies, or regional or international ones, crime prevention and violence reduction have begun to play an increasingly important role in development programmes. The 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 **policy makers, 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 which can aid project development and implementation.

The Handbook has been written to respond to all these different audiences. It covers the *Basic Principles* of the Guidelines, looks at the range of approaches to crime prevention which now exist, and at the main recommendations in terms of how to organize a crime prevention strategy or programme based on these principles. It includes information on the kinds of methods and tools which can be utilized, and are becoming increasingly available.

- Chapters 2-4 provide an overview of crime prevention and the different kinds of types of approaches which can be used, the importance of government leadership in developing strategic policies and facilitating their implementation, and the kinds of information and resources which are necessary for effective programmes. Senior government policy makers responsible for issues concerning safety and security at national or local levels will find these sections particularly relevant.
- Chapters 5-7 look in more detail at some of the planning and implementation issues involved, at the challenges of working in multi-sector 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, and a fuller list at the end of the Handbook which includes regional and international networks and resources.

## **Context is crucial for crime prevention: high, medium or low income countries<sup>5</sup>**

Many crime prevention programmes were initially developed and evaluated in high income countries with considerable resources, but their experience is not always directly applicable, or appropriate, in less developed settings. Discussion about what types of programmes and interventions are effective has also been dominated by research in developed countries. Claims about the effectiveness of interventions have led a number of countries to attempt to transport and replicate a programme to their own situation. This was the experience in South Africa in the 1990's, for example, which attempted to replicate a number of approaches to policing and prevention which had been effective in the United Kingdom or the United States.<sup>6</sup> Often this has not been successful, because of the very different constraints experienced in those settings, and because **a major determinant of the success of a programme lies in how well it is adapted to local needs and implemented.**

There has been a welcome recognition of this problem, and a shift from a focus on *'what works'* to *'how projects work'* in recent years. It has resulted in much better 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 capacity, as well as its political history, are all factors which will influence the needs of that country, the kinds of crime problems it faces, and the feasibility and appropriateness of interventions. The UN guidelines recognize this, and emphasize the importance of adapting what might be good practices in one context, to local contexts.

### **Donor aid, effectiveness and sustainability**

Developing countries may have recent military histories, or experience of civil war and conflict which create 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. There is, nevertheless, an increasing amount of experience among low and middle income countries, and some well evaluated effective practices. South-South exchanges between countries facing similar economic and social constraints have also

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<sup>5</sup> The definition of high, middle and low income countries is based on the Human Development Index used by UNDP. It combines measures of life expectancy, literacy and school enrollment, and gross domestic product per capita. In 2009, a fourth category 'very high income' was created, but for this Handbook the original three categories are used.

<sup>6</sup> Pelsler, E. (Ed.). (2002). *Crime Prevention Partnerships. Lessons from Practice*. Pretoria: Institute of Security Studies.

begun to increase. Rather than transplanting programmes from high income countries, **low and middle income countries are being increasingly innovative in shaping projects to respond to their circumstances, and building on their own strengths.**

In some of these countries, nevertheless, the seriousness of levels of crime and violence have meant that prevention has rarely been fully funded or implemented, since public pressures to strengthen and toughen criminal justice responses are high.

Another concern is that donor assisted aid to developing countries in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice has often been ineffective or unsustainable once programmes have ended. Part of the reason has been the tendency for donor countries or organizations to impose their own financial and reporting timetables, need assessments, or programmes, rather than working with recipient countries. There has been increased attention to these problems. The 2005 *Paris Declaration* on aid effectiveness, for example, emphasises among other factors that recipient countries need to be involved from the start in defining problems and solutions.<sup>7</sup> **Donors need to be flexible and sensitive to the financial and administrative timetables of recipient countries.**

The 2005 *Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness* of the High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness was concerned with the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 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 MDGs. The Declaration outlines a series of **five partnership commitments**, based on the lessons of experience, concerning ownership, alignment, harmonization, results and mutual accountability. These are designed with increasing the effectiveness of aid, adapting to different country situations, and include twelve 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.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>7</sup> Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness (2004) High Level Forum, Paris 28<sup>th</sup> February – 2<sup>nd</sup> March 2005 Paris: OECD. [www.oecd.org](http://www.oecd.org). Shaw, M. & Dandurand, Y. (Eds). (2006) *Maximizing the effectiveness of technical assistance provided in the fields of crime prevention & criminal justice*. Helsinki: HEUNI.

<sup>8</sup> *The Challenge of Capacity Development: Working Towards Good Practice*. Development Assistance Committee, OECD. February 2006. OECD: Paris. See also *Preventing Violence and Reducing its Impact. How development agencies can help*. (2008). Geneva: WHO; and *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*. (2009). OECD: Paris.

*Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness 2005 - Partnership Commitments*

<i>Partnership Commitments</i>	
Ownership	Partner countries exercise effective leadership over their development policies, and strategies and co-ordinate 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 armed violence reduction, given its huge costs to countries and populations, and its impacts on development, human rights and the achievement of the Millenium Development Goals. The importance of prevention and reduction is clearly recognized. The 2006 *Geneva Declaration on Armed Violence and Development*; the work of the multi-UN agency *Armed Violence Prevention Programme* (AVPP); and a review of existing and promising policy approaches by the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) in 2009, are all examples of the concerted commitment at the international level to develop viable preventive strategies against it.<sup>9</sup> *The Oslo Commitments* adopted in 2010, further commit states to work in partnership together with civil society and international organizations to reduce and prevent armed violence and strengthen the rule of law.<sup>10</sup>

**A wealth of knowledge and experience to build on - both successes and failures**

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 the South. The 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 which, while well planned and implemented, have had some unintended consequences, or in some cases, totally failed

<sup>9</sup> OECD-DAC *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development* (2009). Paris: OECD.

<sup>10</sup> The Oslo Commitments adopted at the High Level Conference on Armed Violence and the MDGs. Oslo, Norway 21-22<sup>nd</sup> April 2010.

to meet their objectives. It is vital to learn from such experiences in continuing to apply the standards and norms adopted by the UN.

The next chapter of the Handbook provides an introduction to crime prevention concepts and the benefits of their application by governments, and an overview of the UN Guidelines and other international standards and norms which support them.

## 2 Crime Prevention: An Introduction

This Chapter has two main aims:

- to introduce some of the concepts and terms which are commonly used in crime prevention (section 2.1) and
- to look at the conceptual frame of reference for crime prevention which is laid out in the Guidelines – including the central importance of collective approaches and the role of governments, the benefits which sustained prevention strategies and programmes can bring, the principles on which it they should be based, and other international instruments which support preventive approaches (section 2.2).

The two sets of UN guidelines on crime prevention adopted by ECOSOC in 1995 and 2002 reflect the evolution of knowledge and experience about prevention which has taken place over the past twenty or more years. Based on practical experience, research and evaluation in many different countries and regions around the world, 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 the **2002 UN Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime** (art. 3) 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.’

### 2.1 Crime Prevention Concepts

#### **Underlying driving factors of 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 have many causal or underlying driving factors. They are the result of a wide range of factors and circumstances which influence the lives of individuals and families as they grow up, and of local environments, and the situations and opportunities which facilitate victimization and offending.

If we are able to determine what factors are associated with different types of crime, then we can develop 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**.<sup>11</sup> They include global changes and trends which 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 which affect individuals. They can be represented visually by the following diagram showing the multi-faceted nature of the factors influencing crime and violence:

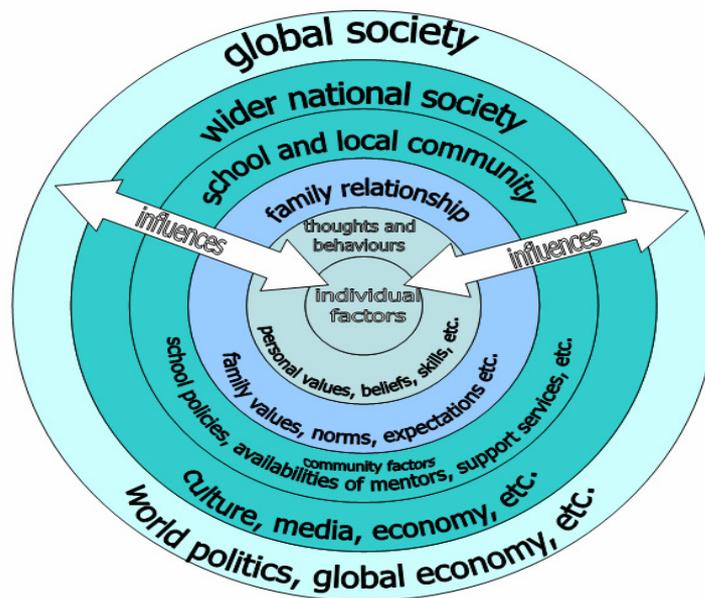


Figure: Factors influencing the risks of crime and violence <sup>12</sup>

At the **global level**, the impacts of major population movements, rapid urbanization, environmental disasters, economic recessions, changes in patterns of trade and communications, or in patterns of organized crime, can all have serious consequences

<sup>11</sup> Risk factors is a term used especially in the field of developmental prevention, to refer to characteristics affecting individuals or crime patterns. It is used here in a wider sense.

<sup>12</sup> Adapted from Masten, A.S. & Powell, J.L. (2003). "A Resiliency Framework for Research, Policy and Practice". in Luthar, S. (ed.) *Resiliency and Vulnerability: Adaptation in the Context of Childhood Adversity*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, pp.1-29. The World Health Organization's Ecological Model of risk factors for violence similarly stresses societal, community, relationship and individual factors. See WHO (2002) *World Report on Violence and Health Geneva: WHO* p.12.

for regions and countries. They can influence the state of a region or a country's political economy, their infrastructure and capacity to govern. 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 which can exacerbate or ameliorate them. Migration policies, for example, may affect the extent of trafficking in persons, and the levels of victims and perpetrators.

At the **national level**, the extent of household income disparity between the poorest and the wealthiest populations of a country, levels of corruption, the quality of infrastructure and institutions, and social and cultural patterns, can all create situations which increase the risks of crime and victimization. The *Gini Coefficient* is a technique which measures income equality within a country, providing a useful tool for comparing levels of disparity between countries.<sup>13</sup>

At the **local level** inadequate infrastructure and fiscal and administrative powers, poor housing and neighbourhood conditions, lack of facilities such as good schooling 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 school achievement, dropping out of school, bullying behavior, 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 which may lead to early aggressive behavior, or serious substance abuse, for example. Those concerned with **relationships** include family characteristics such as harsh or erratic parenting, family conflict and violence and abuse, family circumstances including poverty and isolation, as well as relationships with friends and peers which can lead to risk-taking and law breaking.

Knowledge about the factors which 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 national levels, this assists governments in prioritizing crime problems, and targeting programmes to the regions, cities or sectors which seem most vulnerable. Such

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<sup>13</sup> See UN HABITAT (2008) *The State of the World's Cities 2008/9* for a discussion of the Gini coefficient and the links between inequality and crime and victimization, especially in urban areas.

targeting of programmes and funds to tackle the greatest needs has been shown to be an effective and cost-beneficial way of reducing levels of crime and victimization.

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 negative factors which can facilitate crime. A more positive approach has been to look at what has been termed **resiliency**, and the capacity of cities, communities and individuals to avoid crime and victimization, in spite of their circumstances. The notion of **protective factors** responds to this. These are factors which help 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 which are associated with cultural and faith-based groups or respected elders, and good neighbourhood facilities such as those for recreation or transport are important. At the individual level, having 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 offering educational and job skills supports, can all help to protect those neighbourhoods or individuals, and build their resilience against crime and victimization.

### **Types of crime prevention**

A number of different kinds of approaches to preventing crime have been developed over the past twenty or more years, again 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.<sup>14</sup>

The wide range of prevention approaches and programmes are classified under four main headings in the 2002 UN Guidelines:

- 1) **Crime prevention through social development.** This includes a range of different kinds of social, educational, health and training programmes, such as those which target at-risk children or families early in their lives, to provide them with supports 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 of children in areas where children and young people are at particular risk, such as street children, 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, again attempting to increase awareness and resilience as they grow up and develop.

According to the 2002 UN Guidelines, these types of prevention programmes “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 a focus on the risk and protective factors associated with crime and victimization.”(6a)

- 2) **Community** – or **locally-based crime prevention** - targets areas rather than individuals, 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 poverty, or lack of community cohesion. This can include slums and informal settlements, or inner-city or suburban housing projects. Thus these are often areas with a *concentration* of economic and social problems.

Such programmes work to increase the sense of safety and security for residents in particular communities, to respond to community concerns and crime problems affecting the population, 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 which exist in a neighbourhood.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>14</sup> Tilley N. et al., (2004) *Problem-Solving Street Crime*. London: Home Office.

<sup>15</sup> 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 eg. OECD

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 the 2002 United Nations Guidelines 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.” (6 b)

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

According to the 2002 UN Guidelines 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.”(6 c)

Five specific categories of situational prevention have been identified:

- Those which **increase the effort** of offenders
- Those which **increase the risks** for offenders
- Those which **reduce the rewards** for offenders
- Those which **reduce the provocation to offend**
- Those which **remove the excuses** for offending<sup>16</sup>

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

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defines it as ‘... networks, together with shared norms, values and understandings which facilitate cooperation within or among groups’. 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 trend to be the weakest in communities with weak social capital. (See Woolcock, M. (2001). ‘The place of social capital in understanding social and economic outcomes.’ *Isuma Canadian Journal of Policy Research*, Vol. 2 (1) pp. 1-7).

<sup>16</sup> See Clarke, R.V. & Eck, J. E. (2003) *Becoming a Problem-Solving Crime Analyst: In 55 small steps*. London: Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science.

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, they can 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 (CCTV) to protect car parks by increasing the risks of being caught; or the development of pedestrian pavements, gardens and seats in a public area to encourage greater public use, and increase the surveillance of that public space. Situational crime prevention is closely associated with *environmental* crime prevention and *Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design* (CPTED), which is more specifically concerned with changes to the built environment or landscape.

- 4) Finally, crime prevention through **reintegration** refers specifically to all those programmes which 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 2002 United Nations Guidelines it is important to “[Prevent recidivism by assisting in the social reintegration of offenders and other preventive mechanisms.](#)”(6 d)

Those already convicted of offences have the greatest risk of 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 life styles and role models, good supports and housing in the community, are all ways in which their reintegration back into their community can be assisted. Programmes in prison may help prepare them for release, by providing them with new work skills, for example, or increasing their educational levels and social skills such as the ability to mediate conflict situations and through the use of other restorative approaches.<sup>17</sup>

Programmes may take place in the community, or in ‘half-way houses’ or sheltered homes which provide safe accommodation and in-house support and advice, and may include apprenticeship programmes, job-creation schemes, life-skills training

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<sup>17</sup> For more information on restorative approaches see UNODC *Handbook on Restorative Justice Programmes*. (2006). Criminal Justice Handbook Series. New York.

and micro-credit facilities, and long-term support. Programmes which 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 which focuses on reintegration, with the overall aim of preventing re-offending.<sup>18</sup>

### **Combining crime prevention approaches**

No one type of approach (and the different theories of intervention on which they are based) is *inherently* better than others. All of them have advantages and disadvantages. Some social development approaches can be long-term and require commitment and investment which continues 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, and thus to show clear and rapid results from interventions.

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 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 which encourages businesses or local residents to change and regulate their own behaviours.<sup>19</sup>

**The issue is not which kind of crime prevention approach is ‘best’, but whether it is used as part of a strategic and balanced plan, and having considered the advantages and disadvantages of each approach in a particular context.**

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 disadvantaged residential apartments.

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<sup>18</sup> For more information on reintegration programmes see UNODC Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit.

<sup>19</sup> Crawford, A. (2007) ‘Crime prevention and community safety.’ In Maguire, M., Morgan, R. & Reiner, R. (Ed.) 4<sup>th</sup> Edition. *Oxford Handbook of Criminology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ; Cornish, D. and Clarke, R.V. (2003). ‘Opportunities, precipitators and criminal decision.’ *Crime Prevention Studies*, 16: 44-96.

Overall, as the diagram below illustrates, these four broad categories are all aspects of the overall practice of crime prevention, and provide a **menu of approaches** from which to develop an overall strategy. They offer a range of **short and longer term responses** to crime problems. All of them offer valuable options, and will have different types of advantages and disadvantages.



### **When can crime prevention be used?**

Specific terms are sometimes used to refer to the *stages* at which crime prevention programmes can be applied, regardless of the type of approach used. The public-health inspired typology primary, secondary and tertiary prevention, reflecting the stages of (possible) entry into the criminal justice system, is still commonly used, but is less reflective of the range of issues involved in preventing crime and developing safe communities. Thus the term:

- *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 service, educational or justice systems as 'at risk' of 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 fields of activities, and is defined by its academic background and its links to the police and justice system. In fact, as observers have often pointed out, many interventions which help to prevent crime are often called something else, whether early childhood intervention, educational and employment support, drug treatment, or urban renewal.<sup>20</sup>

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. **Community safety** is commonly used to refer to the broader range of issues which must be tackled to promote safer cities or communities, and with outcomes which bring benefits beyond an absence of crime.<sup>21</sup>

Thus what is important, regardless of the terminology preferred, is the **use of a strategic approach which enables policy makers and practitioners to tailor interventions to the problems they confront**, selecting from a wide range of kinds of interventions, and which balance the need for short or longer term outcomes, as well as protecting human rights.

### **Sustainable crime prevention**

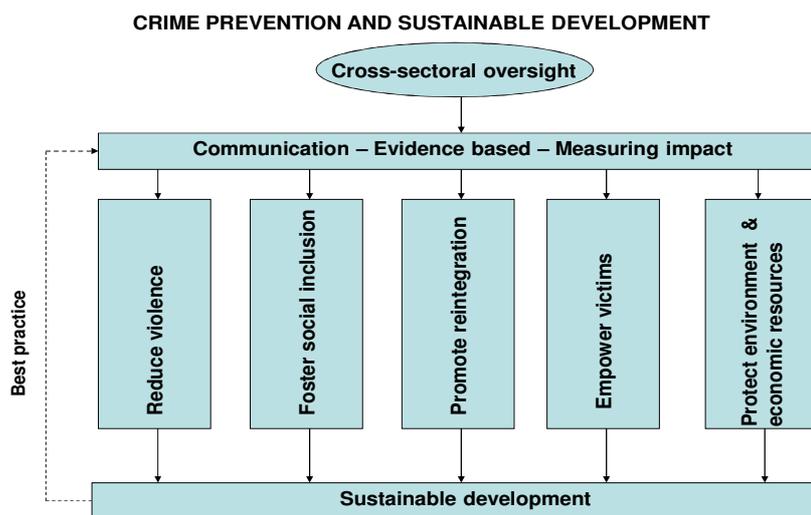
Crime prevention can also be linked to the notions of **sustainable development** and **sustainable livelihoods**, in the sense that it should meet the needs of the present, without compromising those of future generations. This is especially relevant in middle and low income countries. It should work to increase the capacities and resources of

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<sup>20</sup> Foster, J. (2002). 'People pieces': the neglected but essential elements of community crime prevention.' In Hughes, G. & Edwards, A. (Eds) *Crime Control and Community. The new politics of public safety* (pp.167-97). Cullompton: Willan Publishing.

<sup>21</sup> See Tilley, N. (2005). *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety*. Collumpton: Willan Publishing; and Shaw, M. (2006). *Communities in Action for Crime Prevention*. Background Paper for the 6<sup>th</sup> Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention. Canberra, Australia. Montreal: ICPC.

populations, provide opportunities for the next generation, and help to increase intergenerational capital.<sup>22</sup> Sustaining crime prevention strategies beyond the life of a government forms an important part of this process.



Note: Adapted from draft CARICOM’s Crime Prevention and Social Development Action Plan.<sup>23</sup>

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

The next section of this Chapter looks at what governments can do through the kinds of collective and pro-active crime prevention approaches recommended by the Guidelines and the basic principles underlying effective and sustainable prevention.

<sup>22</sup> The notion of sustainable development originated in the World Commission on Environment and Development in 1987; sustainable livelihood was advanced at the UN Conference on Environment and Development in 1992, with the broad aim of reducing poverty.

<sup>23</sup> CARICOM Draft Crime Prevention & Social Development Action Plan 2009-2013. May 2009.

## 2.2 Collective approaches to crime prevention and why governments have an important role

### Conceptual frame of reference

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. (art.2)

There has been a major shift over the past decades from the traditional view that crime prevention is the responsibility of the police, to seeing it as a *collective* responsibility. Since the nineteen eighties it has been argued that it is more effective, and cost efficient and beneficial, to take **collective and proactive action** to prevent crime.<sup>24</sup> The importance of collective action is recognized by both sets of UN Guidelines.

There are a number of compelling arguments. First, since the factors which 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. **Multi-sector partnerships** between ministries such as housing, health, education and employment, recreation, social services and environment, and the police and justice sector, can all make a significant difference to crime levels, and by establishing *pro-active*, rather than *reactive* strategies to prevent crime and victimization.

Secondly, the value of collective approaches has been supported by the evaluation 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.<sup>25</sup> The criminal justice system is primarily a reactive one – acting after offences have been committed. Crime prevention uses 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.

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<sup>24</sup> See eg. International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives (2008) Montreal: ICPC; Sansfacon, D. & Welsh, B. (1999) *Crime Prevention Digest II*, Montreal: ICPC; Waller, I. (2006) *Less Law. More Order*. Westport Connecticut-London: Praeger.

<sup>25</sup> Aos, S. et al., (2004) *Benefits and Costs of Early Intervention Program for Youth*, Olympia WE: Washington State Institute for Public Policy; Greenwood, P. et al (1998). Waller, I. & Sansfacon, D. (2000). *Investing Wisely in Crime Prevention*. Montreal: ICPC

### The costs of crime and the benefits of crime prevention

As indicated earlier, investing in prevention programmes saves money. For example, the **costs of prevention programmes** have been shown to be **lower in the long run than criminal justice interventions**.

In Canada, it costs more than \$11.1 billion per year to fund the police, courts and correctional system.<sup>26</sup> This means that \$360 dollars per Canadian are being used each year for law enforcement and the criminal justice system.

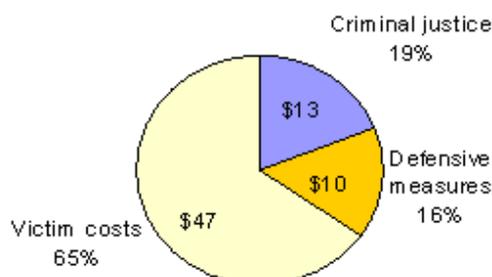
- The **criminal justice system is very costly** to maintain in all countries, so any reductions in rates of crime and in the numbers of people being processed through the courts and prisons are likely to save on policing, prosecution, defence and court costs, and the considerable expenses of running 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 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, 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, there are all the **expenditures on protective security** such as technological systems, private policing, or fencing and barriers which must be included in the costs of crime.

The diagram below illustrates the estimated costs of crime in Canada in 2003 as \$70 billion. This was broken down into expenditures on the criminal justice (police, courts, prosecution and corrections) resulting from crime (\$13 billion), on defensive measures taken by households or businesses etc. to prevent crime (such as improved locks or closed circuit television cameras) (\$10 billion), and the economic, social and health costs to victims of crime (\$40 billion). Thus victims bore the majority of the costs of crime.

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<sup>26</sup> Statistics Canada (2002). 'Justice Spending in Canada, 2000/01'. *Juristat*, 22(11). [www.statcan.ca](http://www.statcan.ca)

### Cost of crime in Canada in billions of dollars (2003)



Source: *Department of Justice Canada, 2003.*<sup>27</sup>

Over the past decade a number of studies of the cost-benefits of crime prevention programmes have been conducted. They have shown, for example, that investing in 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, will save a considerably greater amount in terms of long-term reductions in criminal, social and economic costs than the sums invested in those programmes.<sup>28</sup>

For the money invested, prevention programmes not only reduce expenditures 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 below indicates.

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<sup>27</sup> See Costs of Crime in Canada (2005). *JustResearch No. 12*, Department of Justice Canada [www.justice.gc.ca](http://www.justice.gc.ca)

<sup>28</sup> Eg. Greenwood, P.W. et al. (1998). *Diverting children from a life of crime*. Santa Monica CA: Rand; Waller, I. & Sansfacon, D. (2000). *Investing Wisely in Crime Prevention. International Experiences*. Montreal: ICPC; Homel, P. & Morgan, A. (2008). *Evaluating crime prevention pathways for Australia and Asia*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology; Beato, C. & Silveira, A. (forthcoming). *Preventing Crime: A Comparative Perspective, Brazil, Latin America and the United States*. Belo Horizonte: CRISP.

All of these factors help to demonstrate the benefits for governments of working in a collective way. Thus **national governments**, which develop a national strategy on crime prevention through a multi-sector partnership across ministries, can help to facilitate and support the development of strategic and planned responses at the sub-regional 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 1995 UN Guidelines place particular emphasis on the importance of a local approach to crime.

It is not just national or local authorities and service sectors, however, which can help to prevent crime; the role of local **communities** is a crucial one. The involvement and cooperation of local **civil society** recognizes 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 component affecting the quality of their lives.

## 2.3 The Basic Principles which underlie the UN Guidelines on crime prevention

The 2002 UN Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime set out a series of eight *Basic Principles* underlining the development of crime prevention strategies. They are (art. 7-14):

### *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 2002 and the 1995 guidelines, establish the normative basis with 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.

And they emphasise how crime prevention action should be developed, with a focus on **local communities**, where crime is experienced, as well as those with high needs, and that it be conducted through **partnerships** across government sectors and with **civil society** and the participation of communities, that it be **sustained and accountable**, rather than short-term, and be based on sound **evidence-based** practice.<sup>29</sup>

#### **Crime prevention as a continually evolving process – not a magic bullet**

None of this is to suggest that crime prevention is an exact science which *inevitably* produces good results. In many countries, resources are limited, social and economic and sometimes political situations are chronic. This makes it difficult to adapt programmes which have been successful somewhere else 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 which are weak, poorly resourced or resistant to change.

South Africa, is an example of a country which developed a comprehensive national strategy on crime prevention, following the adoption of its *White Paper on Safety and Security* in 1998. It has, however, experienced many reversals in its attempts to implement the national strategy. In part this was because of Northern optimism that programmes could be easily transported to countries in the South, but also because of lack of capacity at the local level, the increasing levels of violent crime which followed the establishment of the new Constitution, and some of the extraordinary challenges the country has faced since the end of Apartheid.<sup>30</sup>

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<sup>29</sup> See Redo, S. (2008) 'Six United Nations guiding principles to make crime prevention work.' In Coester, M. & Marks, E. (2008). *International Perspectives of Crime Prevention*. Moenchengladbach: Forum Verlag Godesburg GmbH.

<sup>30</sup> Pelsler, E. (Ed.) (2002). *Crime Prevention Partnerships. Lessons from practice*. Pretoria: Institute of Security Studies.

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 countries such as Trinidad & Tobago have risen very sharply since 2000. Guatemala, El Salvador and Nicaragua, and small Caribbean states such as St Lucia have similarly been affected by events outside their borders, apart from internal ones. In such cases coordinated Regional, as well as national crime prevention strategies, are important.

Nor are these problems limited to middle or low income countries. In high income countries, progress in crime prevention over the past twenty 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 from the police and criminal justice sectors to change, a lack of capacity at local levels to work in partnerships, while public demands to increase reactive responses to violent events can put heavy pressure on governments to shift their focus 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 has 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.<sup>31</sup> Since 2007, the requirements for local authorities and the police to meet national targets have been dropped to enable to focus on the most important local problems.

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<sup>31</sup> Maguire, M. (2004). 'The Crime Reduction Programme in England & Wales: Reflections on the Vision and the Reality.' *Criminal Justice*, 4(3) pp. 213-237; Homel, P., Webb, B., Tilley, N. & Nutley, S. (2004). *Investing to Deliver: Reviewing the Implementation of the UK Crime Reduction Programme*. Research Study No. 281. London: Home Office; Morgan, A. & Homel, P. (2009). *Assessing the impact of Community Safety and Crime Prevention Plans*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. p. 37; Solomon, E. (2009). 'New Labour and crime prevention in England & Wales: what worked?' *IPC Review*. Vol 3 pp. 41-67; Crawford, A. (Ed.) (2009). *Crime Prevention Policies in Comparative Perspective*. Cullompton: Willan Publishing.

## 2.4 International support for the UN Guidelines on crime prevention

The UN guidelines are themselves 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, they include:

- The *Convention on the Rights of the Child* (GA Resolution 44/25);
- the *UN Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency* (the Riyadh Guidelines) (1990 Res. 45/112);
- the *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women* (resolution 48/104); and
- The *Declaration of Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power* (resolution 40/34).

In terms of transnational crime, the *UN Convention Against Corruption* adopted in 2003, the 2000 *UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime*, and the protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, similarly provide an important context supporting the implementation of the guidelines on crime prevention at national and local levels. (Resolutions 55/25, annexes I-III, and 55/255, annex).

Migrant women workers, another group particularly vulnerable to victimization, are the subject of General recommendation No. 26 adopted by the Commission on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, at its session in 2008.<sup>32</sup> In addition, the *Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention & Criminal Justice* have recently been revised and updated.<sup>33</sup>

Preventing crime and victimization is also closely linked to the achievement of the UN **Millennium Development Goals** (MDGs). Adopted in 2000, the MDGs have set targets to be achieved by 2015 to:

- eradicate extreme poverty and hunger,
- achieve universal primary education,
- promote gender equality and empower women,

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<sup>32</sup> See Report of the UN Secretary General A/64/152, July 2009 *Violence against women migrant workers*.

<sup>33</sup> See Report of the Intergovernmental Expert Group Meeting, Bangkok 23-25 March 2009 E/CN.15/20/10. They were originally adopted in 1997 in General Assembly Resolution 52/86.

- reduce child mortality,
- improve maternal health,
- combat HIV/AIDS and other diseases,
- ensure environmental sustainability, and
- develop a global partnership for development.<sup>34</sup>

While crime prevention is not currently explicitly spelt out in the MDGs, their achievement can help to reduce future crime and victimization. More importantly, the MDG's are unlikely to be achieved *without* the establishment of safety and security in a region or country.

In Africa, for example, the impact of crime on development has been clearly outlined (see below). Everyday crime destroys confidence among citizens as well as businesses, affects the quality of their lives, adversely affects employment and productivity, destroys human and social capital, discourages investment and undermines the relationship between citizens and their governments.

#### **How Crime Hinders African Development<sup>35</sup>**

- **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.

Fundamental to the UN Guidelines, and one of its basic principles, 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 UN Secretary General in 2004:

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<sup>34</sup> See [www.un.org/millenniumgoals](http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals)

<sup>35</sup> UNODC (2005). *Crime and Development in Africa* Vienna: UNODC. p. 67.

‘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. This 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.’<sup>36</sup>

Crime prevention is itself seen as an integral aspect of the rule of law. As the Secretary General of the United Nations 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.’<sup>37</sup>

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 conflicts, mass poverty and environmental degradation, creating further instability...’<sup>38</sup>

## **2.5 Putting the Guidelines into practice: key components for developing comprehensive and effective crime prevention strategies**

The next sections of this Handbook look in more detail at the practical application of these principles, and the kinds of organization, methods and approaches which are outlined in the Guidelines for implementing them.

The **key components** include:

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<sup>36</sup> *Report of the Secretary General on the rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies*. Doc. S/2004/616 para. 6. Quoted in Redo, S. (2008) op. cit.

<sup>37</sup> *Report of the Secretary General on the rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies*. Doc. S/2004/616 para. 4.

<sup>38</sup> Antonio Maria Costa, Executive Director of UNODC, 14 April 2008, Vienna UN Information Service <http://www.unodc.org>. See also Redo, S. (2008) op. cit.

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

Each of these components is discussed in more detail in the subsequent chapters.

### 3 The Key Role of Governments

#### 3.1 Crime prevention as a permanent feature of government

'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.'(art.2)

The Guidelines emphasize the need for governments to ensure a permanent place for crime prevention in their structures and programmes. Their role as a government is to provide leadership, coordination, and adequate funding and resources. How can these be achieved by national, regional or local governments? There are a number of different components which are recommended, including establishing:

- **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 working 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 which can arise.

##### *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 (art.17):

- (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.

### 3.2 A permanent central authority

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

At the **national level**, countries may choose to place responsibility for crime prevention within **a ministry** such as 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. They facilitate and enable action to be taken 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 for the implementation of plans will be needed.

- **Chile** established its *National Public Safety Strategy* in 2006 under the responsibility of the Ministry of the Interior, but working 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 *Subsecretaria del Interior* and the *Division de Seguridad Ciudadana*.<sup>39</sup>
- **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 national and local level. It is a permanent structure with funding to enable it to fund programmes and undertake good research and evaluation of their outcomes and impacts.<sup>40</sup>
- **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.<sup>41</sup>

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<sup>39</sup> [www.seguridadciudadana.gob.cl](http://www.seguridadciudadana.gob.cl)

<sup>40</sup> [www.bra.se](http://www.bra.se)

<sup>41</sup> [www.prevention.gc.ca](http://www.prevention.gc.ca)

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

- The State of **Victoria Australia** has experimented with a series of prevention strategies since 1999 involving several ministries eg. within the Department of Justice it established Crime Prevention Victoria to take responsibility for developing the 2002-5 *Safer Streets and Homes* strategy. These have been multi-sector strategies involving State justice, health, school and police services, 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.
- The State of **Queretaro, Mexico** placed **primary responsibility for crime prevention** under the Ministry of Public Safety, which established its five-year provincial safety plan *Order, Safety and Justice* 2004-2009 in 2004. It has worked in close partnership with other ministries. The Strategy is modeled on the UN Guidelines.
- The **State of Lagos in Nigeria** 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, training and fund raising to support prevention initiatives.<sup>42</sup>
- The *Crime Prevention Council* of **Lower Saxony, Germany** 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.<sup>43</sup>

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

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<sup>42</sup> [www.lagosstatesecuritytrustfund.org](http://www.lagosstatesecuritytrustfund.org)

<sup>43</sup> [www.lpr.niedersachsen.de](http://www.lpr.niedersachsen.de); [www.beccaria.de](http://www.beccaria.de)

### **How institutional characteristics influence and determine the local crime prevention approach<sup>44</sup>**

South Africa has 3 distinct, interdependent levels of government – national, provincial and local governments.

#### **Crime Prevention Roles of National Government**

The South African Cabinet approved the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) in 1996 that describes the strategic focus of South Africa in terms of crime prevention. The NCPS adopts two key principles recognizing crime as a social phenomenon and the importance of multi-sectoral 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 the 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 the NCPS. The Justice Crime Prevention and Security cluster (JCPS) 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 are coordinating crime prevention initiatives at provincial level. The *White Paper on Safety and Security* created a crime prevention mandate for provinces. The crime prevention responsibility of provinces includes initiation, co-ordination, and mobilization of resources for social crime prevention programmes, evaluation and support to the social crime prevention programmes at 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 (IDP). The IDP's 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 wide crime prevention initiatives has been initiated.

### **3.3 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 4 for more details on data and research]. This will help to identify the main concerns about crime, victimization and insecurity across the country,

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<sup>44</sup> Source: UN HABITAT (2007). *Making Cities Safer from Crime – A Toolkit*. p. 23. Nairobi.

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 implicated in implementing the plan. Establishing key areas where action should be focused, and selecting a series of main types of offences or at risk groups is important. Setting strict national targets for reduction in crime problems to be achieved 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 their concerns.

- **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 targeting drugs, cybercrime, and strengthening controls against organized crime. The Action Plan was under the responsibility of the National Police Agency, in partnership with other 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 apart from the police. A revised *Action Plan* was adopted in 2008 with renewed target objectives.<sup>45</sup>
- **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 over two phases of \$AUS38 million for policy, research and practical projects. 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 funding of AUS\$65.5million to local level and grass roots security-related projects, over a period of four years.
- **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 devolve powers and resources to provincial and local authorities, giving them 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

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<sup>45</sup> [www.npa.go.jp/english/seisaku2/crime\\_reduction.pdf](http://www.npa.go.jp/english/seisaku2/crime_reduction.pdf)

relevant ministries, and public and private sectors to help improve safety and security.

- **Scotland** has a 10 year *Strategic Violence Reduction Plan*. The Scottish Violence Reduction Unit launched its 10-year strategic plan 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.<sup>46</sup>

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)*. They have also had a national strategy targeting youth at risk.
- The 2010-2014 Country Assistance Strategy developed by USAID with **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 to work in partnerships.<sup>47</sup>

### 3.4 Multi-sector coordination and partnerships

One of the biggest challenges for governments is often to change ways of working among departments and other sectors, from discrete areas of responsibility, to **multi-sector partnerships**. Persuading departments of health, urban development, or labour that they have an important contribution to crime prevention and community safety is

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<sup>46</sup> [www.actiononviolence.com](http://www.actiononviolence.com)

<sup>47</sup> USAID - Jamaica. *Country Assistance Strategy 2010-2014*. May 2009. [www.jamaica.usaid.gov](http://www.jamaica.usaid.gov)

not always easy. Some of the common problems which are encountered are that many departments still 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 outside government. There is often an unwillingness to allocate departmental resources to joint prevention projects.

Under the lead department or central authority **Advisory and Coordinating Committees**, with representatives from the range of key stakeholders from other sectors are often created.

- 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.
- In **Indonesia** the *Indonesian Crime Prevention Foundation* undertakes national coordination of crime prevention initiatives with the ministries of Justice and Human Rights, of Social Affairs, External Affairs and the Interior.
- **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 the key departments such as health, housing and education, the police, corrections, and local governments, academic institutions, churches, and non-government organizations.
- In **Norway**, while the Police Directorate has a central role in crime prevention, the *National Crime Prevention Council* (KRAD) established by the government, provides advice on prevention to them and other government departments and undertakes project implementation on their behalf.
- 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.

In developing specific projects and plans, a wider range of sectors and stakeholders are usually invited to join official representatives. This includes civil society stakeholders - community representatives, non-government organizations, and those representing

specific interest groups such as youth, women, 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 PRONASCI** (National Program for Public Security with Citizenship). This programme involves both a series of structural changes to key institutions, and targeted local programmes. It is based on multi-sector partnerships at 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 themselves establish integrated management offices. Currently, 112 municipalities, 21 states and the Federal District are involved in PRONASCI.

- **Brazil** launched its new public safety programme, **PRONASCI** in 2007, the *National Program for Public Security with Citizenship*.<sup>48</sup> It is based in the Ministry of the Justice, and involves 94 **Structural Actions** and **Local Programmes**. All of them involve partnerships with other Ministries on specific issues. *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 rate of homicides from 29 per 100,000 people to 12 per 100,000 over the next four years.

The *Local Programmes* **target high priority metropolitan regions**, and involve three types of funding streams:

- *Territory of peace* – to help establish integrated municipal management and partnerships between local services, including the police and civil society (*Offices of Integrated City Management (GGIM)*); establishing *Communitarian Councils of Public Safety* - forums for public safety discussions; mechanisms to increase public knowledge of their citizen roles and rights; financial incentives for young people at risk around cultural projects; services for women victims of violence; human rights training for judges, prosecutors and public defenders; and establishing 10 centres for access to justice and conflict resolution.
- *Family and youth integration* – a project to provide 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

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<sup>48</sup> [www.mj.gov.br/pronasci](http://www.mj.gov.br/pronasci)

military service, to avoid being lured into crime; a *Women of Peace* project to train women living in areas at high risk of human trafficking and violence, in citizenship, human rights and leadership skills; a series of education projects to raise educational levels for those in the justice system and in prison; a prisoner *Painting Freedom, Painting Citizenship* project to manufacture sports equipment for schools and provide job-skills on release.

- *Safety and sociability* – recovery of urban spaces and areas in poor communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Cities; intensive education projects in targeted 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 (c.3,780 billion \$US) has been allocated over the period 2007-2011.

Brazil's *National Strategy on Public Security* CONSEG is being established following a very **comprehensive series of participatory discussions** with key stakeholders in all regions of the country. It held a first *National Conference on Public Security* 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 6** for more detailed discussion of multi-sector and partnership approaches, and **Chapter 7** on civil society engagement.

### 3.5 Public education and the media

There are some major reasons why it is important for governments to 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 tends to focus on the most violent offences and events, and is a very powerful influence shaping public attitudes towards crime. It is evident, nevertheless, that when people are giving 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 the public is specifically asked their views, they are often strongly in favour of a preventive

approach. A number of public opinion surveys have indicated strong positive attitudes towards investment in prevention programmes.<sup>49</sup>

- 73% 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% who thought handing out tougher sentences is the best solution.
- 67% 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 they saw more police and strong laws as important, much higher proportions thought that developing prevention programmes and citizen awareness were the best ways to combat crime.<sup>50</sup>

- 97% of the public in El Salvador thought raising citizen awareness of their responsibility to prevent crime the most important way to respond to it.
- 96% of the public in El Salvador thought prevention programmes an effective way to respond to crime.

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

It is important for all levels of government in developing strategies, to engage with the public on their experiences and the problems and priorities which 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 human trafficking, trafficking of organs, cultural property or cyber crime, and

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<sup>49</sup> Roberts, J. V. & Grossman, M. (1990). 'Crime Prevention and Public Opinion.' *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 32: 75-90. Similar results have been found in a number of polls, Environics Research Group, (1997); Ekos Research & Associates (2002) & (2004).

<sup>50</sup> Canas, J.S. (2009). '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.

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. It has been evident in England and Wales, for example, that while there has been a marked drop in the incidence of many crimes over the past ten or more 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 with the aim of changing attitudes to this type of crime. This included providing information on services, a 24 hour hot-line for victims, and a series of public forums on women's safety to increase debate and awareness.

Public education and communication is, 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 they experience
- assessing public views on priority issues
- assessing public views on possible solutions

*For more detailed information on communicating with the public see **Chapter 7**.*

### **3.6 Sustainability and accountability of programmes**

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. (art.10)

#### *Sustainability*

Governments and other funding bodies should strive to achieve sustainability of demonstrably effective crime prevention programmes and initiatives through, inter alia (art.20):

- (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 important 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 through **financial and resource commitment** in national, state and local budgets. This can include:

- on-going financial support for centres responsible for crime prevention
- improvements in data collection systems
- investment in victimization surveys
- training and capacity building
- funding mechanisms which encourage local programme development and innovation.

A second approach is through establishing **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 Commonwealth 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.<sup>51</sup>

Sustainability can also be ensured by the **adoption of long-term strategies**.

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<sup>51</sup> Homel, P., Morgan, A. Behm, A. & Makkai, T. (2007). *The Review of the National Community Crime Prevention Programme (NCCPP): Establishing a new strategic direction*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

- 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 on-going funding mechanisms inviting local boroughs to apply for funds to undertake prevention initiatives.

Finally, sustainability can be enhanced by **involving civil society**, a clearer understanding of how prevention can improve neighbourhoods, and reduce victimization helps to ensure on-going interest and involvement in programmes. Communities which 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 placed perhaps *too much emphasis* on financial accountability issues such as the ability of programmes to show clear and effective results. In New Zealand, for example, an external evaluation of its 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 out of the political agenda**, not something which is easy to do, so that all potential governments understand its value. This is something which the City of Bogotá among others appears to have achieved.

There are now a number of practical tools and mechanisms which can be used to support sustainable prevention which is discussed in Chapter 4-7 including:

- Tools – to support the routine collection of information, diagnosing crime problems in a city or local area, and developing, implementing and evaluating 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.
- Publications, resources and networks - on well-planned or evaluated practices on 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 - on funding and institutionalizing strategic prevention approaches to ensure their sustainability.

### 3.7 Training and capacity building for governments and other bodies

#### *Training and Capacity Building*

Governments should support the development of crime prevention skills by (art.18):

- (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 multi-sector partnerships, developing comprehensive information systems, analysing data from different sectors, engaging communities, developing effective communication with the public, implementing and evaluating programmes, all require specific and often new skills. Governments cannot assume that policy makers and practitioners will necessarily have the requisite skills, which means that they need to **invest 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 has 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, civil society groups.

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

- The **Australian** government has worked closely with the *Australian Institute of Criminology* (AIC), 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 *Pathways to Prevention*<sup>52</sup> which has resulted in action programmes initiated by State and local governments.
- In **Chile** the Ministry of Justice collaborates with specialized university centres such as the *Program de Seguridad Urbana* at the University Hurtado to undertake evaluation of national programmes and they also run 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 on youth offending, intervention and prevention, and local and community prevention.<sup>53</sup>
- 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 *Fica Vivo* or *Stay Alive*.<sup>54</sup>
- In **South Africa** the *Centre for Scientific and Industrial Research* collaborates extensively with national and state government ministries and with the South Africa Police Service. It has helped develop crime prevention guides and toolkits, and design and implement programmes on the ground, supported local municipalities in developing their own prevention strategies, organized conferences to facilitate exchange and good practices, and undertaken training programmes for local authority and state government staff.

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<sup>52</sup> *Pathways to Prevention: Developmental and Early Intervention Approaches to Crime in Australia*. (1999) Canberra: Ministry of the Attorney General. [www.griffith.edu.au/centre/kceljag](http://www.griffith.edu.au/centre/kceljag)

<sup>53</sup> [www.cesc.uchile.cl](http://www.cesc.uchile.cl)

<sup>54</sup> Beato, C. C. (2005). *Case Study 'Fica Vivo' Homicide Control project in Belo Horizonte*. Washington DC: World Bank.

Many governments have established **on-line information resource centres** to provide advice and practical supports to policy makers, practitioners and researchers working at all government levels.

- In **England and Wales**, 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:<sup>55</sup>
  - legislation and new national initiatives
  - an effective practice database
  - toolkits
  - down-loadable publications and information on journals
  - links to crime prevention Awards and related government initiatives
  - funding resources and application methods
  - on-line 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 academic, central government, local groups, police, professional associations and voluntary groups.
- In the State of **New South Wales, Australia**, the government has created a website to support community building including 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.<sup>56</sup>

There are now an increasing number of **educational and professional courses** and qualifications on 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.<sup>57</sup> On-line courses, study visits and graduate courses are now available in many regions. Regional research organizations include organizations such as the *Facultad Latino Americana de Ciencias Sociales* (FLACSO) which brings together university and research centres in Latin America to work on security and prevention issues.

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<sup>55</sup> [www.crimereduction.homeoffice.gov.uk](http://www.crimereduction.homeoffice.gov.uk)

<sup>56</sup> [www.communitybuilders.nsw.gov.au](http://www.communitybuilders.nsw.gov.au)

<sup>57</sup> See International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives (2010). Montreal: ICPC; Beccaria Project [www.beccaria.de/kriminalpraevention](http://www.beccaria.de/kriminalpraevention)

**Non-government and international organizations** are another valuable source of specialized skill training. Organizations such as the Institute for Security and Democracy (INSYDE) and Democracia, Derechos Humanos y Seguridad (DHSS) both based in Mexico, work to support the development of prevention strategies including training the police. In Brazil, the *Brazilian Forum on Public Security* and the *Institute Sou da Paz* in Brazil, are examples of non-government organizations which 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.

**INSYDE** (Mexico) promotes rights-respecting and effective policing using models of accountability and democratic policing. It has engaged the police themselves to increase their capacity to respond to violent crime...helping them through training to establish new procedures which discourage corruption and hold officers accountable for abuses, while promoting democratic practices that respond to citizens' needs. It has developed training manuals and provides outreach and technical support to assist the police to improve their performance and oversight systems.<sup>58</sup>

Similarly there is a range of international and regional non-government organizations, which provide support to governments and cities, and facilitate technical assistance, training, capacity building in crime prevention and criminal justice. The Washington Office on Latin America (WOLA) based in the United States, undertakes research and training and capacity building to bring together governments and non-government organizations and civil society on violence and security in Latin America. Much of their work focuses on gangs and youth violence prevention. The *European Forum for Public Security* (EFUS) based in France works with European cities, as well as in Latin America and Africa, to support cities in developing prevention initiatives. Many of the international and regional organizations are Programme Network Institutes affiliated with UNODC including:<sup>59</sup>

- International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) based in Canada
- Naif Arab Academy for Security Services (NAASS), in Saudi Arabia
- United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (ILANUD) based in Costa Rica, and ILANUD Brazil
- European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control (HEUNI), based in Finland

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<sup>58</sup> See [www.insyde.org.mx](http://www.insyde.org.mx) and [www.ddhs.org.mx](http://www.ddhs.org.mx)

<sup>59</sup> For the full list of the Programme Network Institutes affiliated with the Crime Commission see [www.unodc.org](http://www.unodc.org)

- United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) based in Italy
- Korean Institute of Criminology (KIC)
- United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFRI) based in Uganda
- United Nations Far East Institute (UNAFEI) in Japan.

An increasingly utilized method of building capacity is through the **exchange of information and experience** between countries and cities. Learning directly from those with experience in different countries about *how* they have undertaken projects, and dealt with problems, is often a faster way of appreciating and understanding what can be done, than through distance learning alone. Networks such as FLACSO, ICPC and EFUS, the European ‘twinning’ programme URBACT, and UN HABITAT’s Safer Cities Programme have considerable experience in facilitating such exchanges.

- The Safer City Programme of UN-HABITAT was established in 1998, at the request of African Mayors. Apart from its work in supporting cities to develop 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 eg. on local government crime prevention, women’s safety, youth at risk, and youth participation programmes and projects.<sup>60</sup>
- UNODC’s 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.<sup>61</sup>
- International workshops on crime prevention, held during the UN Congresses on Crime Prevention & Criminal Justice, in Vienna (2000), Bangkok (2005), and Salvador da Bahia, Brazil (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, Liege and Bordeaux. This enabled each city to work together in the development of an analysis of problems related to prostitution and drugs

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<sup>60</sup> UN-HABITAT Safer Cities Programme [www.unhabitat.org](http://www.unhabitat.org)

<sup>61</sup> UNODC (2008). *Handbook on planning and action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions*.

in their cities, and to develop, implement and evaluate a plan. The outcome was a detailed Manual to guide other cities concerned about similar issues.<sup>62</sup>

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, Denmark, France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Japan, the United Kingdom, the United States and Canada, facilitate bilateral exchanges and study visits or placements 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 on-going mentoring by Norwegian police of Serbian police and local government officials, eg. on developing good police-community practices and relationships.

#### **Tools and resources**

*For more information and examples of national, sub-regional and local strategies on crime prevention see:*

- ICPC (2008). *International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives*. ICPC: Montreal.
- ICPC (2010). *International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives*. ICPC: Montreal.
- UN-HABITAT (2007). *UN HABITAT for Safer Cities*. Safer Cities Programme Nairobi: UN HABITAT.<sup>63</sup>

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<sup>62</sup> Savignac, J. et al. (2007). *Nuisance publiques liées aux drogues et à la prostitution: Manuel pratique pour l'action locale*. Montreal: ICPC.

<sup>63</sup> See [www.unhabitat.com](http://www.unhabitat.com) and select Safer Cities Programme and Publications.

## 4 Knowledge-based crime prevention

### 4.1 The foundation of pro-active and effective prevention

#### *Knowledge Base - Principle*

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 (art.11)

#### *Knowledge Base - Methods*

As appropriate, Governments and/or civil society should facilitate knowledge-based crime prevention by, inter alia (art.21):

- (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, policy makers, 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 UN Guidelines place a strong emphasis on the importance of using **appropriate knowledge and information** to provide a grounded sense of what is happening in terms of crime, its underlying causes, and what might help to prevent it. A variety of terms are used by policy-makers and researchers working in the field of prevention to refer to this knowledge. These include **evidence-based** and **evidence-led prevention**, but basically they all refer to the collection of reliable data and information, in systematic ways, from a variety of relevant sources, and scientifically reliable information derived from research and evaluation of projects on the ground.

As has been discussed in previous chapters, since there are many different types of crime and victimization, and many causal factors, it is very 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 they are not necessarily a good or complete guide to where most crime is occurring, nor who its victims are. 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 helping modify programmes to meet their objectives.

The 2002 Guidelines 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 which are 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.

#### **4.2 Knowledge which is extensive and inclusive**

##### *Socio-economic development and inclusion*

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. (art.8)

##### *Differentiation*

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 (art.14).

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 is often very different for these groups from the majority population, or from men, and they are often excluded socially, economically and even culturally.

Differentiation refers to the need for governments to ensure that in the generation of knowledge about crime and its causes, as well as in service provision and programme implementation and evaluation, they consider *how* crime affects such different groups, and how interventions can be developed to meet their particular needs and circumstances.

For example, this requires governments to pay **particular attention to gender**, and the different impacts and experiences of crime for girls and boys, and women and men.

Despite great strides in achieving gender equality throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> century, men and women still do not enjoy the same rights and freedoms around the world. Even in nations where gender equality exists before the law, formal and informal institutions socialize men and women to be unequal. Gender inequality results in differences in rates of participation in crime, in rates of victimization, and in perceptions of risk and fear of crime. These patterns are remarkably consistent around the world and over time and remain some of the most basic principles in criminology and victimology.<sup>64</sup>

Women are less likely to participate in violent crime, but more vulnerable than men to sexual assault, harassment, domestic violence and human trafficking, 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**.<sup>65</sup>

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<sup>64</sup> Rosemary Barberet (2008). Paper submitted to the meeting. E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2. Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Guidelines on Crime Prevention Work, Berlin 2-4<sup>th</sup> July.

<sup>65</sup> See bibliography and resources for more information

Gender mainstreaming... is the process of assessing their implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies and programmes, in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension in all political, economic and societal spheres as that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.<sup>66</sup>

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 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 will again have particular 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 different types of crime problems and causal factors, and to aid the development of a range of appropriate interventions.

### 4.3 The 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 analyze their causes, identify possible solutions, and select and evaluate implemented programmes. This information can be grouped under four main headings:

#### 1) **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 crimes 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.

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<sup>66</sup> Butchart, A. et al., (2004). *Preventing Violence: A Guide to Implementing the Recommendations of the World Report on Violence and Health*. Geneva :WHO. pp.51-52.

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

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.

## 2) **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 associated. This will help to identify the **most vulnerable populations**, and the **most vulnerable targets or places** associated with certain types of crime.

As before, the analysis of such **information needs to be multi-sector and multi-disciplinary**, 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 suggest 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 which put individuals at risk of crime and victimization, or protect them, are similar across regions and countries. It is the scale of the problems which differs. There are likely to be specific factors affecting individual middle or low income countries, such as **levels of corruption and trust in the police, or of poverty and social and economic problems** which attract trans-national crime. Risk factors such as very high unemployment levels among young people, access to schools and education, or to guns will vary considerably.<sup>67</sup>

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<sup>67</sup> Much of the research on the causes of crime has been conducted in high income countries, especially North America and Europe. This means that it has been able to draw on generally good data collection resources and well-skilled researchers, and assume relatively strong institutions and service sectors.

### 3) **Knowledge about existing policies and good practices**

In order to select interventions which 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 over the past years as governments and researchers have invested in prevention. Identifying programmes which have been **well-run, meet their objectives, and appear to have promising outcomes**, is important for helping 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 well-skilled researchers, and assume relatively strong institutions and service sectors.

Prevention programmes evaluated by the *Campbell Collaboration*, for example, involve only those programmes which 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.<sup>68</sup> 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 which 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;<sup>69</sup> inventories and reports on effective practices, such as those

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<sup>68</sup> Campbell Collaboration [www.campbellcollaboration.org](http://www.campbellcollaboration.org); the 'Gold Standard' using experimental methods and randomized trials is a further example of evaluation which is based on strict scientific standards see Sherman et al. (1997) *Preventing Crime: What Works, What Doesn't, What's Promising*. Washington DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programmes.

<sup>69</sup> Eg. EUCPN; Australia; England & Wales *Local Innovation Awards Scheme* [www.npia.police.uk](http://www.npia.police.uk)

compiled by the *Campbell Collaboration*; or model programmes which 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.<sup>70</sup>

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

Increasingly, scientifically reliable studies from regions such as Latin America and the Caribbean and Africa are becoming available, and are an important resource for governments assessing their own situation. UN-HABITAT's Safer Cities Programme, for example, has undertaken a number of studies of crime and victimization across African cities. In Latin America, regional research organizations such as FLACSO, and country-based university centres such as CRISP in Minas Gerais, and the Centre for Studies on Public Security and Citizenship (CeSeC) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and the *Programa de Seguridad* at the University Alberto Hurtado in Chile are all 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 Violence in the Horn, East and Southern Africa** (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: with a extensive field review of some 400 organizations, individuals and local authorities asking them about their key objectives, programmes and lessons learned on 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** (2009) is a review of the successful elements of anti-

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<sup>70</sup> See bibliography, and ICPC publications [www.crime-prevention-intl.org](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org)

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 (2005)** is a compendium of programmes and strategies from around the world on 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 11<sup>th</sup> UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice.

#### 4) **Knowledge about the process of implementing programmes and measuring their outcomes and impacts**

Perhaps the most neglected areas of crime prevention knowledge have been *how to implement* programmes and policies, and *how to evaluate* them. This is an integral aspect of effective prevention, in which governments need to invest time and resources.

As discussed in Chapter 1, 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 the lack of the necessary skills or understanding among the programme implementers, 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 awareness, 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 when it has been implemented, and allows project progress and the extent to which it meets those objectives to be assessed. However, 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 already mentioned. They also address many of the problems commonly encountered.

*Implementation and evaluation approaches are explored in more detail in Chapter 5.*

#### **4.4 Developing evidence-based knowledge**

Considerable experience can be drawn on to examine how governments at all levels have worked to develop and support a good crime prevention knowledge base. In the **United States**, for example, the Department of Justice, through its *National Institute of Justice*, regularly funds **research and evaluation** of crime prevention programmes. For example, it funded a five year evaluation of the implementation of a series of court-based prevention programmes to prevent domestic violence against women.<sup>71</sup> 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.<sup>72</sup>

In the *Crime Reduction Programme* introduced by the government in England and Wales in 1997, 10% of 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 *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 an action research project.<sup>73</sup> Many governments now make monitoring and evaluation a prerequisite of funding for project development.

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 data bases which combine police and local mapping data for crime prevention purposes. The results have been made available to the public.<sup>74</sup> A number of countries have regular household or victimization surveys which provide on-going

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<sup>71</sup> Harrell et al. (2009). *The Judicial Oversight Demonstration: Culminating Report on the Evaluation*. National Institute of Justice, US Dept. of Justice, Office of Justice Programs. [www.ojp.usgov/nij/pubs](http://www.ojp.usgov/nij/pubs)

<sup>72</sup> *Project Safe Neighbourhoods: A National Programme to Reduce Gun Crime. Final Project Report*. National Institute of Justice, Office of Justice Programmes.

<sup>73</sup> Homel, R. et al. (1999). *Pathways to Prevention*. Canberra: Australian Government Publishing Services; Homel, R. et al. (2006). *The Pathways to Prevention project: the first five years 1990-2004*. Sydney: Griffith University & Mission Australia.

<sup>74</sup> Savoie, J. (2008). 'Analysis of the spatial distribution of crime in Canada: Summary of major trends.' *Crime & Justice Research Paper Series*, 85-561-M No. 015 Vol. 2008.

sources of information on crime trends, fear of crime, and public attitudes all of which generate valuable information for 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 for good practices** to encourage 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* (EUCPN) established in 2001 by European governments, the Ministry of the Attorney General in Australia, and the Home Office in England and Wales.

#### 4.5 Data sources and tools for implementing a knowledge-based approach

##### Data on crime and related problems

###### Crime statistics

Police reports on crime form a major input 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 is a central component of knowledge-based prevention, but is not always easily obtainable, nor sufficient for a grounded understanding of crime problems. It is universally acknowledged that **police statistics do not provide an accurate account of the crime people experience**.<sup>75</sup> 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.

In high income and middle and low income countries 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 accessing police data by others 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 human trafficking and trafficking in drugs or guns.

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<sup>75</sup> Van Dijk, J. (2008). *The World of Crime: Breaking the Silence on Problems of Security, Justice and Development Across the World*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications; Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit UNODC.

Partly 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 used extensively by UNODC<sup>76</sup> and UN-HABITAT's 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.

Considerable work has been undertaken to standardize victimization surveys and provide assistance to countries and cities on their development and use. Several waves of the *International Crime Victim Survey* (ICVS), using a standardized questionnaire, to allow for comparisons between countries, has been conducted in an increasing number of countries. In 2005 this included over 30 countries in most regions of the world.<sup>77</sup>

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) has developed a *Manual on Victimization Surveys* published in 2009, which has been piloted in a number of countries including Tanzania, Rwanda and Uganda.<sup>78</sup> This provides guidance to national governments on standards and common definitions, and ways of dealing with methodological problems. The example below is of a victimization survey commissioned by local authorities.

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

<sup>76</sup> <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/Data-for-Africa-publications.html>

<sup>77</sup> For information on the ICVS see UNICRI. [www.unicri.it](http://www.unicri.it)

<sup>78</sup> UNODC-UNECE (2010). *Manual on Victimization Surveys*. Vienna: UNODC-UNECE. ECE/CES/4

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.<sup>79</sup>

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 i) identify priorities for future interventions ii) measure the outcomes of interventions over time and iii) act as capacity-building for the local communities involved.<sup>80</sup>

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 non-government organization CLEEN. It looked at levels of victimization, experience of official corruption, fear of crime and public perceptions of governance and performance.<sup>81</sup>

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.<sup>82</sup> The World Health Organization (WHO) similarly used victimization

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<sup>79</sup> *Victimization in Tanzania*. (2007) UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme.

<sup>80</sup> Muggah, R. et al., (2008). *Surveying Armed Violence, Arms and Victimization in Southern Sudan: Findings and Challenges*. In OECD (2009) op. cit. p. 71.

<sup>81</sup> See Lagos State Security Trust Fund [www.lagosstatesecuritytrustfund.org](http://www.lagosstatesecuritytrustfund.org) and [www.cleen.org](http://www.cleen.org)

<sup>82</sup> Johnson, H., Ollus, N. & Nevala, S. (2008). *Violence Against Women: An International Perspective*. New York: Springer.

surveys with trained interviewers in 10 countries, for their 2005 *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women*.<sup>83</sup>

For more information on victimisation survey resources see the *Bibliography/Resources*.

**Other information sources:**

**Population censuses and household surveys** provide valuable information eg. on population size, age, ethnic background, and gender, and their geographic distribution; and on family or household size and income factors. **Specialized on-going surveys** can provide information over time about family and child development. Such longitudinal surveys follow children and young people as they grow. The Canadian *National Longitudinal Survey on Children and Youth* (NLSCY) is one example.

**Public health** information is a major source of information on injuries, accidents and violent deaths. The World Health Organization's 2002 *World Report on Violence and Health* argues for taking a public health, rather than an exclusively criminal justice, approach to all forms of violence. 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 (PAHO).<sup>84</sup> The World Health Organization (WHO), PAHO, the Violence Prevention Alliance (VPA), a network of WHO member states, international agencies and civil society organizations, and the Inter-American Coalition for the Prevention of Violence (IACPV), are all valuable sources and resources on violence prevention.<sup>85</sup> The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) report on *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development* (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.<sup>86</sup>

**Housing and environmental departments** can provide information on land use, tenure, environmental conditions and services, and on the availability and condition of public

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<sup>83</sup> WHO (2005). *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women*. Geneva: WHO.

<sup>84</sup> PAHO [www.paho.org](http://www.paho.org)

<sup>85</sup> [www.who.int/violenceprevention](http://www.who.int/violenceprevention) ; IACPV includes the Inter-American Development Bank, World Bank, Organization of American States, UNESCO and the Centres for Disease Control.

<sup>86</sup> *Armed Violence Reduction: Enabling Development*. (2009). OECD: Paris.

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 re-offending rates. This information can also be supplemented by information from prisoners and those being released on what their needs are to avoid re-incarceration.

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

**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 kinds of acts. Annual self-report offending surveys were initiated in England and Wales in 2003, to collect information on life-time offending, attitudes towards the justice system and victimization experiences.<sup>87</sup>

**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. Community interviews, focus groups, participatory decision-making, and **participatory appraisal mechanisms** such as youth or women's safety walks and audits of public space, are some examples.

Some governments have developed **protocols on the sharing of data** which aid the pooling of information for the purposes of analysing crime problems and developing prevention plans (see Chapter 6).

## **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 example below), these are specialized

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<sup>87</sup> See *Guidance on Local Safety Audits: A Compendium of International Practice* (2007). Paris: EFUS; and Home Office [www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/index.html](http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/index.html)

centres which 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 multi-disciplinary and multi-sector 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.

#### 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. It can be local (*Observatorio de la seguridad de Madrid*, or Observatory of the City of Bogota), sub-regional (Regional Observatory on Security Policies, Italy), national (*l'Observatoire national de la delinquance en France*), or Regional (*Observatorio Centroamericano sobre la 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 francais des drogues et toxicomanies* (OFDT) in France).

Crime observatories primarily aim to inform policy decisions based on information beyond police data. They build on partnerships between public, quasi-public and/or private actors (municipal services, transport services, social housing, landlords, business, traders etc.) to access data from each sector. They often develop and use geographic information systems (GIS), victimisation 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.<sup>88</sup>

The City of **Bogota, Colombia** 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.

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<sup>88</sup> See the proceedings of two international meetings on observatories organized by ICPC in 2007 & 2009: *Crime Observatories: Report of International Experiences*.(2007) ICPC: Montreal; and Proceedings 2009 [www.crime-prevention-intl.org](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org)

## Geographical information systems (GIS)

Geographical information systems (GIS) are another tool which has become 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 American example was the introduction of the GIS system COMPSTAT in New York City in the 1990's, together with the 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 offences (eg. 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 proactive 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 systems 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 is 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:

The City of **Diadema**, Sao Paulo **Brazil**, introduced a GIS system in 2000, as part of its ten-fold 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.<sup>89</sup>

In **Canada**, the federal government has piloted an analysis of neighbourhood crime in 6 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

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<sup>89</sup> See Filipe Junior, J. 'The experience of Diadema, Sao Paulo, Brazil'. In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. (Ed.), *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention in particular in relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*. (2007). Montreal: ICPC.

over time in those cities. The study was undertaken by Statistics Canada and the National Crime Prevention Centre.<sup>90</sup>

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 1980's 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, and on specific topics such as homicides, drug offences, domestic violence and robbery. [www.crisp.ufmg.br](http://www.crisp.ufmg.br)

*See Bibliography/Resources for more information on GIS systems.*

### **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 through the use of 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, help to build *commitment* and *ownership* around crime prevention plans among the range of 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 victimisation, but their links with a range of 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 different country contexts. A major resource is the *Guidance on Local Safety Audits: A Compendium of International Practice* which provides clear and detailed advice and examples relevant to high and medium and low income countries.<sup>91</sup>

'Written primarily for those working at the city level, the Guidance covers the safety audit process including why they are important, the stages of preparing and implementing an audit, and how to engage the community; specific issues

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<sup>90</sup> Savoie, J. (2008). 'Analysis of the spatial distribution of crime in Canada: Summary of major trends.' *Crime & Justice Research Paper Series*, 85-561-M No. 015 Vol. 2008.

<sup>91</sup> European Forum for Urban Security (EFUS) (2007), Paris. The Guidance is currently available in English, French, Spanish and German. <http://www.fesu.org>

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 three levels of responsibility: policy makers 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 5**.*

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.

## 5 Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation

### 5.1 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 which 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 which can be used.

As the Guidelines emphasise, a systematic process for development and management is needed, whether planning at the national or local level.

#### *Planning Interventions*

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

- 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*

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

- (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,
- improve the quality of information obtained,
- ensure that interventions and the outcomes are appropriate, and
- help 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, refers to the stages of *scanning, analysis, response, and assessment*, and is widely used by police forces which have adopted a forward-looking problem-solving approach. The Five 'I's is another version used by the European Union Network on Crime Prevention.

The Five 'I's – a series of headings to capture the essential elements of a crime prevention or reduction initiative so that lessons learnt can be clear and decisions made about replication. [They] comprise: intelligence, intervention, implementation, involvement and impact.<sup>92</sup>

The European *Beccaria Standards* for quality management in crime prevention provide a more detailed summary of the various steps involved in each of these main stages in project planning and management.<sup>93</sup> 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 kinds of measures and steps which should be taken for the planning, execution and assessment of crime prevention programmes and projects. They contain a set of detailed requirements for each of seven key steps:

- i. Description of the problem
- ii. Analysis of the conditions leading to the emergence of the problem
- iii. Determination of previous targets, project targets and targeted groups
- iv. Determination of the interventions intended to achieve the targets

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<sup>92</sup> Tilley, N. (Ed.) (2005). *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety*. Cullompton, Devon: Willan Publishing. p.762.

<sup>93</sup> See also Marks, E. et al. (Ed.) *Quality in Crime Prevention*. (2005). [www.beccaria.de](http://www.beccaria.de)

- v. Design and execution of the project
- vi. Review of the project's implementation and achievement of objectives (evaluation)
- vii. Conclusion and documentation.

## 5.2 Linking transnational organized crime and national and local strategies

### *Interdependency*

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

### *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 (art.27):

- (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 UN Convention and its Protocols on combating transnational organized crime provide considerable guidance to national governments, it is evident that this is an issue which affects safety and security at the local level, and is not only a question of 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.

UNODC's *World Drug Report 2009* highlights the links between drugs and crime and the importance of action at the city level where drug deals take place, and 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.<sup>94</sup> Education, prevention and treatment of illicit drug use have received less attention in the past than enforcement. This Report reinforces the importance of strategic prevention strategies, especially in cities.

"Housing, jobs, education, public services, and recreation can make communities less vulnerable to drugs and crime."<sup>95</sup>

This situation is recognized in one of the Basic Principles of the 2002 UN Guidelines which urge national governments to address issues which 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 allowing them to exploit property, business and financial institutions.

In planning national policies, therefore, the Guidelines set out some of the measures which governments can take to help reduce such opportunities, eg. programmes to educate the public, to prevent recruitment, or to improve regulations on the use of commercial property, and strengthen administrative and legislative controls.

In the **Czech Republic**, a national anti-trafficking policy was adopted by the government in an effort to respond to increasing rates of human trafficking in the 1990's. Its purpose was to prevent the trafficking of young people, who were primarily women and girls, *to* and *from* 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-government organizations; training for all partners including border guards and special police

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<sup>94</sup> *World Drug Report 2009*. Vienna: UNODC.

<sup>95</sup> Antonio Maria Costa 24<sup>th</sup> June 2009. UNODC Press Release.

units, regional authorities, NGO's etc. providing support services for victims of trafficking; and the development of targeted activities at the local level.<sup>96</sup>

In **Italy**, organizations such as the NGO *On the Road* undertake a variety of initiatives in collaboration with local authorities, and at the national level, to help prevent sexual exploitation of young girls and women, many of them illegal immigrants and who have been trafficked, as well as providing support services.<sup>97</sup> 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 UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT) is a valuable resource for information on planning prevention measures, including developing victim services.<sup>98</sup>

### 5.3 Planning and implementing national policies

As discussed in Chapter 3, **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 the range of 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**;
- **establish priorities** for intervention in the short, medium and longer term
- propose a **set of initiatives** to address those priorities
- outline **who is to be involved in implementing** the plan
- what **appropriate funding** and **resources** are 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, as well as 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** who are offending or victimized or both.

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<sup>96</sup> Bures, R. (2007). 'Youth sexual exploitation: a strategic approach to combating trafficking of youth in the Czech Republic.' In Shaw, M, & Travers, K. (Ed.) *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention in particular in relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*. (2007). Montreal: ICPC.

<sup>97</sup> [www.ontheroadonlus.it](http://www.ontheroadonlus.it)

<sup>98</sup> Eg. *Caring for Trafficked Persons*. (2009). UN.GIFT. [un.gift@unvienna.org](mailto:un.gift@unvienna.org)

There may be concerns in many urban areas about the **safety of public spaces**, on **public transit, in taxis or of car hijacking**. 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 night clubs and bars**, which suggest the need to establish a specific set of policies controlling access to alcohol, or licensing regulations. There may be an increase in gun-related deaths in disadvantaged neighbourhoods. Evidence of **human trafficking** and exploitation may be emerging.

In relation to vulnerable groups, there may be serious problems of homelessness among children and youth and vulnerabilities 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 family. Violent adult gangs may be recruiting young 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.

UNODC's Crime Prevention Assessment Tool outlines some of the questions which need to be considered in terms of the specific crime and victimization issues and the specific groups who may be affected.<sup>99</sup> Developing a picture of the most vulnerable places and populations helps to establish priority areas, priority offences, and priority groups who can benefit from the prevention strategy. Chile, for example, developed an Index of Criminal Vulnerability to help target programmes to those municipalities at 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.

The plan needs to set very **clear objectives** showing what is to be achieved, how they are to be achieved and over what time period. In some cases, countries have instituted **targets** on reductions in crime problems, in others a series of **indicators** to assess progress in meeting the objectives have been established. It is important to balance target setting with realistic interventions, however, to avoid raising expectations and 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 time for implementation and for assessment of their impacts and outcomes, before subsequent review and adaptation of strategies.

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<sup>99</sup> *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool: Cross-Cutting Issues 5* (2009). *Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit*. Vienna: UNODC.

Governments often choose to use a competitive process for 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 which meet their local needs. The examples from Mexico, Chile and the Province of Alberta, Canada below are of specific programmes which have used a competitive process for allocating funds to targeted priorities.

**Mexico's** federal Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL) 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. Based primarily on crime prevention through environmental design principles, cities and metropolitan areas with populations of over 50,000 inhabitants are eligible to apply for funds, working in partnership with local communities and organizations.<sup>100</sup>

The *Comuna Segura* Programme in **Chile** was initiated in 2001 as one of the principle 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 etc. and crime rates). Priority was given to the most vulnerable municipalities, and some received a percentage of funds directly for 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 such as violence against women and children, school violence, and young people at risk, and for community safety projects involving local organizations as well as the municipalities. In the first four years of the project a total of US\$23.3m was allocated to the programme and 2,727 projects funded.<sup>101</sup>

The Province of **Alberta, Canada** has a *Community Crime Prevention Grant Program* administered by 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

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<sup>100</sup> [www.sedesol.gob.mx](http://www.sedesol.gob.mx)

<sup>101</sup> Lunecke, A. (2007). 'Public Safety Policy in Chile: The 'Comuna Segura' Programme.' In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. (2007) op. cit.

education programs, outreach schools, mental health clinics, addiction centres, child welfare agencies, police agencies, Alternative Measures Program, Extrajudicial Sanctions Program, or high crime neighbourhoods. Targeted, evidenced-based approaches are given priority over universal prevention initiatives. A total of \$600,000CAN was available for the 2009 phase, which invited applications for projects of up to a maximum of \$50,000CAN.<sup>102</sup>

The example from the Federal government of **Germany** below outlines the evolution of its national prevention policy on the specific issue of 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 actions plans.

The **German Federal Government** has issued two Action Plans to combat violence against women in 1999, and 2007. The **1999 Action Plan** included a range of interventions:<sup>103</sup>

- i. Prevention
- ii. Legislation & administrative regulation
- iii. Cooperation with the German Crime Congress and non-government organizations
- iv. Work with perpetrators
- v. Activities to sensitize experts and the public
- vi. International cooperation.

These interventions were intended *to shift attitudes and practice* so that rather than women being forced to leave a violent home, the courts would provide further protection to them, work with perpetrators to change their behaviour and attitudes, and to make it clear that domestic violence is a public not a private matter.

Secondly, to provide better understanding and information on the extent of the problem, a **Representative Study of Violence against Women in Germany** was commissioned by the Federal Ministry of Families, Senior Citizens, Women & Youth, and published in 2004. It was based on over 10,000 interviews of women

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<sup>102</sup> [www.solgps.alberta.ca](http://www.solgps.alberta.ca)

<sup>103</sup> Erich Marks (2008). Presentation at 8<sup>th</sup> Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, Queretaro, Mexico, November 12-14th.

aged 16-85 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 ***Working Together to combat domestic violence: Cooperation, intervention, research*** (2004). This examined progress in changing attitudes to recognizing violence against women as a social problem, and in the elements of good, sustainable prevention strategies.

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

- i. Prevention
- ii. Legislation & administrative regulations
- iii. System of Aid to provide support and counselling for women affected by violence
- iv. National networks for the System of Aid
- v. Cooperation between government institutions and non-government support agencies
- vi. Work with perpetrators
- vii. Qualification, and increased awareness
- viii. European and international cooperation
- ix. Measures to support women abroad.

At the **State level**, as in the State of Lower Saxony, this has been integrated by the *Crime Prevention Council of Lower Saxony*. The Council brings together over 250 member organizations, government, community councils, non-government organizations and research centres, and has been responsible for implementing a state action plan on domestic violence as a cross-ministry task. They work with ministries, on crisis intervention with the police, criminal prosecution and victim protection, developing support services, and instituted round tables for consultation and discussion of local interventions.

## 5.4 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 Tool Kit* developed by CSIR, 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.<sup>104</sup>
- *Making South Africa Safer* (2000). CSIR, Department of Safety & Security, South Africa.
- *A Resource Guide for Municipalities: Community Based Crime and Violence Prevention in Urban Latin America*. (2003) Washington: World Bank.
- A toolkit *The Key for Safer Municipalities* developed in Canada, (2004). Montreal: ICPC/Fondation Phillippe Pinel.
- *Making Cities Safer from Crime – A Toolkit*. (2007). UN-HABITAT’s Safer Cities Programme on the basis of ten years of working with Africa and other mayors and their cities to develop local crime prevention strategies.<sup>105</sup>
- *Making Cities Safer: Action Briefs for Municipal Stakeholders* (2009).<sup>106</sup> A series of ten briefs developed for Canadian municipalities, including four 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; policing and safety.
- *Manual de Seguridad ciudadana “La clave para municipios mas seguros en America Latina.”* (2009). Washington: Inter-American Development Bank.

### Using safety audits

A major tool for undertaking an analysis of local problems resource is the local government **safety audit** discussed in Chapter 3. 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 1 below suggests the composition of a local authority steering group for the development of the local audit and safety plan.<sup>107</sup>

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<sup>104</sup> *Local Crime Prevention Toolkit*. CSIR Crime Prevention Centre. [www.crimeprevention.csir.co.za](http://www.crimeprevention.csir.co.za)

<sup>105</sup> *Making Cities Safer from Crime – A Toolkit*. (2007). Nairobi: UN-Habitat. [www.unhabitat.org](http://www.unhabitat.org)

<sup>106</sup> Institute for the Prevention of Crime. [www.ipc.uOttawa.ca](http://www.ipc.uOttawa.ca)

<sup>107</sup> EFUS (2007). *Guidance on Local Safety Audits* op. cit. p. 8

Figure 2 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 process 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.

**Figure 1** Local Safety Audits - The Community Safety Steering Group



**Figure 2** Local Safety Audits -The Crime Prevention Process<sup>108</sup>



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:<sup>109</sup>

- Setting the context with an overview of the characteristics of the city (demographic, economic etc.) and in comparison with the region, 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

<sup>108</sup> *Guidance on Local Safety Audits* (2007) op. cit. p. 7.

<sup>109</sup> Adapted from the *Guidance on Local Safety Audits* (2007) pp.10-11.

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

#### Information to include in a Safety Audit<sup>110</sup>

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
<i>Derived from UN-Habitat Safer Cities Toolkit</i>	

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<sup>110</sup> Idib, p. 15

**Example Of An Audit Timetable<sup>111</sup>**

		Month											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<b>Planning</b>	Set up Audit Steering Group												
	Appoint audit team and agree on a work programme												
<b>Implementation</b>	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)												

Examples of the outcome of safety audits undertaken in cities in Cameroon and Papua New Guinea as part of UN-HABITAT’s Safer Cities Programme, and in the semi-rural Central Karoo, South Africa are given below.<sup>112</sup>

**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 catalyzing 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.

UN-Habitat Diagnostic de la Délinquance Urbaine à Yaoundé (2002).<sup>113</sup>

<sup>111</sup> Idib. p. 17

<sup>112</sup> Idib. pp. 11 &13.

<sup>113</sup> UN-Habitat. *Diagnostic de la délinquance urbaine à Yaoundé*. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2002.

### **Safety Audit in Port Moresby (Papua New Guinea)**

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

UN-Habitat Diagnosis of Insecurity Report (2005) <sup>114</sup>

### **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 victimisation
- community mobilisation sessions, at which leaders and representatives of the different settlements in the Central Karoo gave an insight to the local situation and to the perceptions and attitudes towards crime and development in those areas
- business mobilisation 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. <sup>115</sup>

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<sup>114</sup> UN-Habitat. *Diagnosis of insecurity report. Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea. Towards an urban crime prevention strategy.* Safer Cities Series 4. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2005.

<sup>115</sup> The audit was conducted as part of a programme facilitated by CSIR, South Africa.

## Developing comprehensive local strategies

Cities in many regions have developed local strategies in recent years which well illustrate 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 them greater autonomy in shaping public safety and prevention strategies. This has been the case in Colombia and in Chile for example. In other cases such as England and Wales, 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.

The examples from Brazil and Colombia below illustrate how two cities responded to rising violence and homicides in a systematic and planned way, and implemented a series of initiatives which have been very effective in achieving reducing violence and involving their citizens.

### What worked in Bogotá

In the 1993-2002 period homicide rates in Bogotá plunged from 80 to 28 homicides per 100,000 people; accidents were reduced in half; and the police increased capture rates by 400 percent without an increase in the size of the police force. The Bogotá success with 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. Among the strategies implemented, the available evaluation data links the following to reductions in violence 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 De-Sarme* that controlled the circulation of firearms. In 2001, for instance, around 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 AM on weekends to reduce the rates of violent crimes. Firearms and alcohol control had a significant (although not large) effect in violence reduction.

- *Actions to Recuperate 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 percent from 1999 to 2003. At the same time, in the Cartucho zone, robbery went down by 70 percent between 2000 and 2003.
- *Frentes de Seguridad.* Neighborhood crime-monitoring committees encourage collaborative relationships between community police officers and local residents, which have reversed the levels of mistrust between police and community. As a result, there has been an increase in crime prevention efforts.
- *Family Police Stations.* Evaluation data shows that 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 preventing policing has been widely accepted by citizens as an efficient alternative to reduce violence and improve coexistence.<sup>116</sup>

In 2000, the City of **Diadema** in the metropolitan region of Sao Paulo, Brazil, was ranked the highest among the municipalities in the region in terms of the rate of homicides. From 2000, Diadema developed a ten-fold crime prevention strategy under the leadership of the Mayor José Filipe Júnior and his council. Careful analysis identified the times and places of most violence incidents and other problems. The strategy included elements of public health approaches such as closing bars and restaurants at night, urban renewal especially in the 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

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<sup>116</sup> Source: Llorente and Rivas, 2004, in Buvinic et al. (2005). *Emphasizing Prevention in Citizen Security*. Washington DC: Inter-American Development Bank.

through the participatory budgeting process. By 2004, the rate of homicides had fallen substantially, and the city's ranking dropped from number one to number 18 among the municipalities in the region.

*Diadema's Ten Interventions*

1. The creation of a Municipal Department of Social Policies and Public Security, and geographic 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 11:00pm to 06:00am
4. Launching the Municipal Council for the Safety and the Prevention of Crime
5. Increasing the Municipal Police Force by 70% and establishing 'The Neighbourhood Angels' who patrol on bicycles
6. Establishing 'The Young Apprentice Project' to 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 3 major public education campaigns:
  - Disarmament of Firearms Campaign
  - Children's Disarmament of Toy Guns Campaign
  - Drug and Alcohol Awareness Campaign.<sup>117</sup>

## 5.5 Implementation and evaluation

Attention to implementation and evaluation forms an important aspect of the planning process, and they **need to be built into action plans from the beginning**, not as an afterthought. It should also form part of the training and support which governments can provide to projects and practitioners.

As discussed in Chapter 3, if governments do not already have the capacity and knowledge to conduct cross-sector planning and data collection and analysis, there are a growing number of university and research centres, and specialized non-government organizations, which can provide the requisite advice or technical assistance.

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<sup>117</sup> De Filippe Junior, J. (2007). 'The experience of Diadema, Sao Paulo Brazil.' In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. op. cit.

In the case of England & Wales, for example, two national NGO's *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 which 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 as they implemented and evaluated their projects. Regional research coordinators were subsequently appointed to undertake the task of providing on-going 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....<sup>118</sup>

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 (eg. How many street children have been given shelter and training; or how many streets now have lighting to increase safety).

**Evaluation** is generally concerned with measuring the outcomes or impacts of a project or programme (eg. How many street children have successfully been reintegrated into stable family or community life; or has there been a decrease in assaults and thefts in the areas now with street lighting).

As the definition of evaluation below indicates, there is much dispute about types of evaluation techniques used in crime prevention, and the extent to which they are able to prove that project interventions themselves have resulted in actual changes.

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<sup>118</sup> Homel, P. & Morgan, A. (2008). Paper submitted to the meeting. E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2. Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Guidelines on Crime Prevention Work, Berlin 2-4<sup>th</sup> July.

**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 is frequently requested.<sup>119</sup>

A considerable variety of techniques and approaches to aid monitoring and evaluation have been developed. They 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 (eg. a reduction in residential burglary, and increase in sense of security); what is to be done to reach those objectives (eg. improving 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 post, numbers of meetings held and attendance at meetings, changes in residents views etc.).

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 target 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** which is 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 expenditures 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:

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<sup>119</sup> Tilley, N. (Ed.) (2005). *Handbook of Crime Prevention and Community Safety*. Op. cit. p.762.

- evaluating how well policies and programmes have been **implemented**, and have **achieved the objectives** set;
- evaluating the **immediate outcomes** of projects, both expected and unexpected;
- evaluating the **long-term outcomes and impact** of those programmes eg. 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 cost benefits of the programme or policy.

The example from Chile below illustrates how the implementation of a national programme was evaluated and the programme re-designed 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, time for developing training, reaching a consensus on action or achieve results at the local level was not sufficient, and municipalities did not have sufficient flexibility to adapt funding regulations and project expectations to local circumstances. This led to a re-structuring of the programme which replaced the competitive bidding process with medium and long-term prevention strategies, more effective collaboration at national and local levels, greater decentralization and flexibility, redefining community participation, and recognizing the need for municipalities to work together on regional municipal strategies since crime problems are not defined by administrative boundaries.<sup>120</sup>

**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.’<sup>121</sup> The example below is taken from an assessment of a Community Safety & 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

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<sup>120</sup> Lunecke, A. (2007). ‘Public Safety Policy in Chile: The ‘Comuna Segura’ Programme.’ In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. (2007) op. cit.

<sup>121</sup> Morgan, A. & Homel, P. (2009). *Assessing the Impact of Community Safety & Crime Prevention Plans*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology. p. 7.

program 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, short term and immediate objectives** (i.e. planned outcomes) which reflect 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.
- **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 website and requests for information; number of community forums held; number of people attending meetings etc.
- **what performance information is required by 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 OCP staff; data from local government administrative records, annually by local government staff; data from project administrative records, annually by Partnership Interagency Committee etc.<sup>122</sup>

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<sup>122</sup> Morgan & Homel (2009) see in particular Table A1 pp. 78-96.

Experience in the use of performance measurement for assessing local government prevention programmes, suggests it 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
- develop clear and precise definitions of key concepts within the framework
- develop strategies to address resource constraints
- training and development to ensure adequate knowledge and skills exist to support the framework.<sup>123</sup>

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.<sup>124</sup>

Different types of performance indicators		
Indicator type	Definition	Key performance questions
Outcome	The impact or consequences that result from having delivered the program and producing the outputs.	What is the impact of the service or program? Is the program achieving its objectives? Does the problem that led the program to desire these outcomes still exist?
Output	The products and services project made available to target group	What level (i.e. quality) of service is being provided? How many units of service are being provided? Is the program efficient in its delivery of this service/s?
Process	All of the things that individuals and organisations involved in the design and/or delivery of a program actually do	Is what needs to be done to deliver the output being done? Is the program 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 program?

<sup>123</sup> Morgan & Homel (2009) p. 10.

<sup>124</sup> Source: Audit Commission (2000) reprinted Morgan & Homel (2009) p. 58.

## Long-term project development and scaling up

A good example of how the findings of a carefully implemented and evaluated project have been adapted to guide projects in other cities is that of *Operation Ceasefire* in the City of 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 ten other US cities, with the support of the National Institute of Justice in the project known as SACSI. (See box below). The project and its scaling-up illustrate many of the principles and approaches outlined in the UN guidelines, and the findings have helped inform countries and technical assistance projects outside the US.<sup>125</sup>

### **Paving the Way for Project Safe Neighbourhoods - SACSI in 10 US Cities**<sup>126</sup>

In the early 1990s, the Boston Police Department partnered with Harvard University researchers to analyze 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 to 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 (SACSI). This report presents the main findings of a national assessment of the SACSI approach in 10 cities.

The SACSI strategies in each city were developed by multi-agency, 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

<sup>125</sup> Russel, L., Wyrick, P. & Smith, C. (2008). *International Impact of the US Anti-Gang Best Practices and Strategies*. Paper submitted to the meeting. E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2. Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Guidelines on Crime Prevention Work, Berlin 2-4<sup>th</sup> July.

<sup>126</sup> Adapted from: *Paving the way for Project Safe Neighbourhoods: SACSI in 10 US Cities*. National Institute of Justice Research Brief April 2008. [www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij](http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij)

associated with reductions in targeted violent crimes, sometimes by as much as 50 percent. Successful elements of the SACSI approach include the leadership provided by U.S. 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 program 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 anticrime 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.

The success of the SACSI project in its 10 sites has in turn led to scaling up to the national *Project Safe Neighbourhoods* which since 2001 has targeted firearm youth crimes with rigorous enforcement of gun laws, supervision, and prevention strategies. For example, strong links with local community leaders were established, 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.<sup>127</sup> The project has been flexible allowing local partners to adapt to local circumstances, and a major aspect of its success has been strong leadership and commitment which has 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 project at the national and local level. All of this requires working in partnerships with other services and the community, and Chapter 6 looks at the challenges this presents.

**Tools and resources**

*See Bibliography/Resources for more information on tools and sources on evaluation and monitoring.*

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<sup>127</sup> See McGarrell, E.F. et al. (2009) *Project Safe Neighbourhood – A National Program to Reduce Gun Crime: Final Project Report*. Washington DC: National Institute of Justice.

## 6 A Multidisciplinary Approach and Working in Partnerships

### 6.1 Partnerships - a challenging but important component

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. (art.9)

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/provincial or local level. Chapter 7 considers the role of civil society in more detail.

Experience over many years has shown that **partnerships** are not a simple way of working. They **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 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.

On the basis of experience with the 16 cities in the US which 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 – co-operation – consent – indifference – objective – passive – protest – defiance to active resistance.<sup>128</sup>

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**

<sup>128</sup> Kelling, G. (2005). 'Community crime reduction: activating formal and informal control.' In Tilley, N. (Ed.) op. cit. pp.137-8.

**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 make commitments of 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 for partnership working is 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 those who have been sexually assaulted or victims of domestic violence are often very 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 too. The *Safer Leeds* initiative in the City of Leeds, England & Wales, 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 below relates to the Protocol developed by the city partnership responsible for implementing the city safety strategy.<sup>129</sup>

*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, the use of personalized and depersonalized data, general principles, handling sensitive data, data security and disclosure, and a complaints procedure.

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<sup>129</sup> Safer Leeds Partnership, [www.saferleeds.org.uk](http://www.saferleeds.org.uk)

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; additional parties.

Extensive experience of working in partnerships at the local level in England and Wales - where every local authority has to establish one - has helped identify the key components for successful partnerships and working in a multi-sector and multi-disciplinary way. These include **strong leadership**; a **clear sense of mission** for the partnership; a **structure** which 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.<sup>130</sup> The box below provides a more detailed list.

- 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 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.<sup>131</sup>

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<sup>130</sup> Gilling, D. (2005). 'Partnership and crime prevention.' In Tilley, N. (Ed.) op. cit.

<sup>131</sup> Australian Institute of Criminology *Partnerships for crime prevention*, see <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/crm/crm049.pdf>

The example from Western Australia below indicates the range of different partners, both institutional and civil society, involved in the development and implementation of their crime prevention plan. They have clearly tried to ensure that the partnership is 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; youth people; minority groups (ethnic communities and people with disabilities); community volunteers; local schools; religious organizations; local media.<sup>132</sup>

El Salvador provides an example of a government-community partnership which was originally initiated by civil society.

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

The Ministry of Security responded by enacting legislation in 2006 to increase controls over firearms use in terms of registration, ownership and the carrying of weapons in public, and a tax on firearms to be used to improve health services. They also enacted a decree to allow municipalities to restrict the carrying of firearms in public, and a number of communities reported decreases in violence. The Coalition also successfully lobbied government to establish 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.<sup>133</sup>

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<sup>132</sup> Morgan, A. & Homel, P. (2009). *Assessing the impact of Community Safety and Crime Prevention Plans*. pp. 22-3. Canberra: AIC.

<sup>133</sup> Source: OECD (2009) op. cit. p.86.

## 6.2 Some key partners: The police

### *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. (art.12)

Crime prevention as reflected in the UN 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 role, although not the sole role, in strategic prevention at national and state levels, and especially at the local government level.<sup>134</sup> It is not uncommon for the police to be seen as having the main responsibility for crime prevention, as the natural lead institution in all questions of safety, rather than a partner with other institutional sectors.

### **Community-oriented policing**

A pro-active and problem-oriented approach to policing is important for developing effective crime prevention strategies. Many different forms of policing which work in a pro-active way with local communities and other partners have emerged. They are referred to by various terms such as community policing, problem-oriented policing (POP), re-assurance policing. However, the essential core elements of **community-oriented policing** have been defined as:<sup>135</sup>

- 1) Community involvement
- 2) Problem-solving orientation
- 3) 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 pro-active rather than reactive responses to crime

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<sup>134</sup> See also UNODC/UN HABITAT (2010). *Handbook on Policing Urban Space*.

<sup>135</sup> Brodeur, J-P. (2007). 'Trust and Expertise in Policing.' In *The Role of the Police in Crime Prevention*. Proceedings of the 7<sup>th</sup> Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, Montreal: ICPC; Rosenbaum, D. (2007). 'Police innovation post 1980: Assessing effectiveness and equity concerns in the information technology era.' *IPC Review* Vol. 1 pp. 11-44.

problems. As the list below suggests, there are many other specific terms which have been used, especially in North America and Europe, which reflect the different emphases of their work, but all have these three core characteristics of **community involvement, a problem-solving approach and decentralized management**:

**Problem-oriented policing:** policing which sees its role as reducing rather than just responding to incidents, based on sound theory and evidence.

**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 help maintain order and reinforce informal controls.

**Pulling levers policing:** related to problem-oriented policing, this approach emerged from the Boston Gun project in the USA, to reduce youth gang violence. It involves pulling together all criminal justice agencies to work together in a concerted way to enforce compliance, but matching this with strong community-based involvement, interventions and direct services.

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

**Hot spots policing:** a form of policing which focuses on identifying places where there are geographical concentrations of crime and developing problem-solving responses.

**Evidence-based policing:** the application of the highest quality scientific standards and methods to the evaluation of information and interventions.

**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.

**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.

**Chicago alternative policing strategy:** a form of policing which involves changing decision-making processes and creating new cultures within police departments (see below).

**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.<sup>136</sup>

The experience of a community-oriented policing model in Chicago, USA demonstrates how one city implemented a model which appears to be effective both in terms of better community relations and reduced crime problems.

**The Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS)** was initiated in Chicago in 1993 (pop. in 2005, 2.8 million inhabitants, 4.7 police officers per 1000 inhabitants) in five city districts with three objectives: the re-organization of decision-making powers and police functions, the resolution of local problems using neighbourhood crime-related data and active community participation, and increased coordination between 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 Japan, Bogota, Colombia, and the Philippines all provide good examples of locally accessible police systems, with small police stations located in neighbourhoods which work 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 the Philippines, there was no prior tradition of community-oriented policing.

- Japan Koban Police box system: a community-based policing system which has placed small police stations in villages and municipalities throughout the country so that they can be more responsive to local problems.
- Colombia Bogotá Cia system: a system similar to that in Japan, which locates small police stations in local parks and neighbourhoods across the city to provide services to those neighbourhoods.

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<sup>136</sup> Adapted from Brodeur (2007). Op. cit.

- Philippines: the Community-Oriented Policing Strategy COPS combines full-service policing with problem-solving and community partnerships at the local Baranguay level.<sup>137</sup>

**Women's police stations** are an important initiative now widely used in Latin America, especially Brazil, Ecuador, Nicaragua and Peru, and 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.<sup>138</sup> They employ primarily women police and support staff, who receive special training on violence against women, on legal responses and victim supports 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 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 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.<sup>139</sup>

In Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, an Auxiliary Police Force was established as part of the Safer Cities Programme in the 1990's, 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 Brazilian. They are civilian uniformed police responsible to the mayor, who are trained as public safety officers.

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<sup>137</sup> Coronel, M. (2007). 'The Philippine strategy and best practice for crime prevention: the Community Oriented Policing System.' In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. (Ed.). op. cit.

<sup>138</sup> McDowell Santos, C. (2005). *Women's Police Stations: Gender Violence and Justice in Sao Paulo, Brazil*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.; Jubb, N. (2009). A Comparative Study of Women's Police Stations in Latin America. Presentation at ICPC's 15<sup>th</sup> Anniversary Colloquium Montreal, December 8<sup>th</sup>.

<sup>139</sup> See UNODC/UN HABITAT (2010). *Handbook on Policing Urban Space*.

- In **Johannesburg, South Africa**, the *Johannesburg Metropolitan Policing Department (JMPD)* manages and coordinates the city's crime prevention strategy under the authority of the city. Its functions include:<sup>140</sup>
  - Preventive policing and patrolling of high-risk areas
  - Establishing an information management system to share crime data with the South African Police Service (SAPS)
  - CCTV in public places
  - Anti-fraud technology
  - Signs warning pedestrians and tourists of risk areas
  - Effective street lighting in high risk areas
  - Private security partnerships and partnerships with businesses in high crime areas
  - Family and community programmes for high risk areas
  - Community police forum partnerships.
  
- The **Dar es Salaam** Auxiliary Police (AP) in Tanzania is a uniformed police force created in 2001. They received training from the Police College, and were initially allocated to four municipal authorities in the area, to provide visible policing and patrolling, enforce the law and municipal bye-laws. They also work in collaboration with local volunteer patrols (SunguSungu) at the ward level and provide support during ward tribunal sessions. Early evaluation found that they were heavily overworked and there was a need for a much larger number of officers.<sup>141</sup>
  
- The Municipal Guard in **Guarulhos**, Sao Paulo Brazil were created in 1998, largely to provide security for buildings and property. Since 2001, they have become a central component of the municipal public safety strategy. They are now professionally trained, and decentralized with an increase in the number of stations, and work on community policing principles in close cooperation with designated neighbourhoods, their communities and schools.<sup>142</sup>

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 this is in the absence of good state policing.

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<sup>140</sup> [www.joburg.org.za](http://www.joburg.org.za)

<sup>141</sup> Mtani, A. (2007). 'Local innovations for crime prevention: the case of Safer Cities Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.' In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. (2007). Op. cit.

<sup>142</sup> Pieta, E. Mayor of Guarulhos, State of Sao Paulo, Brazil. *Municipalities and Public Security in Brazil*. Ww2.unhabitat.org/programmes/safercities/documents/LF001.pdf

In England & Wales, specialized *Community Support Officers* employed and trained by the local police force, and *Neighbourhood Wardens* employed by the local authorities, undertaken a variety of functions to promote safety and security in local communities, and work closely with other local services. In countries such as France and Belgium, 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 they 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 their training, oversight and accountability. Without attention to these crucial factors, they 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.

- **Philippines:** The BAC-UP component of community policing, was initially developed in Bacolod City in the 1980's, where the single police station was replaced with eight precincts, and some 3000 volunteer *Youth Barangay Tanods* 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.<sup>143</sup>
- **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 volunteer 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.<sup>144</sup>
- **India:** The *Panchayat* Policing System, in **Mumbai** was developed to provide better policing access to slum dwellers, 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

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<sup>143</sup> Coronel, M. (2007). 'The Philippine strategy and best practice for crime prevention: the Community Oriented Policing System.' In Shaw, M. & Travers, T. (Ed.). op. cit.

<sup>144</sup> Mtani, A. (2007). Op. cit.

with the public and help to increase the confidence of the slum population in the police and their willingness to report incidents.<sup>145</sup>

### **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 consultation for a number of reasons, but 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 of the population than elsewhere, and both state and non-state policing may be necessary to provide security for different communities.<sup>146</sup> Many communities may rely on informal and private police systems in the absence of state police, or because they are fearful or are mistrustful of state police. The challenge in both high and 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 expansion of gated communities, or enforcing restrictions on entry into shopping facilities, or the expulsion of groups from commercial and business areas.<sup>147</sup> Much of this relies on private security guards as well as new technologies including the use of CCTV cameras and entry control techniques, and there is a wide-spread 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. CCTV cameras raise concerns in some countries about their impact on the rights of

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<sup>145</sup> Roy, A.N., Joelin, A. & Javed, A. (2004). 'Community police stations in Mumbai's slums.' *Environment & Urbanization* 16(2) pp. 135-138.

<sup>146</sup> Berg, J. & van der Spuy, E. (2010) 'Challenges for the good governance of security in the African context.' In *International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety* 2010. Montreal: ICPC.

<sup>147</sup> See Capobianco, L. (2005). *Sharpening the Lens: Private Sector Involvement in Crime Prevention*. ICPC: Montreal; *Seguridad Privada en America Latina: el lucro y dilemmas de una regulacion deficitaria*. (2009). Santiago: FLACSO-Chile.

individuals. Many CCTV schemes have been implemented in cities in public and private spaces, but they do not necessarily prevent crime occurring if they are poorly sited or not watched. Selective use of CCTV 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 how to:

- Restrict the expansion of private security which excludes the poor and disadvantaged
- Integrate the skills and expertise of private security personnel in crime prevention plans
- Regulate the activities of the industry, so that the rule of law and human rights are respected
- Ensure the accountability and transparency of the private security sector through eg. national and state legislation, encouraging training, working with professional associations to ensure greater awareness of accountability issues.

Fostering cooperation between the police and other partners

A number of mechanisms have been developed to foster partnerships and cooperation 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.

*Mesas de Seguridad Ciudadanas* in **Honduras** are local community consultation councils. They replaced the earlier national government *Programa de Comunidad mas Segura* (Programme for a Safer Society). They work on a regular basis with local municipal police, justice and other sectors.

*Further information on fostering partnerships with the private sector and civil society can be found in Chapter 7.*

### **6.3 Some key partners: Urban planning and environment**

Services responsible for urban development and regeneration are also key partners who 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 impact opportunities for crime and victimization, and the sense of security of the

population. Urban regeneration which encourages inclusion and access to the city has formed a major aspect of the effective public safety strategies of the cities of Medellín and Bogotá in Colombia, Sao 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 in the country.<sup>148</sup> They encourage and provide funding to local authority services to work together to meet 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 *guichet* access to reduce theft and fare dodging
- the development of pedestrian streets with organized control of parking and 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 public libraries
- making improvements to residential slum areas.

Another example of urban regeneration contributions to prevention is the Warwick Junction Project in **eThekweni** (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 of Durban.<sup>149</sup> The project office was in the neighbourhood itself rather than City Hall. It included both urban renewal projects using safety through environmental design principles, but also took account of community and social issues, with extensive

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<sup>148</sup> Now under the Ministry of Communities and Local Government.

<sup>149</sup> Dobson, R. (2007). 'Urban regeneration as a crime prevention strategy: the experience of Warwick Junction.' In Shaw, M. & Travers, K. (Ed.) (2007). op. cit.

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 over-night security for produce, and single toilets which are over-seen by near-by 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. A chain of some 14,000 jobs was created across the municipality, as well as the creation of what has become a tourist attraction. The project was followed by iTRUMP a scaling-up of the initial project to other areas of the city.

#### **6.4 Some key partners: The Justice Sector and Reintegration Services**

Strategies to support the reintegration of offenders back into the community, and prevent re-offending, are one of the four main approaches to prevention recommended in the 2002 UN Guidelines. They form an important part of a comprehensive public safety strategy, since many of those who become involved in the criminal justice system and are incarcerated will eventually return to the community. This is a difficult time for many ex-prisoners who have been cut off from society outside, and because of their criminal history find it difficult to get jobs and accommodation. 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 supports which will enable them to reintegrate back into the local community. Re-offending is very costly given the high costs of running prisons, compared with reintegration programmes.<sup>150</sup>

Key partners can include the prison, parole or probation services, the prosecution service, courts, one-stop-justice centres, and 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 supports, such as temporary shelter or longer-term, placement services for jobs, and training in employment and job skills to provide alternative life skills to re-offending. They may 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.

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<sup>150</sup> Borzicki, M. & Makkai, T. (2007). 'Prisoner reintegration post-release'. In *Selected Papers on successful crime reduction and prevention strategies in the urban context*. PNI Workshop, Vienna April 2007. Riyadh: NAIF Arab University for Security services; Griffiths, C., Dandurand, T. & Murdoch, D. (2007). *The Social Reintegration of Offenders and Crime Prevention*. Research Report 2007-2. Ottawa: Public Safety Canada.

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 supports in the community; and those which provide a continuum of supports and training in prison and in the community.

- In **Uganda**, social workers work with prisoners before their release from prison, 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.<sup>151</sup>
- In **Guatemala**, the NGO *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.<sup>152</sup>
- In **The Philippines**, a Volunteer Probation Aide (VPA) system has been in place since the 1978. The VPA's 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 re-vitalized since 2003, with support from Japan and UNAFEI, and there are now some 10,000 VPA's working with local governments and probation services.<sup>153</sup>

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<sup>151</sup> Sita, M. (2008). Paper submitted to the meeting. E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2. Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Guidelines on Crime Prevention Work, Berlin 2-4<sup>th</sup> July; Sita, M. et al., (2005). *From Prison Back Home: Social Rehabilitation & Reintegration as Phases of the Same Social Progress*. (The Case of Uganda). Kampala: UNAFEI & Uganda Prisons Service.

<sup>152</sup> WOLA (2009). *Daring to Care: Community-based responses to youth gang violence in Central America and Central American Immigrant Communities in the United States*. Washington DC: Washington Office on Latin America.

<sup>153</sup> Tauchi, M. (2006). 'Technical assistance project for the revitalization of the VPA System in the Philippines.' In Shaw, M. & Dandurand, Y. (Ed.) (2006). Op. cit.

A number of reintegration programmes include **restorative justice** components which aim to:<sup>154</sup>

- restore community order and relationships and promote peace
- reaffirm community values
- support victims, by giving them a voice
- encourage concerned parties, particularly offenders, to take responsibility for their actions
- identify restorative and forward-looking outcomes
- prevent recidivism by encouraging change and the re-integration of offenders back into the community.

Restorative justice programmes may take place before sentence, as part of an alternative to a custodial sentence, in prison, or in the community after release. They include mediation between the immediate people affected by a crime, the offender and their victim; a wider group of people close to offenders and victims and affected by the crime, who take part in family or community members group conferencing; and sentencing and peacemaking circles which include supports for both victims and offenders and government officials, and often used in indigenous communities.<sup>155</sup>

This chapter has looked at the very 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 7.

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<sup>154</sup> UNODC *Handbook on Restorative Justice Programmes*. (2006). Criminal Justice Handbook Series. New York.

<sup>155</sup> *Idib.*

## 7 Working with Communities and Civil Society

### *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 identify a sustainable resource base (art.16).

#### 7.1 Crime prevention is about improving the quality of people's lives

The term community is used in a variety of ways, to refer to groups of people who know each other and have similar interests, to a specific geographical neighbourhood and its inhabitants, or to a group who have similar characteristics and concerns.<sup>156</sup> It is often used quite generally to refer to local civil society and as the place to which offenders return when they are released from prison.

It is fundamental to the UN Guidelines that governments cannot prevent crime and victimization, or develop safe societies, without the participation and involvement of their citizens. It is an aspect of **good governance**. The UN Guidelines emphasise the contributions which can be made by private citizens, community organizations, non-government organizations, the private sector, and the business community. All of these are civil society actors who 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 to problems.

#### **The eight major characteristics of good governance**

- Participatory
- Consensus oriented
- Accountable
- Transparent
- Responsive
- Effective and efficient
- Equitable and inclusive
- Follows the rule of law<sup>157</sup>

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<sup>156</sup> See *Communities in Action for Crime Prevention*. Background Paper for the 6<sup>th</sup> ICPC Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, September 14-15<sup>th</sup> 2006, Canberra, Australia. Montreal: ICPC.

<sup>157</sup> UNESCAP (2007). What is good governance? In 'Good governance for effective crime prevention.' (2009). *AICrime reduction matters* no. 76. [www.aic.gov.au](http://www.aic.gov.au)

Not all communities or community organizations have the necessary resources in terms of 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 to take an active part in consultations, advisory groups and decision-making. They need to develop a good system of communication, 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. There is likely to be greater opportunity to change attitudes and behaviour, and a greater sense of ownership in programmes, if communities are included in a participatory way. Changing attitudes towards lawlessness, in many creative ways, has been one of the elements of the City of Bogota's public safety policies over the past decade.

## 7.2 Civil society mobilisation

A variety of mechanisms for mobilising 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, and the internet, using public service announcements, videos, to give general information about crime problems, information on services, or up-dates 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.

- 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 the perceptions of women in a range of cities about urban violence and to develop some constructive proposals to be presented at the national conference. The *Dialogos sobre*

*Seguranca Publica* took place in seven major cities. Over two days, groups of around 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 including women who had been incarcerated, as well as other marginalized groups.<sup>158</sup>

The *Guidance on Local Safety Audits* (2007) 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. The City of Diadema among others has used this method effectively to engage local residents (see Chapter 5). Other examples include its use with young people, enabling them to elect representatives for each local district or borough, and to decide how the municipal funds should be used.<sup>159</sup>

### **Participatory audits**

The use of participatory appraisals or audits by local community groups and organizations is another mechanism which helps 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 a series of Latin American cities: Rosario, Argentina, Bogota, Colombia and Santiago, Chile, participatory women's safety audits have been used by local women residents to develop recommendations for local authorities on improving areas where they feel unsafe. This has resulted in improved lighting, creating play spaces for children, and upgrading public spaces which women were formerly unwilling to use.<sup>160</sup> Women's Safety Audits have been used by UN-HABITAT in its Safer Cities programmes, 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,

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<sup>158</sup> *Mulheres. Dialogos sobre Seguranca Publica*. (2009). Secretaria Especial de Politicas para as Mulheres.

<sup>159</sup> UN-HABITAT (2004). *Youth, Children and Urban Governance*. Policy Dialogue Series No. 2. Nairobi: UN-HABITAT; Cabannes, Y. (2006). 'Children and young people build participatory democracy in Latin American cities.' *Environment & Urbanization*, 18 (1) 195-218.

<sup>160</sup> Falu, A. & Segovia, O. (Ed.) (2007). *Cuidades Para Convivir: Sin Violencias hacia las Mujeres* Santiago, Chile: SUR.

and help raise awareness on violence against women.<sup>161</sup> Similar approaches have been used with groups of children and young people.

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

### **7.3 The contribution of non-government organizations**

For a number of reasons non-government organizations (NGO's) are a major resource for national or local governments in developing prevention strategies.<sup>162</sup> 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 their local communities, because of their non-government status.

NGO's are often very flexible and evolving, and have the ability (given the resources) to launch new programmes and pilot projects relatively quickly with government. They can also help governments in building the foundation for new policies. They usually have contacts with a variety of groups of individuals, including key community members, victims, and professionals, officials and media personnel working on specific issues.

There are a number of ways in which NGO's and other civil society sectors can contribute at different stages of strategy development:

- 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;
- Assisting in the design and implementation of projects;
- Helping to identify key stakeholders in a community or city and play a key role in coalition building and collaboration across communities, which can lead to multi-agency cooperation
- Helping to develop, identify and disseminate good practices

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<sup>161</sup> WICI & Red Mujer y Habitat (2008). *Women's Safety Audits. What Works and Where?* Women in Cities International and UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme. Nairobi: UN-HABITAT.

<sup>162</sup> See Arturo Alvarado Mendosa (2008). Paper submitted to the meeting. E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2. Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Guidelines on Crime Prevention Work, Berlin 2-4<sup>th</sup> July.

- Developing public education - organizing public forums to raise awareness, or mobilize local populations on specific issues eg. on gun laws, or urban development consultations
- Training and capacity-building - eg. developing or running training programmes for local city staff or municipal police; citizen leadership, youth leadership and skills training and development; family supports
- Helping to develop citizen audits, evaluation tools and programmes, indicators of crime and external evaluation of programmes
- Providing tools for police monitoring and evaluation
- Training and collaboration on working with the media, disseminating success stories
- Promoting conflict resolution and mediation mechanisms, and acting as mediators in inter-community conflicts (which government often cannot do).

There are an increasing number of non-government organizations using very innovative approaches to engage with partners on public safety and security issues. They include organizations such as *Jagori* in India, *Raising Voices* in Uganda, *CLEEN*, in Nigeria, and *Viva Rio*, *Sou da Paz* and the *Brazilian Forum for Public Security* in Brazil, which all work in partnership with national, state and municipal governments, universities, the police and civil society.

- *CLEEN* is a non-government 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 eg. good practices for youth crime prevention, policing and police ethics and procedures, citizenship, accountability and governance.<sup>163</sup>
- The *Brazilian Forum for Public Security*, is a non-government organization which 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 policy makers, the police, practitioners and non-government 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.<sup>164</sup>

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<sup>163</sup> [www.cleen.org](http://www.cleen.org)

<sup>164</sup> [www.forumseguranca.org.br](http://www.forumseguranca.org.br)

Examples of civil society organizations which work with governments in the development of programme with youth at risk, and/or the delivery of reintegration programmes, include the Central American Coalition for the Prevention of Youth Violence (CCPVJ), South African NGO's *National Institute for Crime Prevention and Reintegration Programme* (NICRO) and Khulisa.

- The **Central American** Coalition against Youth Violence (CCPVJ) brings together some 16 NGO's working in Central American countries to prevent youth violence. They have produced a compendium of best practices for prevention and rehabilitation for youth involved in violence in the region.<sup>165</sup>
- In **El Salvador** a series of youth gang-prevention projects have been developed in partnership with civil society by the National Council for Public Security. These have included a rehabilitation farm school for 12-25 years olds, a tattoo removal project, and in-prison rehabilitation programmes.<sup>166</sup>
- NICRO is a national NGO in **South Africa** providing diversion services for children in all provinces through five programmes: a life skills programme *Youth Empowerment Scheme* (YES); a *Pre-Trial Community Service* programme; a victim-offender mediation programme; family group conferencing; and a life skills programme for high-risk children *The Journey*. 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.<sup>167</sup>
- Khulisa works in correctional facilities and on diversion programmes, as well as with schools, with victims and the community. It runs a series of reintegration initiatives the *Young Offender Reintegration Programme*, and the *Make It Better (MIB) Programme*.<sup>168</sup>

A review of the characteristics of effective projects concerned with youth gang violence in Central America and United States supports the importance of comprehensive and balanced approaches which are community-based and include prevention, intervention, rehabilitation, and law enforcement. They work with schools, local organizations, faith groups and community networks.<sup>169</sup>

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<sup>165</sup> [www.ccpvj.org](http://www.ccpvj.org)

<sup>166</sup> Oscar Bonilla (2008) Paper submitted to the meeting. E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2. Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Guidelines on Crime Prevention Work, Berlin 2-4<sup>th</sup> July.

<sup>167</sup> [www.nicro.org.za](http://www.nicro.org.za)

<sup>168</sup> [www.khulisaservices.co.za](http://www.khulisaservices.co.za)

<sup>169</sup> *Daring to Care. Community-based Responses to Youth Gang Violence in Central America & Central American Immigrant Communities in the United States*. (2008). Washington Office on Latin America. (WOLA). Washington.

## 7.4 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, 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 social and economic progress of communities. They can bring innovation, resources and skills to local communities.<sup>170</sup>

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 sectors. What is important, however, is to ensure that such initiatives do not perpetuate exclusionary practices, as discussed in Chapter 6.

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

- contributing to local social programmes which tackle causal factors
- helping in the reduction of opportunities and incentives to commit crime through situational and environmental changes, including designing products to reduce opportunity for theft
- contributing to the revitalization of public or semi-public areas and spaces
- involvement in urban renewal projects
- helping to prevent offending and recidivism by developing apprenticeship programmes, job skills training and providing job opportunities.<sup>171</sup>

Engaging the private sector in crime prevention strategies is, therefore, a very valuable vehicle for helping to build effective programmes, bringing additional resources, sensitising 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 engaging private sector participation in crime prevention. They include specific committees to promote private sector involvement and partnerships on local initiatives.

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<sup>170</sup> Jill Dando Centre for Security and Crime Science, University College London. [www.cscs.ucl.uk](http://www.cscs.ucl.uk)

<sup>171</sup> Capobianco, L. *Sharpening the Lens: Private Sector Involvement in Crime Prevention*. (2005). ICPC: Montreal.

- 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 web-site, and has undertaken a victimization survey of Lagos State in collaboration with the non-government organization CLEEN.
- 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 **South Africa**, *Business Against Crime* (BAC) was established in 1996, following a government request that the business sector play a key role in combating crime in South Africa.
- In **Scotland** the *Scottish Business Crime Centre* (SBCC) was created in 1996 under the *Business Crime Reduction Strategy for Scotland*, and to provide practical advice to the business/commercial sectors on how to develop business crime reduction and prevention strategies.
- In **Canada**, the *Business Network on Crime Prevention* (BNCP), 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.

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

- **Australia:** The *National Motor Vehicle Theft Reduction Council* (NMVTRC) is an independent, incorporated not-for-profit association, and a joint initiative between all Australian governments and the insurance industry. The NMTVRC began operation in 1999 initially for a five year term, which was subsequently extended. The NMVTRC seeks to lower Australia's high level of vehicle theft by: reducing the cost of vehicle theft from 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 NMVTRC website 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 working on social housing, youth gang prevention, and school violence projects:

- **Business Against Crime**, South Africa, managed *Tissa Thuto* a school-based crime prevention programme involving pupils, teachers, parents and 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 (CSV)*, 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.
- 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, and limited employment and recreational opportunities for young people, and a large immigrant population. The *Cultural Social Enrichment Programme* received funding of (CAD) \$300 000, over three years from the *Business Action Program (BAP)* 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 construct a neighbourhood playground (Home Depot), improve SRA's office space, and provided job opportunities for high school drop outs, or those previously involved with the criminal justice system. One private sector partners provided (CAD) \$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 provide 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 areas, and an increase in sense of security among residents.<sup>172</sup>

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 widen the capacity and willingness of community members to take on projects in partnership with governments. The private sector similarly has begun to understand and take on a role as members of local communities who contribute actively to local initiatives.

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<sup>172</sup> Capobianco, L. (2006). *Compendium of Practices. Public-Private-Community Action Towards Safety: A focus on Housing and Disadvantaged Areas*. ICPC: Montreal.

## 8 Conclusion

The purpose of this Handbook has been to provide a concise account of the key issues which are outlined in the UN Guidelines of 1995 and 2002, in terms of developing and implementing comprehensive policies which aim to prevent crime and promote community safety. Both sets of guidelines emphasise the importance of government leadership, and of the contribution of all sectors of society. They represent a way of working which is multi-sector both across government departments, and horizontally between governments and with civil society.

The guidelines are part of a wider recognition of the shared nature of safety and security, and the generation of problems of crime, victimization and insecurity which requires a way of working which is primarily forward looking and pro-active, rather than reactive and deterrent. They 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 more effectively together in prevention, and of the value of developing policies and programmes which are built on sound information and careful assessment.

The chapters in the Handbook have focused on aspects of the *process* of developing strategic prevention plan and initiatives, rather than the kinds of programmes which can be implemented. Some examples have been included to illustrate the ways in which different countries have approached a problem, but many other examples now exist. After some twenty or more years of pilot projects and experimentation, there are now numerous examples of effective policies and practices from which to draw information and lessons. They cover many fields of concern, from programmes and projects dealing with youth violence prevention, working to reintegrate children and adults back into communities, to prevent violence against women and promote their safety in public spaces and the home, to prevent residential and commercial burglary and theft, or design safe housing and public spaces, to those concerned with the prevention of trafficking in human beings.

High, middle and low income countries have very widely differing histories, circumstances and capacities. What is especially clear is that a strategic crime prevention plan needs to respond the specific country and local contexts. It needs to reflect the concerns of citizens, and build on the capacity and resources available.

There are many different kinds of prevention approaches which can be utilized – from those which tackle the social and economic roots of crime and violence, to those which work to strengthen the capacities of local communities, and to make changes to places and buildings and the environment which can help to deter offenders or increase a sense of safety. There is no one approach which 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 which does not increase the social or economic exclusion of particular groups, and will promote respect for the rule of law.

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#### **INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL networks and resource centres**

- Australian Institute of Criminology [www.aic.gov.au](http://www.aic.gov.au)
- Coalicion Centroamericana para la Prevencion de la Violencia Juvenil (CCPVJ) [www.ccpvj.org](http://www.ccpvj.org)
- International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) [www.crime-prevention-intl.org](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org)
- United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime (ILANUD) [www.ilanud.org](http://www.ilanud.org)
- ILANUD Brazil [www.ilanud.org.br](http://www.ilanud.org.br)
- European Institute for Crime Prevention & Control (HEUNI) [www.heuni.fi](http://www.heuni.fi)
- European Union Crime Prevention Network (EUCPN) [www.eucpn.org](http://www.eucpn.org)
- European Forum for Urban Safety (EFUS) [www.fesu.org](http://www.fesu.org)
- Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales (FLACSO) [www.flacso.org](http://www.flacso.org)
- United Nations Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (UNAFEI) [www.unafei.or.jp](http://www.unafei.or.jp)
- United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders [www.unafri.or.ug](http://www.unafri.or.ug)
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime Programme Network Institutes [www.unodc.org](http://www.unodc.org)
- Violence Prevention Alliance [www.who.org/violenceprevention](http://www.who.org/violenceprevention)
- Washington Office on Latin America (WOLA). [www.wola.org](http://www.wola.org)

## **Annex I      The UN Guidelines for Crime Prevention**

### **ECOSOC Resolution 2002/13**

#### **Action to promote effective crime prevention**

*The Economic and Social Council,*

*Bearing in mind* its resolution 1996/16 of 23 July 1996, in which it requested the Secretary-General to continue to promote the use and application of United Nations standards and norms in crime prevention and criminal justice matters,

*Recalling* the elements of responsible crime prevention: standards and norms annexed to its resolution 1997/33 of 21 July 1997, in particular those relating to community involvement in crime prevention contained in paragraphs 14 to 23 of that annex, as well as the revised draft elements of responsible crime prevention prepared by the Expert Group Meeting on Elements of Responsible Crime Prevention: Addressing Traditional and Emerging Crime Problems, held in Buenos Aires from 8 to 10 September 1999,

*Taking note* of the international colloquium of crime prevention experts convened in Montreal, Canada, from 3 to 6 October 1999, by the Governments of France, the Netherlands and Canada, in collaboration with the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime in Montreal, as a preparatory meeting for the Tenth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders,

*Noting* that the draft elements of responsible crime prevention were considered at the workshop on community involvement in crime prevention held at the Tenth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders, held in Vienna from 10 to 17 April 2000,

*Acknowledging* the need to update and finalize the draft elements of responsible crime prevention,

*Aware* of the scope for significant reductions in crime and victimization through knowledge-based approaches, and of the contribution that effective crime prevention can make in terms of the safety and security of individuals and their property, as well as the quality of life in communities around the world,

*Taking note* of General Assembly resolution 56/261 of 31 January 2002, entitled “Plans of action for the implementation of the Vienna Declaration on Crime and Justice: Meeting the Challenges of the Twenty-first Century”, in particular the action on crime prevention in order to follow up the commitments undertaken in paragraphs 11, 13,

20, 21, 24 and 25 of the Vienna Declaration,<sup>173</sup>

*Convinced* of the need to advance a collaborative agenda for action with respect to the commitments made in the Vienna Declaration,

*Noting with appreciation* the work of the Group of Experts on Crime Prevention at their meeting held in Vancouver, Canada, from 21 to 24 January 2002, and the work of the Secretary-General in preparing a report on the results of that interregional meeting, containing revised draft guidelines for crime prevention and proposed priority areas for international action,<sup>174</sup>

*Recognizing* that each Member State is unique in its governmental structure, social characteristics and economic capacity and that those factors will influence the scope and implementation of its crime prevention programmes,

*Recognizing also* that changing circumstances and evolving approaches to crime prevention may require further elaboration and adaptation of crime prevention guidelines,

1. *Accepts* the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, annexed to the present resolution, with a view to providing elements for effective crime prevention;
2. *Invites* Member States to draw upon the Guidelines, as appropriate, in the development or strengthening of their policies in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice;
3. *Requests* relevant United Nations bodies and other specialized organizations to strengthen inter-agency coordination and cooperation in crime prevention, as set out in the Guidelines, and, to that end, to disseminate the Guidelines widely within the United Nations system;
4. *Requests* the Centre for International Crime Prevention of the Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention of the Secretariat, in consultation with Member States, the institutes of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme network and other relevant entities in the United Nations system, to prepare a proposal for technical assistance in the area of crime prevention, in accordance with the guidelines of the Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention;

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<sup>173</sup> General Assembly resolution 55/59, annex

<sup>174</sup> E/CN.15/202/4

5. *Requests* Member States to establish or strengthen international, regional and national crime prevention networks, with a view to developing knowledge-based strategies, exchanging proven and promising practices, identifying elements of their transferability and making such knowledge available to communities throughout the world;

6. *Requests* the Secretary-General to report to the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice at its fourteenth session on the implementation of the present resolution.

*37th plenary meeting  
24 July 2002*

**Annex  
Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime**

**I. Introduction**

1. 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. The present Guidelines outline the necessary elements for effective crime prevention.

**II. Conceptual frame of reference**

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.

3. For the purposes of the present Guidelines, “crime prevention” comprises 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. The enforcement of laws, sentences and corrections, while also performing preventive functions, falls outside the scope of the Guidelines,

given the comprehensive coverage of the subject in other United Nations instruments.<sup>175</sup>

4. The present Guidelines address crime and its effects on victims and society and take into account the growing internationalization of criminal activities.

5. Community involvement and cooperation/ partnerships represent important elements of the concept of crime prevention set out herein. While the term “community” may be defined in different ways, its essence in this context is the involvement of civil society at the local level.

6. Crime prevention encompasses a wide range of approaches, including those which:

(a) 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 (prevention through social development or social crime prevention);

(b) 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 (locally based crime prevention);

(c) 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 (situational crime prevention);

(d) Prevent recidivism by assisting in the social reintegration of offenders and other preventive mechanisms (reintegration programmes).

### **III. Basic principles**

#### *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.

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<sup>175</sup> See *Compendium of United Nations Standards and Norms in Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice* (United Nations publications, Sales No E. 92 IV.1 and corrigendum).

#### *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.

## **IV. Organization, methods and approaches**

15. Recognizing that all States have unique governmental structures, this section sets out tools and methodologies that Governments and all segments of civil society should consider in developing strategies to prevent crime and reduce victimization. It draws on international good practice.

### *Community involvement*

16. 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**

### **Organization**

#### *Government structures*

17. 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.

#### *Training and capacity-building*

18. 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.

#### *Supporting partnerships*

19. Governments and all segments of civil society should support the principle of partnership, where appropriate, including:

- (a) Advancing knowledge of the importance of this principle and the components of successful partnerships, including the need for all of the partners to have clear and transparent roles;
- (b) Fostering the formation of partnerships at different levels and across sectors;
- (c) Facilitating the efficient operation of partnerships.

#### *Sustainability*

20. 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.

## **B**

### **Methods**

#### *Knowledge base*

21. 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, policy makers, 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.

#### *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.

## **C**

### **Approaches**

24. This section expands upon the social development and situational crime prevention approaches. It also outlines approaches that Governments and civil society should endeavour to follow in order to prevent organized crime.

#### *Social development*

25. Governments should address the risk factors of crime and victimization by:

- (a) Promoting protective factors through comprehensive and non-stigmatizing social and economic development programmes, including health, education, housing and employment;
- (b) Promoting activities that redress marginalization and exclusion;
- (c) Promoting positive conflict resolution;
- (d) Using education and public awareness strategies to foster a culture of lawfulness and tolerance while respecting cultural identities.

#### *Situational*

26. Governments and civil society, including, where appropriate, the corporate sector, should support the development of situational crime prevention programmes by, inter alia:

- (a) Improved environmental design;
- (b) Appropriate methods of surveillance that are sensitive to the right to privacy;
- (c) Encouraging the design of consumer goods to make them more resistant to crime;
- (d) Target “hardening” without impinging upon the quality of the built environment or limiting free access to public space;
- (e) Implementing strategies to prevent repeat victimization.

#### *Prevention of organized crime*

27. 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.

## **V. International cooperation**

### *Standards and norms*

28. In promoting international action in crime prevention, Member States are invited to take into account the main international instruments related to human rights and crime prevention to which they are parties, such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (General Assembly resolution 44/25, annex), the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (General Assembly resolution 48/104), the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (the Riyadh Guidelines) (General Assembly resolution 45/112, annex), the Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power (General Assembly resolution 40/34, annex), the guidelines for cooperation and technical assistance in the field of urban crime prevention (resolution 1995/9, annex), as well as the Vienna Declaration on Crime and Justice: Meeting the Challenges of the Twenty-first Century (General Assembly resolution 55/59, annex) and the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Protocols thereto (General Assembly resolution 55/25, annexes I-III, and resolution 55/255, annex).

### *Technical assistance*

29. Member States and relevant international funding organizations should provide financial and technical assistance, including capacity building and training, to developing countries and countries with economies in transition, communities and other relevant organizations for the implementation of effective crime prevention and community

safety strategies at the regional, national and local levels. In that context, special attention should be given to research and action on crime prevention through social development.

#### *Networking*

30. Member States should strengthen or establish international, regional and national crime prevention networks with a view to exchanging proven and promising practices, identifying elements of their transferability and making such knowledge available to communities throughout the world.

#### *Links between transnational and local crime*

31. Member States should collaborate to analyse and address the links between transnational organized crime and national and local crime problems.

#### *Prioritizing crime prevention*

32. The Centre for International Crime Prevention of the Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention of the Secretariat, the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme network of affiliated and associated institutes and other relevant United Nations entities should include in their priorities crime prevention as set out in these Guidelines, set up a coordination mechanism and establish a roster of experts to undertake needs assessment and to provide technical advice.

#### *Dissemination*

33. Relevant United Nations bodies and other organizations should cooperate to produce crime prevention information in as many languages as possible, using both print and electronic media.