

# Guidance on Local Safety Audits

A Compendium of International Practice





## Guidance on Local Safety Audits:

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This resource has been produced by the European Forum for Urban Safety and is principally funded by the Government of Canada through Public Safety Canada (National Crime Prevention Centre). The principal author was Dr Sohail Husain, Director of Analytica Consulting Services.

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Suggestions for improvement, feedback on its usefulness and news of complementary national toolkits, will be welcomed and used to inform future updates. Comments should be emailed to [safetyaudit@urbansecurity.org](mailto:safetyaudit@urbansecurity.org)

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## Abbreviations

CPTED	Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design
CSIR	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (South Africa)
CSSG	Community Safety Steering Group
EFUS	European Forum for Urban Safety
HEUNI	European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control
ICPC	International Centre for the Prevention of Crime
ICVS	International Crime Victims Survey
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNICRI	United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
WHO	World Health Organisation

# INTRODUCTION

## Introduction

Prevention is better than cure! That applies to illness, accidents and natural disasters. And it applies to crime.

In fact, taking action to prevent offending and victimisation is the most cost effective way of creating safer communities. It must be a key component - along with law enforcement, courts and corrections – of our response to these problems. Crime prevention is most successful when it is part of a strategic and inclusive process that is strongly supported by civic leaders who have a responsibility for community safety.

A clear picture of crime and victimisation is the foundation for targeted action to reduce crime and increase individual and collective security. The safety audit is a tool to acquire the necessary knowledge and to build commitment from the range of partners whose collaboration is necessary to achieve results. The purpose of this Guidance is to explain the tool and to encourage and support its use. It has been written for everyone who has a significant role to play in designing and funding crime prevention programmes and in directing, developing or delivering crime prevention activity.

Around the world various names are used for this tool, including crime profile, environmental scan and security diagnosis. However, for simplicity, the single term 'safety audit' is applied here. A safety audit needs to examine not just crime and victimisation, but their linkages with socio-economic factors and existing services, as well as the wider political and institutional context in which problems occur. The potential benefits of safety audits are increasingly being recognised and their use has become widespread.<sup>1</sup> They can be useful at different spatial scales, but this Guidance has been written primarily to support work at city level.

Of course, problems, contexts, resources and available expertise vary greatly between countries. But the basic need to bring people and information together to gain an understanding that can be used to inform a local strategy has universal relevance. It is this core common need that is addressed here. Drawing on experience in different parts of the world, case studies are used to illustrate how the concept can be applied in locations that vary in their demography, stage of development and form of governance.

Having been written for an international audience, this Guidance cannot provide detailed advice for every country; a degree of generalisation and selectivity is unavoidable. Individual states are therefore encouraged to use this resource to develop their own national toolkits, translating ideas presented here into a 'local' context and identifying specific resources to support safety audit implementation. At the time of publication, representatives of some countries, such as Canada, have already confirmed their intention to do this and it is hoped that others will follow this lead.

This Guidance is divided into three Parts. Part A is directed primarily at those responsible for policy and legislation at national level, as well as civic

leaders with a mandate for crime prevention at city level. It highlights the connection between safety audits and wider social, economic and environmental issues, such as sustainable development, social inclusion and good urban governance. It illustrates the importance of the safety audit to advancing well-planned and well-executed action to reduce crime and its associated risk factors. The Guidance identifies who needs to be involved, the skills needed to complete the work, the scope of audit activity, the principles of good practice and the four main Stages of audit implementation.

Parts B and C are especially relevant to groups overseeing the audit process. Part B focuses on specific and important issues that pose major challenges because they are difficult to investigate. Amongst those examined here are specific populations, such as 'at risk' children and youth; women's safety; human trafficking; illicit drugs; and crimes involving business.

Part C will be particularly useful for practitioners who undertake audit work. It covers a range of technical subjects. It emphasises the importance of combining quantitative and qualitative data to gain a good understanding of problems and causal factors. Guidance is also given on the use of a range of tools and techniques for collecting information. The merits and weaknesses of different secondary sources are examined and advice is provided on the conduct of surveys.

As experience in the use of safety audits grows, our understanding of how to get the maximum benefit from this important concept continues to develop. This Guidance is not therefore a definitive or final version; it should be considered a work in progress. Suggestions for improvement, feedback on its usefulness and news of complementary national toolkits, will be welcomed and used to inform future updates.

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<sup>1</sup> In England and Wales a regular analysis of crime and disorder in each local authority area is required by law and this must be used to inform a local crime and disorder reduction strategy. In Mexico, a Public Safety Plan based on a diagnosis must be produced at national, provincial and municipal levels. Examples of the use of audits can be found in Africa, Latin America, Australasia and North America. In some continental European countries a local diagnosis is strongly encouraged or a requirement for government funding.



**PART A:  
THE SAFETY  
AUDIT PROCESS**

# 1 Safety Audits In A Wider Context



## 1.1 Sustainable Development And Social Inclusion

Being able to live free from violence, crime, intimidation and fear is a basic right embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and a prerequisite for normal human development.<sup>2</sup> But such freedom is not only important for enhancing the quality of life of individual citizens, important though that is. It is essential for the sustainable development of cities and countries. Safety and security help create an environment in which economic growth can occur, where effective services can be provided, and where these improvements contribute to the reduction of poverty and social exclusion. This applies equally to developed, developing and transitional countries. It is fundamental to achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.<sup>3</sup>

### **Security Is A Precondition For Development**

“Poor people want to feel safe and secure just as much as they need food to eat, clean water to drink and a job to give them an income. Without security there cannot be development. Farmers cannot farm if they are afraid that their land, livestock or family will be attacked. Girls cannot be educated if they are scared of the journey to school. And businesses will not invest where there is fighting, or where the rule of law is not upheld.”

UK Government White Paper on Eliminating World Poverty (2006)<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> Although all violence is a breach of human rights, it is not always defined as ‘crime’ in national legislation and much violence is either not reported or not recorded as criminal activity by police. To avoid any uncertainty about the scope of the issue being addressed, both terms are included here and elsewhere in this Guidance.

<sup>3</sup> For more information, see UN Millennium Development Goals. <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals>

<sup>4</sup> Department for International Development (UK). *Eliminating world poverty. Making governance work for the poor.* London: DFID, 2006. <http://www.dfid.gov.uk/wp2006>

Yet there are few states in the world where a substantial proportion of the population is not affected by victimisation or anxiety about violence, or where insecurity and corruption do not inhibit investment and growth. The social and economic penalties of these problems are immense and the impact is usually greatest on the poor, the vulnerable, women and children. As well as the direct damage to public health, they prevent access to services, such as education and social care; hamper efforts to get out of poverty; and encourage people to take the law into their own hands. In some developed countries, the cost of crime has been estimated to be 5% of gross national product, while in the developing world this proportion may reach 14%.<sup>5</sup>

The clear linkage between crime and development means that tackling crime and creating safer environments will bring multiple benefits, especially to the poor. Consequently, it is an appropriate priority for governments at all levels, including those responsible for criminal justice and urban management, as well a wide range of social and economic services. Indeed the '*security of individuals and their living environment*' is one of the norms on which the UN-Habitat Campaign on Urban Governance is based. It is seen as fundamental to the creation of the 'Inclusive City' where "*everyone, regardless of wealth, gender, age, race or religion, is enabled to participate productively and positively in the opportunities cities have to offer*".<sup>6</sup> Safety audits contribute to that wider agenda.

## 1.2 Creating Safer Stronger Healthier Communities

Historically, most countries' response to crime has been based on policing, security agencies and the criminal justice system. These will be key components in any strategy but, whilst important,

they are costly, often do not address motivation to offend and may discriminate against the poor and vulnerable. For these reasons, there is much to be gained from implementing strategies that give a high priority to prevention. Prevention involves reducing the risk of crime and its harmful effects, including fear, through interventions directed at the underlying conditions (or 'risk factors') linked with its occurrence.<sup>7</sup>

### The Scope Of Crime Prevention

- 1 Promoting the well-being of people and encouraging pro-social behaviour through social, economic, health and educational measures, with a particular emphasis on children and youth, and focusing on the risk and protective factors associated with crime and victimisation (prevention through social development or social crime prevention)**
- 2 Changing the conditions in neighbourhoods that influence offending, victimisation and the insecurity that results from crime by building on the initiatives, expertise and commitment of community members (locally based crime prevention)**
- 3 Reducing opportunities, increasing risks of being apprehended and minimising benefits of crime, including through environmental design, and by providing assistance and information to potential and actual victims (situational crime prevention)**
- 4 Preventing recidivism by assisting in the social reintegration of offenders and other preventive mechanisms (reintegration programmes).**

UN Guidelines For The Prevention Of Crime (2002)

<sup>5</sup> Sansfaçon D and Welsh B. *Crime prevention digest II: comparative analysis of successful community safety*. Montreal: ICPC, 1999. [http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/publications/pub\\_13\\_1.pdf](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/publications/pub_13_1.pdf)

<sup>6</sup> UN-Habitat. *The global campaign on urban governance*. Nairobi: UN-Habitat. <http://www.unhabitat.org/pmss/getPage.asp?page=bookView&book=1537>

<sup>7</sup> See Appendix A for a typology of risk factors.

## The Need For A Multi-Agency Approach

“In developing the response to violence, many different sectors and agencies should be involved, and programmes should be tailored to suit different cultural settings and population groups.”

WHO World Report on  
Violence and Health (2002)<sup>8</sup>

Our understanding of how to prevent crime and victimisation has advanced rapidly in recent years. Ownership of the problem by municipal government is crucial and success depends on the coordinated involvement of other diverse stakeholders spread across the public and private sectors, civil society and local communities.<sup>9</sup> The providers of services such as health, education, housing, transport, planning and justice, as well as community groups, faith organisations, non-governmental bodies and businesses, all have vital contributions to make. Within this overall framework, the full participation of women, youth and minorities is essential, as is political commitment to the process.

The successful prevention of crime, violence and fear can have multiple benefits, creating safer, stronger, healthier, and more skilled communities. It can help many agencies achieve their own policy objectives. Public health, for example, can benefit from lower mortality rates, improvements in general health and reduced costs. Schools can gain from improved attendance and better performance of pupils. Social care services may find that fewer

children need to be taken into care. There are therefore strong incentives for many agencies to play a full role in the prevention process.

## 1.3 The UN Guidelines For The Prevention Of Crime

The 2002 *UN Guidelines For The Prevention Of Crime* give further encouragement and direction to preventive approaches.<sup>10</sup> They make it clear that prevention should be founded on eight basic principles, summarised below:

- *Government leadership.* All levels of government should play a leadership role.
- *Socio-economic development and inclusion.* Crime prevention considerations should be integrated into all relevant social, health and economic policies and programmes.
- *Cooperation/partnerships.* Cooperation/partnerships should be an integral part of effective crime prevention.
- *Sustainability/accountability.* Crime prevention requires adequate and sustained resourcing with clear accountability for funding and achievement of results.
- *Knowledge base.* Crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad, multi-disciplinary foundation of knowledge.

<sup>8</sup> Krug E G, Dahlberg L L, Mercy J A, Zwi A B and Lozano L (eds). World report on violence and health. Geneva: WHO, 2002. [http://www.who.int/violence\\_injury\\_prevention/violence/world\\_report/en/full\\_en.pdf](http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/world_report/en/full_en.pdf)

<sup>9</sup> A stakeholder is defined as any individual, community, group or organisation with an interest in the outcome of an activity, either as a result of being affected by it positively or negatively, or by being able to influence the activity in a positive or negative way. Civil society has been defined as “the web of associations, social norms and practices that comprise activities of a society as separate from its state and market institutions. A ‘healthy’, powerful civil society requires institutions with strong, intellectual, material and organisational bases, reflecting social diversity. It also requires an open, constructive interaction between the civil society organisations and the state and market sectors. Civil society includes religious organisations, foundations, guilds, professional associations, labour unions, academic institutions, media, pressure groups and political parties.” See World Bank. Glossary of key terms in social analysis. <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTSOCIALDEVELOPMENT/EXTSOCIALANALYSIS/0,,contentMDK:20503079~menuPK:1231003~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:281314,00.html>

<sup>10</sup> UN Economic and Social Council. Action to promote effective crime prevention: Guidelines for the prevention of crime. UN ECOSOC, 24 July 2002. Reproduced at Appendix B and online at <http://www.un.org/docs/ecosoc/documents/2002/resolutions/eres2002-13.pdf>

- *Human rights/rule of law/culture of lawfulness.* The rule of law and those human rights recognised in international instruments must be respected.
- *Interdependency.* National crime prevention diagnoses and strategies should take account of links between local criminal problems and international organised crime.
- *Differentiation.* Prevention strategies should recognise the different needs of men and women and consider the special needs of vulnerable members of society.

The UN Guidelines acknowledge the value of a rational knowledge-based approach, stating “*crime prevention strategies, policies, programmes and actions should be based on a broad, multi-disciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices*”. They underline the importance of having appropriate structures, building professional skills and developing strategic responses through a rigorous planning process. Part of that process, the Guidelines make clear, should be “*a systematic analysis of crime problems, their causes, risk factors and consequences, in particular at the local level*”.

The purpose of a safety audit is to provide that analysis. Its use as a tool for developing prevention strategies has been widely recognised by other international agencies including the World Bank, the European Union, the UN Office on Drugs and Crime, UN-Habitat, the World Health Organisation, the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime and the European Forum for Urban Safety.

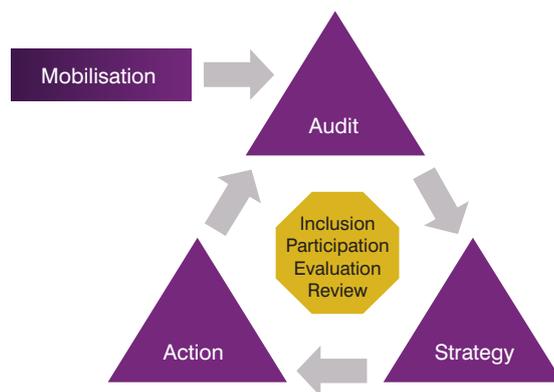
## 1.4 Audits As Part Of The Prevention Process

**AS** in any policy area, a strategic approach is the best route to responses that are effective, sustainable and make good use of scarce resources.<sup>11</sup> That needs to begin with mobilisation

of the key stakeholders (see 1.5), whose support is essential to achieving concrete results. Safety audits also play an important part in educating partners, creating a shared understanding of the city’s problems and current responses, and strengthening their resolve to work towards a common goal. Using the audit’s findings, the strategy can be developed, setting out a vision with clear objectives and an indication of how priorities can be addressed. Action can then be taken to implement measures that will bring about the desired change.

Throughout the process, review and evaluation should ensure that future action is informed by past experience. The process needs to be inclusive and participative, not only to ensure that relevant interests are properly considered, but to enable the city to benefit from the active involvement of stakeholders and communities (see section 5). It needs to be recognised that this is an ongoing process. The audit and strategy need periodically to be updated and even repeated, as issues and priorities change in local communities (Figure 1).

**Figure 1**  
The Crime Prevention Process



<sup>11</sup> A strategic approach involves developing a long term plan that is based on a situational analysis, influenced by values and perspectives, and directed at achievement of agreed goals.

## 1.5 Developing A Strategy: Who Needs To Be Involved?

AS the audit is an integral part of the process for developing a city's prevention strategy, it ultimately needs to be 'owned' by the group leading that process. A basic requirement for that group, here called the 'Community Safety Steering Group' (CSSG), is that it includes individuals who have a mandate for crime prevention, authority to agree on a strategy and competence to take forward its planning and implementation.<sup>12</sup> Core members will usually be senior figures from the public sector, most notably the mayor, municipal chief executive and chief of police.

Key public services, including health, education, social care, youth provision, planning and city centre management should also be represented in the CSSG, along with youth justice and corrections. If the city is in a country with highly centralised governance, it will also be important to include regional or national government representation. Attention should be given to achieving a gender balance and ethno-cultural diversity to reflect the population being represented (Figure 2).

There will be many other stakeholders with an interest in the strategy who will be able to make valuable contributions to its development and implementation: representatives of indigenous/aboriginal populations, minority/immigrant groups, women's organisations, youth groups, faith communities, the business sector and universities. In any city there will be a myriad of civil society organisations that will want to be involved. The importance of the private sector as a social agent in the development and enhancement of communities, as in North America, should also not

be overlooked. But for effective governance, a CSSG should be kept to 10-15 key stakeholders or it will become unwieldy.

CSSG members therefore need to be carefully selected, taking into account local circumstances, especially the socio-demographic structure of the city. It needs to be remembered that women usually form half the population and young people are more than half in some countries. Groups which represent significant and recognised communities, have a citywide responsibility, are well regarded, have influence over their membership, could play an active part in the audit research or have specialist knowledge or expertise would be strong candidates for inclusion. A stakeholder analysis can help identify who needs to be involved and how this is best accomplished.<sup>13</sup>

**Figure 2**  
The Community Safety Steering Group



Having determined membership of the CSSG, it is nevertheless important to enable the many other stakeholders to engage with the process. This can be achieved by establishing a larger Community Safety Round Table that provides a forum for wider

<sup>12</sup> The term 'partnership', 'board' or 'coalition' is also used for this group in different countries.

<sup>13</sup> There are several ways to undertake a stakeholder analysis and extensive guidance is available online. For example, UN-Habitat. *Tools to support participatory urban decision making*. Urban Government Toolkit Series. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2001. <http://www.unhabitat.org/pmss/getPage.asp?page=bookView&book=1122>

participation.<sup>14</sup> Maintaining good communication and finding appropriate ways to involve the Round Table will be critical to implementing the participative approach already mentioned.

A small Audit Steering Group should be formed to oversee the audit process and be accountable for its satisfactory completion. It may include both CSSG and Round Table members with relevant knowledge or expertise and its members must have authority to ensure the audit will be supported

### **The Audit Steering Group**

**An Audit Steering Group oversees the audit and is accountable for its satisfactory completion. It ideally comprises fewer than 10 members, drawn from both the CSSG and Round Table, and must include individuals with authority to ensure the audit will be supported by relevant agencies. It will be advantageous to include representatives of community-based organisations that have a broad citywide responsibility, who have good local knowledge and networks, as well as technical experts with experience of research techniques and crime prevention.**

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## **Crime Prevention Resource Directory, South Africa**

South Africa's Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) Crime Prevention Centre has produced a Resource Directory, in hard copy and on CD-Rom, which lists organisations and contact details of people who have a role to play in crime prevention at national and provincial levels. Organisations listed include those with a research role; those supporting children, young people and the victims of domestic violence; government departments; and human rights and equality bodies. The Crime Prevention Toolkit, of which the Resource Directory forms part, identifies the following as 'people who can help us achieve our vision of a safe society':

- The police
- Correctional services (including probation services and prisons)
- Local authorities/municipalities, including planners, traffic officers, emergency services, parks departments and those with responsibility for street lighting
- Justice officials
- Education officers
- Tourism providers
- Economic development officers
- Non-governmental and community based organisations
- Departments of Social Services and Health
- Community police forums and neighbourhood watches

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<sup>14</sup> The term 'forum' or 'reference group' is also used instead of 'round table' in different countries.

## 2 Safety Audits: An Overview



### 2.1 What Is A Safety Audit?

A safety audit is a systematic analysis undertaken to gain an understanding of the crime and victimisation-related problems in a city; to identify assets and resources for preventive activity; to enable priorities to be identified; and to help shape a strategy that will enable those priorities to be tackled. A citywide audit will usually involve:

- setting the context with an overview of the city's demographic, economic and other characteristics, and comparing these with regional or national information
- analysing crime and violence, as well as related problems such as disorder and incivilities, including the scale, trend, distribution and impact of incidents
- profiling victims and offenders, including the gender, age, ethno-cultural and socio-economic patterns of these groups
- investigating patterns of risk factors that are likely to contribute to the occurrence of crime and violence

#### **Safety Audit: Quick Wins**

Undertaking an audit does not mean action cannot be taken until its results are known. There is much to be gained from responding quickly to problems for which there are obvious and relatively straightforward solutions in order to secure 'quick wins' that build confidence and a sense of achievement.

- appraising the effectiveness of projects and services – such as health, housing, welfare and education – in relation to prevention
- assessing the political and institutional environment to identify opportunities for developing preventive action
- identifying the opportunities, strengths and potential of the area, including social capital, civil society and existing projects on which a future strategy may be built.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>15</sup> WHO defines social capital as "the degree of social cohesion which exists in communities. It refers to the processes between people which establish networks, norms, and social trust, and facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit. It is created from the myriad of everyday interactions between people, and is embodied in such structures as civic and religious groups, family membership, informal community networks, and in norms of voluntarism, altruism and trust. The stronger these networks and bonds, the more likely it is that members of a community will cooperate for mutual benefit." The main elements of social capital are citizenship, neighbourliness, trust and shared values, community involvement, volunteering, social networks and civic participation.

WHO. Health promotion glossary. Geneva: WHO, 1998. [http://www.who.int/hpr/NPH/docs/hp\\_glossary\\_en.pdf](http://www.who.int/hpr/NPH/docs/hp_glossary_en.pdf)

Achieving this coverage should always be the objective, but audits need to be customised to local circumstances and so will vary in their design, complexity and methods. They will reflect the geographical, institutional, cultural and developmental contexts in which they are being conducted; the availability of resources and expertise to undertake the work; and the adequacy of relevant data from official and other sources.<sup>16</sup>

## 2.2 Ten Principles Underpinning Good Practice

When embarking on a safety audit, the process should be underpinned by principles that are agreed by the CSSG. These should be drafted to ensure that it is a fair, inclusive and formative process, and that it contributes to higher-level strategic priorities and policies. Without explicit recognition of these principles, there is a risk that marginalised and excluded sections of society will not be adequately included. Principles may vary with local circumstances, but it is suggested that the following have universal validity:

- The purpose of the audit should be to gain an understanding of crime, related problems and their causes to inform development of a prevention strategy.
- The audit should be based on recognition that crime results from a complex interaction of social, economic, legislative, environmental and other circumstances.
- The audit should adopt practices which model and contribute to good urban governance and sustainable development.
- The audit should be undertaken with respect to the law and human rights, and used to promote a culture of lawfulness.
- Strong commitment of stakeholders with competence in relevant policy areas is critical, since success depends on their ability to respond to the findings.

### 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.

- A participative approach that involves engagement with civil society and community interests is critical throughout the audit process.
- Positive action is needed to ensure the voices of the poor and most victimised people are heard, recognising that official data will not adequately reflect their experiences.
- The audit should incorporate the distinctive perspectives related to gender, minorities and youth.
- The audit should identify relevant assets in an area, including social capital and successful projects, which may provide the basis for building effective responses.
- The audit should not be used as a tool to encourage or justify vigilantism or punitive activity, but should be solely used as part of the preventive process.

<sup>16</sup> For a comparative study of approaches in France, New Zealand, Australia and UK, see Alvarez J. *Les diagnostics locaux de sécurité. Une étude comparée, pour mieux comprendre et mieux agir*. Québec: Institute national de santé publique du Québec/Centre international pour la prévention de la criminalité, 2006. [http://www.crpspc.qc.ca/432-DiagnosticsLocauxSecurite\\_imprimée.pdf](http://www.crpspc.qc.ca/432-DiagnosticsLocauxSecurite_imprimée.pdf)

## 2.3 The Benefits Of Auditing

Safety audits make demands on the time and resources of crime prevention partners, but that investment can generate multiple benefits. Specifically, safety audits can:

- enable the information, energy and resources of different organisations and communities to be pooled to build a comprehensive composite picture
- help organisations with differing perspectives to reach agreement about which problems should be given the highest priority
- reveal the complex linkages between social, economic and other factors and mobilise agencies to participate in preventive action
- provide the basis for effective problem solving, enabling the right balance to be struck between alternative approaches and activities
- promote partnership working and community involvement, so contributing to good urban governance
- build the capacity of local stakeholders through development of skills and knowledge
- reveal the distinctive characteristics of crime problems in a particular area, enabling solutions to be tailored to local needs
- shed light on which measures and services have previously worked well and provide a baseline against which change and achievement can be measured.

Most importantly, safety audits provide the foundation for strategies that are effective in preventing crime and improving the quality of life for citizens.

### **Civic Leadership in Bogota (Columbia)**

In Bogota the leadership shown by the Mayor was crucial in achieving a dramatic improvement in citizen security between 1994 and 2003. The homicide rate was reduced by 70%, other crimes by 35% and road traffic deaths by 65%. Bogota was transformed from being a city with one of the highest murder rates in the Americas to one with a rate less than half that of Washington DC (US) and a quarter that of Medellin (Columbia). Other significant factors included:

- the establishment of reliable arrangements for collection and analysis of crime related data, enabling informed decisions to be made about the measures needed, continuous monitoring to be undertaken, and evaluations of effectiveness carried out
- implementation of a security and coexistence plan to strengthen the culture of citizenship; resolve conflicts between individuals and communities peacefully; help the most vulnerable groups in the population; and reduce crime risks, for example by controlling the consumption of alcohol and restricting the carrying of weapons
- training of community leaders in issues of coexistence and citizen security as part of a broader strategy to increase citizen participation.

### **Safety Audit in Yaounde (Cameroon)**

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

UN-Habitat *Diagnostic de la Délinquance Urbaine à Yaoundé* (2002)<sup>17</sup>

### **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>18</sup>

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<sup>17</sup> UN-Habitat. *Diagnostic de la délinquance urbaine à Yaoundé*. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2002.

<sup>18</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.

## 3 Preparing To Audit



### 3.1 What Information Needs To Be Collected?

A safety audit must bring together information on several subjects. It needs to include contextual data about the city and its population; information about crime and related activity; the impacts and costs of crime; factors linked to offending and victimisation; assets, services and initiatives that could reduce the occurrence of problems; and the views of local citizens. As a starting point, an audit team should draw up a list of topics which it wants to investigate. It can then explore what information is readily available and what might need to be collected (Table 1).

An audit will ideally draw together both quantitative and qualitative information. Each can throw light on a subject and one without the other is likely to leave the picture incomplete. Numerical data (from victimisation surveys, for example) can powerfully convey the dimensions of a particular problem or issue, providing answers to questions about 'what' and 'how much' is happening. But qualitative or descriptive data, drawn for example from interviews, is likely to generate a richer 'three dimensional' account that answers important 'how'

#### Quantitative vs Qualitative Information

**“Not everything that can be counted counts and not everything that counts can be counted.”**

**Albert Einstein, 1879-1955**

and 'why' questions. Bias towards information that can be easily measured rather than more complex material, that can only be gleaned through engagement and discussion, could lead to misleading conclusions.

It needs to be recognised that a single source is unlikely to answer all the questions posed and that the usefulness of police and justice agency data is often limited (see section 15). Drawing on several independent information sources enables 'triangulation' to ensure that the picture is as accurate and comprehensive as possible. In Australia, for example, national population survey data is complemented by information gathered from specific high risk groups to assess the extent of substance abuse in the community.<sup>19</sup>

<sup>19</sup> Makkai T. *Linking drugs and criminal activity: developing an integrated monitoring system*, Trends and Issues in Criminal Justice 109. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 1999. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/ti109.pdf>

## Engaging Communities

To maximise participation, it is important to match the methods used to individual groups or communities. Consideration of the age, gender, ethnic identity, cultural norms and other characteristics will help determine what will work best. Engagement will be increased through the use of appropriate:

- visioning and consensus building
- language and terminology
- forms of communication (for example, oral, written, pictorial, drama)
- composition of groups (for example, single gender or youth only)
- techniques and tools
- locations, timings and settings
- facilitators and researchers

And by considering issues relevant to the stakeholders. The audit team needs to have or be able to draw on individuals who have the necessary skills, knowledge and credibility to engage diverse communities effectively.

## 3.2 What Knowledge And Skills Are Needed?

A citywide safety audit will benefit from careful planning, good management and rigorous implementation. Information on a wide range of subjects will need to be collected from multiple sources using different methods. It will need to be collated and appraised in order to draw conclusions that inform the selection of priorities and the shaping of responses. Throughout the process, there needs to be good communication with stakeholders and opportunities for effective participation. The range of issues, tasks and techniques involved will require the following knowledge and skills:

**Table 1**  
Information To Include In A Safety Audit

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

Derived from UN-Habitat Safer Cities Toolkit

## Knowledge

- *Local context* – the geographic, economic, cultural, political and demographic environment
- *Key agencies* – the priorities, policies, cultures and organisational arrangements of relevant local service providers, especially in the public and non-profit sectors
- *Policing and justice system* – agency roles, police organisation, offence and incident recording practices, strengths and weaknesses of justice system data
- *Crime prevention* – an understanding of offending and fear of crime, especially including gender-related issues; research evidence about effective responses; and how audits can be used to develop a preventive strategy.

## Technical Skills

- *Research design* – formulation of objectives, selection of methods, specification of outputs
- *Project management* – scheduling of work, allocation of resources, risk management and quality assurance
- *Stakeholder analysis* – identification of all stakeholders, assessment of their stake and determining how they should be involved
- *Community engagement* – use of activities that encourage broad participation, especially to facilitate the engagement of women, youth and 'hard-to-reach' groups<sup>20</sup>
- *Consultative techniques* – interviews, meetings and focus groups to elicit information from service providers and community interests
- *Victimisation surveys* – questionnaire design, population sampling, database construction and interrogation
- *Statistical analysis* – identifying, collecting and analysing relevant data held by agencies, possibly using geographical information systems
- *Communication* – report writing, giving presentations and other activities to keep stakeholders involved and to get feedback from research findings.

It is important to recognise that different knowledge and skills will be needed at different stages.

## 3.3 Who Should Conduct The Audit?

A small team that brings together the required knowledge and skills will need to be set up to carry out the research with one person having managerial responsibility. There are several possible sources of personnel, including public sector agencies, civil society, academic institutions and the private sector. Each option has advantages, but there are a number of weaknesses that could affect any of them (Table 2).

It is unlikely that any one source will provide a 'complete' team to meet all requirements. Most audits are best carried out using a combination of resources. For example, an academic institution may be best equipped to provide advice on research methodology. A private company may be best able to organise a citywide survey. Crime prevention specialists might provide subject advice. Civil society organisations could be strongly positioned to facilitate linkages with communities. Moreover, different people will need to be involved at different stages of the audit (see section 4).

There is however much to be gained from public sector personnel having a significant involvement, rather than 'outsourcing' the whole project. Public sector involvement will bring to the research good local insight but, equally important, the work will help build skills and strengthen partnership working amongst participating agencies.

## 3.4 How Long Will An Audit Take?

When carried out citywide for the first time, an audit may take 6-12 months, depending on the size of the city, ease of access to reliable information and resources to do the work. An indication of the possible duration of different phases is shown in Table 3.

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<sup>20</sup> For more detailed consideration of hard-to-reach groups, see section 5.

**Table 2**

**Staffing The Safety Audit Team**

Source	Potential advantages	Potential disadvantages
Public sector agency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Understanding of context</li> <li>■ Understanding of local policies and services</li> <li>■ Access to information</li> <li>■ Public acceptance</li> <li>■ Build expertise and partnerships</li> <li>■ Lower costs</li> </ul>	<p>The following could weaken any of the staffing options:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Lack of research expertise</li> <li>■ Lack of expertise on crime and prevention issues</li> <li>■ Difficulty freeing up appropriate staff to assign to the project</li> <li>■ Lack of influence/credibility with key agencies</li> <li>■ Lack of community credibility and involvement</li> <li>■ Lack of understanding of policy context.</li> </ul>
Civil society organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Grassroots knowledge</li> <li>■ Credibility with citizens<sup>21</sup></li> <li>■ Lower costs</li> </ul>	
Academic institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Strong research skills</li> <li>■ Objectivity / independence</li> <li>■ Moderate costs</li> </ul>	
Private sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Strong project management</li> <li>■ Research skills and technology</li> <li>■ Objectivity/independence</li> <li>■ Dedicated personnel</li> </ul>	

**Table 3**

**Example Of An Audit Timetable**

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

<sup>21</sup> Whilst civil society may generally be considered to have more credibility with communities than public sector agencies, caution is needed. A study by the World Bank found that “NGOs do not figure prominently in poor people’s lives” and “The poor also get excluded from many groups because of their limited assets and inability to pay fees.” See Narayan D with Patel R, Schafft K, Rademacher A and Koch-Schulte S. *Can anyone hear us? Voices of the Poor Volume 1*. World Bank, 1999.  
<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPOVERTY/Resources/335642-1124115102975/1555199-1124115187705/vol1.pdf>

### **‘Fonos’ for Pacific Peoples (New Zealand)<sup>22</sup>**

In 2005 the Ministry of Justice began developing crime prevention strategies for the 250,000 strong Pacific communities in Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch. ‘Fonos’ were conducted to ascertain their perceptions of crime problems and how they should be addressed. Invitations were extended to Pacific organisations and individuals with interest and expertise in crime and justice issues, as well as representatives of Pacific youth organisations.

A ‘matai’ or ‘ariki’ with a good understanding of justice processes facilitated the discussions. Each opened with a ‘lotu’ and introductions of participants to acknowledge their community standing. Meetings lasted up to four hours, giving everyone an opportunity to be heard and for issues to be deliberated until a consensus emerged, as custom required. The agenda always allowed time for a ‘mea taumafa’ preceded by grace, as the provision of food is an important part of Pacific culture. Humour and enjoyment, also traditionally important, helped to reduce tension when there was disagreement. ‘Fonos’ always concluded with a ‘tataloina’ to thank the participants, bring closure to the meeting and ask for spiritual guidance on the journey home.

The ‘fonos’ served as networking and information sharing events with Ministry of Justice representatives presenting statistical information to inform discussions. The process allowed Pacific communities to identify what was important to them and the responses which they perceived would work. The main priorities to emerge were family violence and youth offending (especially violence and vehicle crime). There was also wide agreement that churches had a major role to play in providing services and communicating messages, both from the pulpit and through other community contacts.

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<sup>22</sup> Pacific Peoples are the New Zealanders who identify with one or more Pacific ethnicities, the seven largest being Cook Island Maori, Fijian, Niuean, Samoan, Tokelauan, Tongan and Tuvaluan. *Fono* is a Samoan word widely used by Pacific Peoples to describe a meeting, consultation or council. Other Samoan words used in the text are *matai* or *ariki* (an elder or chief), *lotu* (prayer), *mea taumafa* (a shared meal or feast) and a *tataloina* (blessing).

## 3.5 National And International Comparisons

A city audit will inevitably concentrate on what is going on within the city boundary, but it can be difficult to assess the seriousness of a problem without reference to an 'external' benchmark. Comparison with what is happening in other cities in a country or even further afield can help put local patterns in context and be useful in other ways. For example, public anxiety may be assuaged if a city's crime rate is shown to be well below the national average. Conversely, a relatively high crime rate may be helpful in securing additional resources for prevention from regional or national governments. Of course, when comparing cities, it is desirable to take account of social and other factors; comparisons will be most meaningful when they involve cities which have similar socio-economic profiles.

### Hungary In Context

The National Strategy for Social Crime Prevention notes that recorded crime in the country increased more than three-fold between 1988 and 1998. Whilst this figure was undoubtedly a cause for much concern, it appears less alarming when it is recognised that even after that increase the crime rate was still significantly lower than in many west European countries and less than half the rate in Sweden, The Netherlands and Germany.

National Strategy For Crime Prevention (2003)<sup>23</sup>

Making national comparisons will be difficult in countries without standardised information systems and data will always need to be interpreted carefully. Even greater caution must be applied to international comparisons since definitions of offences, reporting and recording procedures, and counting rules vary between countries. This inconsistency can be overcome with a 'multi-city assessment'. That would involve a group of comparable cities co-operating and conducting audits at approximately the same time using the same methodology. This could be undertaken within a country or across international borders and would go a long way towards generating consistent data. This approach could also be financially advantageous, if economies of scale can be achieved (see 16.2 on the International Crime Victims Surveys).

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<sup>23</sup> Ministry of Justice (Hungary). *The national strategy for social crime prevention*. Annex to Parliamentary resolution 115/2003 (X.28.). Budapest, 2003. [http://bunmegelozes.easyhosting.hu/dok/national\\_strat\\_crime\\_prevention.pdf#search=%22Annex%20to%20Parliamentary%20resolution%20115%2F2003%20\(X.28.%22](http://bunmegelozes.easyhosting.hu/dok/national_strat_crime_prevention.pdf#search=%22Annex%20to%20Parliamentary%20resolution%20115%2F2003%20(X.28.%22)

# 4 The Four Stages Of Audit Implementation



## 4.1 Introduction

**A**N audit needs to be carried out in a way that is manageable, cost-effective and timely and this can be achieved by adopting a systematic process with four main Implementation Stages, of which the first is a 'wide and shallow' analysis (Table 4). This involves an appraisal of a broad range of problems and contributory factors using, as far as possible, readily available information so that significant issues and information gaps can be quickly identified. It should also include, where possible, an assessment of current responses to decide which problems are already being adequately addressed and which require further attention.

A plan can then be prepared for further research in Stage 2, the 'narrow and deep' analysis. This should aim to fill significant information gaps and investigate emerging issues that require more detailed study. Stage 3 involves assessment of the data collected to identify priorities for the Crime Prevention Strategy. Finally, in Stage 4 stakeholders are consulted on the findings before an audit report is completed and disseminated. Each of these Stages is considered further below.

**Table 4**  
The Audit Implementation Process

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
The 'wide and shallow' analysis	'Narrow and deep' investigation	Identifying priorities and opportunities	Consulting and Communicating
Initial appraisal of problems and contributory factors using readily accessible information, where possible.	Researching those issues requiring further attention to gain a better understanding.	Determining which issues the strategy should focus on as well as strengths and assets on which to build.	Consulting stakeholders, preparing the audit report and disseminating its findings.

## 4.2 Stage One: The Wide And Shallow Analysis

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
The 'wide and shallow' analysis	'Narrow and deep' investigation	Identifying priorities and opportunities	Consulting and Communicating

The purpose of this first Stage is to build a broad picture of crime and contributory factors, and to appraise the adequacy of current responses using data that is already available and accessible. It need not involve in-depth analysis, but requires sufficient information to enable problems to be identified and their seriousness to be assessed. The components of a 'wide and shallow' analysis are:

- Context setting
- Preliminary analysis of crime and disorder
- Profiling victims and offenders
- Appraising risk factors associated with victimisation and offending
- Assessing responses.

### Context Setting

A brief demographic and economic profile of the city should be compiled, setting the city in a regional and national framework. Equally important will be the ability to determine the legislative and political environment, and to carry out an analysis of institutional roles and capabilities.<sup>24</sup> This will help partners to see the city in a wider context, understand the problems better and identify opportunities for strategic responses. For stakeholders at regional or national level, the information will raise awareness of the city's position and could strengthen its case for resources (Table 5).

**Table 5**  
**Setting The Context – Key Questions For Stage One ('Wide And Shallow Analysis')**

Key questions	How to get answers
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 How large is the population and how is it changing with natural growth and migration?</li> <li>2 What is the demographic structure (age, gender, ethno-cultural diversity)?</li> <li>3 What are the main economic activities and what is the level of unemployment?</li> <li>4 How does the socio-economic profile of the population vary across the city?</li> <li>5 How does the population structure compare with other cities?</li> </ol>	<p>In many countries, answers will be found in existing reports or census tabulations. A limited amount should be extracted to provide the summary profile required. Reference can be made in the audit report to sources that provide more depth. Variations across the city should be mapped, if possible. This need not be highly detailed, but sufficient to expose significant local differences.</p>

<sup>24</sup> According to the World Bank, "Institutional Analysis (IA) focuses on the formal and informal institutions in the public, private and not-for profit sectors. Institutional analysis assesses the institutions and institutional linkages critical to project success; identifies constraints to equitable access to benefits and/or services for the poor; and examines the institutional assets existing in poor communities. Institutional analysis can also assist in the design of incentives which give existing groups in poor communities a stake in project objectives and outcomes and finally, IA lends insight into processes of social exclusion in cases where the 'rules of the game' are different for different actors; and where participation and entitlement also vary dramatically." See World Bank. *Glossary of key terms in social analysis*. <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTSOCIALDEVELOPMENT/EXTSOCIALANALYSIS/0,,contentMDK:20503079~menuPK:1231003~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:281314,00.html>

## Preliminary Analysis Of Crime And Disorder

The audit team must make a preliminary assessment of crime taking place in the city. It needs to determine the volume, incidence rate and trends, and the variations between different areas. Particular consideration should be given to the nature and scale of violence and the differential experiences of men and women, young and old, and ethno-cultural communities (Table 6).

In some cities much information about property offences (such as car theft or burglary) and certain forms of violence (such as robbery) can be obtained from police recorded crime data. Very often, though, such data is unreliable (see 15.2) and a victimisation survey may be the only way to obtain good information. This is however unlikely to shed light on other potentially significant problems. Only a small proportion of family violence and drug abuse, for example, will ever be reported. Similarly, problems such as crime against business and organised crime will not be adequately revealed.<sup>25</sup>

As part of the 'wide and shallow' analysis, such 'hidden' problems need to be explored through key informant interviews and other documentary evidence to assess their seriousness. Table 7 provides an indicative list of problems and potential key informants. Through discussions and consultations, individual cities may identify other topics that require investigation in this way. Should it not be possible to gather enough information to form a conclusion, further research should be conducted in Implementation Stage 2. Further guidance on the investigation of specific issues is provided in Part B.

## Victims And Offenders

Certain attributes put some people at much greater risk of victimisation than others, and this also increases the probability of repeat victimisation (see 15.2). For example, in some developed coun-

tries, young men are most at risk of experiencing violence in public places; women are most at risk of violence in the home; and older people with a disability are at greater risk of violence than other elders. The relevant attributes however will vary between countries and the audit needs to establish the situation locally (Table 8).

Involvement in offending is similarly affected by personal traits, experiences and individual backgrounds. In many countries, being male and adolescent increases risks considerably. Individuals who have dropped out of school, grown up in a violent home or in care, or who have associated with delinquent peers are more likely to offend. Developing a picture of the underlying causes and risk factors that have affected current known offenders is vital for targeting future preventive action.

## Appraising Risk Factors Associated With Victimisation And Offending

Implementation Stage 1 needs not only to establish the influences that may have put individuals at risk in the past, but should also examine the risk factors that put individuals, especially children and youth, at greater risk in the future. While these will not be constant across all cultures and countries, many risk factors appear applicable to societies in many parts of the world.

People living in certain neighbourhoods, notably those experiencing relative poverty or disadvantage, have higher risk scores than others. The same applies to individuals who grow up in care or in homes where a parent or sibling is violent. Victimisation can also be linked to offending; children who witness or experience violence are at higher risk of becoming violent themselves in later life. Understanding this distribution of risk is an important part of the audit since, to be cost effective, responses need to be targeted at those areas and populations that are most vulnerable (Table 9).

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<sup>25</sup> Organised crime refers to how criminal activities are 'managed', not to a specific offence. It applies to a group or gang adopting a business approach and employing others for continuing serious criminal acts for financial profit. They may be involved in human trafficking, drugs markets, sexual exploitation, racketeering, extortion, street begging and many other activities.

**Table 6****Crime and Disorder – Key Questions For Stage One**

Key questions	How to get answers
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 How much crime and disorder is occurring?</li> <li>2 What is the breakdown between violence and property crime?</li> <li>3 What are the most common offences and which are increasing most quickly?</li> <li>4 How high is fear of crime and who is most affected?</li> <li>5 In which neighbourhoods and commercial areas are crime rates highest?</li> </ol>	<p>Use police statistics where they are reliable and accessible. Elsewhere, agencies and community organisations may provide some data, but a victimisation survey will be the only option to acquire detailed figures about experience of crime and fear.</p> <p>Documents and key informant interviews can add explanatory information to the figures.</p>

**Table 7****Problems to Explore Through Key Informants In Stage One**

Problem	Key informants
Family violence and abuse <sup>26</sup>	Social, health and children’s services; family and women’s support groups; refuges; victim support organisations
Crimes of intolerance <sup>27</sup>	Minority interest groups, police, community organisations
Substance misuse and drug-related crime <sup>28</sup>	Health agencies, police, organisations supporting users, youth leaders
Crimes against business	Business interest groups, chambers of commerce, insurance companies, security companies, police
Organised crime	Police; community organisations and groups supporting illegal immigrants and sex workers; drugs agencies

<sup>26</sup> Interpretation of the term ‘family violence’ varies, but the WHO includes child maltreatment, intimate partner violence and elder abuse in this category.

<sup>27</sup> The term ‘crime of intolerance’ is used here to cover offences motivated by racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia, religion, belief or sexual orientation. It is sometimes referred to as ‘hate crime’.

<sup>28</sup> Drug-related crime is used to cover a wide range of offences including misuse of illegal substances, drug production, trafficking, drug-induced criminal behaviour and acquisitive crime to pay for drugs.

**Table 8****Victims And Offenders – Key Questions For Stage One**

Key questions	How to get answers
<p>Victims</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 What is the risk of victimisation and which groups have the highest rates (women, youth, elders and minorities)?</li> <li>2 Which groups are most at risk of violence?</li> <li>3 How serious are repeat victimisation and crimes of intolerance?</li> <li>4 How does victimisation vary across the city?</li> <li>5 What are the social, health and economic consequences of victimisation?</li> </ol>	<p>In some cities, police and other justice agencies are able to provide basic data about victims, but it is normally very limited. Victimisation surveys are needed to get a fuller picture. Specific surveys and consultations with young people will add their important perspectives. Victim support organisations may be able to make a qualitative contribution, but may not compile statistics.</p>
<p>Offenders</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>6 What is the profile of known offenders (age, gender, socio-economic status and ethnicity)?</li> <li>7 How does this vary with type of offence?</li> <li>8 How many are 'persistent' and in which neighbourhoods are they concentrated?</li> <li>9 What is known of their life experiences, health and education?</li> <li>10 How common is mental/physical illness and substance misuse among offenders?</li> </ol>	<p>Where well-developed data management systems exist, justice agencies may provide information about offenders, although this will only relate to those convicted, likely to be a small proportion of the total. Elsewhere, obtaining numerical information will be problematical and there will be more reliance on the views of agencies (eg corrections/probation) and civil society organisations working with offenders.</p>

**Table 9****Risk Factors – Key Questions For Stage One**

Key questions	How to get answers
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 How many children are growing up: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ in care</li> <li>■ with parents or siblings who are in conflict with the law or violent?</li> </ul> </li> <li>2 What is the scale of the following problems <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ truancy, exclusions and school failure</li> <li>■ poverty and deprivation</li> <li>■ homelessness and unemployment</li> <li>■ ill health, substance abuse and HIV/AIDs</li> <li>■ poor housing and environment?</li> </ul> </li> <li>3 Which areas of the city have the highest scores on the above indicators?</li> </ol>	<p>Various agencies, such as education and social services, may hold useful data. Where figures precisely matching the risk factors are unavailable, surrogate indicators – such as dependency on benefits or low income – may be used. Geographical information systems can help define areas and groups where multiple risks are concentrated. In the absence of any data from statistical sources or other reports, qualitative information will need to be gathered through key informant interviews.</p>

## Assessing Responses

The final component of Implementation Stage 1 involves determining whether there are in place adequate responses to the significant problems and risk factors that have been identified. Such responses may take many different forms including: special services provided by public agencies, such as healthcare and education, directed at the most vulnerable groups; effective neighbourhood policing in high crime areas; or the incorporation by the city council of CPTED principles in new building development.<sup>29</sup> There may be specific projects to tackle violence against women or to divert young people from drugs or to tackle commercial burglary. Clearly, in some cases crime prevention may not be the only or primary objective of what is being done, but an important consequence nevertheless (Table 10).

Assessing 'adequacy' requires making an informed judgement. The questions listed give rise to a number of subsidiary ones. Is the response well targeted? Is the service accessible to those that most need it? Does it have the required coverage and intensity?<sup>30</sup> Above all, is it having the desired outcome? Answers to these questions will identify key issues for the following Stages in the audit.

## 4.3 Stage Two: Narrow And Deep Investigation

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
The 'wide and shallow' analysis	'Narrow and deep' investigation	Identifying priorities and opportunities	Consulting and Communicating

Implementation Stage 2 involves gaining a better understanding of specific issues. This might be necessary either because insufficient information about them was obtainable during Stage 1 or because it became clear that they were significant issues that required more attention. A starting point should be to formulate a research plan that takes account of available time, personnel and financial resources.

The 'narrow and deep' investigation is likely to engage different stakeholders and employ different methods. There may be a need for one or more surveys to be carried out and there will be increased emphasis on both community participation and subject experts. It may be advantageous to set up working groups to examine particular areas or to outsource some of the enquiry to an appropriately skilled community organisations or local groups.

**Table 10**

### Assessing Current Responses – Key Questions For Stage One

Key questions	How to get answers
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 What is being done?</li> <li>2 How well is it working?</li> <li>3 Is it enough to make a difference?</li> <li>4 Are resources being used to best effect?</li> <li>5 Is there a need for more to be done?</li> </ol>	<p>Key informants will be the main source of information. The views of those involved as service providers need to be balanced with those of service users, those in need of services and independent experts.</p>

<sup>29</sup> CPTED (Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design) involves using planning, design and management of the built environment to reduce the causes of, and opportunities for, criminal activity and to address the fear of crime.

<sup>30</sup> The 'intensity' of a response, sometimes called 'dosage', is the amount that is delivered to one place or to one beneficiary. Interventions may not have any impact if the intensity is too low as a result of resources being spread too thinly.

The range of potential issues is large and will vary between cities. Investigations may focus on specific populations, specific problems or specific places. Several of the most important issues likely to require attention during Stage 2 are examined in more depth in Part B of this Guidance.

## 4.4 Stage Three: Identifying Priorities And Opportunities

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
The 'wide and shallow' analysis	'Narrow and deep' investigation	Identifying priorities and opportunities	Consulting and Communicating

### Identifying Priorities

A prevention strategy cannot address all the problems in a city. Concentrating scarce resources on a limited number of priorities will bring greater success than spreading them too thinly. Making this selection is a critical and difficult decision that needs to be taken by the Community Safety Steering Group.

But the audit must help it make that choice by providing the necessary information. Priorities may be formulated in several different ways – individual offences, specific locations, certain population groups or particular risk factors – and there should be explicit agreement about the criteria.<sup>31</sup> The criteria can then be used to shape questions that will help determine the most pressing issues, such as:

- What are the main **concerns** of local communities?<sup>32</sup>
- Tackling which problems would contribute most to **wider policy** priorities?
- For which issues are **resources** available?
- Which **risk factors** need to be addressed most urgently?
- Which problems have the greatest **impact on the disadvantaged** and vulnerable?
- Which **neighbourhoods** and **commercial areas** are most damaged by crime?
- Which crimes have the greatest **volume** and **incidence rate**?
- Which crime types show the highest **rate of increase**?

### Identifying Assets, Strengths And Opportunities

The audit must not only examine problems, but also highlight assets, strengths and opportunities that could provide platforms for the strategy. These may take many different forms, including:

- strong communities or interest groups that want – and have the capacity – to play a significant role in bringing about change
- successful projects and programmes delivered by civil society organisations, which could be extended to deliver more services
- agencies which recognise the links between what they do and crime prevention, and are keen to make a contribution
- government policies and legislation that give impetus to tackling certain problems
- funding programmes that offer resources for activities focussed on particular priorities.

<sup>31</sup> While it often follows that *responses* should also be targeted to maximise cost effectiveness, this is not always the case. In relation to preventing child maltreatment and youth violence, for example, outcome evaluation studies suggest that the greatest effects arise when prevention is concentrated on groups at highest risk of being involved in violence, as opposed to universal coverage. On the other hand, some interventions which show great promise affect the entire population, such as initiatives to reduce alcohol-related violence through pricing, taxation, liquor licensing and restrictions on sales practices that encourage binge drinking.

<sup>32</sup> It is important to recognise that local citizens do not always have an accurate perception of the actual situation, nor are their proposed responses always the most appropriate. See section 5 for further discussion of this issue.

Locating and highlighting these ‘positives’ provides an important counterbalance to the focus on problems that inevitably forms a major part of any audit. Building on them will increase the chances of preventive action being successful.

## 4.5 Stage Four: Consulting And Communicating

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
The ‘wide and shallow’ analysis	‘Narrow and deep’ investigation	Identifying priorities and opportunities	Consulting and Communicating

### Consultation

The findings from the audit should be shared with the many stakeholders who have contributed information or who want to know what has been discovered. They should also be given an opportunity to comment on the findings and validate its conclusions. This process needs to include the general public, local agencies and community organisations, as well as local politicians and the private sector. Communicating the findings to ‘hard-to reach’ groups and young people deserves particular attention.

The form of communication needs to be adapted to different audiences. There will certainly be a need for a summary of findings, possibly in multiple languages and formats, including a version for young people. Other options include the use of mass media, printed and broadcast, and local public meetings. In some cultures, presentations using stories, drama or pictures may be appropriate.

Whatever the method, the process will require careful management to avoid focusing attention only on the city’s problems, which can be damaging and demoralising. The communication needs to highlight some of the positive findings about strengths and successes, and to emphasise that the audit is a key step in making the city a safer place to live, work and visit.

### Disseminating The Findings

A detailed written report is likely to be the main product of the safety audit process. Whilst it will need to bring together the quantitative and qualitative material that has been assembled, it is vital that the report is not simply a compendium of that data. It needs to be an analysis that uses information collected to interpret and explain what is happening; to draw attention to problems, issues and trends relative to national averages or other cities; and to identify potential priorities and opportunities for preventive action. The report should also describe the consultation process, decisions made as a result of the consultation and how the audit’s conclusions are to be used. In other words, it needs to be action oriented.

## Safety Audit Report Template

<b>Introduction</b>	<p>Vision and objectives          Community Safety Steering Group          Research focus          Research methods and team          Arrangements for consultation on this report, including key questions</p>
<b>Summary of Key Findings</b>	<p>Main problems and concerns          Preventive activity, including services and projects          Available resources, strengths and capacities</p>
<b>Description of the Area</b>	<p>Socio-economic population profile          Physical and economic environment          Future development: significant trends</p>
<b>Community Safety Profile</b>	<p>Results from data gathering and analysis covering:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ nature, scale, trends and distribution of problems</li> <li>■ risk/causal factors</li> <li>■ impacts, including social consequences, fear and finance</li> <li>■ victim/target and offender profiles</li> </ul>
<b>Current Responses</b>	<p>Governance frameworks: relevant institutions and legislation          Policies and services addressing risk factors          Crime prevention projects          What is and isn't working well          Lessons learned and opportunities for development</p>
<b>Recommendations</b>	<p>Emerging priorities based on the evidence gathered          Key partners for future action          Resources and capacities</p>
<b>Future Action</b>	<p>Next steps: action planning          Timeframes          Leadership – who is responsible for what?</p>

Derived from Local Crime Prevention Toolkit developed by CSIR, South Africa.

# 5 A Participative Approach: Engaging Communities



## 5.1 What Is A Participative Approach And Why Is It Important?

A safety audit must be based on recognition that a city's population is made up of many different communities with different interests and the right to be included in the process. A participative approach means enabling and encouraging the participation of those communities. A commitment to this should be one of the principles underpinning not just the safety audit, but all work relating to the crime prevention strategy.

Involving communities meaningfully will improve the quality of audit results and the success of what follows (Table 11). In fact there will be multiple benefits from participation for both communities and agencies, including a better understanding of problems, the development of more appropriate responses and a higher level of community interest and ownership. Steering Groups should therefore aim to achieve the highest level of participation practicable.

Nevertheless, some caution is needed. Communities are not unfailingly correct in their assessment of problems or identification of responses. It is therefore always desirable to integrate community-based perspectives with 'external' technical analysis.

## 5.2 Which Groups Should Be Involved?

The term 'community' is most often applied to people who live in the same area and have a common stake in the future of their city or neighbourhood. But in the context of an audit and a participative approach, it should be used in a much wider sense to include 'communities of interest', that is groups of people who share any interest or attribute that gives them a particular perspective on crime or its prevention. That would include, for example, women, ethnic minorities, young people, homeless people and businesses.

Communities of interest are often strongly represented by civil society. They form the voluntary organisations and institutions in a city including charities, non-governmental organisations, community groups, women's organisations, faith-based organisations, professional associations, trades unions, self-help groups, business associations, coalitions, advocacy groups and many others. A participative approach will include engaging with representatives of such civil society bodies.

But in all cities there are also significant communities of interest that are not organised in this way. They include hard-to-reach groups who have limited contact with mainstream agencies. A participative approach will include finding ways to engage with these people, and this will require creativity and greater effort by the audit team (see 5.4).

A key challenge is to identify the relevant communities and determine how best to secure their participation. It is clearly not realistic or necessary for every community to be involved to the same extent at every Stage, but it is not possible to have fixed rules about who should be involved and when. Cities need to decide individually, taking into account the demographic structure, local circumstances and issues that emerge as the audit progresses (Table 12). A 'stakeholder analysis' can be a very useful tool in identifying those with a significant interest in gaining understanding of their potential roles and contributions.<sup>33</sup>

Of course, citizens and communities do not always fit into the tight classifications that stakeholders might devise. There are communities within communities and individuals are members of more than one. Existing frameworks and consultation arrangements might provide the basis for audit participation, but otherwise there is no substitute for dialogue, asking people what their expectations of a safety audit are and how they would like to participate.

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<sup>33</sup> See footnote <sup>13</sup>

**Table 11**

**Benefits of A Participative Approach**

To communities	To agencies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Provides a voice to local people and increased access to decision makers</li> <li>■ Develops a deeper understanding of the issues facing stakeholders</li> <li>■ Generates a sense of involvement in the problem solving process and an ownership of the issues</li> <li>■ Enables marginalised and hard-to-reach groups to be heard</li> <li>■ Encourages a sharing of responsibility in planning the delivery of services</li> <li>■ Leads to better outcomes, which more fully reflect aspirations of the affected community</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Creates opportunities for the community to contribute knowledge, expertise and ideas</li> <li>■ Helps service planners give users what they want and make better use of resources</li> <li>■ Helps set performance standards relevant to users' needs</li> <li>■ Fosters a partnership that enables the community to understand the problems and how they can help</li> <li>■ Can result in community involvement in audit and strategy implementation</li> <li>■ Symbolises stakeholder commitment to be open, accountable and put the community first</li> </ul>

**Table 12**

**Community Participation: Identification Criteria**

Communities can be identified by:	Key questions to consider:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Gender</li> <li>■ Age</li> <li>■ Disability</li> <li>■ Ethno-cultural identity</li> <li>■ Family circumstances</li> <li>■ Employment status</li> <li>■ Housing status</li> <li>■ Location</li> <li>■ Dependency</li> <li>■ Involvement in offending</li> <li>■ Prior victimisation</li> <li>.....and many other factors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>■ Is this community disproportionately affected by crime and victimisation?</li> <li>■ Are there distinctive cultural, ethnic or other social factors to consider?</li> <li>■ Are its members over-represented in the criminal justice system?</li> <li>■ Does the community suffer from higher than average risk factors?</li> <li>■ Will this community's representatives be able to significantly increase understanding?</li> <li>■ Would this group be interested in developing community solutions or delivering the audit?</li> </ul>

## 5.3 How Can A Participative Audit Be Implemented?

Each city needs to decide how to translate its commitment to a participative approach into practice. Rather than allowing it to develop on an *ad hoc* basis, it is sensible to agree an engagement plan setting out how communities will be involved. The *International Association for Public Participation* has developed a 'spectrum' of participation, which can be useful in developing such a plan. The spectrum has five levels – informing, consulting, involving, collaborating and empowering.<sup>34</sup> Moving along the spectrum increases the level of participation and communities' influence on decisions (Table 13). At the lowest level, agencies simply provide information. Higher levels involve greater participation and closer working. At the highest level, the public has delegated authority to take final decisions.

Different tools and techniques need to be used to implement a participative approach at each participation level (Table 14). Some, such as newsletters, may directly engage many individuals, but offer only one-way communication. Others, such as victimisation surveys, elicit information from a selected sample of people. Further along the spectrum, focus groups and joint workshops create opportunities for two-way interaction and collaboration.

In audit planning and Implementation Stage 1 the scale and scope of the tasks is considerable. It is sensible therefore to engage with *representatives* of civil society organisations that have citywide responsibilities and who can provide useful inputs based on a comprehensive understanding of relevant issues. That might include organisations that are focused on, for example, community regeneration, the welfare of young people or families, the interests of large minority groups or the support of poor people. However, there will inevitably be

**Table 13**  
Levels Of Community Participation

Level	Activity
1 Informing	One-way communication that includes sharing information, but affording communities no opportunity to exert influence.
2 Consulting	In addition to 'informing', inviting communities to contribute information, ideas or comment, but without any agency interaction or commitment to respond to what is submitted.
3 Involving	In addition to 'consulting', providing opportunities for community inputs to planning, implementing, interpreting and prioritising.
4 Collaborating	In addition to 'involving', working with communities jointly to develop plans, respond to community inputs and agree conclusions.
5 Empowering	In addition to 'collaborating', allowing communities to take final decisions about the way forward.

<sup>34</sup> <http://iap2.org>

much wider participation if it is decided that a victimisation survey is needed.

In Implementation Stage 2 there is more opportunity for participation of *individual citizens* (as well as organisations), who have a close personal interest or knowledge of the specific issues covered by the 'narrow and deep' studies. They could include, for example, the female residents of a particular neighbourhood; shopkeepers in a retail centre; children growing up in care; or an organisation concerned with exploitation of immigrant workers.

Community organisations might take responsibility for *delivery* of some of the audit activities, such as focus groups or outreach work, during this Stage.

A fully participative approach in Implementation Stages 3 and 4 would involve all communities in the selection of priorities and determining the content of the audit report, as well as the identification of assets and strengths on which future action might be based. The significant question is how much influence they have, in other words what level in the spectrum of participation is adopted.

**Table 14**  
**Techniques For Engaging Communities In Audit Planning And Implementation**

Level	1	2	3	4	5
Stage:	Informing	Consulting	Involving	Collaborating	Empowering
Planning	Community informed by newsletters, media coverage of audit plan	Civil society representatives submit inputs or comment on plans	Communities involved in the planning process	Community representatives are members of the planning group	Community representatives chair the Steering Group and agree plan
Stage 1: Wide and Shallow	Community informed by newsletters, media coverage of key statistics	Interviews with citywide civil society, written submissions, surveys	Interaction with communities to discuss issues and explore viewpoints	Communities actively involved in audit team	Community representatives decide which issues to study in Stage 3
Stage 2: Narrow and Deep	Community informed by newsletters, media coverage of detailed studies	Meetings with community groups, consultations, surveys.	Joint workshops to exchange ideas and discuss conclusions	Communities leading audit work in certain areas	Communities take lead in assessing significance of data collected.
Stage 3: Priorities and Opportunities	Community informed by newsletters, media coverage of emerging results	Comments on the analysed data and emerging priorities	Communities involved in prioritisation and assessing assets	Communities strongly influence selection of priorities	Communities decide priorities
Stage 4: Consulting and Communicating	Distribution of audit report with media coverage	Invited community feedback on audit report	Discussion of draft report before publication	Audit report written collaboratively and circulated for comment	Community representatives decide content of final report

Engaging children and youth is particularly important but poses distinctive challenges. Various approaches have been developed, including child and youth parliaments, youth forums, national and local youth councils, young advisors, participatory budgeting and children/youth participation in the management of local institutions. These result in many forms of involvement, such as conference participation, representation, research, campaigning, advocacy and project design.<sup>35</sup>

'Consulting' is likely to be a core activity in any audit and some of the ways this can be achieved are considered in greater depth in sections 16 and 17. First, however, attention is turned to the particular challenges of engaging the so-called 'hard-to-reach'. What will emerge is that a 'one size fits all' approach to participation will not work if you are going to capture the uniqueness and individuality of each community. Although a customised approach will add greater complexity and costs, the process will be more meaningful to the community and have better outcomes.<sup>36</sup>

### **Engaging the Chinese Community (UK)**

**Because a high proportion of the local Chinese population worked in local restaurants, consultations in a British city were held after midnight when families traditionally ate their meal and were available to discuss the issues related to the audit.**

## **5.4 Engaging Hard-To-Reach Groups**

The term 'hard-to-reach' is widely used to define groups of people who are not well represented by civil society and who have limited contact with mainstream agencies. This may be because of fears or suspicions, socio-economic deprivation, discrimination, cultural or ideological barriers, disabilities and distinctive needs, language barriers, age, size, lack of self-organisation or many other reasons. They may not be literally hard-to-reach but the term has come to include all groups that are marginalised or disempowered. There is always a risk that the needs of the hard-to-reach will be overlooked if deliberate action is not taken to involve them.

For every audit it will be necessary to identify relevant hard-to-reach groups and be proactive in encouraging their participation. Broad-brush data sources, such as recorded crime figures, will disguise the full extent of their experience of crime and, as they tend to include the most vulnerable and victimised, securing their involvement should be a priority. However, whether or not a particular group is hard-to-reach will depend on local circumstances. Homeless people, for example, may be effectively represented by civil society in one city but without a voice in another.

Groups which are relevant and hard-to-reach for the purposes of the audit might be:

- experiencing higher levels of victimisation or distinctive forms of victimisation compared to the general population
- disproportionately represented in the criminal justice system
- feeling particularly vulnerable or at risk

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<sup>35</sup> Arguments for greater participation of children and young people in decision making and models for achieving this are presented in UN-Habitat. *Youth, children and urban governance*. Global campaign on urban governance. Policy Dialogue Series 2. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2004. <http://www.unhabitat.org/pmss/getPage.asp?page=bookView&book=1810>

<sup>36</sup> A guide to community involvement in crime prevention has been published by the UK Home Office. Forrest S, Myhill A and Tilley N. *Practical lessons for involving the community in crime and disorder problem-solving*. Development and Practice Report 43. London: Home Office, 2005. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs05/dpr43.pdf>

- able to make significant contribution to the understanding of problems or development of effective responses

Work with hard-to-reach groups will be more successful if it is underpinned by the following principles and practice:

### Respect

All groups deserve respect and their individuality needs to be acknowledged throughout the process. This may manifest itself in culturally specific activities (see Rwanda case study in 17.2). Respect is especially important when consulting on sensitive issues with victims for whom experiences may be recent and upsetting.

### Trust

Effective participation relies on relationships built on trust. Trust can take time to achieve as hard-to-reach groups may misunderstand or distrust the purposes for which the information is required, as well as the authorities seeking it. The key to building trust is commitment to ensuring that their views are valued and acted on. Engagement should include feedback on audit findings and building their capacity to play a part in decision-making.

### Protocols

Protocols establish the terms under which the engagement takes place. They should be inclusive and owned by the group, providing a framework for the relationship. A protocol can take various forms, but it should include the purpose of any participation, the behaviour expected of participants and how information will be recorded and used. 'Ground' (ethical) rules' agreed by participants at the start of a process are a common form of protocol. They are often used in meetings with young people, written on large sheets of paper and visible throughout any dialogue.

## Auditing Crime Against Businesses in Ethnically Diverse Communities (Australia)<sup>37</sup>

Research has shown that crime experienced by businesses owned by ethnic minorities can differ from that experienced by other businesses. To investigate this issue in two 'ethnically-concentrated' communities Australia, face-to-face interviews were conducted with 337 small businesses in Vietnamese, Mandarin, Cantonese and English.

### Adaptation

'Conventional' approaches (meetings, surveys, etc) may be inappropriate with hard-to-reach groups. Engagement methods must be customised to specific circumstances. This could mean:

- using outreach activity to make contact with individuals in their settings on their terms, such as street interviews with homeless young people or those involved in sex work (see 17.2).
- avoiding the use of written material with individuals who have difficulty reading or writing.

### Interest

Once engaged it is essential to maximise the opportunity and keep the individual or group interested. The issues raised must strike a chord with their experiences. If the relevance is coupled with creative and imaginative techniques, participation will be more productive and sustained.

It should be recognised that the Audit Team may not be the best people to elicit views and experiences from hard-to-reach groups. Peers, trusted partners or intermediaries may be better placed to access the target group and establish an open dialogue.

<sup>37</sup> Taylor N. *Crime against businesses in two ethnically diverse communities*, Trends and Issues in Criminal Justice, 321. Canberra: Australian Institute for Criminology, 2006. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi2/tandi321.pdf>





**PART B:  
SPECIFIC ISSUES  
FOR AUDIT TEAMS**

## 6 Overview



Part B focuses on a range of issues that should be examined in every city. They relate to specific populations, specific problems and specific places, and are considered deserving of attention for a variety of reasons. Most are important, however, because they have the greatest impact on the vulnerable and weakest members of society, especially children, women and the socially excluded.

The range of issues presented is not intended to be comprehensive and patterns of victimisation are always complex. Young adult males, for example, are at much greater risk of homicide than equivalent age females or any other age/sex group; male infants are more at risk of severe physical violence, while female infants are more at risk of emotional violence; and girls are more likely than boys to be sexually abused. Nevertheless, the approaches outlined can be applied to other topics that the audit team wishes to research.

The problems considered are largely invisible to statutory services because victims are unable, unwilling, reluctant or too afraid to report their experiences. Sometimes those directly involved – including families and agencies – may not readily acknowledge that a problem exists. Relationships may exist between victims and offenders, and between victimisation and offending. There may be mistrust of the relevant authorities, who may themselves be implicated. And there are often multiple and complex causes linked to disadvantage, culture or historical factors, which can transcend international borders. This means that gaining understanding of such issues can be challenging. However, a good safety audit will address this task and the following sections outline how it can be approached.

As outlined previously, Implementation Stage 1 (see 4.2) should be used to acquire a citywide overview of the nature and scale of problems, as well as an understanding of likely causes or relevant risk factors. Any strategies that address the problem should be identified and an assessment made of current services and interventions. Critically important will be to come to a conclusion about their existence (whether there are any), their effectiveness (whether they are working well) and their adequacy (whether there is enough provision).

Available statistics and previous research should be examined, but the most valuable inputs in Stage 1 will come from key informants with specialist knowledge and experience. They will include representatives of agencies, organisations or professional groups who have a good citywide awareness. For example, a senior doctor from a city hospital emergency department may contribute valuable perspectives on alcohol-related violence across the city (see 11.4).

If it proves impossible to gain the required understanding in this way, or if it is concluded that the issue is not being effectively tackled, more detailed analysis will be necessary in Implementation Stage 2. This may involve conducting interviews, surveys or consultations, as well as site visits and other activities. The purpose may be to complete the citywide picture that is missing or, alternatively, to focus on particular population groups, problems or localities that have emerged as being of particular concern. In Stage 2, health sector inputs might come from individual general practitioners or community health workers. In the following sections, key questions relating to

each issue are listed. These are divided into two groups, those that should be asked in Stage 1 to gain the overview and those to be included in Stage 2, if further research is needed (in bold). The questions may not be easy to answer. Some demand factual or quantitative responses, but good statistics will often not be readily available, so informed estimates or 'surrogate' measures will have to be used.<sup>38</sup> Others are open-ended and require judgement about, for example the scale of a problem or the effectiveness of a response. In such cases, it will be advisable to 'triangulate' views from several sources in order to come to a conclusion.

Audit teams should not be discouraged if it proves impossible to answer some questions quickly or completely. They are provided to stimulate thinking, discussion and investigation. One outcome of the safety audit may be the identification of issues which could not be examined adequately during the process and which require a longer-term research investigation.

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<sup>38</sup> A surrogate measure is a substitute used when the measure actually required is impossible or difficult to obtain but which provides a good approximation or indication of it.

# 7 Children And Youth



## 7.1 Introduction

Serious victimisation of children and youth occurs in all countries and in many different settings: within the home and family, in alternative care settings, at school, in the community and at workplaces. The violence takes many forms, including bullying, physical punishment, sexual abuse, genital mutilation, forced labour and homicide. The most violent acts experienced by children and youth are often perpetrated by people who are part of their everyday lives: parents, schoolmates, teachers, employers, boyfriends or girlfriends and partners.

Certain childhood and adolescent experiences are also associated with later offending and substance misuse.<sup>39</sup> Across countries and cultures, there is much consistency in those 'risk factors' considered most influential and they have a cumulative effect. The more factors present in a young person's life, the greater the likelihood of that individual coming into conflict with the law.<sup>40</sup>

The linkage between early developmental experiences and the likelihood of later involvement in violence and crime makes it meaningful to address children and youth together. But youth violence is strongly driven by many factors in a young person's 'present' environment (eg weapon availability, alcohol, economic inequality, built environment, schooling and job opportunities), so it does also need to be given separate consideration.

### Violence In The Home And Family

**“Studies from many countries in all regions of the world suggest that up to 80 to 98% of children suffer physical punishment in their homes, with a third or more experiencing severe physical punishment resulting from the use of implements.”**

UN Study on Violence Against Children (2006)<sup>41</sup>

<sup>39</sup> They are also strongly linked to other adverse health risk behaviours (eg smoking, early initiation of sexual activity) and adverse health outcomes (eg chronic disease, depressive disorders, sexually transmitted disease) across the lifespan.

<sup>40</sup> See Appendix A for a typology of risk factors.

<sup>41</sup> UN. Report of the independent expert for the United Nations study on violence against children. General Assembly. Sixty first session. Item 62 (a) of the provisional agenda. A/61/299, 2006. <http://www.violencestudy.org/IMG/pdf/English-2-2.pdf>

Children and youth who suffer violence are doubly disadvantaged. They are not only victims, but that experience increases the probability that in later life they will be revictimised, be violent themselves and be drawn into a criminal career. In this way violence can be perpetuated across generations with young victims becoming violent offenders who in turn victimise their children, starting the cycle anew. Identifying and addressing child violence must be a priority if the cycle of violence and crime is to be broken.

Services and initiatives to prevent victimisation in the first instance, and early interventions to support children and youth who have been victimised, are essential to break this cycle. It requires action to counter the multiple risk factors.

Given the prevalence and strategic importance of these problems, as well as the fundamental rights of children to be protected, such interventions should be priorities in the prevention strategies of cities across the world. So it follows that an enquiry into matters relating to children and young people should be a core element of all safety audits. Two linked issues require investigation: actual victimisation and the risk factors associated with later problems.

To make the task more realistic and manageable, audit teams should focus on populations which research in many countries has shown are more likely to be exposed to multiple risks and to have experienced victimisation. Sometimes these are readily identified and located, such as children in care. However, identifying and assessing other groups, such as children in dysfunctional families and children who drop out of school, can be more difficult. Data about such risk factors, if collected at all, will be spread across diverse agencies and civil society organisations, while actual victimisation is likely to be 'hidden' and unrecorded.

The following sections give attention to some important lines of enquiry that the audit team should pursue. Any previous research reports will

### **Female Offenders (Australia)**

**In a survey of 470 incarcerated women, 63% reported that they had experienced sexual, physical or emotional abuse as a child, 60% mental health problems while growing up, 44% had grown up in families with alcohol problems and 26% in families with drug problems.**

**Key findings from the Drug Use Careers of Female Offenders Study (2004)<sup>42</sup>**

provide valuable information. However, if not available, key informant interviews and consultations that elicit informed qualitative assessments about the nature, scale and causes of problems, as well as current responses, are likely to be more insightful than incomplete official statistics.

## **7.2 Children And Youth At Risk In The Family**

Children and youth growing up in homes where parents or carers are violent, are offenders, are substance abusers, live chaotic lifestyles or exercise erratic discipline are at heightened risk of victimisation in the home. They are also at greater risk of being revictimised and more likely to become involved in offending in later life.

To assess the nature and scale of local problems, audit teams should consult representatives of social care services, who may maintain a register of 'at risk' children. Community health workers and doctors should also have good awareness of issues, as should family support and child welfare organisations. Faith group leaders and representatives of community organisations may make useful contributions. Any client feedback reports which may provide evidence of the effectiveness of existing services and programmes should be located. National surveys may be informative and, especially in developing countries, the local UNICEF office may hold useful information.<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>42</sup> Johnson H. *Key findings from the drug use careers of female offenders study*, Trends and Issues in Crime and Justice 289. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2004. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi2/tandi289.pdf>

<sup>43</sup> For further guidance and tools for use in epidemiological study and risk assessment, see World Health Organisation and the Society for Protection of Child Abuse and Neglect. Preventing child maltreatment: A guide to taking action and generating evidence. Geneva: WHO, 2006. [http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2006/9241594365\\_eng.pdf](http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2006/9241594365_eng.pdf)

### Key questions

- How many children and youth are 'at risk' because of their home situation?
- Are there effective systems for identifying children and youth at risk?
- What are the home circumstances that put them 'at risk'?
- Which neighbourhoods have disproportionate numbers of children 'at risk'?
- Is the problem associated with particular demographic groups?
- Which services and programmes are addressing the problems?
- To what extent are responses adequate and effective?
- Is there good multi-agency co-operation on this issue?
- What are the priorities for further action?

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Social care services
- Representatives of community health workers and doctors
- Civil society family support and child welfare organisations
- Faith group leaders
- Community organisations
- Client feedback reports on existing services and programmes

### Jail Inmates (USA)

'Local' jails in the USA typically house persons pending arraignment or trial and persons sentenced to short sentences. A survey of a representative sample of 7000 inmates found that 31% had grown up with a parent or guardian who abused alcohol or drugs, and 46% with a family member who had been incarcerated.

Profile of Jail Inmates (2002)<sup>44</sup>

## 7.3 Children And Youth Growing Up In Care And Leaving Care

IN many countries, children growing up in care are at greater risk of victimisation and offending than those growing up in family settings. But research suggests that it is not growing up in care per se that increases risk, rather that looked-after children already have a cluster of risk factors in their lives, such as early victimisation, lack of parental attachment and multiple placements. Once in care, they experience violence by young people, staff and others. Having left the care system, they are much more vulnerable to subsequent victimisation and offending for a variety of reasons, including lower educational attainment, lack of housing and being ill-prepared for employment.

Key sources of information will be representatives of social services and civil society organisations providing care. They should also be aware of support services available to those leaving care. The police, youth justice and other justice agencies should be consulted about the extent to which residential care is a risk factor for victimisation and/or offending.

Further investigation must include consultations with young people in care as well as offenders previously in care to increase understanding of the issues involved, and the responses they believe are needed to reduce risks. Community groups and other organisations working with disadvantaged young people should also have useful knowledge about problems and responses.

<sup>44</sup> Department of Justice: Bureau of Justice Statistics (US), Profile of jail inmates, 2002. Washington DC: DoJ, 2004. <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/abstract/pji02.htm>

## Growing Up In Care

By the year 2000, 2,885 of the 41,700 children born in Queensland (Australia) in 1983 had a substantiated notification of maltreatment. Placement of the child outside the home influenced the likelihood of a child offending by 2000. 26% of maltreated children who were placed outside the home subsequently offended at least once, compared with 13% of those who were never placed outside the home.<sup>45</sup>

In the UK, where 2% of the population has a history of institutional care, 27% of all prisoners and 40% of males in youth custody spent part of their childhood in care.<sup>46,47</sup>

In the USA, 12% of inmates in local jails lived in foster homes or institutions.

### Key questions

- How many young people are growing up in care institutions?
- Are particular 'home neighbourhoods' over-represented in this group?
- What proportion of youth/adult offenders are/were previously in care?
- **What is the demographic profile of victims and offenders who are or were in care?**
- **Is maltreatment occurring in institutions?**
- **What is the level of their literacy/numeracy and life skills on leaving care?**
- **What are the greatest risk factors confronting youth leaving care?**
- What services support youth leaving care?
- Are the support services effective and adequate?
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

### Key sources

- Statutory services and other organisations providing care
- Police and justice agencies (youth justice, corrections, courts)
- Children and youth in care
- Organisations supporting youth leaving care
- Offenders previously in care

## 7.4 Children And Youth In Conflict With The Law

This section deals with children under the age of criminal responsibility (which varies between countries) who have come to the attention of justice agencies and youth who are already involved with the youth justice system. Whilst involvement in troublesome behaviour is the usual reason for such children and youth coming to agency attention, a report to the UN has highlighted that violence against children in conflict with the law, is 'particularly widespread', but 'under-reported and under-recognised'. It occurs through routine harassment as well as during the process of arrest and periods of detention.<sup>48</sup>

Most children 'grow out' of troublesome behaviour without the need for any intervention. Nevertheless, the earlier a child gets into conflict with the law, and the more serious the cause of that contact, the more likely it is that s/he will go on to become a persistent or serious offender, if no effective intervention is made. Moreover, having entered the criminal justice system, and especially after a period in custody, the risks of continued offending appear to increase further in most developed countries.

<sup>45</sup> Stewart A, Dennison S and Waterson E. *Pathways from child maltreatment to juvenile offending*, Trends and Issues in Crime and Justice 241. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2002. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/ti241.pdf>

<sup>46</sup> Social Exclusion Unit (UK). *Reducing re-offending by ex-prisoners*. London: SEU, 2002. <http://www.socialexclusionunit.gov.uk/downloaddoc.asp?id=64>

<sup>47</sup> Rethinking Crime and Punishment. What you really need to know about criminal justice. 2003. [http://www.rethinking.org.uk/informed/pdf/need\\_to\\_know.pdf](http://www.rethinking.org.uk/informed/pdf/need_to_know.pdf)

<sup>48</sup> Non Governmental Organisations Advisory Panel for the UN Secretary-General's Study on Violence Against Children. *Violence against children in conflict with the law*. Geneva, 2005. [http://violencestudy.org/IMG/doc/VACICL\\_Summary\\_Report\\_final.doc](http://violencestudy.org/IMG/doc/VACICL_Summary_Report_final.doc)

## Early Delinquency, Early Drug Use And Later Offending

“The earlier the onset of offending, the greater the likelihood of serious and chronic future delinquency. Early onset offenders, as compared to later onset offenders, have a two to three times higher risk of becoming serious chronic offenders... Chronic delinquents tend to have had earlier ages of referral to the juvenile courts.... Most serious offenders begin delinquency before age 14 years, mostly during the elementary school age period...”

Report of the Study Group on Serious  
and Violent Juvenile Offenders<sup>49</sup>

“On average, regular violent juvenile offenders reported first using all substances at a younger age than regular juvenile property offenders.”

Report of Incarcerated Juvenile Offenders  
in Australia<sup>50</sup>

Early interventions targeted at children and youth who come into conflict with the law are vital to prevent them entering or penetrating deeper into the justice system, and to prevent further victimisation. A safety audit therefore needs to assess the nature and scale of this problem, the effectiveness of responses in place and gaps that need to be filled.

Attention clearly needs to be given to those already involved with the justice system, who may have been cautioned, given a community disposal or a custodial sentence. Equally important will be consideration of others for whom a justice system response is not an option because of their young age, and who need to be supported in different ways. Analysis of the backgrounds and circumstances that led to these children and youth coming into conflict with the law should also be used to inform earlier preventive action to stop children reaching that stage.

Relevant information should be obtained from the police, youth justice and social care agencies. However, for further insight, older young people should be consulted about the factors they perceive to be important influences on behaviour, as well as civil society organisations working for young people.

### Key questions

#### *Children Under The Age Of Criminal Responsibility*

- How many children are of concern to justice agencies?
- What activities bring them into conflict with the law?
- Is the problem associated with particular neighbourhoods or groups?
- What is the demographic profile of those involved?
- Which risk factors feature in their backgrounds?
- Is there a multi-agency strategy and are there services to respond to their needs and divert them from the justice system?
- Is the strategy well implemented, effective and adequate?
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

#### *Children Involved In The Justice System*

- How many young people are involved in the justice system?
- What is their demographic profile?
- Is the problem associated with particular neighbourhoods or groups?
- Which risk factors feature in their backgrounds?
- What activities bring them into conflict and how much is violence?
- To what extent is offending linked to substance misuse?
- **How many receive cautions and how many community disposals?**

<sup>49</sup> Cited in Loeber R and Farrington D (eds). *Child delinquents: development, intervention and service needs*. Thousand Oaks, London and New Delhi: Sage, 2001.

<sup>50</sup> Pritchard J and Payne J. *Alcohol, drugs and crime: a study of juveniles in detention*, Research and Public Policy Series 67. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2005. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/rpp/67/rpp67.pdf>

- How many are in custody or detention institutions?
- Do relevant agencies work well together for these young people?
- Is there a strategy and are there services to prevent reoffending and stop them entering further into the justice system?
- Is the strategy well implemented, effective and adequate?
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Police and youth justice
- Social care services and community organisations working for young people
- Older young people

## 7.5 Children And Youth In School

School is one of the main settings in which children can acquire knowledge and skills which will generally improve their lifetime outcomes and specifically reduce the risk of them coming into conflict with the law. As well as academic and cognitive skills, children may learn in school about responsible citizenship, inter-personal relationships and other life skills that affect their vulnerability and risk of getting into trouble. Children who do not attend school or who leave with poor basic skills and no qualifications are at greatly heightened risk of victimisation and of coming into conflict with the law.

Getting children to complete their basic education is far more cost effective than paying for the consequences of offending behaviour. Research shows that the 'ethos' of the school can be as powerful as the formal curriculum in influencing outcomes, especially for children from disadvantaged backgrounds or with lower academic ability. By valuing all forms of achievement; by developing positive relationships between pupils, staff and parents; and by providing a safe learning environment, schools can give all children the best chance to succeed.

School is often also where behavioural or other problems, which may interfere with learning and are linked to later offending, such as early aggression, manifest themselves or are first identified. Teachers are well positioned to help children and their families access any additional support needed. They therefore not only play a vital role in enabling children and youth to stay out of trouble in their own right, but also by working with other agencies.

However, for many children, school is where they are exposed to risk and experience victimisation, fear and a sense of exclusion or rejection. Violence – often in the form of bullying, but also as robbery or assault – occurs widely at primary and secondary levels, and frequently involves sexually – or racially-motivated aggression. Such acts are committed by and against both young people and staff and, in extreme cases, youth gangs have taken control of the school environment. It could be in school that children may first encounter illegal drugs and substance misuse often occurs on school sites. Schools are also targets for crimes such as arson, theft or vandalism committed against premises and facilities.

### Violence In School

**“Reporting on a wide range of developing countries, the Global School-based Health Survey recently found that between 20 – 65% of school-aged children reported having been verbally or physically bullied in the past 30 days. Bullying is also frequent in industrialised countries.”**

UN Study on Violence Against Children (2006)

## Key questions

- What proportion of youth complete secondary education?
- What proportion lack basic literacy/numeracy skills on leaving?
- Is there a mechanism for assessing pupil and staff safety in school?
- If so, how safe do pupils and teachers feel in schools?
- What is the level of truancy, suspensions and expulsions?
- What educational provision is made for excluded/expelled pupils?
- What is the nature of school violence and how prevalent is it?
- How widespread is substance misuse on school sites?
- Do all schools have anti-bullying policies?
- What other policies and initiatives exist to create safer schools?
- What current interventions involving education, police and health sectors exist, how well are they working and are they adequate?
- **What is the scale/cost of crime against school premises and facilities?**
- **How do problems vary between schools and where are they worst?**
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

## Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Representatives of education services and teachers
- Police and youth justice agencies
- Children and youth

As a result, children's education may be severely interrupted. Feeling fearful, victimised or rejected, they may truant or drop out. They may be suspended or excluded because of their behaviour, but there are many other reasons that may affect attendance, such as a problematic home environment, illness, financial difficulties or the need to care for a parent. Unless alternative educational provision is made, not being in school increases risks and can initiate a downward spiral into further trouble.

Assessing such school-related problems, identifying effective responses and focusing attention on issues requiring further intervention should therefore be a priority for all safety audits. Consultation with representatives of education services and teachers should be the starting point. Information about 'calls for service' from schools to the police and youth justice agencies should be sought. For more detailed information, young people should be engaged through surveys or consultations, and school safety audits should be organised to gain an insight at specific sites.<sup>51,52</sup> Training young people to undertake the research themselves could be considered.

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<sup>51</sup> For guidance on undertaking a school safety audit, see Galvin P. *The role of a school audit in preventing and minimising violence*. Chapter 2 in *Violence reduction in schools. How to make a difference*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Publishing, 2006.

<sup>52</sup> An online school security assessment tool developed by the Department for Education and Skills (UK) for education professionals can be found at <http://www.teachernet.gov.uk/emergencies/planning/security/index.html>

## Addressing Bullying In School

To assist Australian schools tackle the problem of bullying, the Australian Government has provided a checklist (reproduced below) against which schools can assess their responses.<sup>53</sup>

		Inadequately	Adequately	Outstanding
1	Acquired resources for educating the school, the childcare centre or the community about bullying			
2	Gathered facts about bullying at your school or childcare centre			
3	Developed policy by involving:			
	■ Staff			
	■ Children			
	■ Parents			
4	Produced an anti-bullying policy which:			
	■ Describes what bullying is			
	■ recognises the rights of individuals to be safe from being bullied			
	■ stresses the responsibility of everyone to help counter bullying			
	■ indicates how bullying incidents will, in general terms, be dealt with			
	■ has the support of school or centre and the community			
5	Discussed bullying with children			
6	Included work designed to counter bullying in the curriculum			
7	Supported victimised children			
8	Handled incidents of bullying			
9	Empowered children to take part in action to counter bullying			
10	Held constructive meetings with parents on issues of bullying			
11	Gauged the overall response of the school or centre to bullying			
12	Made plans to review the anti-bullying work			

This checklist enables you to make an assessment of how adequately your school or childcare centre has responded to the issue of bullying. You can check how well it has done against each of the items above. This list may also be useful when a centre is planning a response to bullying.

<sup>53</sup> Rigby K. *Bullying among young people*. Canberra: Australian Government Attorney-General's Department, 2003. [http://www.ag.gov.au/agd/WWW/rwpattach.nsf/VAP/\(1E76C1D5D1A37992F0B0C1C4DB87942E\)~Bullying+Teachers.pdf/\\$file/Bullying+Teachers.pdf](http://www.ag.gov.au/agd/WWW/rwpattach.nsf/VAP/(1E76C1D5D1A37992F0B0C1C4DB87942E)~Bullying+Teachers.pdf/$file/Bullying+Teachers.pdf)

## 7.6 Children And Youth Involved In Criminal Gangs And Organised Violence

Experts have great difficulty in reaching consensus about what constitutes a youth gang. But most definitions refer to or imply structured or semi-structured groups of young people who are involved in serious urban violence and other criminality.<sup>54</sup> Particularly disturbing is the number of children and adolescents who use knives or firearms in conflicts between rival factions, with security agencies or in the commission of other offences.

The COAV Project (Brazil) and International Study have highlighted a particularly disturbing dimension to this problem. This is the widespread involvement in countries not at war of children and youth in organised armed groups, which have some form of command structure and power over territory, local population or resources. Examples in Latin America cited by COAV include “*drug trade factions in territorial dispute (as in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil); organised criminal gangs in general (drug and arms traffickers and kidnappers); structured and armed youth gangs (‘maras’ and gangs in Honduras, El Salvador and Guatemala); armed ethnic groups; death squads and vigilante groups that execute criminals. The problem is also found in post-conflict regions where organised crime employs armed groups.*”<sup>55</sup>

### Defining Gangs

“Street gangs are groups of young people and young adults who band together to form a semi structured organisation, the primary purpose of which is to engage in planned and profitable criminal behaviour or organised violence against rival street gangs (for example, less visible but more permanent than other groups)”. (Australian Institute of Criminology)<sup>56</sup>

“Any durable street-orientated youth group whose involvement in illegal activity is part of their group identity”. (Eurogang Program)<sup>57</sup>

“A group of teens and young adults that hang out together and are involved in joint violent, illegal, or criminal activity. They generally give themselves a common name or symbol, and they often choose to wear a certain type of clothing or to display some other identifying item.” (US National Youth Violence Prevention Resource Center).<sup>58</sup>

Organised armed groups involving children and youth have been identified across the globe in developed and developing countries, including Nigeria, Northern Ireland and The Philippines, varying greatly in their membership and organisational arrangements. They exist for financial profit, for territorial supremacy, for ‘community protection’ or for political reasons, sometimes with support of local people, politicians or militia. They operate in neighbourhoods, in schools and commercial areas.

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<sup>54</sup> Bureau of Justice Assistance (US). *Addressing Community gang problems: A practical guide*. Monograph. Washington DC: Department of Justice: Office of Justice Programs, 1998. <http://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles/164273.pdf>

<sup>55</sup> COAV stands for ‘Children and Youth in Organised Armed Violence’. The Project was initiated in Brazil and led to an International Study involving ten countries. <http://www.coav.org.br>

<sup>56</sup> White R. *Understanding youth gangs*. Trends and Issues in Criminal Justice, 237. Canberra: Australian Institute for Criminology, 2002. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/ti237.pdf>

<sup>57</sup> <http://www.umsl.edu/~ccj/pdfs/05%20Use%20Request%20Form.pdf>

<sup>58</sup> <http://www.safeyouth.org/scripts/teens/gangs.asp>

Many studies have confirmed the loss of life and damage to communities that armed youth groups and other youth gangs can have. In Nicaragua, for example, almost half of all crimes and delinquent acts are attributed to youth gangs.<sup>59</sup> A survey in Denver (US) found that while only 14% of teens were gang members, they were responsible for committing 89% of serious violent crimes, while another US study concluded that youth gang members were 60 times more likely to be killed than the rest of the population.<sup>60</sup>

In the numerous cities severely affected by children and youth involved in organised armed violence or other youth gangs, action to curtail recruitment, shrink membership and reduce criminal activity is likely to be a core component of any prevention strategy. Due to the enormous variation in gang characteristics, local study to gain an understanding of membership, structures, activities and motivation is essential.

There are no easy routes to acquire such information, unless previous local research has been conducted. Any official statistics are likely to be of little value and the audit team will need to consult with key informants to build a qualitative overview during Implementation Stage 1. This should include consultation with representatives of the police, communities, schools and civil society organisations with knowledge of or involvement with gangs. To get a better understanding, consideration should also be given to the socio-economic context, especially income inequality, which can be a powerful driver for gang-related activity and organised violence.

If further investigation is needed in Implementation Stage 2, empirical research is likely to be necessary. This should include engagement with young people in schools and other settings to investigate gang recruitment and the 'drivers' of gang membership.

## National Youth Gang Center (US)<sup>61</sup>

The proliferation of gang problems in large and small cities, suburbs, and even rural areas over the last two decades led to the development of a comprehensive, coordinated response to America's gang problem by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP). The OJJDP response involves five major components, one of which is the implementation and operation of the National Youth Gang Center (NYGC). Its work includes:

- Assessment of the gang problem by analysis of data from law enforcement agencies and an annual National Youth Gang Survey
- Maintaining a database on gang-related news
- Supporting a gang-reduction programme in four neighbourhoods by providing technical assistance and training for communities
- Supporting a gang-free schools initiative based on the Comprehensive Gang Model by providing technical assistance and training for four sites.

## Key questions

- How many children and youth are members of criminal gangs?
- What is the demographic profile of gang members?
- What motivates children and youth to join a gang?
- Are gangs associated with particular neighbourhoods or groups?
- What is 'driving' gang activity (disaffection, profit, insecurity)?
- What is the nature of the criminality (especially violence/illicit drugs)?
- What proportion is involved in armed conflict?
- What is the victimisation rate among gang members?

<sup>59</sup> Rodgers D. *Youth gangs and violence in Latin America and the Caribbean: a literature survey*. LCR, Sustainable Development Working Paper 4. World Bank, 1999. <http://wbi0018.worldbank.org/LAC/LACInfoClient.nsf/d29684951174975c85256735007fef12/1e051e74b34f8253852567ed0060dde7?OpenDocument>

<sup>60</sup> Cited in Howell JC. *Youth gangs: an overview*. Washington DC: Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (US), 1998. <http://www.ncjrs.org/pdffiles/167249.pdf>

<sup>61</sup> <http://www.iir.com/nygc/maininfo.htm>

- How serious is the problem of gangs in schools?
- Is a strategy in place to tackle gang-related activities?
- Is the strategy well implemented, effective and adequate?
- **Which organisations are already engaged with existing gangs?**
- **What action is being taken to reduce recruitment?**
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Representatives of the police, communities, schools and civil society organisations
- Young people in schools and other settings

Violence against street children takes place by peers, members of the community, and sometimes by police and security guards. The UN reports that violence by police against street children – from verbal harassment and beatings to rape and other sexual violence, torture and “disappearance” – is a common theme and children from all regions report cruel and gratuitous violence by police for petty offences. At the extreme end of the scale are death squads and vigilante groups, who have been known to systematically murder street children.

Those who experience difficulty in finding work or who are picked up by adults when they first arrive in cities are particularly vulnerable. They may be forced into local illegal activities, such as carrying drugs, thievery, street crime, or prostitution, or trafficked for the same purpose. Their situation puts them at great risk of becoming involved in substance abuse, as well as contracting HIV/AIDS.

## 7.7 Street Children

Street children is an imprecise term applied to a very wide range of young people. It can include children and youth who are homeless; work on the streets but sleep at home; either do or do not have family contact; work in open-air markets; live on the streets with their families; or live in day or night shelters”.<sup>62</sup> UNICEF reports that “*the exact number of street children is impossible to quantify, but it is likely to number in the tens of millions or higher, some estimates place the figure as high as 100 million.*”<sup>63</sup> What is clear is that such children become vulnerable to many forms of violence, exploitation and abuse, and many resort to crime to survive.

It also needs to be recognised that street children are present in both developed and developing countries. However, identifying and assessing problems related to street children is particularly difficult because of their ‘invisibility’ compared to most children dealt with by public services. To audit this issue, statutory agencies involved in delivery of children’s services, as well as civil society organisations with a special interest in street children and related issues (eg homelessness), must be consulted. The support of relevant civil society organisations to consult street children about their experiences and priorities should be sought. The police and youth justice agencies who will have some knowledge of victimisation, offending and interpersonal violence should also be contacted.

<sup>62</sup> Consortium For Street Children. <http://www.streetchildren.org.uk>

<sup>63</sup> UNICEF. *The state of the world’s children 2006: Excluded and invisible: Street children*. UNICEF: 2006. <http://www.unicef.org/sowc06/profiles/street.php>

## Key questions

- How many street children are in the city?
- **Is the number increasing?**
- **What is their demographic profile?**
- In which areas do they sleep and work?
- Why are they 'on the street' and how do they survive?
- In what ways are they victimised or exploited?
- Which activities bring them into conflict with the law?
- Which organisations are engaged with street children?
- What services do they offer?
- How well are such interventions working and are they adequate?
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

## Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Statutory agencies involved in delivery of children's services
- Civil society organisations with a special interest in street children and related issues (eg homelessness)
- Street children
- Police and youth justice agencies

## Street Children In Bamako (Mali) and Accra (Ghana)

The Norwegian research institution, Fafo, has developed tools specifically for research into street children.<sup>64</sup> 'Respondent-driven sampling' and 'capture-recapture' sampling were used to identify and profile street children in Bamako (Mali) and Accra (Ghana) and assess the usefulness of these methods for such work. Capture-recapture was found to be a good sampling technique, but it requires some prior knowledge of the street children population and would be difficult to apply in a city with a large street children population. Respondent-driven sampling successfully provided an insight to the characteristics of the street children population. Both studies were necessarily undertaken in close collaboration with local organisations working with street children. The differences between the two cities emphasises the need for local study. In Bamako, for example, 96% were boys, while in Accra 75% were girls.

**Fafo Report On Identification Of Street Children (2005)<sup>65</sup>**

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<sup>64</sup> <http://www.fafo.no/indexenglish.htm>

<sup>65</sup> Anne Hatløy A and Huser A. *Identification of street children: Characteristics of street children in Bamako and Accra*. Fafo Report 474. Oslo: Fafo, 2005. <http://www.fafo.no/pub/rapp/474/474.pdf>

# 8 Interpersonal Violence



## 8.1 Introduction

Interpersonal violence includes various forms of violence and abuse that occur within known relationships and that cause physical, psychological or sexual harm. Two particular forms of interpersonal violence will be addressed below: violence by an intimate partner, and elder-based violence. Violence against children in a family context has already been addressed (See section 7).

## 8.2 Violence by Intimate Partners

One of the most common forms of violence against women is perpetrated by a husband or an intimate partner, which occurs in all countries and cuts across all social, economic, religious and cultural groups. In countries where it has been measured, it has been found to affect a significant proportion of the population. While intimate partner violence may be performed by women against men or between same-sex partners, this violence is overwhelmingly committed by men against their female partners. Additionally, men's violence

### Intimate Partner Violence

This term has been comprehensively defined by the World Health Organisation. It refers to any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm to those in the relationship. Such behaviour includes:

- Acts of physical aggression – such as slapping, hitting, kicking and beating.
- Psychological abuse – such as intimidation, constant belittling and humiliating.
- Forced intercourse and other forms of sexual coercion.
- Various controlling behaviours – such as isolating a person from their family and friends, monitoring their movements, and restricting their access to information or assistance.

WHO World Report on Violence and Health. (2002)<sup>66</sup>

<sup>66</sup> Krug E G, Dahlberg L L, Mercy J A, Zwi A B and R Lozano (eds), 2002, *World report on violence and health*. WHO: Geneva. See [http://www.who.int/violence\\_injury\\_prevention/violence/world\\_report/en/full\\_en.pdf](http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/world_report/en/full_en.pdf)

usually does much more damage than women's and women are more likely to experience repeated episodes of violence and to fear for their lives as a result of the abuse. Finally, women are much more likely to be injured and/or hospitalised and women are much more likely to be killed by their intimate partners.

Violence by intimate partners has a devastating impact with far-reaching consequences on individuals, their families and their communities. This can extend beyond the cessation of the abuse and affect the physical and mental health of women who lived with violent partners, and children who witnessed this violence.

### 8.3 Auditing Intimate Partner Violence

Where intimate partner violence is occurring, numerous factors – emotional involvement, economic dependency, concern for the well-being of children, culture, religion, and availability of support – contribute to crimes of this nature going unreported and certainly under-reported. For example, it is estimated that only about a third of intimate partner violence cases are reported in the US and UK notwithstanding concerted efforts to address this issue. In countries lacking comprehensive preventive and criminal justice responses, and given the many factors that operate against an individual who is experiencing such violence reporting it, the extent of under-reporting would be greater.

Departments and specialist organisations with mandates to prevent and to respond to spousal and other related forms of intimate partner violence such as violence within a dating relationship are best placed to contribute to an audit. These would include law enforcement agencies, health bodies (public health agencies, hospitals, family doctors), social services, and educational facilities whose counselling and health services would address these issues. Additionally, consultations with providers of more-generalised services to families may be a useful source of information, including community organisations that serve particular populations, such as immigrants and visible

minorities. Some data may be collected via a general victimisation survey, but willingness to report will be low. Purpose-designed surveys conducted in ways that give confidence and security to victims can be more revealing. In some societies, especially male-dominated ones, violence may be denied or considered 'normal'. In such situations opportunities and conditions must be created in which women and young people are empowered to speak.

#### **Intimate Partner Violence: A Global Problem**

“The percentage of women who had been assaulted by a partner in the previous 12 months varied from 3% or less among women in Australia, Canada and the United States to 27% of ever-partnered women (that is, women who have ever had an ongoing sexual partnership) in León, Nicaragua; 38% of currently married women in the Republic of Korea; and 52% of currently married Palestinian women in the West Bank and Gaza Strip. For many of these women, physical assault was not an isolated event but part of a continuing pattern of abusive behaviour.”

“Research suggests that physical violence in intimate relationships is often accompanied by psychological abuse, and in one-third to over one half of cases by sexual abuse. Among 613 women in Japan who had at any one time been abused, for example, 57% had suffered all three types of abuse – physical, psychological and sexual. Less than 10% of these women had experienced only physical abuse. Similarly, in Monterrey, Mexico, 52% of physically assaulted women had also been sexually abused by their partners.”

WHO World Report on Violence and Health (2002)

## Domestic Violence in Kawempe Division (Uganda)<sup>67</sup>

A variety of research methods was used to collect qualitative and quantitative data about domestic violence from more than 400 people. 315 community members took part in 32 focus groups; 91 questionnaires were completed with professionals and local leaders; and 15 interviews were conducted with key informants such as health care providers, teachers, family protection unit police officers and religious leaders. The research confirmed the severity of the problem:

- Domestic violence, mainly committed against women and children, was seen as a major problem.
- Over half of those surveyed knew more than 10 women with experience of domestic violence.
- The most frequent type of domestic violence reported was beating.
- Domestic violence was seen as damaging family relationships, inflicting economic costs on the family and causing reproductive health problems.
- Women attributed domestic violence to a lack of respect between partners and inequality between husbands and wives; men blamed provocation and the 'misbehaviour' of women and external factors such as poverty and alcohol.

### Key questions

- How many individuals are believed to experience intimate partner violence, and how does this compare with other cities?
- What form does the violence take (physical, sexual, psychological, economic)?
- What proportion of victims are women and what proportion men?
- Is the problem more serious in particular geographic areas in the city, in particular ethnic communities?
- Is there an appropriate and effective strategy in place to deal with this problem?
- **What factors cause or contribute to the violence?**

- What is the scale of repeat victimisation?
- Do responses address the needs of all groups the community?
- How could current responses be improved and what more needs to be done?

### Key sources

- Police, especially officers with relevant specialist responsibilities
- Family support services
- Family doctors and 'home visitors' (nurses, social workers, psychologists or paraprofessionals who make pre- and post-natal home visits to support parents and infants)
- Hospital emergency departments
- Teachers
- Housing services
- Representatives of faith groups or religious communities
- Criminal Justice agencies, including the courts and corrections services
- Organisations providing shelters, refuges, advice and other help to victims and witnesses
- Women's groups
- Community groups
- Income Support and Social Assistance

## 8.4 Elder Abuse

This phrase captures abuse of older people perpetrated by family members or others known to them, and occurs in their homes or those with whom they reside, and in institutional settings. Elder abuse may be a single or repeated act, or lack of appropriate action, occurring within any relationship where there is an expectation of trust which causes harm or distress to an older person.<sup>68</sup> Abuse against elders is known to take several forms which have been categorised by the World Health Organisation in its *World Report*

<sup>67</sup> *Domestic Violence Prevention Project*, Kampala, Uganda (2000). For more information, see <http://www.preventgbv africa.org/images/publications/reports/dvpoverview.pdf>

<sup>68</sup> This definition, developed by Action on Elder Abuse in the UK, was adopted by the International Network for the Prevention of Elder Abuse, and included in the World Health Organisation *World report on violence and health*, pp 126.

on *Violence and Health* based on work done particularly in Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States.<sup>69</sup>

Additionally, in an exploration of abuse against elders in traditional societies, a range of other practices were identified. These included the abandonment of widows and seizure of their property, accusations of witchcraft which result in women being driven from their homes or even murdered, and forced care of grandchildren.<sup>70</sup>

For a variety of reasons the various impacts of violence on individuals generally are exacerbated for elders. These include the aging process and physical and cognitive conditions that may interfere with sound decision-making and practically restrict the option of exiting the abusive situation. Their more advanced age may also hinder recovery.

#### Some terms defined

- **Physical abuse**  
The infliction of pain or injury, physical coercion, or physical or drug-induced restraint.
- **Psychological or emotional abuse**  
The infliction of mental anguish.
- **Financial or material abuse**  
The illegal or improper exploitation or use of funds or resources of the older person.
- **Sexual abuse**  
Non-consensual sexual contact of any kind with the older person.
- **Neglect**  
The refusal or failure to fulfil a caregiving obligation. This may or may not involve a conscious and intentional attempt to inflict physical or emotional distress on the older person.

## 8.5 Auditing Elder Abuse

Gaining an appreciation of the nature and extent of abuse against elders is warranted on several fronts: first and foremost, in respect of human rights; second, the believed universality of the issue based on its identification in developed countries where it has been the subject of research and government action; and reports and anecdotal evidence from developing countries.<sup>71</sup> There is also the demographic reality of a sharp increase in the older segment of the population in both developed and developing countries.

Auditing elder abuse poses challenges similar to those associated with auditing intimate partner violence, including the more invisible and private nature of the offending behaviour, dependency, isolation, and consequences of disclosure on the relationship and on the care of the elder. The level of advancement of developed countries in responding to elder abuse and the means employed vary considerably. Thus, accurate assessments of the nature and extent of the problem at a national level vary hugely, and it is quite likely that there will be no systematic breakdown of the information at the level of local government. As many developing nations are just becoming aware of the problem, such information is expected to be very limited. Additionally, the manner in which elder abuse in some traditional societies occurs and is entrenched as part of social customs, and not viewed as abuse, needs to be taken into account in assessing the nature and extent of the problem.

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<sup>69</sup> WHO *World report on violence and health*, pp 127.

<sup>70</sup> WHO *World report on violence and health*, pp 127-28.

<sup>71</sup> WHO *World report on violence and health*, pp 125.

### Key questions

- At the national, provincial/state levels, and local levels of government, what ministry or department, if any, is mandated to respond to the issues associated with elder abuse? Is there a non-governmental organisation at the national, provincial/state, or local level mandated to address elder abuse?
- What percentage of the population is considered 'senior'?
- How many individuals are believed to experience elder abuse within a family or extended family situation, and within an institutional setting?
- What form does the violence take (physical, sexual, psychological, economic)?
- What proportion of victims are women and what proportion men?
- Is the problem more serious in particular geographic areas of the city or with particular ethnic communities?
- Is there an appropriate and effective strategy in place to deal with this problem?

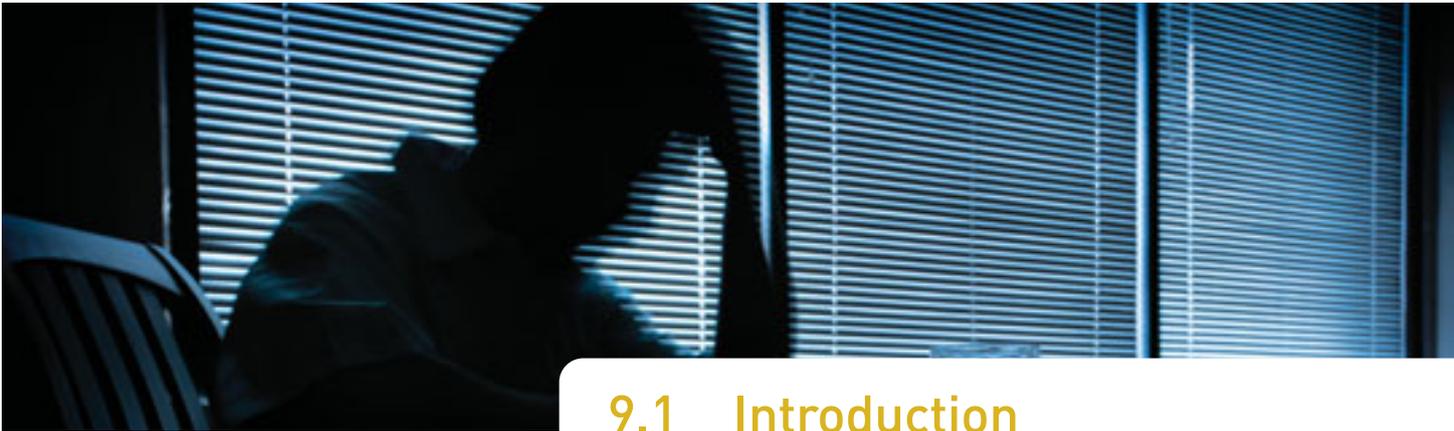
### Key sources

- Health and social services departments and non-governmental organisations working in these sectors
- Professional bodies (physicians, nurses, social workers)
- Any local agency specifically mandated to address elder abuse
- Services, including shelters and counselling, established to respond to intimate partner violence
- Safe houses for distinct populations that serve elders exclusively or elders as part of a broader group
- Local projects that respond to elder abuse particularly in countries or local communities where there is no social-health infrastructure to respond to this issue, but where a more institutionalised response is available in order to gain independent insight.

## 8.6 Additional Information Online

- 1 World Health Organisation (2004), *Preventing violence: a guide to implementing the recommendations of the world report on violence and health*. WHO: Geneva.  
<http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2004/9241592079.pdf>
- 2 Coordinated by HEUNI, the *International Violence Against Women Survey* is an international comparative survey focused on men's violence against women, especially domestic violence and sexual assault. Its objective is to assess the level of victimisation of women in a number of countries worldwide on a repeatable basis and provide inputs for the development of specific criminal justice approaches.  
See <http://www.heuni.fi/12859.htm>.
- 3 *Hot Peach Pages* is an international inventory of hotlines, shelters, refuges, crisis centres and women's organisations, searchable by country and with an index of domestic violence resources in over 70 languages.  
See <http://hotpeachpages.net>.

# 9 Offenders And Their Reintegration



## 9.1 Introduction

AS emphasised in numerous international instruments in relation to prevention, youth justice and corrections, successful reintegration of offenders is essential to prevent recidivism and to promote community safety.<sup>72</sup> The term social integration is often interpreted as the support extended to offenders who are re-entering the community after a period of incarceration, and it is this context that is applied here. It includes efforts begun while the offenders are in custody, continuing through the period of immediate transition into the community, and enduring until successful reintegration occurs.<sup>73</sup>

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<sup>72</sup> UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners (1957 and 1977), Rule 64; UN Basic Principles for the Treatment of Prisoners (1990), Principle 10; UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (1985), Rules 23 and 24; UN Minimum Rules for Non-Custodial Measures (1990), Rules 1.4, 17.2 and 22.1; European Rules on Community Sanctions and Measures, Rule 46; UN Guidelines on the Prevention of Crime (2002), Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention (1995).

<sup>73</sup> Griffiths, C.T., Dandurand, Y, and D. Murdoch. *The social reintegration of offenders and crime prevention*, International Centre for Criminal Law Reform, April 2007.

The *United Nations Guidelines on the Prevention of Crime (2002)*, in setting out the approaches to crime prevention, expressly include “those which prevent recidivism by assisting in the social reintegration of offenders and other preventative mechanisms”.<sup>74</sup> Several of these instruments speak of the development of mechanisms that enable integrated action between governmental and community-based organisations to establish the necessary linkages between services responsible for offenders, law enforcement, social development and welfare, health, housing, education, labour and the media.

As noted earlier (see 1.5), agencies involved in community corrections should be represented on the Community Safety Steering Group. As well, given the vital role that non-governmental organisations have played in support of offenders and their reintegration, it is envisioned that the larger Community Roundtable that provides a forum for wider participation would include representatives of organisations supporting offenders and their families.

For cities committed to a comprehensive prevention strategy, the audit should address offenders who are reintegrating and include measures to prevent recidivism for several reasons:

- Most persons who receive custodial sentences will return to the community with only a small percentage of incarcerated persons remaining so for the remainder of their lives
- A large proportion of crime is committed by persons released from prison who reoffend<sup>75</sup>
- The profiles of incarcerated persons often reveal disadvantage on a number of fronts including the following: a history of marginalisation and exclusion; skill deficits, lower levels of educational attainment, and lack of planning

and financial management; poor physical and mental health, including substance abuse issues; and personal experience of abuse and violence.

- The period of incarceration may have brought on several ‘collateral effects’<sup>76</sup>
- Offenders returning to their communities typically face numerous challenges, including finding employment and housing, financing immediate needs, overcoming institutionalisation, and accessing services and supports for their special needs.

Increasingly emphasis is being placed on designing comprehensive interventions to support offenders. These programmes are characterised by a continuum of support that begins while the offender is in custody and aims to address an individual’s specific issues and challenges, and then continues through transition to the community and beyond until successful reintegration has taken place

## 9.2 Auditing Reintegration Of Offenders

AS with any population or issue that is the subject of focus in an audit, emphasis should be placed on the most at risk and vulnerable groups, and this same principle should be applied to the population of persons being released from custody. Focus should be placed on the high and higher risk offenders. Additionally, persons who have terminated their custodial sentence and are believed to be associated with lesser crimes that have nevertheless been identified as a priority in the audit process may become the subject of focus.

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<sup>74</sup> Article 6(d) of the United Nations Guidelines on the Prevention of Crime (2002).

<sup>75</sup> Brown, R.E. and Y. Dandurand. *successful strategies that contribute to safer communities*, p.3 and T Makkai. *Prisoner reintegration post-release*. Paper and presentation prepared for the 16th UN Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice.

<sup>76</sup> Borzycki M. and T. Makkai. *Prisoner re-integration post-release*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, March 2007:10.

A safety audit should be used to identify the relationship between the high and highest risk offenders and specific crimes and vulnerable populations in a given city. It should also be used to explore – from a preventive perspective – the adequacy of support networks to assist youth and adult offenders in their reintegration and to identify which offender groups are experiencing the most difficulty and for what reasons.

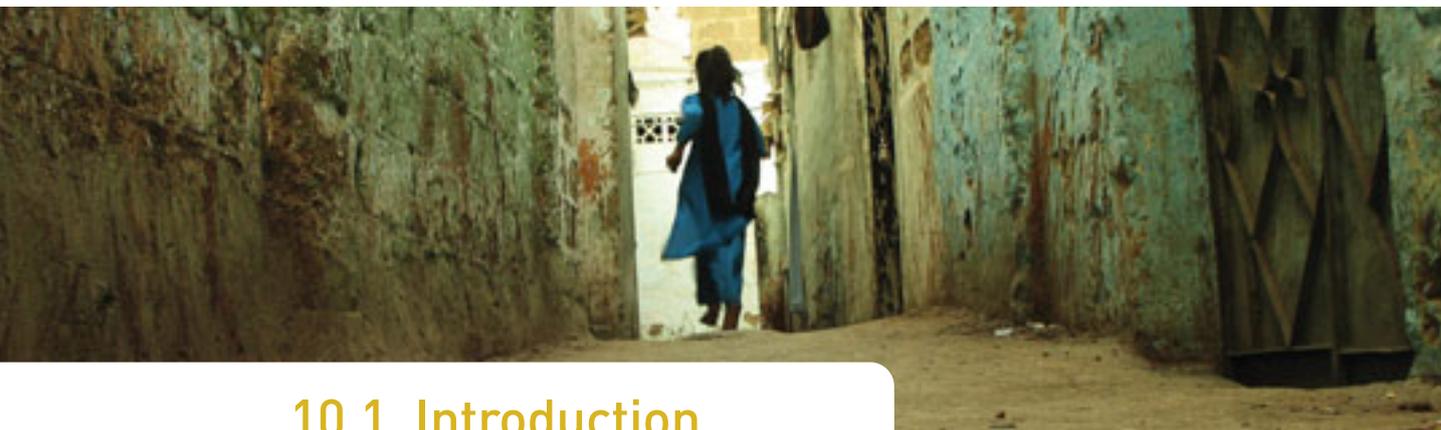
### Key questions

- Is there a mechanism in place to inform local authorities when high and higher risk offenders are released into a specific community to serve the remainder of their sentence or when this has expired?
- If there is such a mechanism, what preventive plan is in place with respect to the offenders designated to be high or higher risk offenders, and is it considered adequate?
- What are the approximate numbers of youthful and adult offenders returning to this community from a sentence of custody?
- What proportion of youth and adult offenders returning to the community would be considered to pose high risk in terms of committing a violent offence or other serious crime?
- What number of youth and adult offenders returning to the community are believed to be perpetrating offences that are considered particularly problematic in your community?

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- The national agency responsible for corrections and the counterpart at the local level
- Parole and probation agencies, as well as other state and non-governmental agencies, equipped to provide after-care and follow-up with offenders following release
- Law enforcement agencies
- Health agencies, in particular those providing mental health and substance abuse related services, and outpatient treatment services for particular populations such as sexual offenders
- Non-governmental organisations and groups, including faith and ethnicity-based groups supporting offenders and their families
- State and non-governmental agencies dealing with housing, employment and education for special needs populations

# 10 Trafficking In Persons



## 10.1 Introduction

Trafficking in human beings is a contemporary form of slavery often controlled by organised crime syndicates. It is known to occur in all countries of the world in different forms and at different levels, but it is a complex issue and until 2000 there was no internationally adopted definition. The *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children Supplementing the United Nations Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime*, provided the first universally adopted definition. The Protocol was signed in 2000, entered into force in December 2003 and has been ratified by over 100 countries.<sup>77</sup>

### Trafficking in Persons

“the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs”.

UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons (2000)

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<sup>77</sup> UNODC: *Protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons*. Vienna, 2000.

[http://www.unodc.org/unodc/crime\\_cicp\\_convention.html](http://www.unodc.org/unodc/crime_cicp_convention.html)

Trafficking should not be confused with smuggling, which is the facilitation of the illegal crossing of a State border for financial or other gain.

For an internationally agreed definition, see *Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air*. UNODC, Vienna, 2000.

[http://www.unodc.org/pdf/crime/a\\_res\\_55/res5525e.pdf](http://www.unodc.org/pdf/crime/a_res_55/res5525e.pdf)

Trafficked persons may *inter alia* be forced into:

- begging
- sex (such as prostitution or forced marriage)
- labour (such as mining, servitude or working in sweatshops)
- sport (such as camel jockeys)
- armed conflict (for example as child soldiers)
- organ removal (for sale or transplant).

They usually originate in less-developed poorer regions of the world and from the most vulnerable sections in society, such as runaways, refugees or displaced persons, especially in post-conflict and post-natural disaster situations. They may suffer from pre-existing addictions or mental illness, placing them at higher risk of exploitation. However, they may come from any social background, class or race.

Women and children form the majority of trafficked victims for the purposes of sexual exploitation. UNICEF has reported that as many as 1.2 million children are being trafficked every year into the global sex trade, forced labour or for other purposes. Men are at risk of being trafficked for unskilled work, predominantly involving hard labour. Escape is difficult and dangerous. Victims may be unable to speak the local language and their families at home may be threatened. They may lack official papers and fear law enforcement agencies.

Trafficking in human beings is a serious crime and a fundamental violation of the human rights of its victims. It contravenes international conventions, including the *Protocol* referred to above, as well as prohibitions that exist in international law. Given the horrendous long-term physical, mental and emotional consequences of trafficking, its detection and elimination should a priority wherever it occurs.

## 10.2 Auditing Trafficking

Audit teams may feel that this is not a problem that affects their city. However, the covert nature of trafficking, the powerlessness of the victims and their possible illegal status in a foreign country mean that it is often invisible to city agencies and the general population. It would be dangerous and often wrong to assume that it does not exist. According to a 2006 US Government report, 600-800,000 people are trafficked across international borders worldwide annually, and a high proportion of countries are implicated as source, transit or destination states, although levels of involvement vary greatly.<sup>78</sup> Many more are thought to be trafficked within national borders. According to the International Labour Organisation, forced labour, including sexual exploitation, generates US\$31bn annually (half of it in the industrialised world).<sup>79</sup> Without deliberate enquiry it may be impossible to establish the extent to which any individual city is implicated.

There is a significant role for communities and services to play at municipal level. That includes assessing the nature and scale of the problem, promoting awareness, assessing risks (especially to vulnerable people), playing a part in discouraging the demand that fosters exploitation that leads to trafficking and providing victim support. Such action will be much more effectively delivered if it is based on good information gathered and analysed through the audit process. Work at municipal level should be informed by agencies dealing with trafficking at the national level, whose activities will draw on international intelligence.

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<sup>78</sup> Department of State (US), *Trafficking in persons report*. Department of State, 2006.

<http://www.state.gov/documents/organization/66086.pdf>

<sup>79</sup> International Labour Office. *A global alliance against forced labour*. Geneva: ILO, 2005.

[http://www.ilo.org/dyn/declaris/DECLARATIONWEB.GLOBALREPORTSLIST?var\\_language=EN](http://www.ilo.org/dyn/declaris/DECLARATIONWEB.GLOBALREPORTSLIST?var_language=EN)

Trafficking reporting rates are very low for several reasons. Victims may be reluctant to disclose because of *inter alia* fear for their safety and that of their families; and experiences in their country of origin that leads them to mistrust authorities. They are also likely to find it difficult as a consequence of their isolation and language barriers. As such, police statistics may be of limited value in assessing the scale of this problem. Nevertheless, police and other law enforcement agencies (eg border control, customs, immigration) should be consulted as they may have intelligence, perceptions and other relevant information not included in official statistics. Additionally, it may be useful to 'revisit' other police records, such as those related to prostitution, domestic violence, abuse of children, commercial sexual exploitation, forcible confinement and extortion. These may relate to suspected trafficking cases that have been dealt with by other charges.

Beyond law enforcement statistics and information, there will need to be much greater reliance on qualitative data and informed opinion than in most other areas of enquiry, drawing on the state and civil society organisations (in destinations) that have the most contact with victims. They will include organisations that provide support to sex workers, refugees and asylum seekers, as well as those that have strong links with particular national, ethnic or cultural groups. Other public services, especially those dealing with child welfare, health and women's issues may also have experience in dealing with individual cases or knowledge gained through their contacts with local people.

### Key questions

- What is known about the nature and scale of trafficking at the national level? Is it an origin, destination and/or transit state?
- Is trafficking in human beings specifically addressed/defined in the national law and, if so, how?
- What is known about movement patterns for trafficked persons in the country (eg place of entry for foreign persons, destinations for foreign and domestic victims) and how are they transported?
- At the city level, what is known about the method of 'recruitment' of victims and the

nature and scale of trafficking (sexual exploitation, forced labour, organ removal)? If there is no information, can inferences be drawn from the national picture?

- How many local cases of actual or suspected human trafficking have there been in recent years?
- What is the profile of known victims (gender, age, ethnicity, origin) and what, if anything, caused them to leave 'home'?
- Have law enforcement agencies and service providers, including healthcare workers, received training in identifying and supporting trafficked victims? Have local healthcare personnel received training in identifying persons trafficked for organ removal?
- How is the problem being addressed and what organisations are able to offer support to victims? Are trafficked persons empowered (eg by providing assistance, protection, legal status) to become witnesses?
- Are responses, especially services for victims, appropriate, accessible and effective?
- **Who are the traffickers (gender, age, ethnicity, origin, crime links) and who controls the trafficked persons at their destination?**
- **Where are trafficked persons being held (eg private homes, apartments, hotels)?**
- **How are trafficked persons escaping and where are they showing up? How are trafficked persons being identified and by whom?**
- **In destinations, what is the profile of foreign prostitutes working in the city and who are their clients?**
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

### Key sources

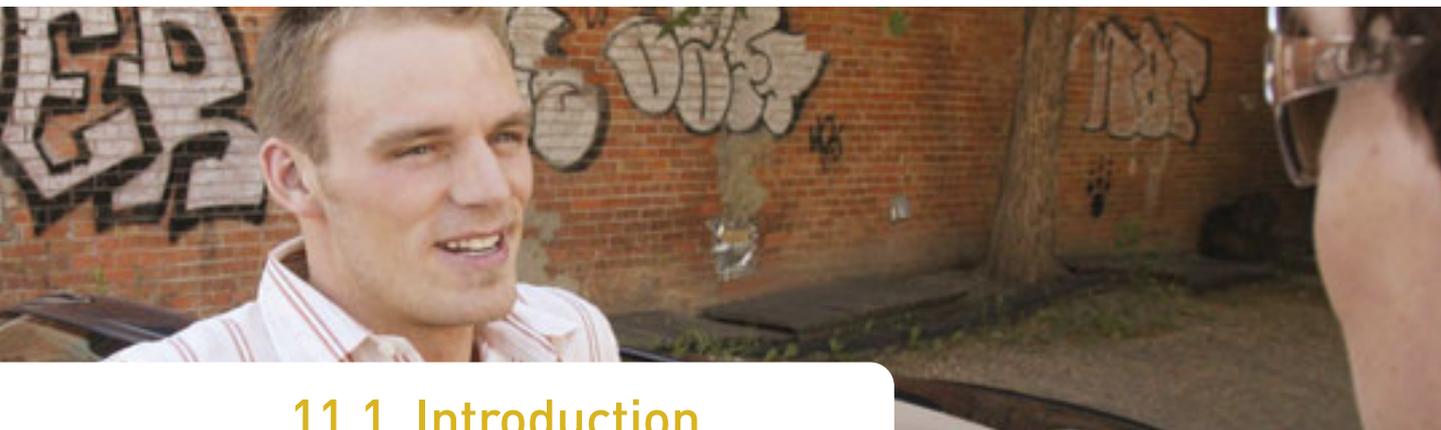
- Previous research reports (academic, government, NGOs)
- Newspapers
- Police and other law enforcement agencies (border control, customs and immigration)
- Justice agencies (prosecutions, corrections, courts)
- Health agencies, especially those providing services to sex workers and hospital emergency departments

- Victim services and victim/witness assistance programmes (such as women's shelters/refuges and sexual assault crisis centres)
- Family welfare and child protection services
- Women's advocacy groups
- Labour inspectorates
- Organisations supporting legal and illegal immigrants, asylum seekers or sex workers
- Community groups representing national, ethnic or cultural groups
- Faith-based community organisations
- Community humanitarian organisations and international humanitarian organisations with a local presence

## 10.3 Additional Information Online

- 1 In 2006 UNODC published *Trafficking in Persons: Global Patterns*. This draws together information from a range of sources to highlight trends concerning countries of origin, transit and destination.  
[http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/trafficking\\_human\\_beings.html](http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/trafficking_human_beings.html)
- 2 UNODC also published a toolkit in 2006 entitled *A Toolkit to Combat Trafficking in Persons*.  
[http://www.unodc.org/pdf/Trafficking\\_toolkit\\_Oct06.pdf](http://www.unodc.org/pdf/Trafficking_toolkit_Oct06.pdf)
- 3 The UNICRI *Action Programme Against Trafficking in Minors for Sexual Purposes* (due to end in August 2006) has a website that details organisations throughout the world that are fighting sexual exploitation of minors. It also reports on pilot programmes in Costa Rica, Thailand and Ukraine.  
<http://www.unicri.it/wwd/trafficking/minors/index.php>
- 4 *HumanTrafficking.org* is a web-based project to bring Government and NGOs in the East Asia and Pacific together to cooperate and learn from each other's experiences to combat human trafficking. The web site has country-specific information such as national laws and action plans and contact information for useful agencies. It also has a description of NGO activities in different countries and their contact details.  
See <http://www.humantrafficking.org>.
- 5 The *Coalition Against Trafficking in Women* is a non-governmental organisation founded in 1988. It sets up and supports anti-trafficking projects that address the links between prostitution and trafficking; challenge the demand for prostitution; and protects the women and children who are its victims. Its website contains a range of reports and resources for combating sexual exploitation.  
<http://www.catwinternational.org/index.php>
- 6 *Anti-Slavery International*, founded in 1839, works at local, national and international levels to eliminate of slavery around the world. Its web site has an extensive section on trafficking, including references to many reports and other resources.  
<http://www.antislavery.org>
- 7 The UK Home Office has developed a Toolkit specifically for local partnerships on Trafficking in People.  
<http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/toolkits/index.htm>

# 11 Alcohol, Illicit Drugs And Substance Abuse



## 11.1 Introduction

The problems associated with alcohol, illicit drugs and substance abuse are so widespread, and their consequences so destructive for individuals, families, communities and nations, that their investigation should be part of every safety audit. Although they may appear to be global problems requiring international action, it is also necessary to assess the problems and develop responses at a more local level. The following sections highlight important lines of enquiry to be explored in a city-wide safety audit.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) estimates that there are about 76 million people with diagnosable alcohol use disorders.<sup>80</sup> Alcohol abuse is problematic drinking that leads to poor health, social problems or both, and it is strongly linked to partner and child abuse. It impacts on a child's environment in many other social, psychological and economic ways, increasing the risk of him/her coming into conflict with the law. Consumption during pregnancy can result in foetal alcohol syndrome.

### **Harmful Alcohol Consumption By Perpetrators of Violence<sup>81</sup>**

In the USA, among victims that were able to report whether their attacker had been using alcohol, 35% believed the offender had been drinking.

In England and Wales, 50% of victims of interpersonal violence reported the perpetrator to be under the influence of alcohol at the time of assault.

In Russia, around three-quarters of individuals arrested for homicide had consumed alcohol shortly before the incident.

In South Africa, 44% of victims of interpersonal violence believed their attacker to have been under the influence of alcohol.

In Tianjin, China, a study of inmates found that 50% of assault offenders had been drinking alcohol prior to the incident.

<sup>80</sup> WHO. *Global status report on alcohol 2004*. Geneva: WHO, 2004.

[http://www.who.int/substance\\_abuse/publications/global\\_status\\_report\\_2004\\_overview.pdf](http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/publications/global_status_report_2004_overview.pdf)

<sup>81</sup> WHO. *Interpersonal violence and alcohol*. Policy Briefing. Who: Geneva, 2006.

[http://www.who.int/violence\\_injury\\_prevention/violence/orld\\_report/factsheets/pb\\_violencealcohol.pdf](http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/orld_report/factsheets/pb_violencealcohol.pdf)

Within communities, the consequences include family violence (domestic, child, elder), interpersonal violence in public places, traffic accidents, public disorder and workplace-related problems. Across countries for which information is available, it is estimated to be responsible for 26% of male and 16% of female 'disability-adjusted life years' lost through homicide. Being maltreated as a child is associated with a marked increase in the risk of hazardous or harmful drinking in later life.<sup>82</sup>

Illicit drugs include those produced or processed from plants (such as opium, morphine and heroin); those synthetically produced (such as amphetamine); and psychoactive pharmaceutical drugs that become illicit as a result of being diverted from licit applications. Their possession is by definition a crime, but perhaps more significantly, their use damages personal health and is linked to other problematic behaviour. Serious misuse can precipitate violence, abuse or neglect that affects partners and children, who grow up at greater risk of getting into trouble in later life. Use of illegal substances can impair ability to work, increase the likelihood of accidents and lead to offending to raise money for drugs. It may result in or strengthen contacts with others with criminal lifestyles, leading to greater involvement in crime.

Recent estimates suggest that 200 million people, or 5 per cent of the world's population aged 15-64, consumed illicit drugs during 2005.<sup>83</sup> The most dangerous, heroin and cocaine, are reportedly abused by 8 and 13 million people respectively. Both cause untold suffering and heroin is consistently ranked first in reports on abuse-related mortality and hospital emergencies. Their production and trade are detrimental to national economies and, therefore, to the social and political well-being of nations. The enormous profits made by drug trafficking organisations allow them to destabilise economies and institutions. There are well established links between trafficking and illegal arms sales.<sup>84</sup>

Although less widespread and less well-reported, volatile inhalants are also widely abused, especially by disadvantaged youth. They too have damaging effects on health and behaviour, and should be examined alongside the other problems.

## 11.2 An Integrated Multi-Agency Strategy

Action to tackle illegal drugs and substance misuse will be most effective when it is developed within a comprehensive strategy that aims to cut supply, prevent young people becoming misusers and reduce user demand. Such action needs the active participation and collaboration of multiple agencies and organisations, including those responsible for enforcement, education and treatment. Establishing whether such a strategy exists and whether it is working effectively should be the first task of the audit team.

### Key questions

- Does the city have a substance abuse prevention strategy?
- Does the strategy cover supply, demand and treatment?
- Are all relevant agencies active participants?
- Do agencies work well together and share information?
- Is the strategy well implemented, effective and adequate?
- **What are the priorities for further action at city and state/national levels?**

### Key sources

- Strategy documents and related reports
- Representatives of justice agencies
- Representatives of health and education services

<sup>82</sup> For more information, see WHO. *Fact sheets on interpersonal violence and alcohol*. WHO: Geneva, 2006.

[http://www.who.int/violence\\_injury\\_prevention/violence/world\\_report/factsheets/en/index.html](http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/world_report/factsheets/en/index.html)

<sup>83</sup> UNODC. 2006 *World drugs report*. Vienna: UNODC, 2006. [http://www.unodc.org/unodc/world\\_drug\\_report.html](http://www.unodc.org/unodc/world_drug_report.html)

<sup>84</sup> UN General Assembly. Special session on the World Drug problem, New York 8-10 June 1998, Fact Sheet 6. <http://www.un.org/ga/20special/presskit/themes/altdev-6.htm>

## 11.3 Helping Children And Youth Make The Right Decisions

The best outcome of any strategy is that it stops today's children from becoming tomorrow's drug users. This is most likely to be achieved with a programme that includes education, skills development and diversion, and much has been learned in recent years about the methods and tools that work well.

Although there will be variation between countries and cultures, research suggests that simply preaching 'drugs are harmful and must be avoided' is not the most effective approach. Young people and their families need credible, realistic information to make informed choices and protect themselves from the risks and dangers of drug misuse.

While education in the classroom is important, the influence of families, peers, other young people and role models is also considerable. This wider circle therefore, especially families, needs to have appropriate information and access to further help, if required. The right decision can be encouraged by providing constructive and enjoyable alternative activities, and by giving children the skills to resist temptation and peer pressure.

It is also clear that misuse is linked to other problems such as youth offending, truancy, family problems, living in disadvantaged communities and the availability of drugs. So prevention programmes will work best when targeted at the most vulnerable individuals and communities and delivered alongside programmes that address a wider agenda. Particularly important is recognition that tackling child maltreatment will reduce the risk of subsequent alcohol and illicit drug misuse.<sup>85</sup>

### Key questions

- Does the city have a strategy for preventing children and young people using illicit drugs and engaging in alcohol abuse?
- Does the strategy incorporate education, skills development and diversion?
- Do all schools have an appropriate drugs policy and are they committed to delivery of drugs education?
- Does the strategy target vulnerable neighbourhoods and children considered at higher risk?
- Is the significant role of families recognised in the strategy?
- Is the strategy well implemented, effective and adequate?
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Strategy documents and related reports
- Representatives of health and education services
- Organisations specialising in substance misuse
- Organisations providing diversionary activity programmes

## 11.4 Alcohol Abuse

Responses to alcohol abuse problems should include support for families as well as abusers. They will need to address the wider problems likely to have contributed to the abuse itself as well as its consequences. Particular attention should be given to abuse by children and youth. Gaining understanding of such issues will require collation of quantitative and qualitative information.<sup>86</sup>

Health agencies and service providers will be a key source. Hospital emergency departments and family doctors (general practitioners) will have

<sup>85</sup> For more information on the links between child maltreatment and alcohol/drug abuse, see the website of the Adverse Childhood Experiences Study. <http://www.acestudy.org>

<sup>86</sup> For comparative data on alcohol consumption by young people in more than 30 countries, see reports of the WHO. *Collaborative cross-national study of health behaviour in school-aged children*. <http://www.hbsc.org>

knowledge about the extent to which patient problems are linked to alcohol abuse. Health agencies, as well as civil society organisations, should also know about dependence, treatment services and other current responses. Police and town centre managers can advise on violence, 'street drinkers', illicit sources of alcohol, alcohol sales to under-age young people and alcohol-related disorder in public spaces. Young people, including those with problems, should be consulted about their understanding of the issues, problems and responses.

## Key questions

### General

- How serious is the problem of alcohol abuse – how many are affected?
- Where, when and how is alcohol abused?
- Are certain demographic groups and neighbourhoods more affected?
- What are the effects of the abuse (health, violence, other)?
- How effective and accessible are treatment and support services?
- **What are the priorities for further action?**

### Children and Youth

- How serious is the problem of under-age drinking?
- What is the pattern of alcohol use among young people and how serious is 'binge' drinking?
- How do they get their supplies of alcohol?
- Are effective and sufficient education programmes being delivered?
- Is there specialist support for young people with problems?
- Are responses effective and adequate?

## Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Hospital emergency departments
- Community health service representatives, including family doctors
- Civil society organisations providing support services
- Children and youth
- Police and magistrates
- Town centre managers

## Hospital Inputs To Safety Audits, Cardiff (UK)

Based in the School of Medicine at Cardiff University, the 'Violence Research Group' (VRG) brings together clinical academics with scientists from the University's psychology and business schools to research causes of violence, improve violence prevention and evaluate interventions. It specifically focuses on alcohol and drug-related issues and has played a major role in promoting closer cooperation between prevention practitioners and health services.

Researchers found that 85% of the 3,500 victims of violent crime treated each year at the University Hospital of Wales had injuries of the teeth, mouth, jaws and face, reflecting the anatomical target for blows in assault around the world. A substantial proportion of injuries requiring treatment – a majority of some offence types – did not appear in police records.

Information about the day/time and location of violence, weapon use and assailants was analysed, and shared. Health officials and consultants made inputs to Crime Reduction Partnership meetings and city licensing committees, resulting in greater understanding of problems and more effective interventions. The number of violent incidents in licensed premises and on the street dropped and there have been fewer injuries caused by bar glasses and bottles. The number of patients with injuries caused by violence dropped 30% over three years.

Further examples and advice can be found on the VRG website.

Cardiff University Violence And Society Research Group<sup>87</sup>

<sup>87</sup> <http://www.cardiff.ac.uk/dentistry/research/phacr/violence>

## 11.5 Use Of Illicit Drugs

Audit teams need to gather information on users, addicts, demand for treatment and the availability of services. Yet hard data about substance misuse is difficult to obtain, since very few incidents are officially reported or recorded. Health agencies will be important contributors. Voluntary organisations dedicated to drugs issues and user consultations will provide valuable community-based perspectives. Self-report surveys of young people and adults can generate quantitative data on usage, but have not been found effective in assessing problematic use. Justice agencies will have some knowledge of the association between drug use and offending.

### Alcohol and Violence Against Women

**‘the strongest risk factors for intimate partner physical violence are associated with the male’s behaviour – his drinking habits, general levels of aggression and his controlling behaviour’**

Women’s Experiences of Male Violence (2002)<sup>88</sup>

### Links Between Addiction And Robbery Rates (Australia)

Research shows that a steep rise in robbery between 1993 and 2000 in New South Wales was due, more than anything else, to the upward trend in heroin addiction. Every 10% increase in the number of heroin dependent people appears to have led to a 6.4% rise in robbery. A shortage of heroin particularly in Sydney from 2001 led to a sharp fall in the robbery rate in New South Wales.

New South Wales Bureau Of Crime Statistics and Research (2003)<sup>89</sup>

### Key questions

- How prevalent is the use of illicit drugs?
- What is the demographic profile of users?
- Which drugs are being used and how common is polydrug use?
- How serious is problematic use and what is its community impact?
- In which areas/neighbourhoods are problems most serious?
- What educational and information programmes are being delivered?
- What treatment services are available?
- What other programmes are working to reduce demand?
- What programmes exist to support affected families?
- Is the capacity of programmes and treatment services sufficient?
- Are responses informed by effective practice research?
- What are the priorities for further action?

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Health service providers
- Civil society organisations working on drugs issues
- User consultations
- Self-report surveys of young people and adults
- Justice agencies

<sup>88</sup> Mouzos J and Makkai T. *Women’s experiences of male violence*, Research and Public Policy Series 56. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2004. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/rpp/56/RPP56.pdf>

<sup>89</sup> Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research, New South Wales (Australia). *The Impact of heroin dependence on long term robbery trends*. 2003. Summary available at: [http://www.lawlink.nsw.gov.au/lawlink/bocsar/ll\\_bocsar.nsf/pages/bocsar\\_media101203](http://www.lawlink.nsw.gov.au/lawlink/bocsar/ll_bocsar.nsf/pages/bocsar_media101203)

## 11.6 Illicit Drug Production And Trafficking

Reducing the supply of illicit drugs is an essential component of the fight against abuse. The nature of the supply system will vary greatly, ranging from local networks distributing substances produced in domestic laboratories to international chains controlled by organised crime syndicates operating on a global scale. International 'trade' will inevitably require higher-level interventions by security agencies, but local partners can play a role in disrupting the activities of 'producers' as well as 'street level' dealers and 'middle market' distributors.

Police and justice agencies are likely to be the main holders of intelligence about drugs supply, although only limited information is likely to be made available to the audit team. Consultations with civil society organisations working with offenders may elicit insights to local markets. Previous research reports may be available.

### Key questions

- Which drugs are being trafficked in the city?
- What is the estimated scale of the business?
- Where, how and by whom are drugs sold and distributed?
- Where do the trafficked drugs come from?
- How are they brought into the city?
- What and how much is 'locally produced'?
- What links exist with organised crime gangs?
- What is being done to reduce supply?
- How effective is such action?
- What are the priorities for further intervention?

### Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Police and justice agencies
- Civil society organisations working with offenders

### Methamphetamine Laboratories (New Zealand)

The illegal manufacture and marketing of methamphetamine is big business in New Zealand, where it is known as 'P'. Some is imported from China but most is manufactured in clandestine domestic laboratories, putting communities at risk from toxic fumes.

Gangs once sworn enemies now work together because of the profits to be made. Although predominantly associated with motorcycle gangs, such as the Head Hunters, ethnic gangs, including the Mongrel Mob, have moved into the market.

New Zealand Police have issued guidance to help citizens identify laboratories in residential neighbourhoods. It identifies the following signs to look out for:

- Strange smells
- Fumes/vapour escaping from windows/ventilators
- Unusual activity and at unusual times
- Premises being used for purposes other than normal (eg garage not housing vehicles)
- Windows covered/sealed day and night
- Person acting as if under the influence of drugs
- Unusual erratic behaviour

New Zealand Police Safety Tips<sup>90</sup>

<sup>90</sup> <http://www.police.govt.nz/safety/meth.html>

# 12 Businesses And Crime



## 12.1 Introduction

Businesses are involved in crime and its prevention in several ways. They may be victims; they can facilitate or perpetrate crime; and they can play an active support role in deterring offending and the delivery of wider preventive programmes. Each of these deserves attention in the safety audit and is considered briefly below.

## 12.2 Businesses As Victims

Businesses are the victims of a wide range of criminal offences. These include property crimes, such as burglary, robbery, theft, fraud, forgery and vandalism, as well as violence against staff and customers through robbery, assault or harassment. They may also be the target of crimes of intolerance, extortion and corruption.

### **The Costs of Crime Against Business (England and Wales)**

The Home Office estimates that 44% of the total cost of crime (£60 billion) is suffered by business and other organisations and that the annual cost of fraud is £14 billion.

The Economic and Social Costs of Crime (2000)<sup>91</sup>

Research in some countries indicates that business victimisation can be severe. Commercial victimisation surveys in Australia and the UK, for example, have shown that burglary rates can be higher than for private households. Problems are extremely unevenly spread with a small proportion of enterprises and premises accounting for a high proportion of incidents. The pattern of repeat victimisation is stronger in some sectors than for personal crime.

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<sup>91</sup> Home Office (UK). The economic and social costs of crime. Home Office Research Study 217, London: Home Office, 2000. [www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs/hors217.pdf](http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs/hors217.pdf)

Whilst business crime is perpetrated at an international scale by organised syndicates, much offending is locally based. In some countries and sectors, such as retailing, there is evidence that 'internal' losses – that is crime committed by staff – is as significant as 'external' losses – crime committed by customers and others.

Although there may be a view that businesses should be expected to sort out their own problems, there are several reasons why audit teams should examine this issue.

- Businesses are part of the community and crimes against businesses do not just affect commercial concerns. Workplace violence directly affects staff and their families. Financial losses have an impact on jobs and the costs are passed on to customers.
- Criminals are known to change their targets and may commit offences against both commercial and personal victims, so it makes sense to look at them together.
- Victimization has the greatest impact on poorer businesses, not only because of higher victimisation but because they have no insurance and few resources to reduce risks.

Businesses can play a significant role in community crime prevention, which they are more likely to do if they feel that their problems are also on the agenda.

## 12.3 Businesses As Facilitators Or Perpetrators of Crime

Through poor management or inappropriate practices businesses may – knowingly or unwittingly – facilitate offending. In entertainment zones, for example, alcohol-related disorder, drug trafficking or sexual exploitation of children may occur on licensed premises. Irresponsible sales of firearms or knives can increase the risk of violence. Poor security in car parks at shopping malls can increase the vulnerability of visitors to robbery or vehicle crime.

### **Stolen Goods Markets (Australia)**

Researchers in the Australian Capital Territory interviewed 46 offenders and 15 second hand dealers as part of an investigation into what happens to stolen goods after they have been stolen. Selling it to businesses was found to be one of the most common disposal methods.

A variety of legitimate businesses, including “corner stores” as well as shops in the centre of Canberra, accepted stolen property and offenders were reportedly familiar with a network of outlets that could be used.

While this pointed to ‘legitimate’ businesses fronting illegal activities, it may be employed individuals who sell items for personal gain, rather than the businesses themselves being used to dispose of stolen property.

#### **The Stolen Property Market in ACT (2002)<sup>92</sup>**

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<sup>92</sup> Nelson D, Collins L and Gant N (2002). *The stolen property market in the Australian Capital Territory*. A report prepared by the Australian Institute of Criminology for the ACT Department of Justice and Community Safety, October 2002. [http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/reports/act\\_stolen\\_property.pdf](http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/reports/act_stolen_property.pdf)

Private sector enterprises may also be used for the perpetration of crime by their owners or staff. Offences range from relatively straightforward customer fraud at a local level to complex international financial transactions that aim to circumvent national law. Apparently legitimate businesses may be used for the sale of stolen property or to 'launder' the proceeds of crime. They may conceal or promote illegal gambling and prostitution, while details collected from customers, such as credit card information, is used to commit fraud or theft.

## 12.4 Businesses Detering Crime And Supporting Prevention

Conversely, good management and responsible practices can make a significant contribution to the preventive effort. By taking appropriate action to protect staff and customers, as well as by securing their premises and goods, businesses can reduce victimisation directly linked to their own activities.

They can also play a role in crime prevention that is less obviously related to their commercial interests. This might involve supporting a local partnership, particular communities or individual initiatives. Contributions may be in the form of funding, staff time, technical advice, access to facilities or other assistance. Their motives may be charitable, but there may also be a business benefit in the form of good public relations, protection of a customer base or marketing opportunities.

## Businesses as Partners in Crime Prevention (South Africa)

**"The business sector could make a valuable contribution in supporting Government in combating crime and the causes of crime by the transfer of knowledge and the development of skills and capacity through a public- private partnership."**

President Nelson Mandela (1996)<sup>93</sup>

## 12.5 Auditing Business Involvement In Crime And Prevention

Police recorded crime data will include some statistics relating to business victimisation. It will be important to analyse these but they are likely to seriously understate the true scale of the problem. For various reasons businesses often do not report their problems and sometimes police statistics do not distinguish offences against businesses from other crimes.

A victimisation survey of commercial enterprises can generate valuable data, although it may be difficult to get a high response rate. Less specific information may be obtained from representative bodies, such as Retail Associations or Chambers of Commerce. Other sources to explore include insurance companies and the private security industry.

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<sup>93</sup> Quoted in *South Africa – The Good News* (online newsletter), 3 February 2006. [www.sagoodnews.za](http://www.sagoodnews.za)

Statistical information about the role of the private sector as crime enablers, deterrents or perpetrators is likely to be much more difficult to obtain, so there will need to be greater reliance on qualitative information. Justice agency representatives, especially the police, as well as community organisations and town centre managers should be consulted to obtain their perceptions of the situation. Businesses themselves and their representative bodies, such as chambers of commerce or trade, should also be invited to contribute.

Caution is needed in interpreting information collected. Small businesses or those in the informal economy may be the most vulnerable and victimised but the least able to provide 'hard' data.<sup>94</sup> They can be more difficult to survey and have less influence than larger enterprises in setting the agenda. More generally, potential sources may be reluctant to reveal details of victimisation and losses because it is commercially sensitive.

## Key questions

- What are the main forms of business victimisation and in which parts of the city is it most problematic?
- To what extent do businesses – through management and responsible practices – deter or facilitate crime by others?
- What is known about businesses as perpetrators of crime?
- What prevention initiatives are in operation and are they effective?
- What role do businesses play in crime prevention at city level?
- **How prevalent is violence against staff and how does it happen?**
- **How much does crime cost business?**
- **Who is committing the crime (staff, gangs, youth)?**
- **How does business crime impact on the wider population and economy?**
- **How is business responding and how could responses be improved?**

## Key sources

- Police and other justice agencies (corrections, courts)
- Organisations representing the private sector, including chambers of commerce or trade
- Community organisations
- Proprietors and staff of individual businesses
- Insurers
- Providers of security services
- Town centre managers
- Managers of shopping centres, industrial parks or other commercial areas
- Private landlords

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<sup>94</sup> Mayhew P and Taylor N. *Financial and psychological costs of crime for small retail businesses*, Trends and Issues in Crime and Justice 229. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2002. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/ti229.pdf>

# 13 High Crime Neighbourhoods



## 13.1 Introduction

Crime, disorder and insecurity are never evenly distributed. Every city has commercial and residential areas which experience higher levels of offending and victimisation, while others remain relatively safe. Problems can be highly concentrated spatially with as much as 50% of recorded crime occurring in 10% of the area and the most problematic neighbourhoods possibly having crime rates four or more times higher than the city average.

Typically, these neighbourhoods are characterised by high levels of property crime and violence, drug dealing and disorder, repeat victimisation (see 15.2) and fear of crime. But they are also likely to be amongst the most disadvantaged in other respects, suffering a range of social, economic and environmental problems. Often a vicious circle exists in which neighbourhood deprivation fuels insecurity and insecurity stands in the way of urban regeneration.

Living with a persistently high crime rate, therefore, does not just seriously damage the health, prosperity and general quality of life of individual citizens, serious though that is. It affects the current and future well being of communities as a whole. Because of the complexity and severity of problems, such neighbourhoods tend to be resistant to change and enduring. For this reason, and recognising that the populations of such neighbourhoods are likely to be poor and have limited resources, they deserve special attention in the development of a city's crime prevention strategy.

In these areas crime prevention should be part of a comprehensive and coordinated strategy that addresses the spectrum of problems that exists. These may include poverty, school failure, family breakdown, unemployment, poor housing, poor services, dereliction, lack of leisure facilities and a struggling commercial sector. Experience suggests that addressing any one area in isolation is unlikely to achieve sustainable improvement.

## 13.2 Auditing High Crime Neighbourhoods

Implementation Stage 1 of a safety audit should be used to identify those neighbourhoods that are experiencing high rates of crime and establish whether an effective strategy is being implemented there (see 4.2). If this points to a need for further analysis, attention should be focused on those specific neighbourhoods during Implementation Stage 2. As indicated above, however, it is not only unwise but probably impossible in high crime neighbourhoods to consider issues relating to safety and security in isolation. Problems are intertwined and need to be examined and addressed together. Only with concerted action can real progress be made.

During Implementation Stage 2, engaging effectively with the community will be vital. Consideration should be given to establishing a neighbourhood-based group or committee to manage or oversee the exercise. It might best be led by a respected community organisation concerned with the general well being of the neighbourhood. However, the group should also include representatives of significant interests, such as ethno-cultural minorities, women, children and faith groups. The potential membership should also cover agencies (such as social services), institutions (such as schools), service providers (such as social care or transport) and private sector interests (such as retailers).

A community visioning exercise can set the agenda for more focused research (see 17.3). Visioning gives residents the opportunity to say how they would like their neighbourhood to be and that helps establish what things need to change. Differences between the aspirations of different groups can be identified and consideration given to how these might be reconciled.

The visioning results can be used to inform more systematic enquiries. Surveys or consultations with different interest groups (eg adult residents, young

### **The New Deal For Communities Programme (England)<sup>95</sup>**

Announced in 1998, the NDC Programme is a key component of the UK government's National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal. Focused on 39 of the most deprived neighbourhoods (averaging 10,000 population), it aims to reduce multiple deprivation and close the gap between those areas and the rest of the country. The overall Programme budget is around £2 billion over 10 years.

In each neighbourhood, a NDC partnership brings together the community, local agencies and service providers to develop and implement a programme to improve health and education; reduce unemployment; raise the standard of housing and the physical environment; and cut crime.

The first practical task involved research and consultation to inform development of delivery plans. This was a 'disciplined, step by step approach': and typically lasted about nine months. A vital element of this was collection of baseline data about the neighbourhood to identify key problems and potential solutions, along with resources to deliver these improvements/outcomes.

people and businesses) will give them each a voice (see 16.2). Issues of particular concern to women should be explored through a specific women's safety audit. 'Walkabouts' can be used to identify and examine locations where people feel most fearful (see 17.3). Outreach work may be necessary to engage with 'hard-to-reach' groups, whose perspectives may not be well represented through other channels. If useful statistics are available, agency data should be collated to add to the profile of crime and risk

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<sup>95</sup> <http://www.neighbourhood.gov.uk/page.asp?id=617>

factors. Agency representatives responsible for services to the particular neighbourhood should also be included in the consultative process.

Such contacts should not be used simply to examine problems or concerns. They provide an important opportunity to highlight what is good about the neighbourhood, which services are working well, what its assets are and what local people want to see happen. Equally important is the need to counter any 'labelling' or stigmatisation of a neighbourhood that could be reinforced by an audit that focused only on the negatives. As far as is possible, it should be used to give residents confidence that issues will be addressed, as well as a sense of involvement and ownership of the way forward.

**Figure 3**  
Community Engagement In Neighbourhood Safety Audits In Saskatoon, Canada



## Key questions

- Which neighbourhoods have the most serious crime problems?
- Does each have a comprehensive coordinated strategy?
- Are strategies well implemented, effective and adequate?

### *In each high crime neighbourhood needing further analysis*

- What are the community's greatest concerns?
- How do the problems impact on different groups (women, youth and minorities)?
- Are there locations where people feel particularly unsafe?
- How can the level of crime and insecurity be explained?
- What other non-crime problems affect the neighbourhood?
- What is the community's vision for the future?
- How well are agencies delivering basic public services (policing, family support, health)?
- Do agencies exchange information and work effectively in partnership?
- What is being done specifically to tackle the problems?
- Are appropriate interventions directed at vulnerable individuals and families?
- Which services and interventions are working well and which are not?
- What are the assets and strengths on which to build?
- What are the communities' priorities for further action?

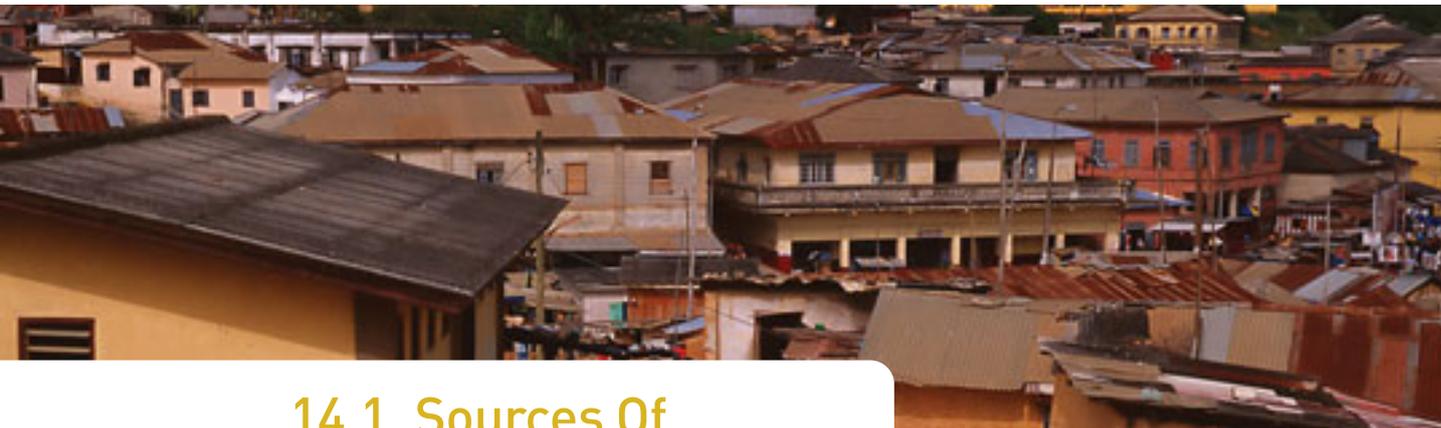
## Key sources

- Previous research reports
- Community-based organisations
- Young people
- Women's interest groups
- Service providers
- Police
- Businesses



**PART C:  
SOURCES,  
TECHNIQUES  
AND TOOLS**

# 14 Safety Audit Information: Strategic Considerations



## 14.1 Sources Of Information

Part C provides advice for practitioners on the use of different audit information sources. This includes general guidance on the range of data to be collected. Attention is then given to the use of secondary (existing) data and surveys as sources of quantitative data. Finally, the important contribution of qualitative data is examined and advice given on the techniques and tools for collecting it.

The success of an audit depends on the range and quality of information on which its conclusions are based. Decisions have to be taken about what information is needed, which existing sources are useful and how gaps can best be filled through empirical research. It needs to be recognised that all information sources have their shortcomings and practitioners have to make informed choices taking into consideration:

- **Value:** Will the information really add to an understanding of the local context, problems or responses?
- **Validity:** Is the information sufficiently accurate, comprehensive and up-to-date to justify its inclusion, and are its limitations understood?

- **Priority:** Is the information worth the resources need to obtain and analyse it?
- **Relevance:** Will the information be helpful in devising the crime prevention strategy?

A good audit will build a picture by bringing together information from several sources to ensure that the perspectives of all community interests are included, and to reduce bias that arises from dependency of a few sources. It may be possible to draw extensively on material already collected by others, such as police recorded crime statistics or past research reports, and it makes sense to use such 'secondary' sources, where appropriate, since this can save time and money. In other situations there will need to be greater reliance on 'primary' source information purpose-collected by the audit team. This could involve conducting surveys and consultations, which is likely to be more costly, but can be customised to meet the specific needs of the audit. The merits of the different sources are shown in Table 15.

**Table 15****Safety Audit: Sources Of Information**

Source	Description	Key informants	Key informants
Documents	Reports, research studies, plans and evaluations.	May be easily accessible. Low cost.	May not cover the 'right' topics. May not be current.
Statistics	Data collected before the audit by public agencies, civil society and business. May include data collected routinely or research data for other purposes.	Quantitative information immediately available. Low cost.	May not cover precisely the issues to be audited. May under-represent poor and marginalised. Access may be restricted. Data area boundaries may vary between sources and may only be available for whole city, not sub-areas. May not be up to date. Definitions may vary between agencies.
Interviews	Contacts with key informants (knowledgeable individuals) in agencies, civil society and business.	Obtain answers to 'how' and 'why' questions. Allows flexible exploration of issues.	Unlikely to provide 'hard' data. Will be based on perceptions and may not be objective.
Surveys	Victimisation and offending questionnaires. Opinion polls.	Purpose-designed data. Can customise for adults, youth and business.	Resource intensive and difficult to include 'hard-to-reach' groups.
Consultations	Group meetings and media engagement with communities and groups.	Enables participation of individuals, including those with 'shared interests'.	Difficult to achieve coverage of many different groups. Labour intensive.
Outreach	Engaging with groups in their own 'settings' often individually.	May be best option for 'hard-to-reach'. Allows individual participation.	Difficult to achieve coverage of many different groups. Labour intensive.
Observation	Visiting specific locations and services to watch and talk to local stakeholders.	Provides first hand insight to what is happening.	Labour intensive. Difficult to get accurate impression from a short visit.

Secondary sources

Primary sources

Different sources are likely to be useful at different Implementation Stages (Table 16). In general, information from secondary sources will be most used during Stage 1 ('wide and shallow' analysis), while the collection of primary data will be essential in later Stages.

## 14.2 Recognising Diversity In The Community

Every city's population is made up of many groups with different perspectives on crime and victimisation, all of whom have a right to be recognised in the safety audit process. They include young people, women, ethno-cultural minorities, older people, people with disabilities,

those with mental health problems, migrant communities, asylum seekers and many others. The range of groups will vary to some extent from place to place, reflecting local social and demographic patterns.

When information is collected for the city as a whole – or where data is 'averaged' across the whole population – the individuality of such groups can easily be lost. It is therefore important that quantitative and qualitative data is disaggregated so that the experiences, perspectives and contributions of such groups can be looked at individually. And where such groups are under-represented in the 'mainstream' information sources (perhaps because they are so-called 'hard-to-reach'), alternative approaches need to be adopted to ensure their voices are heard (see 5.4 and section 17).

**Table 16**  
Data Sources Useful During Stages Of Safety Audit Implementation

	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3	Stage 4
	The 'wide and shallow' analysis	'Narrow and deep' investigation	Identifying priorities and opportunities	Consulting and Communicating
Documents	✓			
Statistics	✓			
Interviews	✓	✓	✓	
Surveys	✓	✓		
Consultations		✓	✓	✓
Outreach		✓		✓
Observation		✓		

## 14.3 Sharing Information And Data Confidentiality

Readiness to share relevant information across organisational boundaries is vital if safety audits are to make maximum use of available resources. Legitimate concerns about breaches of confidentiality, especially with regard to personal data, have led many countries to impose disclosure restrictions. These constraints should not, however, be seen as restricting the sharing of aggregated statistical data which is not personalised and which cannot be linked to individuals. Nor should they inhibit the use of the findings arising from community consultations, so long as comments and contributions are not attributed to individuals without their informed consent.

The negotiation of an information sharing agreement between partner organisations at the start of the audit process can help avoid later problems. Such an agreement could also cover the sharing of personal information that would clearly prevent future criminal activity. However, this is likely to be more contentious, while the sharing of non-personal or depersonalised data may be relatively easily negotiated.

The UK Home Office has published a model information-sharing protocol to which cooperating agencies can sign up.<sup>96</sup> Taking account of data protection laws and human rights, it sets out the rationale for information sharing, the 'golden rules' that underpin the agreement and standards for data security. Above all it specifies the conditions under which different types of data, ranging from non-personal to sensitive, can be shared. While its contents reflect national legislation, Audit Steering Groups will find it helpful to review this model when developing their own agreements with partner agencies. The Australian Criminology Research Council has also provided guidance on how to

manage confidential and personal information gathered in the course of research.<sup>97</sup>

## 14.4 Data Observatories

A safety audit requires integration of information from multiple sources to gain a good understanding of problems and causal factors affecting crime and related problems. Although this might initially be viewed as a stand-alone task, in reality it needs to be repeated periodically and, ideally, prevention practitioners and strategists should monitor change systematically and continually. This type of requirement is not unique to crime prevention; it is now applicable to most policy areas and data observatories have been established in a growing number of cities in response to this need.

### **Regional Observatory On Security Policies (Italy)<sup>98</sup>**

The 'Osservatorio regionale sulle politiche integrate per la sicurezza' was established by the Tuscany region in 2000 to maintain a profile of security conditions and undertake security-related research. It compiles and analyses a large database covering crime and risk factors that allows assessment of citizen insecurity in different areas and social situations. The observatory's research output is an important tool in developing crime prevention policies.

An observatory is a facility that draws in information from a wide range of agencies and analyses it to inform public policy and programme development. It may be necessary to negotiate with data providers on issues of confidentiality, definitions and format, so that compatibility and relevance are maximised. The observatory's work may include constructing integrated databases or Geographical Information Systems (GIS) that assist analysis. Most importantly, the information is collected on an ongoing basis so there is regular updating and continual monitoring.

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<sup>96</sup> <http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/infosharing21-00.htm>

<sup>97</sup> Chalmers R and Israel M. *Caring for data: law, professional codes and the negotiation of confidentiality in Australian criminological research*. Canberra: Criminology Research Council, 2005. <http://www.aic.gov.au/crc/reports/200304-09.pdf>

<sup>98</sup> <http://sicurezza.regione.toscana.it/>

Observatories may be generic, covering a wide range of public policy agendas, or focused on specific issues, such as urban safety. Such an observatory can greatly facilitate a safety audit and, equally important, it will enable change to be tracked, so that new issues can be identified at the earliest opportunity and the effects of crime prevention interventions assessed. Where they exist they are proving to be an invaluable resource. Elsewhere, civic leaders may wish to consider developing an urban safety observatory for crime prevention and other areas of public policy.

Several examples of observatories can be found in west European countries. In France a national observatory for drugs and drug addiction (*Observatoire français des drogues et des toxicomanies*) has been established at St Denis (near Paris).<sup>99</sup> In England several regions have generic observatories and each region has a specialist observatory to research public health issues, including substance misuse.<sup>100</sup>

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<sup>99</sup> Observatoire français des drogues et des toxicomanies. <http://www.ofdt.fr>

<sup>100</sup> The East of England Observatory is an example of a generic observatory. <http://www.eastofenglandobservatory.org.uk>  
For a list of all health observatories in England see <http://www.apho.org.uk/apho>

# 15 Using Secondary Data Sources



## 15.1 Introduction

Quantitative data will be a vital ingredient of any safety audit. Numbers give precision to the issues being examined; they are easier to present; and usually easier to analyse. In many cities a wide range of statistics on relevant issues is collected by agencies for their own purposes (Table 17). Where such 'secondary' data is reasonably accurate, useful and accessible, its analysis should be one of the main elements of Implementation Stage 1, not only to relatively quickly build up a city profile, but also to identify information gaps to be filled later.

**Table 17**

### Potential Contributors Of Secondary Data

- Police
- Other criminal justice agencies: courts, corrections, prisons
- Victim assistance services
- Housing providers and environmental services
- Education services, including schools and colleges
- Social care services
- Healthcare providers, including clinics and hospitals
- Research institutions, including universities and institutes
- Fire services
- Community groups
- Civil society/non-profit organisations
- Private security and insurance companies

Secondary statistical data should however always be scrutinised critically, especially when unsupported by independent sources. Numbers can convey a sense of accuracy or certainty that is not always justified; figures are almost always incomplete and can easily become biased. Moreover, because it will have been collected for other purposes, secondary data rarely precisely matches the needs of the safety audit. A further common difficulty is that data may only be available for the city as a whole or, if it is tabulated for sub-areas, their boundaries can be different to those used for other data. In other words, there is a lack of 'coterminosity'. Even where good secondary sources are accessible, certain important information is often not available and needs to be collected specifically by the audit team (Table 18).

None of this automatically invalidates its use. Rather, a judgement must be made about whether its ready availability outweighs the shortcomings, recognising that the alternative may involve costly and time-consuming empirical research. Indeed, in cases where a variable is difficult to measure or where a concept is difficult to define, there may be

little choice but to use 'proxy' data. This applies, for example, to the concepts of 'social exclusion' and 'fear of crime'. The latter is often assessed on the basis of how fearful an individual feels in a particular location (at home or in the street) at a particular time (after dark or during the day) without taking into account that many people seem to have an innate fear of the dark, irrespective of the risk of victimisation. In the following sections, specific secondary sources are examined in more detail.

## 15.2 Police Data

**I**N many cities, crime data recorded by the police will be an important resource. However, its availability and usefulness vary greatly. Access may be restricted for political, legal or technical reasons and in almost every country a significant proportion of offences is not reported or recorded. Only a fraction of violence-related injury cases that receive medical attention in hospital emergency departments are included in police statistics, while studies from Atlanta (USA) and from Cape Town (South Africa) confirm that even firearm-related deaths often go unrecorded. As

**Table 18**  
**Common Information Gaps In Secondary Sources**

Offender characteristics	Age, gender, ethno-cultural identity, health and disability, family situation, education level, employment status, housing situation, criminal record
Victim characteristics	Age, gender, ethno-cultural identity, health and disability, family situation, education level, employment status, housing situation, previous victimisation
Recorded crime characteristics	Method used, precise location, time, use of weapons, linkage with drugs/alcohol
Problems often unreported	Serious violence (sexual and domestic violence, other violence against women, child abuse), bullying, corruption, substance abuse, street gangs, organised crime, shop theft, less serious offences (petty theft, vandalism)
Impacts of crime	Lifelong injury and non-injury consequences of violence or intimidation
Feelings and perceptions	Fear of crime and victimisation, including variations by age, gender, ethno-cultural group, location, time; which problems should be prioritised; views about agencies and services (local authority, police, courts)

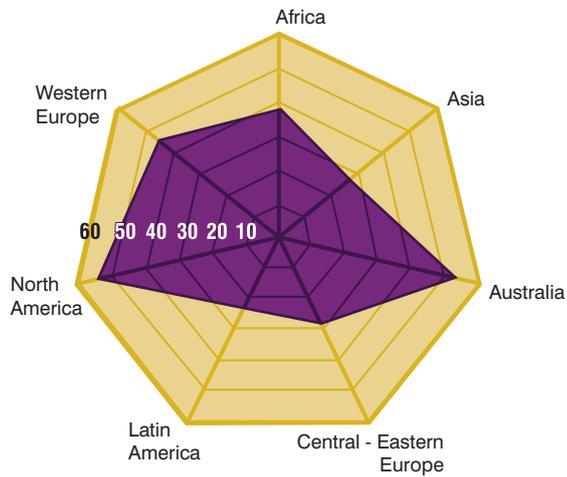
Derived from UN-Habitat Safer Cities Toolkit

Figure 4 shows, this under-recording is much more serious in some regions than others, and in many settings neither police nor health service data are available.

This counting shortfall would not be such a problem, if it were evenly spread across offence types and population groups. But that is not the case. Certain types of crime have extremely low reporting rates, including some of the most serious (Table 19). And it is often the poorest and most vulnerable sections of society whose victimisation goes unrecorded because they do not know how to make a report; do not perceive their experience to have been a crime; are fearful of the police; are avoiding police contact or because their allegations are just not taken seriously. In contrast, groups that are well organised and well resourced, including parts of the business sector, will be more capable of collating statistics and using official systems to get their experiences ‘counted’.

**Figure 4**  
Variations In Reporting Of Crime To The Police

**Percentage of Crimes Reported**



International Crime Victims Survey (2000)

**Table 19**  
Crimes That Are Often Under-Reported To Police

Violence	Sexual violence, domestic violence, violence against women
Victimisation of children and youth	Child abuse, bullying, assault, theft
‘Victimless’ crime	Use of illicit drugs
Corruption	Bribery
Crime by and against business	White-collar crime, fraud, shop theft
Organised crime	Human trafficking, drugs trafficking, sexual exploitation, extortion
Less serious offences	Petty theft, vandalism, anti-social behaviour

## BOCSAR Online Crime Statistics in New South Wales (Australia) <sup>101</sup>

The NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research (BOCSAR) is a statistical and research agency within the Attorney General's Department. Established in 1969, it publishes crime data for the state as a whole quarterly and annually – volumes and rates – broken down by crime type for 12 regions and 172 Local Government Areas (LGA). It enables trends of 17 crime types to be easily tracked for up to 10 years, and all this information is available to the general public.

A 'ranking tool' enables each LGA to compare its figures over the most recent five-year period with other areas' and a 'league table' identifies the 50 LGAs with the highest rates for nine crime categories. A 'specific crime tool' enables users to define their own table of data by choosing from five table formats and selecting a combination of offence type, premises type, region and year. So this tool can be used to see detailed information on, for example, assaults in licensed premises in different regions for each of the past three years.

Despite their limitations, police statistics will often be an initial source of data about various aspects of criminal activity. They should enable the audit team to assess:

- **amount** of crime that has been recorded
- **types** of recorded offence – and how much of it is violence
- **rates** for total recorded crime and specific crime types
- **trends** over time – whether recorded crime is going up or down

- **differences** between the city, comparable areas and the national average
- **proportion** of recorded crime that gets 'solved'.

Police data may also provide the basis for an analysis of offence **location**. This may indicate the type of place where an offence occurred, such as a private dwelling, a school, a shop or in the street, and such data can be helpful in establishing whether particular environments are more susceptible to criminal activity.

Crimes may also be positioned in space, perhaps coded to a sub-area of the city (such as a police beat, a neighbourhood or a census tract) or more precisely (to an address, zip-code or grid reference). Mapping the distribution of such 'geocodes' can help locate areas in which individuals and property are most at risk and can identify crime 'hotspots' – specific locations in which crime is concentrated.<sup>102</sup> Both will be useful when considering where preventive action is most needed.

Historically, distributions have been plotted manually by placing coloured markers on a large map, and this is useful in the absence of alternative options. However, if computerised records are available, mapping software can undertake that task more effectively and with a flexibility that allows data to be explored in different ways. With the use of Geographical Information Systems (GIS), researchers can not only carry out complex analysis of the crime data, but also overlay this on other datasets, such as population or economic statistics, enabling relationships between, for example, between crime and health, to be assessed.

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<sup>101</sup> Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research (New South Wales, Australia). *Crime Statistics*. [http://www.lawlink.nsw.gov.au/lawlink/bocsar/ll\\_bocsar.nsf/pages/bocsar\\_index](http://www.lawlink.nsw.gov.au/lawlink/bocsar/ll_bocsar.nsf/pages/bocsar_index)

<sup>102</sup> For more information on crime mapping and hotspots:

National Institute of Justice, US Department of Justice (2005), *Mapping crime and understanding hotspots*.

<http://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/209393.pdf>

National Institute of Justice, US Department of Justice (2005). *Mapping and analysis for public safety*.

<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij/maps/briefingbook.html>

UK Home Office Crime Prevention Toolkit on *Focus Areas*. <http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/toolkits/index.htm>

## iQuanta Management Information System (England and Wales)<sup>103, 104</sup>

iQuanta was developed by the Home Office to turn statistical data routinely collected into useful outputs for understanding and improving performance. It is web-based and provides both graphical and tabular summaries of performance trends.

Figures are updated monthly, so police and crime reduction partnerships can track their effectiveness in reducing crime and compare their performance with other similar areas. The coverage includes:

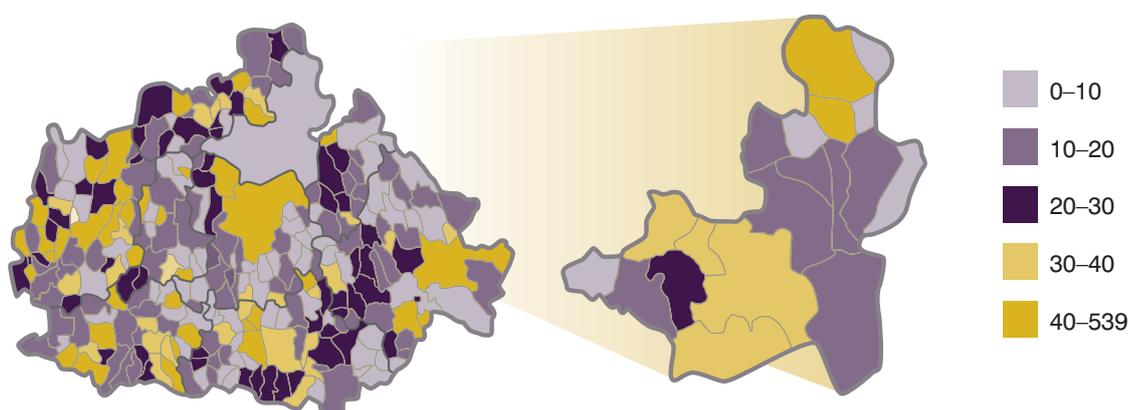
- levels and rates of total crime and individual offences
- rates of detection
- progress being made towards targets
- public perceptions, including fear, from the British Crime Survey
- projections of future crime rates

While the iQuanta website is up-to-date and technically advanced, it has the disadvantage of being accessible only to police and community safety partnerships, not to the general public.

### Figure 5

Using Geographical Information Systems To Map Crime Data: An Example From Hungary

#### Crime in Baranya County Offences per 100,000 residents



Baranya County Crime Prevention Strategy (2005)

<sup>103</sup> <http://police.homeoffice.gov.uk/performance-and-measurement/iquanta>

<sup>104</sup> Association of Police Authorities (UK) (2004), *iQuanta: a Police Authority guide*.

<http://www.apa.police.uk/NR/rdonlyres/24C7F620-D30D-421C-9BB5-FCBB45E6AD26/0/APAiquantasecondeditionFINALPDF.pdf>

Of even greater significance is the growing use of GIS to predict future patterns and trends. Recent research at the *Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science* (University of London) has developed a technique called 'prospective mapping', which is reported to be more accurate at forecasting victimisation than any previous method.<sup>105</sup>

As part of the 'narrow and deep' analysis in Implementation Stage 2, it can be instructive to investigate the **when** and **how** of criminal incidents (Table 20). 'When' information should include the times of the day, days of the week, months of the year and any links with calendar events, such as holidays and festivals. Offences are rarely evenly spread and there will be 'hot times' as well as hotspots (Figure 6), but these will also vary according to the type of premise (Figure 7). 'How' information relates to the characteristics and techniques associated with the commission of

particular crimes, such as the nature of the victim or target and the method used. Clarifying these issues will assist the selection of responses with the greatest chance of success.

The police may also provide data on **offenders**, although it is usually best combined with information from other justice agencies to produce a fuller picture (see 15.3). It can, of course, only cover those offenders who are detected – often a small proportion and the least successful – but nevertheless may be extremely useful and should help answer the Implementation Stage 1 questions (see 4.2).

Particular attention should be given to **prolific offenders**, since they are likely to account for a substantial proportion of total crime. If their number and scale of activity can be calculated, it becomes possible to estimate what that proportion might be. Equally important is information on **serious and**

**Table 20**  
**'When' And 'How' Questions**

'When' and 'How' questions will usually be asked in Implementation Stage 2 and need to be customised to the specific offence type. In the case of housebreaking, the following would be relevant:

- At what times of the day did the housebreakings occur?
- Were they more common on certain days or in certain months?
- How did the burglars gain entry ...
  - by forcing open a door, window or other access point
  - by actual or threatened violence
  - by deception
  - via an open door, window or other access point
  - from the front or rear of the property?
- What security measures were in place – such as guards, alarms or locks?
- Were the homes occupied or empty at the time?
- Were properties overlooked by neighbours or secluded?
- What goods were stolen and what valuable items were left?
- How did intruders dispose of the stolen property?

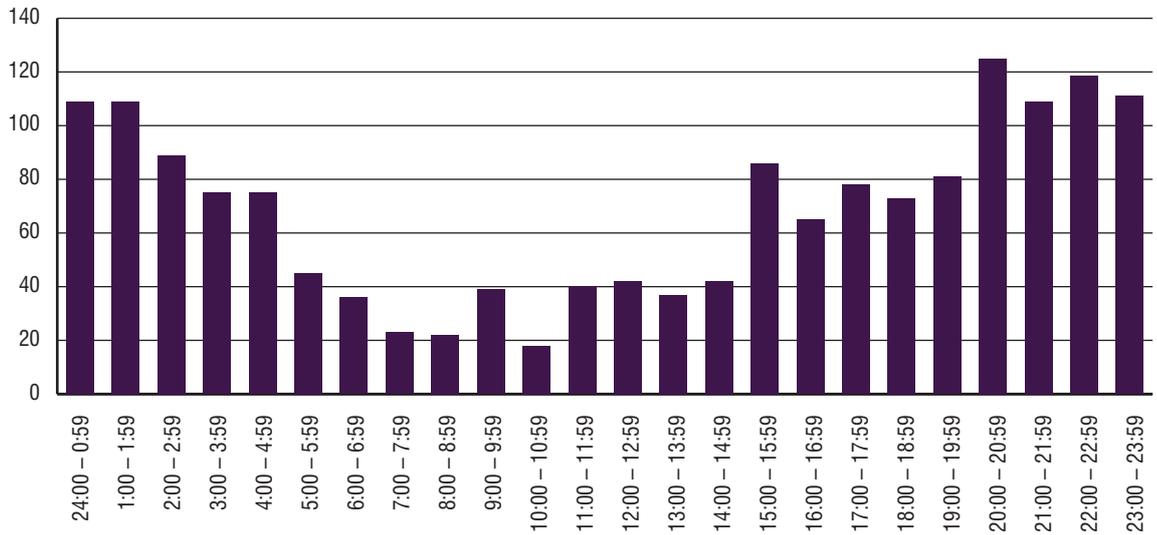
<sup>105</sup> <http://www.ucl.ac.uk/jdi>

**Figure 6**

Time Of Crime Analysis: An Example From Canada

**Robbery in Winnipeg**

Total number of reported incidents by hour in 2001



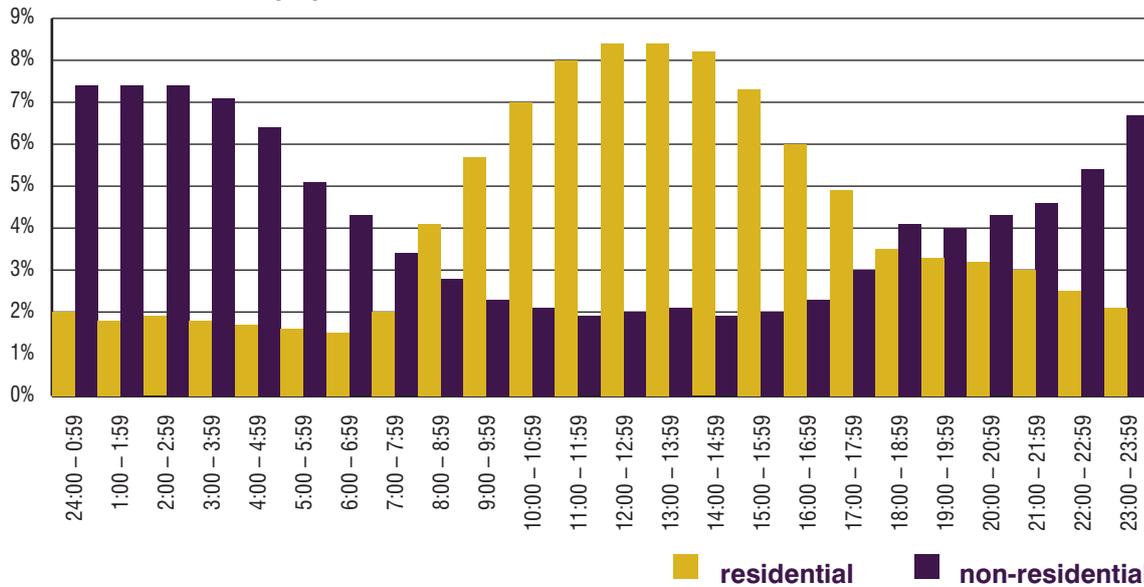
Statistics Canada (2004)

**Figure 7**

Burglary Time Risks Of Residential and Non-residential Premises: An Example From Australia<sup>106</sup>

**Burglary in the Australian Capital Territory**

Accumulated Probability by Hour



Australian Institute for Criminology (2001)

<sup>106</sup> Ratcliffe J. *Policing urban burglary*, Trends and Issues in Crime and Justice 213. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2001. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi/ti213.pdf>

**dangerous criminals** whose offences, while not necessarily large in number, will have a particularly damaging effect on individuals and communities. In most cases such analysis will need to be accompanied by deeper study of their characteristics and lifetime experiences which influence their behaviour, and which may point to appropriate preventive interventions.

## Offenders in England and Wales

### Prolific Offenders<sup>107</sup>

It is estimated that out of a million active offenders, 10% have three or more convictions and are responsible for half of all crime. The most active 5,000 of this group are estimated to be responsible for one in ten offences. The active offender population is not static, 20,000 individuals leave this pool every year and are replaced by another 20,000.

### Criminal Commuting<sup>108</sup>

Research shows that most offenders only travel a short distance from their home to commit a crime, and this applies to most offence types. In relation to domestic burglary in Yorkshire, for example, the average distance travelled has been measured at 1.8 miles, less than three kilometres.

Police records may be used to estimate the distances travelled by offenders from where they live to where they offend.<sup>109</sup> If this shows that most travelled in from outside the city to commit crime, the responses might need to be very different from those that would be taken if the majority of criminals turn out to be 'home-grown'.

Police data are usually of limited value in identifying victim profiles and patterns. Records can only relate to individuals willing to report an incident, and even then databases are rarely designed to enable victim details to be easily retrieved or

analysed. Nevertheless, as part of the 'wide and shallow' research, answers to the questions listed in Table 8 should initially be sought in police data. If that is not fruitful, a victimisation survey, supplemented by information from victim support organisations, is likely to provide much better information.

An issue of particular importance here is repeat victimisation. International studies show that for many offence types the risk of being victimised is linked to previous victimisation experience. A place or individual that has been victimised once is at greater risk of future victimisation than one that has not. And the more times a target has been victimised, the greater the probability of further repeats. An understanding of the extent of repeat victimisation is therefore particularly important in directing preventive measures at those who are not only most likely to be fearful or traumatised by their experiences, but who are also most at risk.

## 15.3 Other Criminal Justice Agencies

Other criminal justice agencies may hold data on offenders that is relevant and useful for a safety audit. They include the corrections/probation, youth justice and prison services (Table 21). As with police data, access may be restricted for political, legal or technical reasons, and the information will only relate to incidents that have been reported, detected and result in a charge. As with police data, the quality of information available varies greatly between countries, so a critical assessment should be made to assess its value in any particular city.

Where such data is considered useful, it can help build a more detailed picture of patterns of offending behaviour, prolific offender activity, the

<sup>107</sup> <http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/ppominisite01.htm>.

<sup>108</sup> Wiles P and Costello A. *The road to nowhere: the evidence for travelling criminals*. Research Study 207. London: Home Office, 2000. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs/hors207.pdf>

<sup>109</sup> See, for example, Savoie J, Bédard F and Collins K. *Distribution of crime in Montreal neighbourhoods*. Crime and Justice Research Paper Series 26 (7), 85-561-MWE2006007. Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 2006. [www.statcan.ca/english/research/85-561-MIE/85-561-MIE2006007.pdf](http://www.statcan.ca/english/research/85-561-MIE/85-561-MIE2006007.pdf)

## Repeat Victimization

- A 1998 study in Cape Town (South Africa) found that 28% of victims of assault and 26% of victims of vehicle theft were repeat victims, and 25% of families losing a family member to murder had experienced a murder at least once before.<sup>110</sup>
- A victim survey in Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania) in 2000 showed that, whereas rates of repeat victimisation over a five-year period were between 22% and 24% for offences of burglary, theft and assault, they were higher for theft of vehicle parts (33%) and much higher for crop theft at 51%.<sup>111</sup>
- A 1998 report from the Australian Institute of Criminology showed that 28% of victimised households were repeat victims of property crime and that these households suffered over 50% of all property crime victimisations.<sup>112</sup>
- A Swedish study published in 2004 found that 5% of the population experienced half of all the offences committed. With regard to assaults and threats where the perpetrator was unknown to the victim, the risk of assault in two municipalities increased twenty-fold for those who had already been victimised once in that year and sixty-fold for those who had been victimised twice.<sup>113</sup>
- In England and Wales, there are high levels of repeat victimisation for burglary, car crime, robbery, sexual crimes and racial attacks. The 2005/06 British Crime Survey found 43% of victims of domestic violence were victimised more than once in 12 months.<sup>114</sup>

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<sup>110</sup> Camerer L, Louw A, Shaw M, Artz L and Scharf W. Crime in Cape Town. Monograph 23. Institute for Security Studies, 1998. <http://www.iss.co.za/pubs/MONOGRAPHS/No23/%20Contents.html>

<sup>111</sup> Robertshaw R, Louw A and Mtani A. Crime in Dar Es Salaam. Results of a city victim survey. Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies, 2001. <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Other/DaresSalaam/Content.html>

<sup>112</sup> Mukherjee S & Carcach C. Repeat victimisation in Australia, Research and Public Policy Series 15. Griffith ACT: Australian Institute of Criminology, 1998. <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/rpp/15/RPP15.pdf>

<sup>113</sup> Bra – brottsforebyggande radet. A brief presentation on repeat victimisation. November 2004. [http://www.bra.se/extra/measurepoint/?module\\_instance=4&name=04111225678.pdf&url=/dynamaster/file\\_archive/050118/4cd46ef889602d3aee015a4518e245ce/04111225678.pdf](http://www.bra.se/extra/measurepoint/?module_instance=4&name=04111225678.pdf&url=/dynamaster/file_archive/050118/4cd46ef889602d3aee015a4518e245ce/04111225678.pdf)

<sup>114</sup> Walker A, Kershaw C and Nicholas S. Crime in England and Wales 2005/06. Home Office Statistical Bulletin 12/06. London: Home Office, 2006. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs06/hosb1206.pdf>

**Table 21****Secondary Data From Criminal Justice Agencies**

Courts	Information about the people appearing before them  Types of sentences imposed
Corrections/ Probation, Youth Justice and Prison Services	Personal, family and social characteristics of offenders (age, sex, religion, ethnic origin, custody type, offence, reception and discharge dates and sentence length)  Factors linked to their offending (substance misuse, low educational achievement, homelessness, family breakdown)  Reoffending rates  Services provided to tackle repeat offending (drug treatment, post release support, rehabilitation and resettlement services)

effectiveness of interventions and criminogenic risk factors. It should be noted that prison data is less likely to be useful at a city level because offenders may serve custodial sentences in institutions away from the city where they live or offended.

## 15.4 Victim Assistance Services

Services that provide support to victims and witnesses may hold depersonalised aggregate information about their clients that can be used during Implementation Stage 1. As victims of certain types of offence may be more willing to contact a support organisation than make a report to the police, the information held by such services can be very different to that covered by police statistics. For example, of 2,100 new victims assisted by South Australia Victim Support Service in 2004-05, more than half had been victims of violence, including an estimated 300 cases of sexual abuse and 130 cases of family violence.<sup>115</sup>

Victim services may also commission and publish useful research findings. For example, a report in 2005 by Victim Support in England found that one quarter of burglary victims did not improve their home security, leaving them vulnerable to revictimisation.<sup>116</sup> Generally, however, victim services are focused on providing high quality frontline services to victims on tight budgets and have limited capacity to develop statistical information systems. They are most likely to input qualitative information about issues affecting victims and witnesses through 'key informant interviews' (see 17.2).

Finally, consideration should be given to the adequacy and effectiveness of victim services. This is not just to ameliorate the impact of their experience. Victims are at greater risk of future revictimisation than non-victims, so providing support and helping them to reduce their vulnerability should be a vital part of any crime prevention strategy (see 15.2).

<sup>115</sup> <http://www.victimsa.org/index.php>

<sup>116</sup> [http://www.victimsupport.org.uk/vs\\_england\\_wales/about\\_us/publications/index.php](http://www.victimsupport.org.uk/vs_england_wales/about_us/publications/index.php)

## Victim Support Services

Victim Support in England and Wales are in contact with over one and a quarter million victims and witnesses every year.<sup>117</sup>

## 15.5 Housing And Environmental Services

The organisations and authorities which provide and manage housing and environmental services in a locality are likely to have relevant information, especially about 'lower level' crimes and nuisance behaviour which have not been reported to the police, such as:

- incidents of vandalism and the costs of repairs
- excessive noise from, for example, music, dogs or machinery
- complaints about unruly behaviour of young people or adults
- dumping of rubbish and abandoned cars, and the costs of clean-up.

They may also contribute data relating to specific themes, for example the extent and location of drug and alcohol misuse, through:

- reports from street cleaners of, for example, drugs paraphernalia (needles etc), cans and bottles, and vomit
- complaints about drug dealing, drunk and disorderly behaviour
- records relating to the breaking of tenancy agreements or the need for rehousing due to illegal drug use.

Housing providers might have more intelligence than the police about burglaries and violent crime affecting the residents of their properties, because of resident unwillingness to contact police or because help, such as repairs, are needed. Information systems will vary greatly between

organisations. Where quantitative secondary data is not accessible, qualitative information may be gathered through interviews (see 17.2).

## 15.6 Education Services

Education services and their institutions (schools, colleges, universities) are an important focus of enquiry for any safety audit, both in relation to risk factors and contributory causes of offending and as a location for incidents (Table 22). Many countries have identified a correlation between aspects of educational under-performance of young people and involvement in offending, and this should be explored in Implementation Stage 1.

The safety audit should also include assessment of the provision of educational support to offenders in prison and those subject to community punishments. Lack of basic skills – literacy and numeracy – is one of the main risk factors associated with offending and addressing this deficit, which increases opportunities for employment and personal advancement, can be an important component of programmes to reduce reoffending.

Rates should be compared, where possible, to data from other cities, regions and nationally to help determine where levels can be considered satisfactory and where they are unusually poor and problematic.

Educational institutions are also locations for crime and disorder, ranging from relatively minor events to the most serious occurrences of violence. Whatever their nature, they interfere with learning and can have other damaging impacts on children and youth. Good schools will keep records of such incidents and educational services may be able to provide information on property crime, violence involving pupils, assaults on staff, the misuse of drugs, bullying and the presence of youth gangs. If this type of information does not already exist as 'secondary data', it can be sought through key informant interviews.

<sup>117</sup> [http://www.victimsupport.org/vs\\_england\\_wales/index.php](http://www.victimsupport.org/vs_england_wales/index.php)

**Table 22**  
**Secondary Data From Education Services**

<b>Access</b>	<p>Availability of places at primary, secondary and higher levels</p> <p>Capacity of parents and carers to meet the costs of education</p>
<b>Participation</b>	<p>Levels of attendance and truancy</p> <p>Rates of 'staying on' for secondary education and participation in higher education</p> <p>Temporary suspensions and permanent exclusions</p> <p>Numbers of children and young people not in any form of education, training or work</p>
<b>Environment</b>	<p>Effective policies on discipline, bullying, drugs and health</p> <p>Cooperation between schools and parents/carers in supporting children's education</p> <p>Availability and use of school premises for community activity out of school hours</p>
<b>Curriculum</b>	<p>Learning about citizenship; anti-social behaviour; victimisation; crime; and the misuse of alcohol and drugs</p> <p>Relevance in equipping young people for the world of work</p> <p>Ability to meet the needs of less academic pupils</p>
<b>Achievement</b>	<p>Overall levels of educational attainment</p> <p>Levels of school 'failure' (leaving without basic skills or certificates)</p>
<b>Special provision</b>	<p>For pupils with special learning support needs (including problems with literacy, numeracy and dyslexia)</p> <p>Support for young people excluded from mainstream education as a result of behavioural or other problems</p>

## 15.7 Social Care Services

During Implementation Stage 1 agencies responsible for social care services are a potentially important source of secondary data about children, families and vulnerable adults at risk of victimisation and offending. With regard to children, the safety audit team should enquire about those:

- identified as at risk of abuse, neglect or getting into trouble
- in the care of the state
- already in conflict with the law.

Social care services may also hold valuable information relating to different forms of family violence, drug and alcohol misuse and families who are experiencing multiple problems, some of which may be crime related. Relevant information about vulnerable adults may cover elder abuse, individuals with mental health problems and homeless people.

The enquiry should involve assessment of the scale of problems, demographic profiles of those affected and how problems are geographically distributed. Equally important is how agencies are responding, whether services in place are effectively addressing the issues and if they are working well to reduce risks. Where possible, data should be compared with equivalent figures from other cities to assess the seriousness of any problem.

### Children In Care

Canadian studies have shown that 1 in 5 young people in care end up in custody.

In England and Wales just 6% of children left care in 2004 with grades A–C in five ‘GCSE’ subjects compared with 53% of pupils overall. An estimated 1% of care leavers go to university, compared with 37% of young people in the population as a whole. More than one quarter of prisoners was taken into care during childhood, thirteen times higher than the rate in the general population.<sup>118, 119</sup>

## 15.8 Health Services

References have been made throughout this Guidance to the relevance of health service data in ensuring a complete and comprehensive safety audit. Health services are particularly important as sources of information about victims, as well as their place of residence, complement crime data that focus more on perpetrators. Health service establishments are also increasingly locations in which violence and other crime occurs. Statistical data, research reports and other information should be sought from hospitals (especially emergency rooms), clinics and other service providers (Table 23).

In many countries public health agencies are responsible for ‘vital statistics’ on the causes of death and especially for violent death and injury surveillance. South Africa, for example, has a National Injury Mortality Surveillance System<sup>120</sup>, while the National Violent Death Reporting System operates in the US. Such sources provide greater detail about violent occurrences than is otherwise likely to be available.<sup>121</sup> They are useful for evaluating the completeness of police data and for estimating of the scale of problems.

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<sup>118</sup> National Children’s Home. *Close the gap for children in care*. London: NCH, 2005.

<http://www.nch.org.uk/information/index.php?i=94#care>

<sup>119</sup> Social Exclusion Unit (UK). *Reducing re-offending by ex-prisoners*. London: SEU, 2002.

<http://archive.cabinetoffice.gov.uk/seu/page95ba.html?id=263>

<sup>120</sup> <http://www.sahealthinfo.org/violence/nimss.htm>

<sup>121</sup> <http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/profiles/nvdrs/facts.htm>

**Table 23**  
**Secondary Data From Health Services**

Illicit drugs	<p>Range and capacity of treatment services for drug misusers, including counselling services, day care, hospital provision and residential rehabilitation</p> <p>Waiting times for these services</p> <p>Numbers of referrals to these services and the proportion of clients completing treatment</p> <p>Number of emergency hospital admissions and drug-related deaths</p> <p>Links between drug use and other medical conditions, such as hepatitis and HIV</p> <p>Use of needle exchanges and the problem of drug 'paraphernalia' (such as discarded needles)</p>
Violence	<p>Information on causes of injury and death from monitoring agencies</p> <p>Hospital emergency room attendances resulting from violence</p> <p>Information from community-based health services (including doctors, community nurses, midwives), the ambulance service and hospital emergency departments on injury and illness suffered as a result of violent assaults (including domestic and sexual), crimes of intolerance, child abuse, alcohol-related disorder and dangerous driving</p>
Alcohol misuse	<p>Range and capacity of treatment services for alcohol dependency, including brief interventions in doctors' surgeries to detoxification and residential treatment</p> <p>Waiting times for those services</p> <p>Number of referrals to treatment services and the proportion of those referred who complete treatment</p> <p>Call-outs of ambulances linked to the effects of alcohol misuse</p> <p>Alcohol-related attendances at casualty units and emergency admissions to hospitals, including information about domestic or drunken assaults</p> <p>Number of alcohol-related deaths</p>
Sexual health	<p>Data on the sexual health needs of prostitutes and other sex workers</p>
Staff safety	<p>Data on health service staff who experience violence, threats or abuse while at work</p>
Mental illness	<p>Data on mental health problems associated with victimisation and offending, especially violence</p>
Costs	<p>Financial costs of crime to health services, including treatment of victims and time off work caused by victimisation of staff</p> <p>Data on the number and cost of offences of criminal damage targeted at health service premises, and on the impact of such offences on service delivery</p>
Prisoners	<p>Data on health problems experienced by people in custody and treatment services</p>

## 15.9 Fire Service

The Fire Service may hold information about the number, location and seriousness of malicious fires, that is those thought to have been started deliberately. This information will usually be based on requests for service, so it is likely to be more comprehensive than that held by the police, which will include only those fires reported as crimes.

Data may also be available about a variety of other criminal and nuisance behaviour, including hoax calls, attacks on fire crews responding to emergency calls and abandoned cars which have been set on fire.

### 15.10 Private Security And Insurance Companies

Private security companies play an increasingly important role in preventing and managing criminal and disorderly behaviour in many different settings: shopping centres, entertainment venues, transport hubs, public buildings, housing complexes and shopping malls. Companies will often keep records of incidents, not all of which get reported to the police. They may provide information on:

- numbers of criminal and problematic incidents at specific locations
- the nature of those incidents
- when crimes were committed and trends over time
- how offences were carried out
- repeat victimisation, particularly of vulnerable groups and locations.

Security companies with less well developed databases will have experiences and perceptions of criminal activity to supplement information from other statistical sources.

Where closed-circuit television (CCTV) is installed, companies may hold records of incidents picked up on camera. This information will be most useful during Implementation Stage 2 when investigating problems in specific locations or in relation to particular groups (such as businesses).

**Insurance companies** may collate data on property crime and monitor the risks of victimisation at a detailed geographical scale. They will also collect data on the costs of crime, types of property damaged or stolen and other detailed information. Even if it can be accessed at a local level, it will exclude information about those people and organisations who cannot afford (or choose not to pay for) insurance.

#### **Citizens' Institute For The Study of Insecurity, ICESI (Mexico)**<sup>122</sup>

ICESI is a non-profit organisation specialising in the generation of statistical information about crime and insecurity-related issues in Mexico, which provides a basis for public policy. It is an initiative of two national universities, two business associations and a specialist magazine, which have the support of federal and local governments. With that purpose, and following the UN Guidelines, ICESI undertakes National Victimisation Surveys (ENSI by its Spanish acronym), generating indicators about victimisation and crime, which provide useful comparative data for city based audit teams.

### 15.11 Surveys And Research

Universities, research institutions, community groups and non-governmental organisations conduct research on all aspects of crime, disorder and the fear of crime. These can provide comparative data (such as crime statistics and census data), theories to inform the safety audit investigation (such as links between alcohol and violence), and service reviews (such as inspections of youth justice services).

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<sup>122</sup> [www.icesi.org.mx](http://www.icesi.org.mx)

Projects and programmes also undertake or commission feasibility studies, benchmarking exercises, evaluations and reviews, which may include findings relevant to the safety audit on a local, regional or national level. It may be possible for the safety audit team to include some questions on crime and disorder in a survey already being conducted in the area.

Relevant national and international research findings are increasingly available on the internet, published by public, private and voluntary organisations. Although national research may not be available in all countries, and care must be taken to ensure the sources are reliable, such sites can be a rich source of data for Implementation Stages 1 and 2. Government websites often have useful research reports, data sets and other relevant material.

## Research Reports And Statistics Online: Some Examples

- Australian Institute of Criminology Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics (Australia)  
<http://www.aic.gov.au/stats>
- Statistics Canada Crime and Justice Research Paper Series (Canada)  
<http://www.statcan.ca/bsolc/english/bsolc?catno=85-561-M>
- Bureau of Justice Statistics (United States)  
<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/welcome.html>
- Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (United States)  
<http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.gov/about/about.html>
- Home Office Research, Development and Statistics (England and Wales)  
<http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds>
- CSIR Crime Prevention Centre (South Africa)  
<http://www.crimeprevention.csir.co.za/homepage.php3>
- United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute  
<http://www.unicri.it>
- South African National Injury Mortality Surveillance System  
<http://www.sahealthinfo.org/violence/nimss.htm>
- World Health Organisation, Statistical Information System  
<http://www.who.int/whosis/en/index.html>
- US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Web-based Injury Statistics Query and Reporting System  
<http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/wisqars/default.htm>
- International Centre for the Prevention of Crime  
[http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/kb\\_indicators\\_search.php](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/kb_indicators_search.php)

# 16 Collecting And Using Survey Data



## 16.1 Introduction

### Victimisation Surveys

“Victimisation surveys are the best available tool for collecting information on citizens’ first hand experiences with crime and criminal justice. They show some of the impacts of crime, who is most at risk, and most importantly, public perception about the priority issues in their area.”

Crime in Nairobi (2002)<sup>123</sup>

IN cities where secondary data of the type discussed earlier is inaccessible or insufficient, surveys are the main alternative option for getting general quantitative information about local problems and concerns. Even where there is good secondary data, surveys can add important perspectives, especially about individuals’ views and feelings, such as their perceptions of council services or their fear of crime. Surveys will also be especially useful in Implementation Stage 2, when a ‘narrow and deep’ investigation is undertaken into specific groups (such as women), a specific issue (such as drug use) or a geographical area (such as a neighbourhood).

Population surveys are frequently conducted by public and private agencies for a variety of reasons. Some municipalities, for example, have established citizens’ panels, a representative group of residents, who are regularly questioned and consulted on a range of issues to inform council thinking (see 16.4). It may be possible for the audit to make use of these existing surveys, not least because quality of services and concern about crime are issues often addressed. However, they will usually only include a small number of relevant questions.

<sup>123</sup> UN-Habitat. *Crime in Nairobi. Results of a citywide victim survey*. Safer Cities Series 4. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2002.

To obtain more detailed data, it will be necessary to conduct a survey specifically for the audit. However, that decision should not be taken lightly. Surveys require considerable time, expertise and resources if they are to produce meaningful results. Important issues to consider early are:

- What is the main research issue (fear, victimisation, offending)?
- What are the key topic areas for questioning?
- What is the target group or sector (adults, youth, women, minorities, businesses)?
- Is the research to be citywide or focused on a particular locality?
- Is a survey the most cost-effective option?
- Are sufficient resources available?

If it is decided to go ahead, survey planning will need to include questionnaire design, sampling, delivery arrangements, data coding and entry, analysis and reporting. It may be necessary to bring an 'expert' into the audit team or outsource some or all of the survey to an agency, private company or academic institution. But whilst specialists will be needed, every effort should be made to involve community organisations and local people in both designing and administering the survey, since this can reduce costs, build local skills, ensure the right questions are asked and increase response rates.

In the following sections, guidance is provided on victimisation surveys, self-report offending surveys and Citizens' Panels.

### **International Crime Victims Surveys (ICVS)<sup>124</sup>**

ICVS are conducted under the aegis of the UN Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) to increase understanding of international crime trends independently from administrative/police statistics. By using a standardised methodology, variations in definitions and practices are minimised and comparisons can be made across national boundaries. The ICVS has been undertaken five times since 1989, most recently in 2004-5, when over 30 countries took part.

A study drawing on the findings of the 2000 ICVS in 17 industrialised countries found the discrepancy between police recorded crime and crime reported in the survey varied widely with crime type. For instance, 91% of thefts of cars were reported to the police, 78% of burglaries and 55% of robberies. These figures contrasted with reporting rates of 29% for threats, 28% for sexual assaults and 10% for offensive sexual behaviour.

Further comparative information is available on the website of ICPC.<sup>125</sup> This collates information on crime rates and other indicators from countries in Europe, the Americas, Africa and Australasia.

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<sup>124</sup> Van Kesteren J N, Mayhew, P and Nieuwbeerta P. Criminal Victimization in Seventeen Industrialised Countries: Key Findings from the 2000 International Crime Victims Survey. The Hague: Ministry of Justice, 2000.

[http://www.unicri.it/wwd/analysis/icvs/pdf\\_files/key2000i/index.htm#download%20full%20text%20in%20pdf](http://www.unicri.it/wwd/analysis/icvs/pdf_files/key2000i/index.htm#download%20full%20text%20in%20pdf)

See also <http://www.unicri.it/wwd/analysis/icvs/index.php>

<sup>125</sup> [http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/kb\\_indicators\\_search.php](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/kb_indicators_search.php)

## 16.2 Victimization Surveys

Victimization surveys are used to investigate experience of crime usually over a 12 month period. They have been found to provide a better quantitative assessment of the number and nature of offences than police data because respondents will generally reveal more in a survey than they will report to law enforcement agencies. The 2000 International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS), for example, which enquired into 11 types of offence, elicited information about twice the number of offences reported to police in Western Europe and

three times the number in Central-Eastern Europe.<sup>126</sup> They are also the most effective way of assessing repeat victimisation, enabling the calculation of both incidence and prevalence rates (Table 24). But such surveys can also provide a wide range of other information of relevance to the safety audit, including:

- feelings about personal safety at home, in a neighbourhood, in the city centre, during the day and after dark
- confidence in the police and the justice system
- perceptions of the most troublesome problems in the city or a particular locality
- perceptions of crime trends - is the situation better, worse or the same than before?

**Table 24**  
**Calculating Crime Rates**

A crime rate provides a measure of offending in a way that makes it easy to compare cities and change over time, irrespective of differences in population size. There are two main types of rate.

The *incidence rate* indicates the number of offences recorded per 1000 population in a year (or 100,000 with larger populations). It can be calculated from police data or victimisation surveys.

The *prevalence rate* indicates the number of different victims per 1000 or 100,000 population in a year. It is usually only calculable using victimisation survey data.

The difference between incidence and prevalence rates shows the extent to which crime is concentrated on certain people. The greater the level of repeat victimisation, the larger will be the gap.

Rates would need to be based on the same source, normally a victimisation survey, for such a comparison to be valid.

### Calculating the incidence rate

No of crimes	=	2398
Population	=	19976
Rate (per 1000)	=	$(2398 / 19976) * 1000$ 120.0

### Calculating the prevalence rate

No of victims	=	1862
Population	=	19976
Rate (per 1000)	=	$(1862 / 19976) * 1000$ 93.2

Rates can be calculated for specific offences, but careful consideration must be given to the appropriate 'population' for certain types of offence. For example, it may be more relevant to calculate the incidence rate for domestic burglaries per 1000 households, rather than per 1000 people.

<sup>126</sup> Alvazzi del Frate A and van Kesteren J. *Criminal victimisation in urban Europe. Key findings of the 2000 International Crime Victim Surveys*. Vienna: UNICRI, 2004. [http://www.unicri.it/www/analysis/icvs/pdf\\_files/CriminalVictimisationUrbanEurope.pdf](http://www.unicri.it/www/analysis/icvs/pdf_files/CriminalVictimisationUrbanEurope.pdf)

- experience of and concerns about anti-social behaviour
- views about current activities that might prevent crime including services and crime prevention initiatives
- views about measures most likely to lead to a future reduction in crime and fear
- agencies willing to play an active role in helping to tackle crime local problems.

A decision is needed on the target population of any survey investigation. Most address the victimisation experiences of private individuals (such as assaults, purse snatches or abuse) and their households (such as burglary, car theft or theft of garden produce). However, surveys can focus on organisations, such as commercial enterprises, investigating corporate victimisation (fraud, robbery) and experiences of staff (workplace violence). They may also be used to explore particular locations (such as a neighbourhood or city centre) or experience of services (such public transport).

### **Social Audit Of Sexual Violence, Johannesburg (South Africa)<sup>127</sup>**

Thirty eight areas were randomly selected for the study and a team of 35 community-based field workers undertook interviews with over 37,000 women, men and young people, as well as 197 professional and service workers. Three cycles of fact finding and feedback were used, and some groups were interviewed more than once. Self-report questionnaires were completed by some 4,000 women, and street interviews were held with over 2,000 men on their attitudes to violence, and what helped men resist its use. School interviews were conducted with 16,000 young people and same sex focus groups with men, women and young people. Theatre presentations were used to help young people understand their own and others' attitudes and talk about sexual violence. Interviews were also conducted with staff in 14 police stations, as well as judicial, medical, and social services staff, NGOs and women's organisations.

Getting the right wording of questions is a critical task and they will need to be piloted to avoid misunderstandings and ambiguities. However, the ICVS has now been implemented in more than 70 countries and others have undertaken national surveys. There is therefore a long list of tried and tested questions around the world. Cities that decide to carry out victim surveys can adopt the ICVS methodology and questions to generate data which to some extent will be compatible with the international surveys.<sup>128</sup>

A survey will normally involve interviewing a sample of a target population and then extrapolating findings to the larger group. Various methods can be used to select a sample, but it is important to know the profile of the population from which it is drawn, so that its suitability can be assessed and adjustments made, if necessary. For example, if the survey is intended to assess victimisation experiences of women across the city, it will be helpful to establish how many women there are in the city; their profile in terms of age, ethno-cultural identity and family/marital status; and some indication of education and/or 'economic' standing (eg employee, carer).

These are all factors that may have a bearing on victimisation and the survey will need to include 'scanning' or 'profiling' questions that enable a comparison to be made between the sample and the population which it is intended to represent. Gathering this information will also enable conclusions to be drawn about how risk varies between particular sections of the population. For groups that make up only a small proportion of the population, 'booster' samples may be needed to get enough responses to make useful inferences.

Particular attention needs to be given to the inclusion of respondents from hard-to-reach groups, such as the homeless and other disempowered sections of society, who are likely to be under-represented if special efforts are not made to secure their participation. However, this might best

<sup>127</sup> [http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/practice\\_view.php?new\\_search=kb\\_practices\\_search.php&back=%2Fkb\\_practices\\_results.php&practice\\_id=5](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/practice_view.php?new_search=kb_practices_search.php&back=%2Fkb_practices_results.php&practice_id=5).

<sup>128</sup> The 2000 ICVS questionnaire is available from the UNICRI website. A Task Force, co-ordinated by UNODC and UNECE, has been set up to develop international standards and guidelines for victim surveys. <http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2006.01.crime.htm>.

be accomplished using other methods (see 5.4 and section 17). It also needs to be recognised that conventional surveys can only be used with older youth and adults. Different methods will be needed to gather information from younger children, who have been shown in some societies to experience and witness more crime than adults.

Various 'delivery' options exist for conducting the interviews, each with its merits (Table 25). It may be advantageous to apply different methods to different groups and options can be combined. For example, when interviewed in the home,

### National Victimization Survey, Hungary<sup>129</sup>

In 2003 the Hungarian Government commissioned its first national victimological survey. The Ministry of the Interior worked closely with a private company to devise and deliver the research. Calculations showed that a sample of 10,000 was needed to get enough examples of victimisation to make useful inferences about the wider adult population. Interviews were conducted by 450 trained interviewers, who visited respondents in their own homes and asked about experiences over the previous year. There was a high response rate – only 14% refused to answer – but homeless people were excluded from the sample. Only about half the crimes mentioned by respondents were reported to the police.

**Table 25**  
Victimisation Surveys: Delivery Options

Method	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages
Remote interview	Questions asked over the phone. May be computer-assisted, allowing answers to be keyed by interviewer direct into computer.	Sample can be selected randomly. Can quickly contact many people over a wide area at low cost.	Will produce biased sample in areas with fewer telephones. Likely to impact most on participation by poor people.
Self completion	Respondent reads and answers questions on paper, laptop computer or online questionnaire, normally at home. Answers not seen by interviewer. May be conducted by post.	Sample can be selected randomly. More likely to elicit information about sensitive experiences, such as abuse, provided responses can be given in private.	Excludes people with poor literacy or who lack access to technology. Low response rates. Higher risk of misunderstanding.
Face-to-face in the home	Questions asked by an interviewer, who also records the answers.	Sample can be selected randomly. Can explain questions and probe for more information to clarify answers. Can reveal incidents not perceived to be crimes.	Likely to be costly and slow. May inhibit disclosure of sensitive information.
Street interviews	Individuals selected in public places by interviewer who also enters answers.	Interviewer may aim to fill 'quotas' of sub-groups to achieve a representative sample. Quite easy, fast and cost effective.	Sensitive information unlikely to be disclosed. Sample will not be random. Individuals who spend more time at home will be under-represented.

<sup>129</sup> National Institute of Criminology (Hungary). *Victims and opinions*. Budapest, 2004.

### **The Nairobi Victims Survey, Kenya<sup>130</sup>**

Conducted in 2001, this thorough survey began with an initial 'scan' to identify which issues warranted detailed investigation and how this varied across the city. That allowed the main survey to focus on the most relevant questions.

The scan involved 7,954 interviews in 110 different locations. Most were conducted on the street or in the open at shopping centres, transport nodes and other focal point. These were supplemented by home interviews with the elderly, infirm or institutionalised. Respondents were randomly selected, over the age of 17 and asked about experiences in the previous year.

The main survey comprised 1,000 personal interviews, 500 household interviews and 300 interviews focused on commercial enterprises.

To obtain samples for the individual and household surveys, the city was divided into primary sampling units based on 1999 Census and grouped into six categories including, for example, low-income informal, upper-income formal, inner city etc. A two stage process was then applied. First, units were selected through systematic random sampling with probability proportional to estimated size, ensuring that each type was appropriately represented. Then enumerators randomly selected respondents within each spatial unit.

For the commercial survey, a similar two-stage process was adopted, but enterprises were stratified by type of business (retail, manufacturing etc) to ensure a cross section was interviewed.

The survey was overseen by a Reference Group and UN-Habitat. Specialist advice was provided by an expert from the Institute of Security Studies, South Africa. Fieldwork was undertaken by Intermediate Technology Group – East Africa with a team of 15 fieldworkers.

respondents can be given the opportunity to answer sensitive questions confidentially by writing the answers themselves and placing the completed questionnaire into a sealed, unmarked envelope.

It is essential to prepare for the coding and analysis as an integral part of the planning process, since this too will have a significant influence on questionnaire design.<sup>131</sup> Researchers should know in advance what data analysis will be required, and be confident that these can be produced from the final version of the questionnaire.

Finally, it must be recognised that victimisation surveys are not a panacea. They depend on people's memory, which is subject to 'telescoping'. They can be costly and time consuming. Obtaining a sample that is representative of a population may be difficult. Women are reluctant to talk freely in some countries. They do not produce data about so-called 'victimless' crimes, such as drug abuse; from homicide victims; or from young victims. Responses may include incidents that are not crimes and vice versa. Nevertheless, they are a very valuable tool for assessing a city's crime problems and the views of its citizens about them.

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<sup>130</sup> UN-Habitat. *Crime in Nairobi. Results of a citywide victim survey*. Safer Cities Series 4. Nairobi: UN-Habitat, 2002.

<sup>131</sup> Specialist software for questionnaire data analysis, such as SPSS, is widely available in academic institutions and its use will greatly facilitate and accelerate the process. <http://www.spss.com>.

## 16.3 Self-Report Offending Surveys

Information on offenders from secondary sources is always incomplete because many offenders are not detected and, even amongst those that are, not all are brought to justice. Sometimes the proportion whose details are known is very small. In England and Wales, for example, it is estimated that only about one in twenty offences concludes with an offender being processed through the justice system. This leaves a major gap in our understanding of offenders and the factors that may help prevent future criminal behaviour. Self-report offending surveys (SROS) can go a long way towards filling this knowledge gap.

### Memory Telescoping

Surveys of past experience and behaviour depend on individual memory, which is affected by ‘telescoping’. Serious incidents are not likely to be forgotten; they are kept in the memory as if they happened recently (forward telescoping). Less serious incidents are more likely to be forgotten and, if they are not forgotten, they are remembered as if they happened longer ago than was actually the case (backward telescoping).

SROS collect information on the extent and nature of individual offending, drug and alcohol use, attitudes to and contact with the criminal justice system, and offenders’ experiences of victimisation. They can be used to:

- estimate the number of offenders in the population and the offences they commit, including those not processed by the criminal justice system
- estimate the proportion of offenders and offences that come to the attention of criminal justice agencies
- estimate the proportion of active offenders who are young people and the proportion of crime they commit
- gather information on the nature of offences committed and offender motivation
- gather information on patterns of alcohol and illegal drug use and their links to offending
- gather data to identify the risk factors associated with the onset and continuation of offending and drug use, and factors associated with desistence.

### HEUNI Report On Self-Reported Juvenile Offending

A report published in 2004 explores the use of a standardised self-report questionnaire in England and Wales, the Netherlands and Spain in the 1990s as part of the International Self-Report Delinquency Study. The report is built around the questions included in the questionnaire, and these questions – a total of 499 of them – are reprinted in an Appendix for others to use. The report concludes that the self-report method is a viable and productive way of researching juvenile delinquency.

Self-Reported Juvenile Delinquency in England and Wales, The Netherlands and Spain (2004)<sup>132</sup>

<sup>132</sup> Barberet R, Bowling B, Junger-Tas J, Rechea-Alberola C, van Kesteren J and Zurawan A. *Self-reported juvenile delinquency in England and Wales, The Netherlands and Spain*. HEUNI Publication Series 43. Helsinki: HEUNI, 2004. <http://www.heuni.fi/uploads/w7b3a69oec.pdf>

As with victimisation surveys, appropriate attention must be given to the usual aspects of survey design: including specifying objectives, population definition, question formulation, sampling, delivery method, coding and analysis. Additionally, because such surveys depend on self-disclosure of illegal activity, strenuous efforts must be made to create conditions under which information can be collected confidentially and the anonymity of participants guaranteed. Where this reassurance can be given, and where surveys are well designed, SROS have proved to be a useful instrument for gathering information about offending and high response rates can be achieved, even with children as young as 10 years.

### **Community Consultation In England And Wales<sup>133</sup>**

**Researchers have compared the methods used by 263 Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships to consult with communities as part of their safety audits and the development of prevention strategies. The study included assessment of public meetings, focus groups, juries, police community consultative groups, crime prevention panels, opinion surveys and citizen panels. Citizens' panels, used by almost a quarter of Partnerships, scored highest on usefulness with 83% saying that they were useful.**

Nevertheless, one must be aware of significant threats to data reliability and accuracy. Non-response is likely to introduce bias, since individuals who have committed a lot of offences are less likely to participate. Memory will be affected by telescoping. Even with a guarantee of anonymity, it is possible that some respondents will not answer truthfully. For example, in Australia only 57% of police detainees, who tested positive to methamphetamines in a urinalysis test, self-reported in the interview that they had used the drug in the previous 48 hours.<sup>134</sup> In an attempt to gather more information about prolific and more

serious offenders, SROS have been carried out in England and Wales amongst prisoners and individuals serving community sentences.

## **16.4 Citizens' Panels**

Citizens' Panels comprise a representative sample of residents in an area who are consulted on local issues on an ongoing basis. In some countries municipal authorities and other agencies make use of panels for both surveys and qualitative research into local services. In the same way they can be used to consult communities as part of the safety audit process.

Panels usually comprise between 750 and 2,500 people, carefully selected to be a microcosm of the adult population in terms of age, gender, ethno-cultural identity and other socio-demographic variables. As panel members are willing volunteers retained over an extended period (with occasional 'topping up' with new members), time and money can be saved in recruitment and response rates are generally high. This combination of factors means that the views collected are more likely to be representative than most other forms of consultation.

It is however necessary to be aware of their limitations. Consultations usually take place 'at a distance', through the post, online or by telephone, so there is no interaction between consultees and minimal direct contact with researchers. (Sub-groups can be brought together for discussion, but this is more complicated.) There is usually limited opportunity to explore issues in depth and the process does little to develop participation in delivering solutions. Ownership of the questions remains with the organising agency, usually a public service provider. Most importantly, the way panels function and the commitment needed may reduce the involvement of hard to reach groups, and weight the sample towards older and more settled residents.

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<sup>133</sup> Newburn T and Jones T. *Consultation by Crime and Disorder Partnerships*. Police Research Series Paper 148. London: Home Office, 2002. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/prgpdfs/prs148.pdf>

<sup>134</sup> McGregor K and Makkai T. *Self-reported drug use – how prevalent is under-reporting*, Trends and Issues in Crime and Justice 260. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology, 2003. <http://pandora.nla.gov.au/pan/10850/20051030/www.aic.gov.au/publications/tandi2/tandi260.pdf>

### **Crime and Justice Surveys (C&JS), England and Wales<sup>135</sup>**

The first of four annual self-report offending surveys took place in 2003 under the auspices of the Home Office. It collected information on the extent of lifetime and last year offending; drug and alcohol use; attitudes to the criminal justice system; and victimisation experiences.

A random probability sample design was used to select a main sample of 10,079 from the general population aged from ten to 65. A 'booster' sample of 1,882 black and minority ethnic respondents was added to allow separate examination of their experiences, but homeless people were not included. Young people were 'oversampled', so just under half the main group were aged between 10 and 25, reflecting the strong interest in their behaviour. The unusually wide age range of the sample made it possible to estimate the proportion of total crime attributable to young people. Findings included:

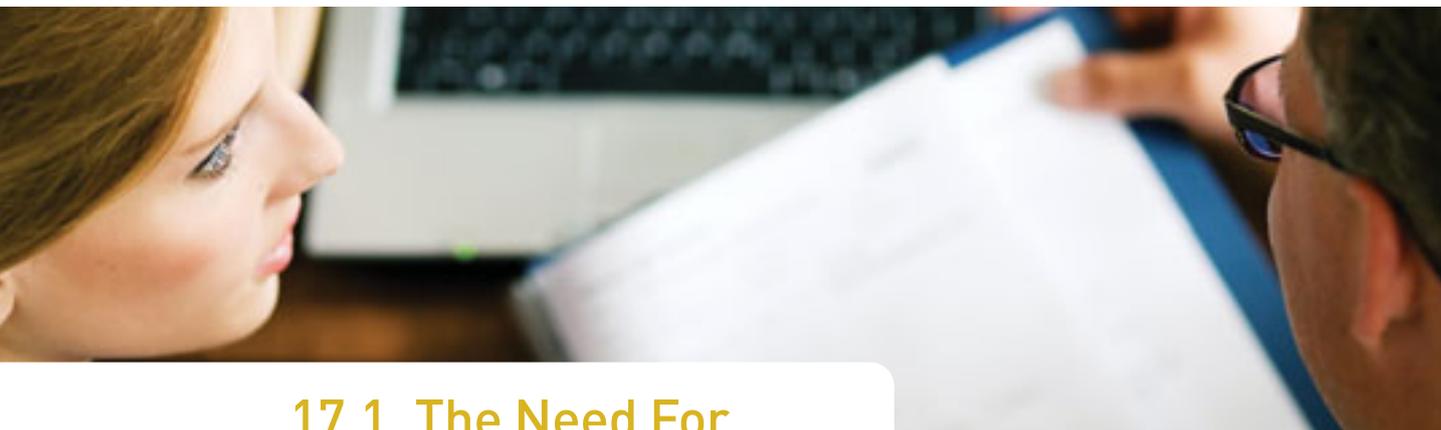
- In the past year, 1 in 10 respondents had committed a 'core' offence (burglary, robbery, selling drugs) and 2% were prolific offenders (six or more offences).
- Prolific offenders formed 2% of the sample and 26% of last year offenders, but accounted for 82% of all offences measured.
- Males aged between 10 and 25 (14% of the sample) accounted for almost half (47%) of all offences.
- 5% of incidents were committed when the offender had taken illegal drugs or alcohol.
- The most common reasons given for ceasing to offend were 'I knew it was wrong' and 'I grew up, settled down'.

A 74% response rate was achieved for the main sample. In subsequent years, the sample was reduced to 5,000 interviews, including some follow-ups with the original group to allow longitudinal study. Additional complementary surveys were conducted in prisons and with offenders on sentences served in the community.

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<sup>135</sup> Budd T, Sharp C and Mayhew P. *Offending in England and Wales: first results from the 2003 Crime And Justice Survey*. Home Office Research Study 275. London: Home Office, 2005. <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs05/hors275.pdf>  
Other reports from the 2003 and subsequent sweeps of the C&JS are available on the Home Office website at <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/index.html>.

# 17 Gathering Qualitative Information



## 17.1 The Need For Qualitative Data

Quantitative data is never enough on its own. Dry statistics need to be complemented by qualitative information, drawn from interviews, meetings and other forms of consultation. It is the material gathered through these contacts that will illuminate not just what is happening, but how and why it is occurring, crucial to gaining a real understanding. And it will reveal perceptions and concerns, priorities and opportunities, which should inform the development of the future prevention strategy. These are issues that do not easily translate into simple numbers and are much more effectively addressed through exploratory discussion and other forms of participative activity. However, this does not necessarily mean 'inventing' new consultative arrangements. It is often better to make use of existing mechanisms, if these work well.

Qualitative information will be required in Implementation Stages 1 and 2. However, the nature of the material collected will vary depend on local circumstances. In Stage 1, when the objective is quickly to build up an overview through 'wide and shallow' analysis, the main sources will normally be key informants.

### **'Conseils de Quartier' (Cameroon)**

In the cities of Yaoundé and Douala a need was identified for local consultative committees. Initially groups were constituted specifically for crime prevention, but it was soon realised that consultative arrangements needed to be rooted in local governance mechanisms. Attention therefore turned to the 'conseils de quartier', already established in some municipalities. Amendments were introduced to their design and mandate to allow them to work on safety and security issues. As a result, crime prevention became embedded in local development and the 'conseils de quartier' was involved in auditing their areas, as well as identifying priorities and implementation of the agreed strategy.

Laura Petrella, Coordinator,  
UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme

In Implementation Stage 2, as the safety audit moves into 'narrow and deep' analysis, concentrating on more specific issues and areas, qualitative inputs will be needed from different sources. They will include individuals, groups and organisations with specialist knowledge in the relevant subject areas. But there is also likely to be more 'grass-roots' involvement, including that of communities on which attention is focused and whose needs are emerging as possible strategic priorities.<sup>136</sup>

Here attention is first given to a range of consultative methods and then specific tools for gathering qualitative information, as listed below:

### Consultative methods

- Key informant interviews
- Open meetings
- Focus groups
- In-depth survey interviews
- Outreach work

### Consultative tools

- Walkabouts
- Snowballing
- Citizens' Juries
- Participatory budgeting

### Consulting Communities

**"Participative action research, or consultative research, provides a particular and very valuable kind of data. It doesn't purport to be scientific, but it probably provides a better reflection of the situation than a formal victimisation survey. What's particularly useful is that it helps to make connections between offending behaviour and the environment."**

**Barbara Holtmann, Senior Manager, Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, South Africa**

**"The most appropriate consultation methods are based on close personal contact with the communities through community fora, informal meetings and person-to-person discussions. Local newsletters and special television programmes can reach nearly all the members of communities, providing ample information on the local criminal and safety situation as well as about the performance of the police and local authorities."**

**Pál Baan, Senior Chief Counsellor, Ministry of Justice and Law Enforcement, Hungary**

It is appropriate to reiterate that community consultation is not the same as community engagement. This is a much wider process considered elsewhere in this Guidance (see 3.2).

## 17.2 Techniques For Collecting Qualitative Information

### Key Informant Interviews

Key informant interviews depend for success on individuals with an excellent understanding of a particular subject. Their main role will normally be to complement quantitative data by providing a well-informed interpretation and assessment of what is happening: why are problems occurring, which responses are working well, where are improvements needed, what resources could be deployed? However, in the absence of good quantitative data, informants may also become the primary source of basic information about the nature and scale of problems.

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<sup>136</sup> For a definition of 'communities', see 5.1.

In Stage 1 of the safety audit, when there is always a large number of issues to investigate, informants are likely to be the main source of qualitative input, ideally with each person able to contribute a citywide perspective, providing a 'one-stop shop' to the audit team. Informants will include senior representatives of public services or agencies; community organisations with citywide responsibilities; and other significant interest groups. Most are likely to be members of the audit 'round table' (see 1.5). In cities where crime, victimisation or prevention appears linked to ethno-cultural identity, it will be important to include representatives of relevant groups amongst those interviewed. Implementation Stage 2 is likely to involve informants with specialised knowledge, perhaps relating to a particular topic, group or sector.

Deciding which individuals to include as key informants is likely to be challenging. There may be a long line of people wanting to express their views, but the audit team will have limited time and personnel. It makes sense to compile a 'long list' of topics on which information gathering is considered desirable and then to narrow this down to match available resources (Table 26).

### Open Meetings

Open meetings can be used for two-way communication, providing attendees with information and eliciting their responses through questions and discussion. They are by definition open to anyone able to attend and in that respect are 'inclusive'. Holding them close to the group(s) being consulted, publicising them well in advance,

meeting at venues that have good accessibility and at times likely to be convenient can all improve attendance and involvement. Several smaller 'local' meetings are likely to be more successful than a larger meeting.

Such meetings can attract a large and diverse group of people with varied experiences and perceptions. Inevitably though it will be those with stronger views and motivation who are most likely to turn up and contribute. There is of course no easy way of ascertaining whether the views expressed are representative of the community or of a biased minority, but children and young people are unlikely participants. Similarly, they will not normally be attractive events to individuals who are socially excluded, marginalised or disempowered, unless special encouragement and practical support is given. In some situations this will also apply to women and ethno-cultural minorities.

Whilst their openness is a strength, it can make meetings harder to plan and manage. The numbers attending will be uncertain in advance and there can be problems if too many – or too few – arrive. It is difficult in such settings to engage with more sensitive issues, such as domestic violence and crimes of intolerance. A well-structured programme and careful facilitation are vital to ensure the debate remains constructive; that differences of opinion do not degenerate into conflict; that the agenda is not 'hijacked' by those with vested interests; and that a vocal minority is not allowed to dominate discussion (Table 27).

**Table 26**

### Critical Success Factors For Key Informant Interviews

- Compile a list of potential interviewees and then select the most important
- Set out your agenda in advance so the informant can prepare for the interview
- Advise informant how much time you would like him/her to keep free
- Make best use of the interview by 'getting up to speed' in advance
- Take a second person to the interview who can record what is said
- Get agreement to answer follow-up questions that arise after the meeting

### **Cherbourg Community Safety Audit, Queensland (Australia)<sup>137</sup>**

The Aboriginal community of Cherbourg was concerned about the high levels of crime (in particular youth crime) in Cherbourg and the nearby town of Murgon. The Department of Communities established from State data that local crime rates were high, but no information was available to explain why this was the case or its impact on the community. From April to June 2006, consultations were conducted with over 50 people in both communities. In addition to children, young people, Elders, Traditional Owners, leaders and family members, the following representatives were interviewed:

- Manager of Corporate and Financial services, Murgon Shire Council
- Regional Manager of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Legal Service, Murgon
- Head of School, Cherbourg State School
- Manager, Gundoo Child Care Centre
- Child Care Worker, Gundoo Child Care Centre
- School Family Liaison Officer, Cherbourg Primary School
- Chairman, Cherbourg Aboriginal Shire Council
- Aboriginal Teachers Aide, Cherbourg Primary School, also working with the Critical Incidents Group
- Winifred Fisher Knowledge Centre, Cherbourg State School
- Principal of Murgon State High School
- Senior Sergeant, Queensland Police, Murgon
- Department of Communities (Juvenile Justice), Murgon and Cherbourg
- Department of Child Safety, Murgon
- Cherbourg Sport and Recreation Centre
- Critical Incidents Group
- Leadership Centre, Nunderie TAFE, Cherbourg
- Manager, 'Bahun Jal Mano – Silver Lining Retreat
- Youth Worker, 'Bahun Jal Mano – Silver Lining Retreat
- Team leader, Barambah Regional Medical Services
- Strong and Smart Digital Unit, Cherbourg State School

### **Table 27**

#### **Critical Success Factors For Open Meetings**

- 
- Publicise the meeting well in advance
  - Meet at a convenient location, venue and time
  - Clearly define its purpose and what it is hoped to accomplish
  - Personally invite individuals you want to attend
  - Offer encouragement to those likely to feel apprehensive or marginalised
  - Provide practical help to anyone who has difficulty getting there
  - Make arrangements at the venue to help participants with a disability
  - Keep presentations relevant, short and simple
  - Maintain a positive tone throughout
  - Consider using an independent facilitator
  - Ensure safety audit team is effectively represented
  - Develop in advance a list of questions and discussion points
  - Set out clearly where the meeting fits into the wider process
  - Outline meeting constraints and ground-rules
  - Identify the specific areas for discussion
  - Outline at the end opportunities for further engagement
  - Keep accurate notes for circulation soon after the meeting
  - Close the meeting with thanks to all involved
  - Consider alternative ways to communicate with people unable to be there that day
- 

<sup>137</sup> Stanley J, Taylor S and Wilson W. *Cherbourg community safety plan report*, (30.6.06). Australia Focus Pty Ltd, 2006. [www.focus-planning.com](http://www.focus-planning.com)

## Focus Groups

'Focus group' is a term nowadays loosely applied to almost any group discussion. But, more correctly, it applies to a special type of meeting, organised and conducted in a particular way, to obtain perceptions on a specific topic that will be useful to decision makers. Within a safety audit, focus groups will be most useful during Implementation Stage 2 ('narrow and deep' analysis') or Implementation Stage 4 ('Consulting and Communicating').

A typical focus group contains six to ten participants selected because they have in common certain characteristics that relate to the topic. The discussion is conducted by a skilled facilitator who must create a permissive non-threatening environment for debate over two or three hours. The topic is briefly introduced by the facilitator, who then poses questions for the group to explore (Table 28).

A focus group differs from conventional meetings in several ways, and has advantages over both meetings and face-to-face interviews. It usually involves concentrated attention being given to a tightly defined subject, which is examined in depth. The primary emphasis is on discussion and interaction within the group to develop thinking, rather than on any formal presentations or 'top table' arrangement. Its size enables everyone to be fully engaged, but is big enough to include varied opinions. The facilitator can probe and challenge, but there is no pressure to reach a consensus, the aim being to hear a range of views and to find out why they are held (Table 29).

A study based on focus groups will normally include several groups with similar participants, not just one, to get a better understanding of attitudes and feelings. At the end of the process, there should be a good insight to the topic but, because only a small number of people will have been involved, it cannot be assumed that the views expressed are applicable to the wider population. Where possible, other methods should be used to check whether the ideas and opinions have wider support.

## In-depth Survey Interviews

Surveys are usually conducted to gather information that can be expressed numerically and then used to make statistical estimates about a population from a sample. Surveys can however be used in a very different way. In-depth interviews involve extended and loosely structured discussion of a narrower – and usually complex – topic, about which the respondent has personal knowledge or experience. They are an excellent method for gathering the detailed insight to a particular subject required in Implementation Stage 2 of a safety audit, complementing more quantitative approaches (Table 30).

Interviews lasting at least an hour are usually conducted one-to-one and face-to-face. The aim is to gather a collection of views from a sample of people in similar situations, but more through conversation or discussion than strict question and multiple-choice answers. As the information will not be used for measurement or statistical extrapolation, the survey is not constrained by the need for a large sample or to follow a rigid format. This approach lends itself particularly to the exploration of sensitive matters, such as family violence, and issues about which little is known (which makes formal questionnaire design difficult).

## Outreach Work

A consultation exercise is likely to exclude important sections of a city's population, if it is simply based on surveys, meetings and panels directed at 'mainstream' groups. That will certainly apply to people with low literacy, poor mobility and language difficulties. Also at risk of exclusion are the poor and disempowered – such as the homeless, immigrants and refugees. Others, including women and minorities, may not participate because of fear, cultural traditions or other factors. Yet their participation is particularly important because research shows that these groups are likely to experience higher than average levels of victimisation and because crime can have a disproportionate impact on their lives.

## Interviews On Violence Against Women, Dar es Salaam (Tanzania)

As part of the process to develop a safety strategy, a victim survey was carried out in March 2000. As well as 1,000 household interviews, 42 in-depth interviews were conducted with women who had experienced violence and abuse to explore questions that could not be covered in the main survey. Most (79%) had been economically abused, more than three-quarters had experienced emotional abuse and 71% physical abuse. Nearly half (45%) said they had been sexually abused. Many of the women had experienced all four types of abuse.

Crime in Dar es Salaam. Results of a City Victim Survey (2001)<sup>138</sup>

**Table 28**

### Example Questions For A Neighbourhood Focus Group Meeting

- 
- Tell me about your area and what you like/dislike about living here?
  - What makes you feel safe/unsafe here?
  - What are the main crime and disorder problems/issues affecting this community?
  - What do you think could be done to make you feel safer?
  - Is there a serious local problem with illegal drugs? How do you know?
  - What are the reasons for young people getting into trouble around here?
  - What more could be done to tackle the causes of crime and disorderly behaviour?
  - What is the best thing about living here?
- 

**Table 29**

### Critical Success Factors For Focus Groups

- 
- Be clear about the topic and how the results will inform the audit
  - Carefully consider criteria for selecting participants
  - Plan for a series of groups, not just one
  - Appoint a skilful facilitator who can manage time and debate
  - Avoid groups with more than 15 members
  - Select people who do not know each other
  - Use a room that is conducive to discussion
  - Ask simple clear open-ended questions that encourage debate
  - Arrange for someone to take notes or tape the discussion (with participants' permission)
  - Consider incentives to improve attendance (eg pay expenses and meet at a convenient time)
  - Adopt a systematic, verifiable and focused process to analyse responses
  - Ensure the report relates to the purpose and the audience
- 

**Table 30**

### Critical Success Factors For In-depth Survey Interviews

- 
- Use researchers able to establish a rapport with the interviewees
  - Ensure respondent is aware in advance of the topic to be discussed
  - Arrange meetings at times when the respondent can speak without interruption
  - Provide assurances of confidentiality
  - Hold meetings at comfortable places where it is possible to talk in confidence
  - Begin with 'easy' questions and move gradually to more sensitive topics
  - Get permission to record the meeting to avoid the distraction of note taking.
- 

<sup>138</sup> Robertshaw R, Louw A and Mtani A. Crime in Dar Es Salaam. Results of a city victim survey. Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies, 2001. <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Other/DaresSalaam/Content.html>

### **Post Genocide Community Consultation in Rwanda<sup>139</sup>**

Communities can be involved in identifying problems and solutions in the most difficult circumstances. In 1994 Rwanda suffered appalling acts of mass genocide, so engaging communities in the post-conflict period on an issue as sensitive as crime and policing was not easy. The environment that faced the Rwandan/UK audit team included: polarised ‘ethnicities’; internal displacement; fear, hostility and suspicion; language barriers; poverty and bereavement; and a lack of official data due to its destruction and oral traditions.

The process involved consulting with institutions, organisations and targeted groups that involved using meetings, focus groups, questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and unstructured street interviews. The community element of this programme collected the opinions, feelings and ideas of over 7,000 respondents from every Rwandan municipality. A culturally-sensitive and distinctive methodology was developed that included:

- deploying a mixed gender, police/community, Rwandan/UK team
- reassuring respondents that the safety audit was not a government or international diktat
- supporting team members, introducing themselves at the focus groups and speaking about the audit process
- visiting people in their own environments
- facilitating involvement of groups that felt vulnerable/in fear – for example, informal women’s groups that were too afraid to talk in front of police or men
- UK team members learning enough Kinyarwanda to give an opening address
- promoting awareness and raising interest in advance through the media and more distinctive outreach methods
- making consultation information accessible, including with graphic representations
- using traditional dances and songs at the beginning and end of most focus groups
- ensuring media coverage at every stage with an emphasis on radio broadcasts
- performing plays to demonstrate the current and required state of affairs
- ensuring as far as possible that all sections of a community were represented and giving everyone a chance to speak
- allowing time for lengthy discussions and debate, which are part of the oral tradition
- ensuring refreshments, particularly drinks, were available during meetings
- anticipating and managing conflict between participants or directed at researchers.

A constant theme was the positive response from the community who felt that the process of involving them, and making a proactive effort to listen to what they had to say, was of major significance and greatly welcomed.

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<sup>139</sup> The Rwandan Human Rights and Police Conduct Audit took place in 2000. It was funded by the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) and implemented by IODA through the UNDP Mission in Rwanda.”

In any city therefore the safety audit team needs to identify significant groups likely to be excluded or severely under-represented and find alternative ways to bring their experiences, concerns and ideas into the process. One option is outreach work that deliberately seeks out and engages with people who can provide those missing inputs in 'their' settings. With groups that are vulnerable, fearful or suspicious, researchers need to have not only the necessary technical skills but the right personality to build the confidence of respondents on which success depends (Table 31).

Outreach consultations can take different forms. It may involve casually meeting individuals on the street for informal conversations or arranging to have a more structured discussion with a family in their home. It could include bringing together a group who will feel comfortable and not intimidated talking in front of each other, perhaps in a community setting such as a mosque or village meeting place.

**Table 31**  
**Critical Success Factors For Outreach Work**

- 
- |  |   |
|--|---|
| ■ Consider using trusted intermediaries for introductions                        | ■ Provide assurances of confidentiality                           |
| ■ Use researchers likely to establish a relationship and put respondents at ease | ■ Avoid formal 'question and answer' interviewing                 |
| ■ Meet on their terms in non-institutional settings where they feel comfortable  | ■ Take time to build trust and work towards more difficult topics |
|  | ■ Provide feedback on audit findings                              |
- 

### **Consulting Hard-To-Reach Groups**

“The elderly, the homeless, members of minorities and youngsters should be first approached by local social workers and family helpers, then called together and be given the opportunity to express themselves freely in identifying their own specific problems and their solutions. Another example is the gypsies, who respect police officers coming from their own minority group. Speaking the minorities’ languages and participation at their cultural events helps a lot in obtaining their confidence, which is as vital in dealing with them as getting them involved.”

**Pál Baan, Senior Chief Counsellor, Ministry of the Justice and Law Enforcement, Hungary**

## 17.3 Tools For Gathering Qualitative Information

### Visioning

Visioning is an exercise to build a shared vision of the future, a vision which may relate to an area, an organisation or a service. In the context of crime prevention, the vision will be what it is like to grow up, live and work in a place that is safe, where people can be free from fear, violence, victimisation and intolerance. It is very important to have a common vision, since this will unite people and secure their commitment to working together.

A visioning event can be useful at various Stages in the safety audit process. In Implementation Stage 1, for example, it can be carried out at citywide level with key stakeholders, such as in a 'round table' setting. This can help build a sense of collective direction, ownership and support, but it can also expose differences of view, which need to be explored and reconciled.

Implementation Stage 2 can involve visioning with neighbourhoods, communities of interest and the hard-to-reach. As well as generating valuable inputs to the audit, it is a good way of involving people at an early stage in the decision-making

process, demonstrating agency commitment to a participative approach. This can in turn generate community interest and increase involvement later, including in strategy implementation.

In both Stages 1 and 2, as well as bringing people together, visioning can help ensure that the safety audit moves in the right direction, identifying which issues should be examined in greater depth. With a common vision in mind, it is possible to work backwards to establish what steps need to be taken to achieve it. This narrowing of the agenda is particularly important given the very wide range of topics that potentially could be covered (Table 32).

In Implementation Stages 3 and 4, visioning can help the Steering Group determine priorities for action and point towards responses which should be incorporated in the strategy itself. Looking further ahead, the vision may be used as a benchmark against which the impact of the strategy can be evaluated.

The simplicity of the concept makes it suitable for consultation with many different types of group, including young people, and its forward-looking nature encourages constructive engagement. Nevertheless, one needs to recognise some limitations. Without careful management, unrealistic expectations can be raised, leading to disillusion when hopes are dashed. Different visions are not always easily reconciled, which can be divisive

**Table 32**

### Sample Questions For Neighbourhood Visioning

It is 10 years from today and all the things you would wish for to make your neighbourhood a safe place have happened!

- What is it like to live in your neighbourhood now?
- What is it that makes it like that?
- Which three words best describe the new situation?
- What are the greatest benefits of what has happened?
- What needed to happen to bring about the improvement?

A vision can be defined in words, but it may also be effectively portrayed through painting or drama, which may be more appropriate for certain groups, including children.

**Table 33**

### **Visioning Events: Good Practice Principles**

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- 1 Visioning is of maximum use at an early point in the consultation process.
  - 2 Good preparation is essential; background information is needed to create an informed vision.
  - 3 Visioning must be a shared activity rather than an individual endeavour. But it can be useful to begin with each individual defining his/her personal vision and then exploring what is shared and what is different in the group.
  - 4 Allow plenty of time for discussion and use a skilled facilitator.
  - 5 Work towards creating a vision statement, which should be short and inspirational.
- 

and weaken partnerships. Visioning can lead to poor results because people 'can't want what they don't know'; sometimes it is better to offer a range of choices than a blank piece of paper (Table 33)!

### **Exploratory Walks**

This activity is usually associated with concerns about particular geographical areas and involves meeting 'on site' to discuss those concerns and explore ideas about how they could be addressed. It is therefore most useful in Implementation Stage 2. Participants might be a cross-section of local people, a particular interest group or a mixed group that includes agency representatives. Ideas are developed during the walkabout and can then be communicated to the audit team. Using disposable cameras to capture information can assist groups to communicate their views and concerns to a wider audience.<sup>140</sup>

The walkabout is particularly suited to looking at matters that relate to the physical environment, such as building design or street lighting, or the use of an area, for example by street drinkers, speeding traffic or youth gangs. Walking about in the location and at a time when problems are evident can be very effective in raising awareness, clarifying what is wrong, increasing engagement and developing responses. The practical nature of the process gives it a realism that local people tend to find more appealing than a meeting room, and participants seem to move naturally from problems to responses.

### **Exploratory Walks In Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania)**

Exploratory walks in informal settlements, undertaken by women with city planning officials, led to identification of a number of issues that were not evident from either police statistics or other community consultations. Insecurity was linked to illegal drinking dens, the existence of underdeveloped plots and the dirty/unhealthy environment, which was a particular concern for the security of children. As a result, the crime prevention strategy included engagement with the drinking den owners and the regulatory body in charge of plot allocation, as well as cleaning of the settlements, in addition to the existing work of neighbourhood watch and employment generation. This form of audit also changed perceptions of city officials about their role in crime prevention and on women's needs, as it became apparent that planning officers could consider crime prevention as one of their areas of competence.

Laura Petrella, Coordinator,  
UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme

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<sup>140</sup> Some organisations see walkabouts as the basis for a safety audit that focuses on streets and other public spaces. *A Safety audit resource kit: for women and communities*, which covers walkabouts, has been produced by METRAC (Canada). <http://www.metrac.org/programs/safe/why.htm>

## **Fear of Crime Survey of Immigrant Communities, Sydney (Australia)**

This study was designed to tap the views of immigrant ‘Sydneyiders’, whose voices went largely unrecorded in English-based opinion polls. Over 80% of the 835 respondents were first- or second-generation immigrants from 21 birthplace groups with non-English speaking backgrounds. Most interviews with adults were conducted in a language other than English.

A snowballing methodology was used, selecting people through community networks. This, researchers believed, resulted in higher participation of immigrant minority voices and greater reliability of responses, than would have been achieved through traditional random sampling.

### **Gangs, Crime and Community Safety: Perceptions and Experiences in Multicultural Sydney (2002)<sup>141</sup>**

Walkabouts have been used very effectively as part of women’s safety audits and, more generally, to assess safety issues along routes to and from transport nodes. The process should begin with clarification of objectives and methods to be used. The group then observes or walks through the area, discussing and recording points along the way. This can be made more systematic with a checklist of questions to consider, and it may be useful to repeat the process at different times, days or months, and even with different groups.

## **Snowballing**

Snowballing simply involves using established contacts to provide referrals and introductions to others. The process can help the audit team engage with relevant individuals in areas where they have few contacts and is particularly useful in connecting with hard-to-reach groups, such as drug users or gang members. Researchers make contact with one person in

such a group who then facilitates links with others, who in turn extend the network further and so on – hence a snowballing effect.

## **Citizens’ Juries**

A Citizens’ Jury is a randomly selected and demographically representative panel of citizens that meets for four or five days to carefully examine an issue of public significance. The jury, usually consisting of 18-24 people who are paid a stipend for their time, serves as a microcosm of the public. They hear from a variety of expert witnesses and are able to deliberate together on the issue. On the final day of their moderated hearings, the members of the Citizens’ Jury present their recommendations to decision makers and the public. Their role can be enhanced by good communication, possibly including a web presence and media contacts. Within the safety audit process, a Jury may be convened to examine a particular problem during Implementation Stage 2, to inform the selection of priorities in Stage 3 or to consider the audit’s findings in Stage 4.

Juries are based on the belief that, once a small sample of a population has heard the evidence their deliberations can fairly represent the perspectives of the wider community (Table 34). This reasoning contrasts with most other common quantitative and qualitative consultative methods, which usually involve larger samples to represent the public’s views. The function of the jury members is also different from participants in other forms of qualitative research:

- Jurors are given time to reflect and deliberate freely with each other, occasionally assisted by a neutral advisor
- They are given the opportunity to scrutinise the information they receive from witnesses, whom they interrogate themselves
- They are expected to develop a set of conclusions or ‘vision’ for the future – which need not be unanimous.

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<sup>141</sup> University of Technology, Sydney and the University of Western Sydney. *Gangs, crime and community safety: perceptions and experiences in multicultural*. Sydney: 2002. <http://www.uts.edu.au/new/releases/2002/September/23.html>

The first jury was convened in the US in 1974, although similar initiatives were emerging in Germany, and the concept is now used in several countries, including Denmark, Spain, Australia and Great Britain. A Citizens' Jury Handbook has been developed by the Jefferson Center, originator of the process, which is available free online.<sup>142</sup>

## Participatory Budgeting

One of the most effective and powerful methods of involving communities is participatory budgeting, a process of democratic deliberation and decision-making, in which ordinary city residents determine investment priorities and decide how to allocate part of a municipal budget. Although resources are not actually allocated during the safety audit, the concept can be adapted for this process. It can be used to democratically determine priorities for action and how a particular community or group would like to see resources divided between different options. As with the Citizens' Jury, it is important that there is a clear commitment from the safety audit team to hear the conclusions and respond constructively to them, if the participants are to feel that it is worthwhile.

Various studies suggest participatory budgeting results in improved services, more equitable public spending, greater accountability, higher levels of public participation (especially by marginalised residents), and citizenship learning. Developed and used widely by local government in Brazil, it has now been adopted elsewhere in

## Participatory Budgeting in Porto Alegre (Brazil)

Participatory budgeting (PB) originated in this city of 1.5m people in 1989 and 50,000 now take part. The annual cycle starts in January with meetings across the city to encourage participation; one study has shown that poor people, less well-educated people and black people are not inhibited in attending and speaking up. In March there are assemblies in each of the 16 districts, as well as thematic meetings covering such areas as transport, crime and health. At these very well attended events, delegates are elected to represent specific neighbourhoods and they meet frequently over subsequent months to consider local needs and agree their priorities.

Priorities from across the city are combined for consideration by the Municipal Budget Council, a 42-member forum of representatives of all the districts and thematic meetings. Its main function is to reconcile the demands of each district with available resources, and to propose and approve an overall municipal budget. The resulting budget is binding – the council can suggest changes but not require them. The budget is submitted to the mayor who may veto it, but this has never happened.

The internet provides an ongoing vehicle for involvement, which the city has now extended to other planning activities. As participatory budgeting has developed, the numbers of political, cultural, and neighbourhood groups have doubled, especially in poorer districts.

## Table 34

### Citizens' Juries: Good Practice Principles

- 1 Jurors must receive sufficient information (both written and oral) to reach a decision.
- 2 Witnesses should give evidence and can be cross-examined.
- 3 Jurors must have adequate time to become informed and discuss the issue, so 3-5 days should be allowed on any significant topic.
- 4 A trained moderator is essential but their role is to facilitate discussion, not act as a judge in a legal jury by directing the jurors.
- 5 The decisions or recommendations of a Jury are not binding, but it is important that there should be agreement that the sponsoring body (ie the audit team) will take into account the recommendations and, if these are not implemented, reasons should be given and published.

<sup>142</sup> <http://www.jefferson-center.org>.

## Walkabout Checklist for Women's Safety Audits, Cowichan Valley Safer Futures Program, British Columbia (Canada)<sup>143</sup>

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### General Impressions and Overall Design

- What is your first reaction to this place?
  - What three words best describe the area?
  - Is it easy to find your way around the area? Does it make sense?
  - Is the area (building) accessible?
  - Is it served by transit?
  - Would you know where to go for help? How accessible is help?
  - Are there signs, for example, indicating how to access emergency services?
- 

### Isolation

- Does the area feel isolated? When?
  - Are there many people around the area? Morning, day, evening?
  - Do the surrounding land uses encourage people to be there?
  - How far is the nearest emergency service? Are there any public phones around?
- 

### Lighting

- Is the lighting bright enough, even, and in good repair?
  - Are there any lights out?
  - Are walkways, sidewalks, directional signs and doorways sufficiently illuminated?
  - Is lighting obstructed by trees or bushes?
  - Would you be able to identify someone at a distance?
- 

### Sightlines, Movement Predictors, Entrapment Sites

- Are you able to see clearly what is up ahead?
  - Are there small, confined areas where you (or others) could be hidden from view?
  - How easy would it be to get away if you were threatened?
  - How easy would it be for an offender to disappear?
  - Are there any alternative routes available to you?
  - Are there any rooms or storage places left unlocked?
- 

### Maintenance

- Does the area feel cared for or abandoned?
  - Is there litter, graffiti or vandalism present?
  - Do you know who to report problems to?
- 

### Signage

- Are there signs or other information that tell you about the area, where to find assistance, wheelchair access, entrances and exits?
  - Can they be seen and read easily? By someone in a wheelchair, with a sight impairment?
  - Are there any signs that should be added or changed?
- 

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<sup>143</sup> Cowichan Valley Safer Futures Program (undated), *Women and Community Safety: a resource book on planning for safer communities*. Canada. <http://www.saferfutures.org/publications.php#fs>

Latin America, as well as in Europe, Asia, Africa, and North America. The process has been extended to provide specific opportunities for children and youth, especially in Brazil. Within the field of crime prevention, it clearly has a further role in determining how real resources should be spent in later strategy development and action planning stages.

Although a simple concept, the success of participatory budgeting depends on it being undertaken within a well-defined framework that includes:

- a clearly defined geographical structure, complementing political boundaries, which facilitates decision-making and service delivery
- well supported, city-wide meetings and debates to involve local communities in discussion on thematic issues, decide strategic priorities, develop actions plans and evaluate and monitor on-going activity, in a manner which complements existing representative democratic structures

- a widely understood annual cycle, which provides a framework for participation, planning and implementation
- a network of support agencies involved in local capacity building and the communication and promotion of policy information and practice
- a budget matrix, which processes local priorities into a comprehensive table to inform expenditure across the city and across established themes.<sup>144</sup>

## 17.4 The Need For A Balanced Approach

No single information gathering method or tool – quantitative or qualitative – will be sufficient on its own. A successful safety audit will use a variety of approaches to describe and explain what is happening.

### Local Crime Prevention Toolkit – The ‘Tin Box’ (South Africa)<sup>145</sup>

This innovative resource was developed in response to growing demand for tools to support the development and implementation of local crime prevention strategies. It includes a step-by-step guide to each stage of the process, including gaining an understanding of local problems (the safety audit).

Materials are included which will engage communities as well as officials. The toolkit comes in a large tin box, complete with a magnetic board and magnets representing key local institutions, a jigsaw puzzle, guidance booklets and resource materials on a range of local prevention issues, and a series of

templates for strategic planning, project planning, communications and monitoring. These are available on CD for users to adapt and apply to their own local conditions and needs. There are also tools for crime mapping and the mobilisation of sectors such as schools.

Ongoing development will see it expand to incorporate a tool for integrated budgeting, and a more detailed safety audit at the local level. The toolkit is a partnership initiative led by the CSIR Crime Prevention Centre with the NGO UMAC, the South African Police Service and Business Against Crime.

<sup>144</sup> Developed from 'What is Participatory Budgeting? A Community Pride Initiative Briefing Paper, 2003.

<http://www.participatorybudgeting.org.uk>

<sup>145</sup> For more information, contact CSIR Crime Prevention Centre (Pretoria, South Africa).

<http://www.crimeprevention.csir.co.za/about.php3>

### **Community Consultation In Kragujevac (Serbia)**

Kragujevac is an industrial city in central Serbia with a population over 175,000 (2002) of which 99% are ethnic Serbs and 1% Roma and Internally Displaced Persons ('Egyptian Roma' and Albanians). Closure and contraction of local industry have created serious unemployment and, as the situation deteriorated, police perceived a worsening of crime problems. Property violations, such as burglaries, rose sharply and violence, including armed robberies and domestic violence (including murder), increased significantly. Organised crime, the black market and corruption were increasingly evident. A high proportion of offences involved criminal damage or disorder.

As part of a wider programme to reduce community tensions, improve police-community relations and address the most serious crime problems, community-based policing was introduced and a multi-agency Safety Council was set up in 2004. Recognising that official statistics only told a small part of the story, its first initiative was to organise a series of activities that would not only build community links, but also gather information about local problems through an informal audit process.

Newly-appointed neighbourhood police officers made 10,000 door-to-door visits to speak to residents about local problems. A programme of regular meetings in each Mesna Zajednica (ward) was introduced, as well as local surgeries, so citizens could communicate concerns, 'intelligence' and solutions. An active media campaign was developed to encourage feedback and participation, and a questionnaire survey of 700 residents was undertaken to establish priorities. As problems were identified, Working Groups covering key themes, such as family violence and juvenile crime were established. Each included senior representatives of key agencies who were able to provide further information about identified problems, including contextual data that helped explain why problems were occurring and how they might be addressed.

Whilst initially greeted with great suspicion, confidence in the arrangements and the flow of information has gradually increased.



# APPENDICES

# Appendix A

## Risk Factors Associated With Offending

**Table 35**  
Factors Found To Increase Risk (in developed countries)

Individual	Family	School	Community
Growing up in care	Violence/abuse	Truancy	Disadvantage
Hyperactivity	Lack of affection	Suspension/exclusion	High crime rate
Impulsivity	Poor supervision	School failure	Racial tension
Learning difficulties	Inconsistent discipline	Aggressive behaviour	Unemployment
Mental illness	Family breakdown	Bullying	Disorganisation
Insecurity	Mental illness	Lack of commitment	Neglect
Poor social skills	Parental conflict	Poor relationships	Availability of drugs
Low self esteem	Poverty	Special needs	High turnover
Drug use	Substance abuse	Unsupportive parents	Lack of attachment
Anti social behaviour	Criminality	Under achievement	Poor living conditions
Friends who offend	Unemployment	Peer rejection	Lack of services

# Appendix B

## UN Guidelines For The Prevention Of Crime

### I. Introduction

- 1 There is clear evidence that well-planned crime prevention strategies not only prevent crime and victimisation, 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.
- 4 The present Guidelines address crime and its effects on victims and society and take into account the growing internationalisation 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 victimisation (prevention through social development or social crime prevention);

- (b) Change the conditions in neighbourhoods that influence offending, victimisation 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 minimising 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.

#### *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 marginalisation 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 organisations, non-governmental organisations, 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, multi-disciplinary 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 organised 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. Organisation, methods and approaches

**15** Recognising 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 identify a sustainable resource base.

## A. Organisation

### *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 organisation 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 their formation at different levels and across sectors;
- (c) Facilitating their efficient operation.

### *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 victimisation;
- (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 organisation 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 victimisation, 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 stigmatisation of individuals and/or communities.

## **C. Approaches**

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

### ***Social development***

- 25** Governments should address the risk factors of crime and victimisation by:
- (a)** Promoting protective factors through comprehensive and non-stigmatising social and economic development programmes, including health, education, housing and employment;
  - (b)** Promoting activities that redress marginalisation 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 victimisation.

### ***Prevention of organized crime***

- 27** Governments and civil society should endeavour to analyse and address the links between transnational organised crime and national and local crime problems by, inter alia:
- (a)** Reducing existing and future opportunities for organised 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 organised 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 marginalised groups, especially women and children, who are vulnerable to the action of organised 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 (resolution 48/104), the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (the Riyadh Guidelines) (resolution 45/112, annex), the Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power (resolution 40/34, annex), the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention (Economic and Social Council 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 (resolutions 55/25, annexes I-III, and 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 organisations 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.

### ***Prioritising crime prevention***

**32** The Centre for International Crime Prevention, 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 organisations should cooperate to produce crime prevention information in as many languages as possible, using both print and electronic media.

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# Organisations, Websites And Online Resources

Anti-Slavery International. <http://www.antislavery.org>

Beccaria project [www.beccaria.de](http://www.beccaria.de)

Bureau of Justice Statistics (US). <http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/welcome.html>

Cardiff University Violence And Society Research Group. <http://www.cardiff.ac.uk/dentistry/research/phacr/violence>

Citizens' Institute For The Study of Insecurity, ICESI (Mexico). [www.icesi.org.mx](http://www.icesi.org.mx)

Coalition Against Trafficking in Women. <http://www.catwinternational.org/index.php>

Crime and Criminal Justice Statistics (Australia). <http://www.aic.gov.au/stats>

CrimPrev Project <http://www.crimprev.eu>

Crime Reduction Toolkits (UK). <http://www.crimereduction.gov.uk/toolkits/index.htm>

CSIR Crime Prevention Centre (South Africa). <http://www.crimeprevention.csir.co.za/about.php3>

Danish Crime Prevention Council <http://www.crimprev.dk>

European Forum for Urban Safety (EFUS). <http://www.urbansecurity.org>

European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control (HEUNI). <http://www.heuni.fi>

European Crime Prevention Network <http://www.eucpn.org>

General Direction for Safety and Prevention Policy (Belgium) <http://www.besafe.be>

Home Office Research, Development and Statistics (UK). <http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds>

HumanTrafficking.org. <http://www.humantrafficking.org>

Interministerial Committee for Crime Prevention (France) <http://www.sgciptd.gouv.fr/>

Interministerial Delegation for Cities (France) <http://www.ville.gouv.fr>

International Association for Public Participation. <http://iap2.org>

International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC). [www.crime-prevention-intl.org](http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org)

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National Council for Crime Prevention (Finland) <http://www.rikoksentorjunta.fi>

National council for crime prevention (Sweden) <http://www.bra.se>

Netherlands Centre for Crime Prevention and Community Safety <http://www.hetccv.nl>

Observatoire français des drogues et des toxicomanies (*French Observatory on Drugs and Addiction*). <http://www.ofdt.fr>

Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (US). <http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.gov/about/about.html>

Osservatorio regionale sulle politiche integrate per la sicurezza (*Regional Observatory On Security Policies*) (Tuscany, Italy). <http://sicurezza.regione.toscana.it/>

Statistics Canada Crime and Justice Research Paper Series. <http://www.statcan.ca/bsolc/english/bsolc?catno=85-561-M>

United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF). <http://www.unicef.org>

United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI). <http://www.unicri.it>

UNICRI *Action Programme Against Trafficking in Minors for Sexual Purposes* <http://www.unicri.it/wwd/trafficking/minors/index.php>

World Health Organisation (WHO). <http://who.int/in/>