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2005 ENVIRONMENTAL SCAN



AUGUST 2005

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

	PAGE
I. Demographic Trends	
Highlights.....	1
A. Toronto Population.....	2
B. Age Structure of the Population.....	3
C. Population Composition.....	6
<i>Immigration</i>	6
<i>Diversity</i>	8
<i>Language</i>	11
<i>Religion</i>	13
<i>Income</i>	14
D. Divisional Profiles.....	17
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service.....	17
Chapter Appendix (Divisional Demographics).....	20
II. Crime Trends	
Highlights.....	31
A. National Crime Trends.....	32
B. Interpretation of Police Reported Crime Data.....	33
C. Level of Crime and Police Resources.....	34
D. Number of Crimes in Toronto.....	35
E. Rates for Comparisons.....	38
F. Changes in Proportion of Major Offence Groups.....	39
G. Crimes of Violence.....	40
H. Use of Weapons and Injury of Crime Victims.....	40
I. Theft of Motor Vehicles and Break & Enter.....	42
<i>Theft of Motor Vehicles</i>	43
<i>Break & Enter</i>	44
J. Drug-Related Crimes.....	45
K. Organised Crime.....	48
L. Hi-Tech Crime and Identity Theft.....	52
M. Persons Arrested and Charged.....	56
N. Trends Across Police Divisions.....	60
O. Comparison with Other Canadian Cities.....	62
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service.....	65
Chapter Appendix (Divisional Statistics).....	68
III. Youth Crime	
Highlights.....	73
A. A Perspective on Youth Crime.....	74
B. Youth Criminal Justice Act.....	76
<i>The Youth Referral Program</i>	77
C. Youth Crime in Canada.....	77



	PAGE
III. Youth Crime (cont'd)	
D. Youth Crime in Toronto.....	80
<i>Number of Youths Arrested</i>	80
<i>Number of Youths Arrested–By Gender & Major Offence Categories</i>	82
<i>Arrest Rates</i>	84
E. Crimes Occurring on School Premises.....	86
<i>Bullying</i>	88
F. Drug Use by Youths	89
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	90
Chapter Appendix (Persons Arrested by Age and Offence).....	92
IV. Victimization	
Highlights.....	95
A. Victimization in Canada.....	96
B. Reporting Victimization to the Police.....	98
C. Victimization in Toronto – Total and By Gender	98
<i>Criminal Harassment (Stalking)</i>	102
D. Victimization – By Age	104
<i>Children and Youth – Violent Crime</i>	107
<i>Elderly – Violent Crime</i>	110
E. Victimization Within the Family.....	110
<i>Children and Youth – Abuse</i>	110
<i>Domestic Violence</i>	115
<i>Elderly – Abuse</i>	119
F. Hate/Bias Crime	120
G. Victim Resources	123
<i>Victim Services Program of Toronto</i>	123
<i>Victim/Witness Assistance Program (VWAP)</i>	124
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	124
V. Traffic	
Highlights.....	127
A. Road Safety in Canada.....	128
<i>Road Safety Vision 2010</i>	129
B. Toronto – Transportation Infrastructure Overview.....	130
C. Traffic Volume in Toronto.....	130
D. City of Toronto Cordon Count.....	132
E. Traffic Management.....	134
<i>Current and Future Trends</i>	135
F. Traffic Collisions	137
G. Highway Traffic Act.....	141
H. Aggressive and Distracted Drivers	143
I. The RIDE Program and Impaired Driving.....	145
<i>The RIDE Program</i>	145



	PAGE
V. Traffic (cont'd)	
<i>Impaired Driving</i>	146
J. Red-Light Cameras	149
K. Traffic Safety Initiatives	150
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	152
VI. Calls for Service	
Highlights.....	153
A. Calls Received and Method of Response.....	153
B. Response Times	155
C. Service Times.....	158
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	160
VII. Urban Trends	
Highlights.....	163
A. The National Urban Approach.....	164
B. Toronto’s Urban Development	165
C. Development and Planning Projects	166
<i>The Toronto Waterfront</i>	167
<i>Harbourfront Parks and Open Spaces</i>	168
<i>Fort York Neighbourhood</i>	168
<i>Union Station Restoration and Revitalisation</i>	168
<i>Regent Park</i>	169
D. Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design	169
E. Economic and Social Advance.....	170
<i>Economic Stature</i>	170
<i>Social Development</i>	171
F. Real Estate in Toronto.....	172
G. Transportation.....	173
<i>Toronto Transit Commission</i>	173
<i>GO Transit</i>	175
<i>Toronto Taxi Industry</i>	175
<i>Lester B. Pearson International Airport</i>	176
<i>The Breeze Ferry Service (Toronto to Rochester)</i>	177
H. Special Constable Services.....	177
<i>TTC Special Constables</i>	177
<i>Toronto Community Housing Corporation</i>	178
<i>University of Toronto Police</i>	178
I. Private Security.....	179
J. Tourism in Toronto	180
K. Hazardous Events.....	181
L. Terrorism and Natural Disasters	183
M. Demonstrations and Special Events	185
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	185



	PAGE
VIII. Technology & Policing	
Highlights.....	187
A. Household Internet Use.....	187
B. General Trends – The Next Generation.....	189
C. Technology-Related Crimes – Greater Toronto Area.....	190
D. Toronto Police Service – Technological Crime Unit.....	190
E. Child Pornography	191
F. Identity Theft.....	194
G. Phishing.....	195
H. Fake Canadian Driving Licences	197
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	198
IX. Police Resources	
Highlights.....	199
A. Workforce Demographics.....	200
<i>Officer to Population Ratio</i>	201
<i>Age and Length of Service of Uniform Members</i>	202
<i>Retirements and Resignations</i>	206
<i>Crime to Strength Ratio</i>	208
<i>Resource Deployment</i>	209
B. Workforce Diversity.....	209
<i>Uniform Composition</i>	210
C. Uniform Equity Hiring.....	212
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	213
X. Public Perceptions	
Highlights.....	215
A. Perceptions of Safety	216
<i>General Community</i>	216
<i>High School Students</i>	219
<i>School Administrators</i>	222
B. Perceptions of Policing.....	223
<i>General Community</i>	224
<i>General Community Respondents who had Contact with Police</i> <i>during Past Year</i>	226
<i>High School Students</i>	229
<i>School Administrators</i>	230
C. Public Complaints	231
Recommendations/Implications for Police Service	233



XI. Legislative Impacts

PAGE

Highlights.....235

A. Criminal Code.....236

An Act respecting the registration of information relating to sex offenders, to amend the Criminal Code and to make consequential amendments to other Acts.....236

An Act to amend the Criminal Code (protection of children and other vulnerable persons) and the Canada Evidence Act.....237

An Act to amend the Criminal Code (impaired driving) and to make consequential amendments to other Acts.....237

An Act to amend the Criminal Code, the DNA Identification Act and National Defence Act238

An Act to amend the Criminal Code (capital markets fraud and evidence-gathering).....238

Regina v. Backhouse239

B. Controlled Drugs and Substances Act.....239

C. Ontario Police Services Act.....240

D. Mandatory Gunshot Wounds Reporting Act240

E. Consumer Reporting Act.....241

Recommendations/Implications for Police Service241

**LIST OF FIGURES**

	PAGE
1.1 Population and Growth: 1996-2001	2
1.2 Population of Toronto and Rest of GTA – 1996 and 2001	3
1.3 GTA – Proportion of Population by Age – 2001	4
1.4 Toronto – Proportion of Population by Age (actual & projected)	5
1.5 Population Composition Toronto – 1996 Census	9
1.6 Population Composition Toronto – 2001 Census	9
1.7 GTA – Visible Minorities – Proportion of Population.....	10
1.8 Median Household Income – 2000	15
2.1 Non-Traffic Criminal Code Offences by Year.....	36
2.2 Crime Rate per 1,000 Population.....	38
2.3 Crime Clearance Rates.....	39
2.4 Major Offence Groups as Proportion of Total Non-Traffic CC Offences	40
2.5 Number of Motor Vehicle Thefts.....	43
2.6 Number of Break & Enters.....	44
2.7 Drug Offences and Persons Charged	46
2.8 Persons Arrested/Charged by Offence Type.....	56
2.9 Persons Charged per 1,000 Population (Non-Traffic CC).....	57
3.1 National Youth Crime Rates (per 1,000 youths).....	78
3.2 National Youth Charge Rate (per 1,000 youths).....	79
3.3 Youths & Adults Arrested – Criminal Code Offences.....	81
3.4 Youths Charged for Drug-Related Offences.....	89
4.1 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) by Gender.....	99
4.2 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) – Assault.....	100
4.3 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) – Sexual Assault	101
4.4 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) – Robbery.....	101
4.5 Criminal Harassment Offences	103
4.6 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) by Age	104
4.7 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) by Age – Assault	105
4.8 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) by Age – Sexual Assault	105
4.9 Victimization Rate (per 1,000) by Age – Robbery.....	106
4.10 Number of Homicide Victims by Age	107
4.11 Reported Child Abuse Offences.....	115
4.12 Hate Crime Occurrences	121
4.13 Most Frequently Reported Hate-Motivated Offences.....	122
4.14 Hate Crimes Targeting Race and Religion.....	122
4.15 Responses by Victim Services Program.....	124



	PAGE
5.1 Screenline Analysis: 2002.....	134
5.2 Total Number of Collisions by Year.....	137
5.3 Total Number of Property Damage Collision Events Attended.....	138
5.4 Average Time per Property Damage Collision Event Attended (minutes).....	138
5.5 Total Number of Personal Injury Collision Events Attended.....	139
5.6 Average Time per Personal Injury Collision Event Attended (minutes).....	139
5.7 Fail-to-Remain: Property Damage/Personal Injury Collisions.....	140
5.8 Total No. of Traffic Deaths by Year.....	140
5.9 No. of Traffic Deaths by Year & Victim Type.....	141
5.10 Pedestrians Killed in Collisions by Age (2004).....	141
5.11 Highway Traffic Act Charges Laid.....	142
5.12 Highway Traffic Act Charges.....	142
5.13 Drinking and Driving Offences (Gender).....	147
6.1 Calls Received by Communications Centre.....	154
6.2 Proportion (%) of Calls by Method of Disposal.....	155
6.3(a) Proportion (cumulative) of Priority 1 Calls & Response Time – 1996, 2000 & 2004.....	157
6.3(b) Proportion (cumulative) of Other Emergency Calls (P2&3) & Response Time – 1996, 2000 & 2004.....	157
6.4 Average Service Time (minutes).....	158
7.1 Major Development Applications – 2003: Projects by District.....	166
7.2 Major Development Applications – 2003: Residential Units by District.....	167
7.3 Number of Single-Family Home Sales (TREB Service Area) (month).....	172
7.4 Number of Single-Family Home Sales (TREB Service Area).....	172
7.5 Average Price of Single-Family Homes (TREB Service Area).....	173
7.6 TTC Ridership.....	174
7.7 TTC Annual Crime Rate (per 100,000 riders).....	178
7.8 Number of Current Licences per Year.....	179
7.9 Visitors to Toronto CMA (millions).....	181
7.10 Visitor Spending (\$C) (billions).....	181
7.11 Hazardous Events Attended (1995-2004).....	182
8.1 Occurrence Intake 2002-2004.....	190
9.1 Uniform/Civilian Strength.....	200
9.2 Police Officers per 100,000 Population.....	201
9.3 Age of Uniform Police Officers.....	202
9.4 Service of Uniform Police Officers.....	203



	PAGE
9.5 Police Officers: Years of Service and Age - December 2004.....	204
9.6 Age of Primary Response Officers.....	205
9.7 Service of Primary Response Officers.....	205
9.8 Retirements/Resignations Uniform Officers 1995-2004	206
9.9 Officers Joining Other Police Services 1995-2004.....	207
9.10 Criminal Code Offences/Constable Strength Ratio	208
9.11 Uniformed Officers on the Street.....	209
9.12 Composition Profile of Police Service.....	210
9.13 Uniform Composition 2004	211
9.14 Composition Profile by Rank.....	212
9.15 Uniform Composition.....	213
10.1 Safety of Neighbourhood.....	217
10.2 Level of Crime in Neighbourhood.....	217
10.3 Crime in Neighbourhood.....	218
10.4 Perceived Likelihood of Victimization in Coming Year.....	219
10.5 Feel Safe In/Around School During Day.....	220
10.6 Proportion of Students Concerned	221
10.7 Level of Violence at School.....	221
10.8 Proportion of School Administrators Concerned.....	223
10.9 Satisfaction with Police Service in Neighbourhood.....	224
10.10 Proportion Responding Police Do a Good Job in Neighbourhood	224
10.11 Proportion Responding Police Do a Good Job in City.....	225
10.12 Relationship Between Police and Groups	226
10.13 Satisfaction with Police During Contact	227
10.14 Contact Changed Opinion of Police.....	227
10.15 Officer Treated with Respect	228
10.16 Officer Conduct During Contact.....	228
10.17 Officer Professionalism During Contact.....	228
10.18 Treatment by Officer(s).....	229
10.19 Satisfaction with Police Service to School.....	230
10.20 Proportion of School Administrators Responding Police Do a Good Job	231
10.21 Police Can Impartially Investigate Public Complaints	232
10.22 Satisfaction with Complaints Process	233
10.23 Satisfaction with Complaints Outcome.....	233

**LIST OF TABLES**

	PAGE
1.1 Immigrant Places of Birth.....	7
1.2 Recent Immigrant (1996-2001) Places of Birth.....	8
1.3 Non-Official Home Language (single response)	12
1.4 Language Line Services (AT&T Language Line).....	13
1.5 Religious Affiliation in Toronto.....	13
1.6 Household Income.....	14
2.1 Non-Traffic Criminal Code Offences: Major Categories and Specific Offences	37
2.2 Proportion of Assaults, Robberies, and Sexual Assaults Involving Use of Weapons.....	41
2.3 Gun-Related Calls from the Public for Police Assistance.....	42
2.4 Rate of Persons Arrested/Charged (per 1,000 population) by Gender by Age Groups – 2004	58
2.5 Change (%) in Population and Arrest/Charge Rates 2000-2004	59
2.6 Crime and Crime Rates: Comparison of Divisions	60
2.7 Change (%) in Crime and Crime Rates: 1995-2004	61
2.8 Crime Rates, Police Strength & per Capita Cost in Canadian Municipalities with Populations of 250,000 and Over – 2003.....	63
2.9 %Change in Number of Crimes, Crime Rates, Police Strength & per Capita Cost in Canadian Municipalities with Populations of 250,000 and Over: 1999-2003	65
3.1 Youths as a Proportion of Total Persons Arrested	82
3.2 Number & Proportion of Male and Female Young Offenders.....	82
3.3 % Change in Youths Arrested for Criminal Code and Drug Offences	83
3.4 Number of Persons Arrested per 1,000 Population.....	85
3.5 Youth Arrest Rate – Number of Youths Arrested per 1,000 Population.....	86
3.6 Crimes Occurring on School Premises.....	87
5.1 Toronto Roadways	130
5.2 Transportation Network Facts.....	130
5.3 Festive RIDE 2003/2004.....	146
5.4 Charges Laid Against Men – Drinking Driving Offences	148
5.1 Red-Light Camera – Charges Laid, Toronto Sites.....	150
6.1 Major Types of Calls and Average Service Time.....	159



	PAGE
8.1 Household Internet Use at Home	188
8.2 TPS Technological Crime Unit Workload: January 1 st -December 31 st , 2004.....	191
8.3 TPS Child Exploitation Section Workload	193
8.4 PhoneBusters National Call Centre – Canadian Identity Theft Data.....	195
10.1 Perceptions of Police Effectiveness	225



I. DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS

Information based on demographic and social trends provides a basis for good planning, identifying areas where changes are likely to occur. The task is then to relate the population and social changes to possible service needs: what are the implications for current and future decisions regarding the delivery of police service, provisions of programs, allocations of resources, and so on.

HIGHLIGHTS

- According to Statistics Canada census data, the population of Toronto increased 4.0% between 1996 and 2001, from 2,385,421 to 2,481,494. Estimates indicate only a 1.0% increase in Toronto's population between 2004 and 2005, to a total of 2,696,909.
- Within the GTA, Toronto was generally slightly older than the other GTA regions, with 83% of Toronto aged 15 years or older compared to 77%-80% in the regions.
- The proportion of the City's population 65 years and older is projected to increase to 16.5% in 2031, while the proportion of the population under 25 years of age is projected to remain around 30%.
- According to 2001 census data, more than half of the youngest age groups were male, while more than half of the older age groups were female.
- In 2001, 44% of the Toronto census metropolitan area's population was foreign-born – a higher proportion than other cities around the world known for their diversity (e.g. Miami, Vancouver, Sydney, Los Angeles, New York, Montréal).
- The primary sources for immigrants to Toronto have shifted in recent years to the Asian continent, including the Middle East, and Eastern Europe.
- The growth of the visible minority population has largely been due to the shift in sources of immigration to Canada. In 2001, visible minorities represented just over two-fifths (42.8%) of Toronto's population, up from 37.3% in 1996. In both years, Chinese, South Asians, and Blacks were the largest visible minority groups.
- The number of those in Toronto in 2001 who said they spoke English and another non-official language at home increased over five times the number in 1996. The proportion of those who said they spoke only a language other than English or French at home decreased.
- Mirroring the growing diversity of Toronto's population was a growing diversity in the religious make up of the City. Much of the change in Toronto's religious profile was the result of the changing sources of immigration.
- According to 1995 income data collected in the 1996 census, the largest proportion of Toronto households (15.3%) had a household income of \$10,000 - \$19,999. Reflecting the



increase in average and median household incomes, according to 2000 income data, the largest proportion of Toronto households (18.1%) had a household income of \$100,000 or more.

- According to data from the 2001 census, the income gap between richer and poorer neighbourhoods widened in the Toronto CMA between 1980 and 2000, but particularly between 1990 and 2000.

A. TORONTO POPULATION

According to estimates, the population of the City of Toronto increased by only 1.0% between 2004 and 2005, reaching 2,696,909 in 2005.¹ As has been noted in previous *Environmental Scans*, Toronto’s population continues to grow at a slower pace than the populations of the other regions of the Greater Toronto Area (GTA). According to Statistics Canada census data, the population of Toronto increased 4.0% between 1996 and 2001, from 2,385,421 to 2,481,494.² However, census data also showed that between 1996 and 2001 the population of the outer regions (Durham, Halton, Peel, York) grew faster than in Toronto: the population outside Toronto grew between 10.4% and 23.1% (Figure 1.1). The total population of the GTA grew by 9.8%, from 4,628,883 in 1996 to 5,081,826 in 2001.³

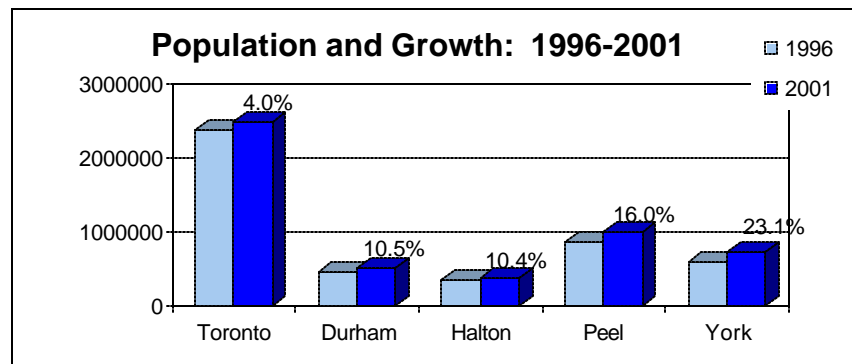


Figure 1.1

Source: Statistics Canada

Population growth in the outer regions of the GTA was such that for the first time, population in the 905 area was greater than the population of Toronto – as of 2001, Toronto accounted for less than half of the GTA population (Figure 1.2). While the population of Toronto is projected to grow by just over 530,000 people over the next 30 years, the total population of the GTA is projected to grow by about 2.6 million. To ensure that Toronto remains a vibrant and dynamic centre to the GTA, Toronto’s Official Plan encourages and accommodates growth within the City boundaries.⁴

¹ Estimates are based on census data, projections from the City of Toronto’s Urban Development Services, and the Statistics Canada undercount rate.

² Census data from the Statistics Canada website (www.statcan.ca).

³ The Greater Toronto Area consists of Toronto, Durham, Halton, Peel, and York.

⁴ Toronto’s Official Plan is discussed in greater detail in the chapter on Urban Trends.

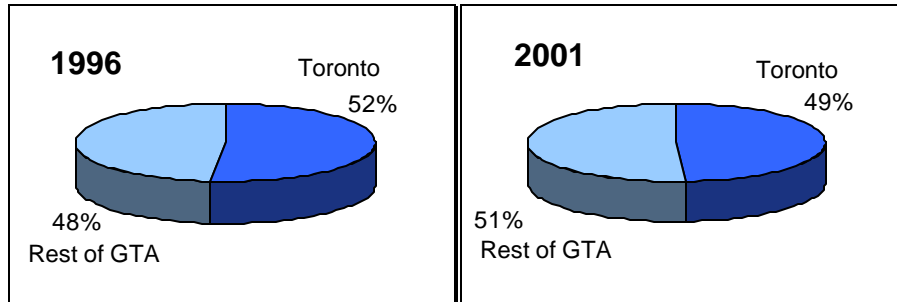


Figure 1.2

Source: Statistics Canada

While the growing communities surrounding Toronto are becoming more self-contained, they remain far from the main centres of employment, entertainment, and education within the City. This will continue to put pressure on transportation networks, contributing to greater congestion, pollution, and parking problems for the foreseeable future, affecting quality of life within the City. As the population of the 905 area grows, the transient daytime population (commuters, tourists, visitors for entertainment purposes, etc.) can be expected to grow as well. It should be noted that this transient population also makes use of police services but is not captured in resident population statistics used in crime rate and workload analyses.

B. AGE STRUCTURE OF THE POPULATION

Age is a strong predictor of human behaviour and awareness of the age structure of the population not only provides context for current behaviours and trends, but also allows some forecast of future behaviours and trends.

According to the results of the 2001 census, the median age of Canada’s population reached an all-time high of 37.6 years, increasing 2.3 years from the previous census.⁵ Seniors aged 65 years or older increased to 13% of the population, while those aged 19 or younger decreased to 26% of the population. However, Statistics Canada also found that those living in the census metropolitan areas generally had a lower median age than that for the country as a whole. Consistent with that finding, the median age of the Toronto census metropolitan area (CMA) was 36.2 years.⁶ It is believed that the impact of a generally ageing population is somewhat offset in the Toronto area by continuing high levels of relatively young immigrants.

Within the GTA, Toronto was generally slightly older than the other GTA regions, with 83% of Toronto aged 15 years or older compared to 77%-80% in the regions. As shown in Figure 1.3, Toronto had a smaller proportions of young people 5 to 14 years and 15 to 19 years than any of the outer regions. Toronto also had larger proportions of the population who were between 25 and 44 years of age, and 65 years or older.

⁵ Profile of the Canadian population by age and sex: Canada ages, Statistics Canada, July 2002.

⁶ The Toronto Census Metropolitan Area extends from Ajax to Oakville, and north to Newmarket, and includes the following municipalities: Ajax, Aurora, Bradford, West Gwillimbury, Brampton, Caledon, East Gwillimbury, Georgina, Halton Hills, King, Markham, Milton, Mississauga, Mono, New Tecumseh, Newmarket, Oakville, Orangeville, Pickering, Richmond Hill, Toronto, Uxbridge, Vaughan, and Whitchurch-Stouffville.

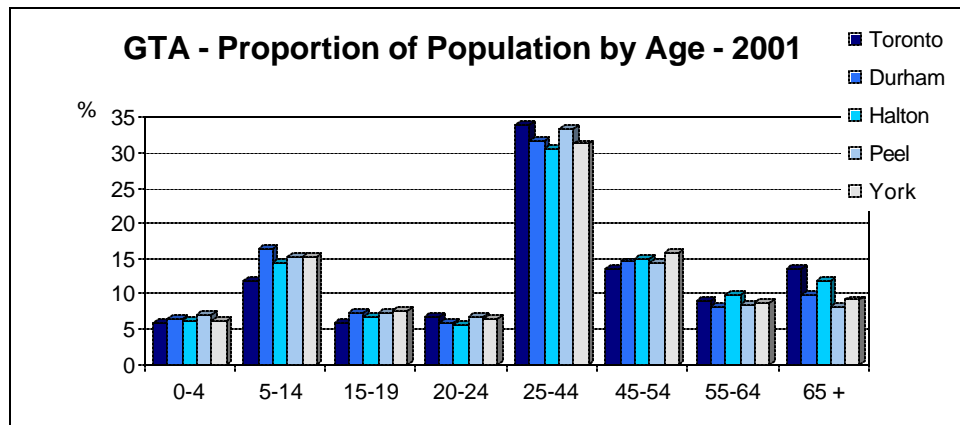


Figure 1.3

Source: Statistics Canada

This age distribution pattern in the GTA is not unexpected, given changes in housing preferences as people age. In general, young people typically occupy apartments or apartment-type units. As they age through their 20s and 30s, the peak years for the formation of families, people tend to prefer ground-related dwellings (e.g. single or semi-detached houses, etc.). Most families remain in the home until late in life when property upkeep becomes too difficult or a spouse dies; seniors then show an increased preference for apartment or apartment-type units.⁷ With high house prices and space at a premium in Toronto, many of those in their child-bearing years have moved to the outer regions.

Consistent with the above, according to the 2001 census, between 38% and 48% of all households in the outer regions of the GTA were households containing a couple (married or common-law) with children, compared to 27% in Toronto. On the other hand, 28% of Toronto’s households were one-person households, compared to 12%-18% in the regions.

As noted above, while Toronto is not expected to experience the ageing trend to the same extent as the country as a whole, the proportion of the City’s population 65 years and older is projected to increase (from 13.4% in 1996 to 16.5% in 2031) (Figure 1.4).⁸ The proportion of the population under 25 years of age is projected to remain relatively stable around 30%, although a slight increase in the proportion of those 15-24 years of age is projected by 2011.

It is interesting to note that, according to 2001 census data, more than half of each of the three youngest age groups were male, while more than half of each of the older age groups were female. The proportion of females in each age group increased with increasing age; more than two-thirds of those 75 years and older were female.

⁷ Foot, D. and Stoffman, D. **Boom, Bust, & Echo**. Toronto: Mcfarlane Walter & Ross, 1996.

⁸ Population projections by age are from: **Flashforward: Projecting Population and Employment to 2031 in a Mature Urban Area**, Toronto Plan, City of Toronto Urban Development Services, June 2002.

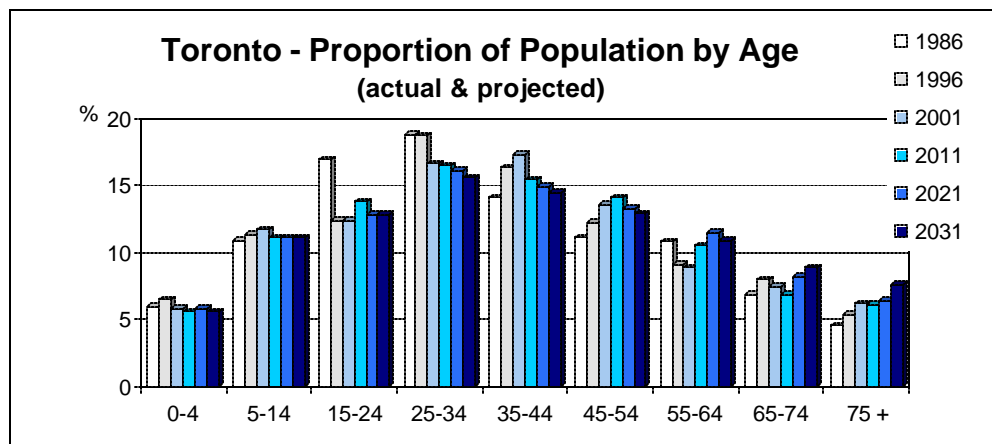


Figure 1.4

Source: Statistics Canada/Toronto UDS

The ageing of the population could have a significant effect on crime and victimisation patterns. For example, there is a great potential for both white-collar crime, especially fraud, and elder abuse to increase. Fraud, in fact, increased 62.5% over the five year period between 2000 and 2004. The Police Service must ensure that it is prepared to deal with continuing increases in fraud, and especially in the types of fraud to which seniors are most vulnerable, as well as increases in elder abuse, by ensuring that adequate resources are allocated and training provided to officers so that they have the knowledge and resources they need to understand and investigate these crimes.

An increase in seniors may place different demands on the Police Service. A study by the federal Ministry of the Solicitor General found that to increase feelings of safety and security, seniors wanted police to be more visible on the streets, to be more accessible, to be more a part of the community, and wanted to be able to call on them when afraid.⁹

With regard to providing services to older adults, police must also increase their knowledge of other services in the community – they will then be better able to provide referrals, since seniors may think of police as their only source of help. Police must work in partnership with the media, service agencies, and government to develop and disseminate crime prevention and safety information, and to reduce fears that may be associated with reporting crime to police, including elder abuse. And, police training programs must be reviewed to ensure that officers are well informed about the realities of ageing and the fears, needs, and strengths of seniors.

One of the aspects of ageing that officers should be familiar with is that as people live longer, they are more prone to the mental illnesses that strike with old age. Given the expected increase in the number of older seniors living in Toronto, there will be implications for the services police are requested to provide, the types of calls received, and police training.

The growing number of seniors will also mean an increasing demand for caregivers, particularly children as ageing parents require increased care. And, this responsibility will probably affect women in particular.¹⁰ More than two-thirds of informal caregivers are between 30 and 59 years of age. This increased need to provide caregiving may mean that many people

⁹ Kinnon, D. and MacLeod, L. **Police and the Elderly: Evolving Implications in an Aging Society.** Ministry of the Solicitor General of Canada, 1990.

¹⁰ Frederick, J.A. and Fast, J.E. *Eldercare in Canada: Who does how much?* **Canadian Social Trends**, Statistics Canada, Autumn 1999.



with appropriate abilities will not be able to reach their full potential in their chosen field of work, including those in the Police Service, due to lack of time and energy. It may also mean increased absence from work and increased tension within families. The Service must be prepared for a potential increase in elder abuse, and, internally, must ensure that support and systems are available for Service members caring for elderly parents.

The population projections in Figure 1.4 have implications for the recruitment and retention of Service members, as well. Ageing Service members are and will continue to be eligible for retirement in increasing numbers, and with the relatively stable projections for the younger age groups probably due at least in part to the large numbers of young immigrants to Toronto, the Service will need to ensure continued recruitment outreach to the various diverse communities of Toronto.

It should be noted that in addition to the projected ageing of the population of Toronto over the next few decades, Figure 1.4 also shows the decrease that has occurred in the proportion of young people in their late 'teens and early twenties from the proportion seen in 1986. Studies have consistently indicated that young people, males in particular, are at comparatively higher risk of being offenders, and victims, of crime, especially "street" crime.¹¹ This pattern has also been evident in the data outlined in the Youth Crime chapter discussing youth involvement in crime in Toronto in recent years. Given that young people are responsible for a large proportion of criminal offences, the decrease in the 15-24 year age group may have contributed to the decrease in crime rates in Toronto over the past decade noted in the Crime Trends chapter.

C. POPULATION COMPOSITION

Immigration:

According to the 2001 census, 18% of the total population in Canada said that they were born outside the country – the highest proportion seen in 70 years.¹² In comparison, only 11% of the US population was foreign-born in 2000. The sources of immigration to Canada shifted during the last 40 years of the twentieth century – whereas early immigrants came mainly from Europe (e.g. United Kingdom, Italy, Germany, etc.) and the US, current immigrants are most likely to come from Asia.

Nearly three in four (73%) immigrants to Canada during the 1990s moved to the Toronto, Vancouver, or Montréal CMA; the largest share (43%) of immigrants to Canada during the 1990s moved to the Toronto CMA alone. In 2001, the Toronto CMA had the highest proportion of foreign-born of all major urban centres in the world; at 44%, the foreign-born population in the Toronto CMA was higher than for many other cities known for their cultural diversity, including Miami (40%), Vancouver (38%), Sydney (31%), Los Angeles (31%), New York (24%), and Montréal (18%).

¹¹ South, S.J. and Messner, S.F. **Crime and Demography: Multiple Linkages, Reciprocal Relations**, *Annual Review of Sociology*, v. 26, 2000.

¹² **2001 Census: Analysis Series – Canada's Ethnocultural Portrait: The Changing Mosaic**. Statistics Canada, January 2003.



Most immigrants to Canada during the 1990s were in the working ages of 25-64 years, especially the younger working age brackets since most people migrate while they are young. In addition, of those who arrived in the 1990s, 17% were school aged children 5-16 years of age; about 7 in 10 of these children settled in the Toronto, Vancouver, or Montréal CMAs. In the City of Toronto in particular, about 1 in 4 of all children aged 5-16 years were immigrants who arrived in the 1990s.

The concentration of immigrants and immigrant children presents special challenges to and demands on public services, as many newcomers come from diverse cultural backgrounds and may be most comfortable speaking a language not English or French.

With more specific regard to the City of Toronto, according to the 2001 census, more Toronto residents were born outside of Canada than within Canada – 49.4% were foreign-born; 48.8% were Canadian-born.¹³ Of those born outside of Canada, 42.5% were relatively recent arrivals, having immigrated during the previous decade.

This picture is somewhat different from the rest of the GTA, although immigration is changing the outer regions as well as Toronto. Around 20% of Durham and Halton were foreign-born (18.9% and 22.4%, respectively), and around 40% of Peel and York were foreign-born (43.1% and 39.1%, respectively). Of those in Durham and Halton who were born outside Canada, fewer than one in five were recent immigrants, while of those in Peel and York who were born outside Canada, roughly one-third were recent immigrants.

Of the over 1.2 million Toronto residents born outside of Canada, the largest number in 2001 had come from China, followed by Italy. This was a change from the 1996 census, which found the largest number of immigrants had come from Italy and the United Kingdom. Table 1.1 shows the 10 countries that were the top sources of immigrants to Toronto in both census years, as well as the proportion of all immigrant residents who said they were born in that country. In both years, these countries accounted for 52% of all immigrant places of birth.

Table 1.1
Immigrant Places of Birth

1996	% of immig.	2001	% of immig.
Italy	7.5%	China	8.4%
United Kingdom	6.5%	Italy	6.2%
China	5.8%	Philippines	5.6%
Hong Kong	5.5%	India	5.3%
Jamaica	4.9%	United Kingdom	5.2%
Philippines	4.9%	Jamaica	4.6%
Portugal	4.7%	Hong Kong	4.6%
India	4.1%	Sri Lanka	4.4%
Poland	4.1%	Portugal	4.0%
Sri Lanka	4.0%	Guyana	3.4%

Source: Statistics Canada

¹³ The remainder, 1.8%, were non-permanent residents.



Of those Toronto residents who were born elsewhere, almost one in four (23.1%) came to the City very recently, between 1996 and 2001. Table 1.2 shows the 10 countries that were sources of recent immigrants to Toronto, as well as the proportion of all recent immigrants who said they were born in that country. These 10 countries accounted for 60% of all recent immigrants to Toronto. When examined with the previous table, it can be seen that the sources for immigrants to Toronto have shifted in recent years to the Asian continent (including the Middle East) and Eastern Europe.

Table 1.2
Recent Immigrant (1996-2001) Places of Birth

	% of recent immigr.		% of recent immigr.
China	16.3%	Iran	4.0%
India	9.5%	Russian Federation	3.5%
Pakistan	6.2%	South Korea	2.9%
Philippines	5.9%	Hong Kong	2.9%
Sri Lanka	5.6%	Ukraine	2.7%

Source: Statistics Canada

Diversity:

In the 2001 census, 13% of Canada's population identified themselves as visible minorities, up from 11% in 1996.¹⁴ The visible minority population in Canada grew about six times faster than the total population between 1996 and 2001. The growth of the visible minority population has largely been due to the shift in sources of immigration to Canada. In 2001, nearly three-quarters (73%) of immigrants who came in the 1990s were members of visible minority groups. Together, Chinese, South Asians, and Blacks accounted for two-thirds of the visible minority population in Canada.

One of the factors that makes Toronto such a vibrant and dynamic city is its striking ethnic and racial diversity. According to Statistics Canada, the Toronto CMA has the highest concentration of visible minorities and immigrants in Canada, making it the nation's most diverse CMA. In 2001, visible minorities represented just over two-fifths (42.8%) of the City of Toronto's population, up from 37.3% in 1996. The composition of the Toronto population in 1996 and in 2001 is shown in Figures 1.5 and 1.6. In both years, Chinese, South Asians, and Blacks were the largest visible minority groups. In 2001, these three groups represented about 30% of the total population and almost 70% of the visible minority population in Toronto.

¹⁴ **2001 Census: Analysis Series – Canada's Ethnocultural Portrait: The Changing Mosaic.** Statistics Canada, January 2003.

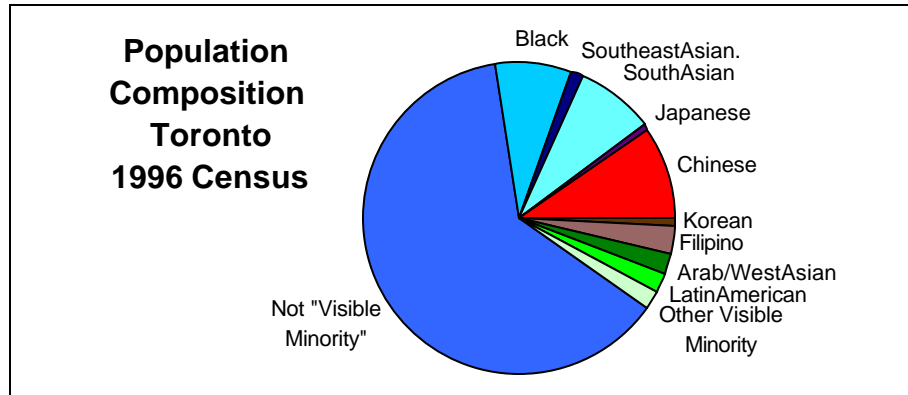


Figure 1.5

Source: Statistics Canada

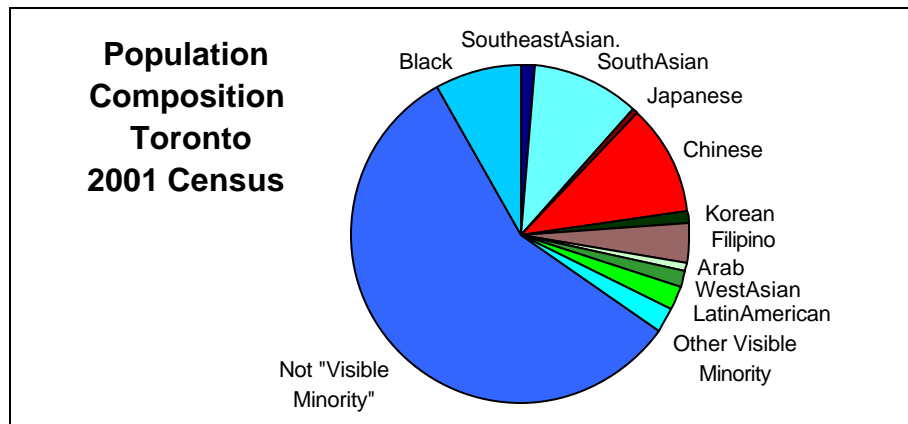


Figure 1.6

Source: Statistics Canada

While over four in ten Toronto residents – over 1 million people – were members of a visible minority, the proportions of the population that were visible minority in the outer regions of the GTA were smaller. Peel, with a relatively large population of South Asians, and York, with a relatively large population of Chinese, had the highest proportions after Toronto, at 38.5% and 29.8%, respectively. Peel had a visible minority population of just over 379,000 people, while York had a visible minority population of just over 216,000 people. Only 12.4% of Durham’s population (about 62,000 people) and 8.7% of Halton’s population (about 32,000 people) were visible minority. The proportions of each visible minority group within the Toronto and the outer GTA regions are shown in Figure 1.7.

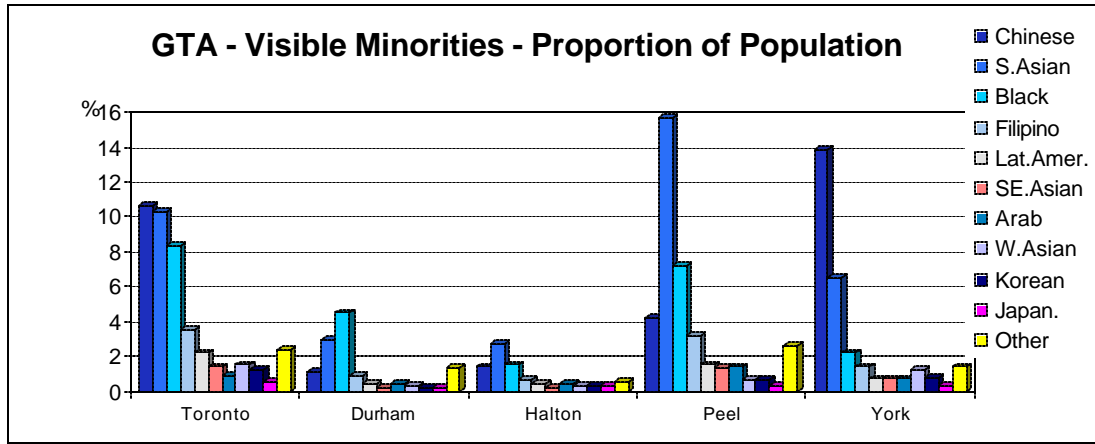


Figure 1.7

Source: Statistics Canada

Kinship and community bonds often draw together people of similar backgrounds, origins, or culture. In examining where people live, Statistics Canada has defined a visible minority neighbourhood as one in which over 30% of the population are from a particular visible minority group.¹⁵

The number of visible minority neighbourhoods in Canada increased more than threefold between 1991 and 2001, from 77 to 254. Of these, more than 60% were Chinese, about one-third were South Asian, and relatively few were Black. At 135, the Toronto CMA had more visible minority neighbourhoods than did either the Vancouver or Montréal CMAs. In the Toronto CMA, most of the Chinese neighbourhoods were located in Scarborough, Markham, and Richmond Hill; South Asian neighbourhoods were found in East York, North York, Scarborough, Mississauga, and Brampton; and, Black neighbourhoods were concentrated in Etobicoke and North York. It was also noted that the presence of visible minorities increased in other neighbourhoods as well (e.g. only about half of the Chinese population lived in Chinese neighbourhoods, and less than 5% of Blacks lived in Black neighbourhoods).

While residential concentration allows the “retention of ethnic identity and the maintenance of religious, educational, and welfare institutions that are crucial for the social interaction of the group ...[it also] may result in social isolation and reduce minorities’ incentives to acquire the host-country language or to gain work experience and educational qualifications.”¹⁶

The visible minority population is expected to continue to grow over the next few decades, as a result of the high levels of immigration from non-European countries noted previously and a relatively young visible minority population.¹⁷ With the majority of this visible minority population expected to continue to live in Ontario, Toronto “will likely become increasingly differentiated from other regions of Canada in terms of cultural diversity and the presence of visible minorities.”¹⁸

¹⁵ Hou, F. and Picot, G. *Visible Minority Neighbourhoods in Toronto, Montréal, and Vancouver*, **Canadian Social Trends**, Statistics Canada, Spring 2004.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p.13.

¹⁷ Chard, J. and Renaud, V. *Visible Minorities in Toronto, Vancouver and Montréal*, **Canadian Social Trends**, Statistics Canada, Autumn 1999.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p.25.



Such diversity within the population being served presents both opportunities and challenges for the Toronto Police Service. Opportunities, for example, relating to the potential for recruitment, volunteers, and community partnerships. And, challenges such as the need to ensure that officers are aware of different cultures and sensitivities, and language barriers which could hinder crime prevention, information dissemination, and ability to access services. The Police Service must work to ensure that members of all communities in Toronto feel they are treated professionally and fairly.

The Statistics Canada Ethnic Diversity Survey in 2002 found that visible minorities were more likely than others to say they felt uncomfortable or out of place in Canada at least some of the time because of their ethnicity, culture, race, skin colour, language, accent, or religion (24% of visible minorities compared to 8% of people who were not visible minorities).¹⁹ Further, while 7% of all Canadians said they had sometimes or often experienced discrimination or unfair treatment in the past five years because of their ethno-cultural characteristics, this proportion increased to 20% for visible minorities. Nearly one-third (32%) of Blacks reported sometimes or often experiencing discrimination or unfair treatment compared to 21% of South Asians and 18% of Chinese.

While discrimination or unfair treatment was felt by over half of Canadians to have occurred in the workplace, over one-third perceived discrimination or unfair treatment in a store, bank, or restaurant, and about one-quarter said they experienced it on the street; just over 10% said they had experienced discrimination or unfair treatment when dealing with the police or courts. The proportion of those perceiving unequal treatment in each of these situations was higher for visible minorities. This disparity in perceptions is an indication of the effort that must be made by the Police Service to ensure that members of all communities in Toronto, including members of the Service itself, feel they are treated fairly and without discrimination.

Language:

Home language is defined by Statistics Canada as being the language spoken most often or on a regular basis at home, or if the respondent lives alone, the language he/she is most comfortable with. The proportion of Toronto's population who said they spoke only a language other than English or French at home decreased from 28.8% in 1996 to 18.8% in the 2001 census. While the proportion of those who said they spoke English only also decreased, the number of those in 2001 who said they spoke English and another non-official language at home increased over five times the number in 1996. Table 1.3 shows the top ten (by proportion) single response, non-official home languages in Toronto (i.e. respondent spoke this language and no other most often at home) in 1996 and 2001, as well as the proportion of Toronto's population who said they spoke this language at home.

¹⁹ **Ethnic Diversity Study: Portrait of a Multicultural Society**, Statistics Canada, September 2003.



Table 1.3
Non-Official Home Language (single response)

1996	% of population	2001	% of population
Chinese	6.9%	Chinese	5.2%
Italian	2.7%	Italian	1.4%
Portuguese	2.1%	Tamil	1.2%
Tamil	1.7%	Portuguese	1.1%
Spanish	1.7%	Spanish	0.8%
Polish	1.3%	Russian	0.7%
Tagalog (Pilipino)	1.1%	Persian	0.6%
Greek	1.0%	Punjabi	0.6%
Vietnamese	0.9%	Korean	0.6%
Punjabi	0.8%	Vietnamese	0.6%

Source: Statistics Canada

As can be seen in the above table, while the top five most common home languages were unchanged, the remaining five differed from 1996 to 2001, mainly reflecting the increasing immigration from the Asian continent. In addition, while in 1996 the languages shown accounted for 20% of the home languages spoken, in 2001 this proportion dropped to 13%, reflecting an increasing diversity of languages spoken at home.

Use of Language Line Services, previously the AT&T Language Line, assists Toronto Police Service communications operators at the 9-1-1 centre to manage calls from citizens who do not speak English, and allows field officers to contact on-line telephone interpreters, if required, to communicate with citizens who attend the divisions or persons in custody.

Use of Language Line Services increased 76.1% between 1996 and 2004, while the average cost per call decreased by about one-third (33.9%) (Table 1.4).²⁰ The average time spent on each call has varied relatively little, between 5 and 7 minutes each year. In each year, the most frequently provided language was Chinese, generally followed by Spanish and Vietnamese.²¹ Service through the Language Line was provided in 54 languages other than English in 2004, up from 36 other languages in 1996. While this increase in languages used may be due to increased advertising and awareness of the availability of the Language Line, it may also be reflecting the increasing diversity of languages within the City noted above.

²⁰ In 2002, Language Line Services offered the TPS the same pricing per call as offered to the City, resulting in lower costs.

²¹ The two exceptions were 1996 when the most frequently provided languages were Chinese, Spanish, and Portuguese, and 1999 when the most frequently provided languages were Chinese, Italian, and Spanish.



Table 1.4
Language Line Services (AT&T Language Line)

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Total Number of Calls	1,923	1,998	2,626	2,664	2,578	2,712	3,081	3,087	3,386
Average Minutes per Call	5.96	6.03	5.90	5.34	6.12	6.14	6.58	6.04	6.04
Average Cost per Call	\$21.28	\$24.32	\$26.61	\$23.83	\$27.32	\$27.41	\$18.33	\$14.07	\$14.06

People unable to speak either official language may have difficulty accessing, using, or perhaps even knowing about public services, including police services. Language barriers may also hinder crime prevention and information dissemination efforts. The Police Service must work to ensure that information about policing services is available and accessible in as many different languages as possible. In particular, the Service should make a special effort to ensure that programs delivered to schools and youth outreach initiatives are accessible and understandable to all young people. Officers must also be aware that some people may not speak English and take care to ensure that these people, if stopped or arrested, understand both their situation and their rights.

Religion:

Mirroring the growing diversity of Toronto's population was a growing diversity in the religious make up of the City. According to 2001 census data, the proportion of those saying they were Roman Catholic or Protestant decreased, while the proportions of those with other religious affiliations increased.²² The proportion of those who reported they had no religion also increased. Much of the change in Toronto's religious profile was the result of the changing sources of immigration discussed previously.²³ Table 1.5 shows the top ten (by proportion) religions in Toronto, as well as the proportion of the population claiming affiliation.

Table 1.5
Religious Affiliation in Toronto

	% of population		% of population
Roman Catholic	30.8%	Hindu	4.8%
No Religion	18.4%	Jewish	4.2%
Muslim	6.7%	Christian n.i.e.*	3.9%
Anglican	6.1%	Buddhist	2.7%
United	5.3%	Greek Orthodox	2.2%

* n.i.e.= not included elsewhere

Source: Statistics Canada

²² The census collected information on religious affiliation only, regardless of whether or not respondents actually practiced their religion.

²³ **2001 Census: Analysis Series – Religions in Canada.** Statistics Canada, May 2003.

**Income:**

At each census, Statistics Canada collects data on income for the previous year. According to the 2001 census, average household income in the City of Toronto increased to \$69,107 in 2000, up from \$54,178 in 1995; similarly, median household income in Toronto increased to \$49,345 in 2000, up from \$42,752 in 1995.²⁴ According to 1995 income data, the largest proportion of Toronto households (15.3%) had a household income of \$10,000-\$19,999. Reflecting the increase in average and median household incomes, according to 2000 income data, the largest proportion of Toronto households (18.1%) had a household income of \$100,000 or more. Table 1.6 shows the proportion of households in each income range in Toronto, according to the 1996 and 2001 censuses. As shown, between the two census periods, the proportion of households with incomes less than \$60,000 decreased, while the proportion of households with incomes \$60,000 or more increased.

Table 1.6
Household Income

	<u>1995</u> % of households	<u>2000</u> % of households
<\$10,000	9.0%	7.0%
\$10,000-\$19,999	15.3%	11.5%
\$20,000-\$29,999	12.7%	11.0%
\$30,000-\$39,999	12.1%	11.0%
\$40,000-\$49,999	10.3%	10.0%
\$50,000-\$59,999	8.7%	8.5%
\$60,000-\$69,999	7.2%	7.6%
\$70,000-\$79,999	5.6%	6.3%
\$80,000-\$89,999	4.2%	5.1%
\$90,000-\$99,999	3.1%	4.1%
\$100,000 +	11.5%	18.1%

Source: Statistics Canada

According to the 2003 Statistics Canada low income cutoffs for Toronto, a single person would be considered low income if their income was below \$16,348; a family of three would be considered low income if their income fell below \$25,230.²⁵ All figures are after tax.

Toronto's 2000 median household income of \$49,345 was lower than the median household income in each of the four outer GTA regions. Figure 1.8 shows the median household income across the GTA.

²⁴ The median is the middle value of a group of values arranged in ascending or descending order. The median is less influenced by extreme high or low values than is the average.

²⁵ **Low Income Cutoffs from 1994-2003 and Low Income Measures from 1992-2001**, Income Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, March 2004.

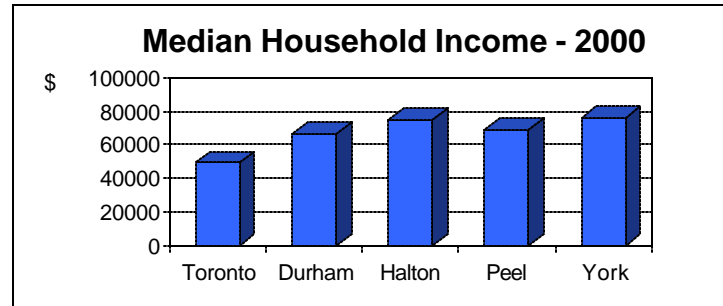


Figure 1.8

Source: Statistics Canada

According to data from the 2001 census, the income gap between richer and poorer neighbourhoods widened in most of Canada's CMAs between 1980 and 2000, but particularly between 1990 and 2000: "In nearly all cities, income increased faster in the higher-income neighbourhoods than it did in lower-income neighbourhoods,...[reflecting] the fact that income grew more quickly among high- than low-income families."²⁶

Within the Toronto CMA, the income of families at the 10th percentile (i.e. families whose income was lower than 90% of the population) showed little or no increase over the twenty year period, rising 4% between 1980 and 1990, but falling 7% between 1990 to 2000. In contrast, families at the 90th percentile (i.e. families whose income was higher than 90% of the population) rose 13% between 1980 and 1990, and rose again by 8% between 1990 and 2000. Income grew in higher-income neighbourhoods but remained steady in lower-income neighbourhoods. A study by Statistics Canada of income inequality further found that the increase in wealth inequality between 1984 and 1999 was in particular associated with declines in real average income and median wealth for young couples with children and recent immigrants.²⁷ It has also been noted that while income inequality has increased, inequality seems to be evident more between rather than within neighbourhoods, with neighbourhoods apparently becoming more economically homogeneous.²⁸

A study by the United Way using census data found that, compared with twenty years ago, Toronto's poor families were now more concentrated in neighbourhoods where there was a high proportion of families living in poverty.²⁹ This resulted in a large increase in the number of high poverty neighbourhoods (i.e. where more than 25% of families had incomes below Statistics Canada's low income cut off) in Toronto, from 30 in 1981 to 120 in 2001. The increase in high poverty neighbourhoods was especially noticeable in Scarborough and North York, as well as in Etobicoke, York, and East York. Poor visible minority families and immigrant families made up large proportions of the total number of poor families in these neighbourhoods. The United Way study also supported the widening income disparity in

²⁶ Heisz, A. and McLeod, L. **Low Income in Census Metropolitan Areas, 1980-2000**, Statistics Canada, April 2004, p.7.

²⁷ Morissette, R., Zhang, X., and Drolet, M. **The Evolution of Wealth Inequality in Canada, 1984-1999**, Statistics Canada, February 2002.

²⁸ Myles J., Picot, G., and Pyper, W. **Neighbourhood Inequality in Canadian Cities**, Statistics Canada, December 2000. Also: Daly, M., Wilson, M., and Vasdev, S. *Income Inequality and Homicide Rates in Canada and the United States*, **Canadian Journal of Criminology**, April 2001.

²⁹ **Poverty by Postal Code, The Geography of Neighbourhood Poverty 1981-2001**. A Report Prepared Jointly by United Way of Greater Toronto and the Canadian Council on Social Development, 2003.



Toronto, noting that along with the increase in high poverty neighbourhoods, there was also an increase in the number of low poverty (i.e. wealthier) neighbourhoods.

The relationship between income inequality and crime has been the subject of study for many years, and the “notion that income inequality and crime rates are positively related is considered as conventional wisdom in the literature of both economics and criminology.”³⁰ However, empirical support for such a relationship has been ambiguous and a causal link has not been well documented. Following is a brief outline of a number of recent studies in this area.

In a meta-analysis of 34 data studies reporting on violent crime, poverty, and income inequality, Hsieh and Pugh (1993) concluded that poverty and income equality were each positively correlated with violent crime, but found much variation in the estimated size of the relationships. It was suggested that homicide and assault might be more closely associated with poverty or income inequality than rape or robbery.³¹

Allen (1996) found that a measure of absolute poverty (income) was significantly but negatively related to burglary and vehicle theft, meaning that with a reduction in poverty, burglary and vehicle theft increased. This study found no statistically significant effect for the measure of relative poverty (income inequality). The only measure that resulted in a significant, positive relationship with burglary, vehicle theft, and robbery was inflation. As a result of these findings, the author suggested that anti-inflation (macroeconomic stability) policies should be pursued as consistent with economic and with crime reduction objectives.³²

Kennedy et al (1998) found that a strong, positive correlation between income inequality and firearm violent crime held true even controlling for the variables of poverty and firearm availability. The authors suggested that efforts to address violent crime, rather than simply targeting individuals at high-risk, should consider policies that address broader macro social/economic issues.³³

In contrast, Doyle et al (1999) found that income inequality had no significant effect on property or violent crime. This study did find, however, that wages had strong, negative effect on both property and violent crime, with an increase in wages predicting a decrease in crime. In particular, wages in wholesale and retail trade (a low skill sector) had the largest negative impact on property crime, confirming for the authors the hypothesis that property crime was most responsive to wages in sectors that provide feasible, legal alternatives for those most prone to crime.³⁴

Kelly (2000) found that while inequality had no effect on property crime but a strong impact on violent crime, poverty and police activity had significant effects on property crime but little effect on violent crime.³⁵

³⁰ Lee, D.Y. *Income Inequality and Crime: Cointegration Analyses and Causality Tests*, 2002 Working Paper, Shippensburg University (PA). (www.grove.ship.edu/research/wp/02dlee.pdf).

³¹ Hsieh, C.C. and Pugh, M.D. *Poverty, Income Inequality, and Violent Crime: A Meta-analysis of Recent Aggregate Data Studies*, **Criminal Justice Review**, vol. 18, 1993.

³² Allen, R.C. *Socioeconomic Conditions and Property Crime: A Comprehensive Review and Test of the Professional Literature*, **The American Journal of Economics and Sociology**, 55(3), 1996.

³³ Kennedy, B.P., Kawachi, I., Prothrow-Stith, D., Lochner, K., and Gupta, V. *Social Capital, Income Inequality, and Firearm Violent Crime*, **Social Science and Medicine**, 47(1), 1998.

³⁴ Doyle, J.M., Ahmed, E., and Horn, R.N. *The Effects of Labour Markets and Income Inequality on Crime: Evidence from Panel Data*, **Southern Economic Journal**, 65(4), 1999.

³⁵ Kelly, M. *Inequality and Crime*, **Review of Economics and Statistics**, 82(4), 2000.



Lee (2002) found evidence for a long-run equilibrium relationship between income inequality and two types of crime (robbery and theft), but not murder, for both US and UK data, but found no empirical support for a causal link between income inequality and crime.³⁶

Fajnzylber et al (2002), on the other hand, found that “crime rates and inequality are positively correlated..., and it appears that this correlation reflects causation from inequality to crime rates, even controlling for other crime determinants.”³⁷ The authors concluded that an increase in income inequality had a significant and robust effect of raising rates of both homicide and robbery. To address the criticism of previous studies that such a relationship may be the result of other factors acting on both variables (income inequality and crime), the authors also examined the effects of average national income, educational attainment of the adult population, economic/employment opportunities as measured by the gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate, degree of urbanisation, ethnic diversity, share of young males in the population, and the number of police per capita; no factor showed a significant effect except the GDP growth rate. Since the GDP growth rate and income inequality were significant determinants of homicide and robbery rates, results indicated that changes in the rate of poverty were related to the incidence of crime.

Once again, both Fajnzylber et al (2002) and Lee (2002) discussed the need for further exploration of poverty alleviation crime reduction strategies and acknowledged that policies to reduce crime may be more effective if they can include measures to address income inequality.

With the increasing income disparity in Toronto and the Toronto CMA (roughly the GTA), the Service might explore the possibility of developing crime prevention/reduction strategies specifically in partnership with agencies or government departments responsible for the economic support of area residents.

D. DIVISIONAL PROFILES

Information from the 2001 census in a variety of areas (e.g. age, immigration, visible minorities, language, households, etc.) is provided for each of Toronto’s sixteen policing divisions in the Appendix at the end of this chapter. A table summarizing the dominant characteristics of each division is provided at the front of the Appendix. The information in these tables may differ from that shown in previous Environmental Scans; adjustments have been made to reflect changes in divisional boundaries during 2004.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- While the growing surrounding municipalities are becoming more self-contained, Toronto generally remains the main centre of employment, entertainment, and education. This puts pressure on transportation networks and contributes to congestion, pollution, and parking problems. These problems in turn give rise to additional concerns, such as aggressive driving

³⁶ Lee, 2002.

³⁷ Fajnzylber, P., Lederman, D., and Loayza, N. *Inequality and Violent Crime*, World Bank Research Working Paper, June 2002 (econ.worldbank.org/programs/conflict/topic/12197/library/doc?id=15757); also in **The Journal of Law and Economics**, 45(1), April 2002. (Quote from Abstract.)



and increasing frustration among drivers, cyclists, and pedestrians. The Service must continue to focus efforts and resources on the safe and efficient flow of traffic in the City.

- The ageing of the population could have a significant effect on crime and victimisation patterns. For example, there is a potential for both white-collar crime, especially fraud, and elder abuse to increase. The Service must ensure that it is prepared to deal with an increase in these areas by allocating adequate resources and providing training to officers so that they have the knowledge and resources they need to understand and investigate these crimes.
- An increase in seniors may place different demands on the Service. To increase feelings of safety and security, seniors want police to be more visible on the streets, to be more accessible, and to be more a part of the community. With the mental and physical debilities that can strike with old age, there may be an increase in calls to the police for assistance. The Service should ensure it is prepared to deal with these potential service demands.
- With an increase in the number of seniors, it can be expected that an increased number of people, particularly women, will be responsible for caring for ailing, elderly parents, in addition to their own family and/or work responsibilities. This may mean that many people with appropriate abilities will not be able to reach their full potential in their chosen field of work, including those in the Police Service, due to lack of time and energy; it may also mean increased absence from work and increased tension within families. The Service must be prepared for a potential increase in elder abuse, and, internally, must ensure that support and systems are available for Service members caring for elderly parents.
- The diverse population of the City presents both opportunities and challenges for the Toronto Police Service. The Service must take advantage of opportunities relating, for example, to the potential for recruitment, volunteers, and community partnerships. It must also be prepared to meet challenges such as the need to ensure that officers are aware of different cultures and sensitivities, and language barriers that could hinder crime prevention, information dissemination, and ability to access services.
- Given the findings of the national Ethnic Diversity Survey in 2002, the Police Service must work to ensure that members of all communities in Toronto, including members of the Service itself, feel they are treated fairly and without discrimination.
- The Service must ensure that information about policing services and crime prevention is available and accessible in as many different languages as possible. Officers must also be aware that some people may not speak English and take care to ensure that these people, if stopped or arrested, understand both their situation and their rights. In particular, the Service should make a special effort to ensure that programs delivered to schools and youth outreach initiatives are accessible and understandable to all young people.
- The Service must ensure that officers have an understanding and awareness of the differing sensitivities of the growing diversity of religions in the City.



- With the increasing income disparity in Toronto, and the results of recent studies regarding the link between income inequality and crime, the Service should look at exploring the possibility of developing crime prevention/reduction strategies specifically in partnership with agencies or government departments responsible for the economic support of area residents.



Appendix

Dominant Divisional Demographics – 2001 Census

	Age Group	Household Size	Median 2000 Household Income	Dwelling Type	Period of Immigrat'n	Immigrant Place of Birth	Recent ('96-'01) Immigrant Place of Birth	Non-Official Home Language	Visible Minority	Religion
CENTRAL FIELD										
11 Division	25-34 yrs	1 person	\$49,423	Apts. 5+	1981-90	Poland	Ukraine	Polish	Black	R. Catholic
12 Division	5-19 yrs	4-5 pers.	\$39,047	Apts. 5+	1981-90	Portugal	Jamaica	Portuguese	Black	R. Catholic
13 Division	25-34 yrs	1 person	\$47,361	Single, det.	1981-90	Italy	Philippines	Italian	Black	R. Catholic
14 Division	25-34 yrs	1 person	\$43,086	Apts. <5	1971-80	Portugal	China	Portuguese	Chinese	R. Catholic
51 Division	25-34 yrs	1 person	\$35,821	Apts. 5+	1996-01	Philippines	China	Chinese	Black	No Religion
52 Division	25-34 yrs	1 person	\$49,253	Apts. 5+	1996-01	China	China	Chinese	Chinese	No Religion
53 Division	25-34 yrs	1 person	\$62,805	Apts. 5+	1996-01	U.K.	Pakistan	Chinese	S. Asian	R. Catholic
54 Division	35-44 yrs	1 person	\$44,454	Apts. 5+	1996-01	Greece	China	Chinese	S. Asian	R. Catholic
55 Division	35-44 yrs	1 person	\$52,467	Semi-det.	1981-90	China	China	Chinese	Chinese	No Religion
AREA FIELD										
22 Division	35-44 yrs	2 persons	\$57,503	Single, det.	bef. 1961	Poland	Ukraine	Polish	S. Asian	R. Catholic
23 Division	5-19 yrs	4-5 pers.	\$49,911	Apts. 5+	1996-01	India	India	Punjabi	S. Asian	R. Catholic
31 Division	5-19 yrs	4-5 pers.	\$40,859	Apts. 5+	1996-01	Italy	India	Italian	Black	R. Catholic
32 Division	5-19 yrs	2 persons	\$52,759	Single, det.	1996-01	Hong Kong	Russ. Fed.	Chinese	Chinese	R. Catholic
33 Division	5-19 yrs	2 persons	\$56,033	Apts. 5+	1996-01	China	China	Chinese	Chinese	R. Catholic
41 Division	35-44yrs	2 persons	\$45,953	Single, det.	1996-01	Philippines	China	Chinese	S. Asian	R. Catholic
42 Division	5-19 yrs	4-5 pers.	\$55,844	Single, det.	1991-95	China	China	Chinese	Chinese	No Religion
43 Division	5-19 yrs	4-5 pers.	\$52,187	Single, det.	1996-01	Sri Lanka	India	Tamil	S. Asian	R. Catholic

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Proportion of Divisional Population by Age – 2001 Census

	0-4 yrs	5-19 yrs	20-24 yrs	25-34 yrs	35-44 yrs	45-54 yrs	55-64 yrs	65-74 yrs	75-84 yrs	85+ yrs	Total
CENTRAL FIELD											
11 Division	5.7%	14.5%	5.9%	20.4%	19.3%	14.3%	7.7%	5.9%	5.0%	1.4%	100%
12 Division	7.5%	20.8%	7.0%	16.0%	17.4%	12.0%	7.9%	6.6%	3.9%	1.0%	100%
13 Division	5.3%	16.8%	7.1%	17.3%	16.9%	13.2%	8.5%	7.5%	5.1%	2.3%	100%
14 Division	4.8%	13.7%	8.3%	24.3%	17.8%	11.8%	8.0%	6.6%	3.6%	1.1%	100%
51 Division	5.2%	11.5%	8.0%	24.4%	21.0%	13.6%	8.0%	5.1%	2.5%	0.8%	100%
52 Division	3.5%	7.1%	10.3%	31.5%	16.9%	10.9%	7.9%	6.3%	3.8%	1.5%	100%
53 Division	4.9%	13.9%	5.6%	19.6%	17.1%	14.5%	9.8%	6.9%	5.3%	2.3%	100%
54 Division	6.2%	17.1%	5.8%	16.9%	19.2%	13.8%	8.3%	6.9%	4.5%	1.4%	100%
55 Division	5.9%	16.3%	5.6%	18.2%	20.6%	15.0%	7.7%	5.8%	3.7%	1.1%	100%
AREA FIELD											
22 Division	5.1%	16.9%	5.5%	12.9%	17.4%	15.2%	9.7%	9.1%	6.6%	1.7%	100%
23 Division	7.0%	20.3%	6.9%	15.3%	15.8%	12.0%	8.9%	8.1%	4.6%	1.3%	100%
31 Division	7.6%	19.6%	7.2%	16.8%	16.3%	11.0%	8.8%	8.0%	3.7%	0.9%	100%
32 Division	5.2%	17.4%	6.5%	13.8%	16.2%	14.4%	8.9%	8.3%	6.9%	2.4%	100%
33 Division	4.6%	18.2%	6.6%	13.8%	16.2%	14.3%	10.3%	8.8%	5.5%	1.7%	100%
41 Division	6.7%	18.2%	5.8%	15.1%	18.3%	13.4%	8.4%	7.9%	4.8%	1.2%	100%
42 Division	5.5%	20.0%	7.4%	14.3%	16.4%	14.8%	9.6%	7.3%	3.8%	1.0%	100%
43 Division	6.6%	21.0%	6.6%	13.8%	16.1%	13.7%	9.5%	7.6%	4.0%	1.2%	100%

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Immigrants and Period of Immigration by Division – 2001 Census

	# Landed Immig.	% of Div. population	Before 1961	PROPORTION OF IMMIGRANTS BY PERIOD OF IMMIGRATION 1961-1970	1971-1980	1981-1990	1991-1995	1996-2001	Total
CENTRAL FIELD									
11 Division	38,125	40.7%	18.2%	13.7%	15.6%	19.2%	14.3%	18.9%	100%
12 Division	50,215	55.2%	8.9%	10.6%	17.1%	25.8%	20.5%	17.2%	100%
13 Division	64,518	49.2%	15.2%	15.3%	17.8%	19.4%	15.7%	16.7%	100%
14 Division	71,010	50.5%	8.5%	14.2%	22.5%	21.0%	14.3%	19.7%	100%
51 Division	37,397	47.5%	5.3%	7.1%	12.8%	20.6%	23.8%	30.1%	100%
52 Division	13,514	46.5%	7.3%	9.4%	18.7%	20.0%	17.0%	28.2%	100%
53 Division	50,982	32.0%	17.1%	14.3%	15.5%	15.2%	14.4%	23.5%	100%
54 Division	64,437	49.3%	8.9%	12.6%	14.7%	16.1%	17.7%	30.1%	100%
55 Division	37,625	34.2%	10.5%	13.3%	20.6%	20.9%	15.9%	18.8%	100%
AREA FIELD									
22 Division	70,361	38.9%	20.2%	13.3%	14.9%	17.4%	15.4%	18.6%	100%
23 Division	82,700	54.4%	11.3%	10.0%	13.8%	20.7%	20.3%	23.6%	100%
31 Division	105,012	58.3%	13.1%	12.0%	12.9%	20.3%	20.2%	21.4%	100%
32 Division	99,825	50.1%	14.4%	10.2%	12.6%	17.2%	18.2%	27.4%	100%
33 Division	101,459	56.6%	9.3%	9.9%	14.0%	17.6%	18.9%	30.3%	100%
41 Division	76,941	48.3%	9.6%	10.2%	13.2%	19.1%	22.3%	25.5%	100%
42 Division	153,208	64.8%	3.9%	7.7%	16.9%	25.2%	25.9%	20.4%	100%
43 Division	91,702	48.8%	9.0%	10.6%	15.0%	20.2%	22.1%	23.2%	100%

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Immigrant Places of Birth - Top 5 by Division – 2001 Census

		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.	Divisional Population
CENTRAL FIELD											
11 Division	Poland	5.3%	UK	2.9%	Portugal	2.2%	Ukraine	2.4%	US	1.4%	93,693
12 Division	Portugal	7.7%	Italy	5.5%	Jamaica	5.3%	Viet Nam	4.9%	Guyana	2.3%	90,945
13 Division	Italy	8.2%	Portugal	8.0%	Philippines	3.5%	Jamaica	2.6%	Viet Nam	1.7%	131,082
14 Division	Portugal	13.4%	China	7.4%	Viet Nam	3.1%	Italy	2.8%	UK	1.8%	140,642
51 Division	Philippines	5.6%	China	4.3%	Sri Lanka	3.6%	UK	2.9%	Viet Nam	2.0%	78,690
52 Division	China	11.4%	Hong Kong	3.7%	UK	3.5%	US	2.0%	Philippines	1.7%	29,049
53 Division	UK	4.9%	US	2.2%	Philippines	2.0%	India	1.8%	Pakistan	1.4%	159,083
54 Division	Greece	4.4%	China	4.3%	Philippines	3.5%	Sri Lanka	3.1%	UK	2.9%	130,798
55 Division	China	8.1%	UK	3.8%	Viet Nam	3.4%	US	1.6%	Philippines	1.3%	110,148
AREA FIELD											
22 Division	Poland	5.1%	UK	3.3%	Italy	2.5%	Ukraine	2.3%	Philippines	1.7%	180,782
23 Division	India	8.9%	Italy	5.3%	Jamaica	4.3%	Guyana	3.5%	UK	2.1%	151,900
31 Division	Italy	12.5%	Jamaica	5.0%	Viet Nam	4.3%	India	3.8%	Guyana	3.3%	180,253
32 Division	Hong Kong	3.9%	Russian Federation	3.8%	Philippines	3.6%	China	2.9%	Italy	2.9%	199,274
33 Division	China	6.9%	Hong Kong	5.3%	Iran	4.6%	UK	2.7%	Philippines	2.4%	179,098
41 Division	Philippines	5.1%	Sri Lanka	4.7%	China	4.1%	UK	2.9%	Guyana	2.8%	159,440
42 Division	China	13.0%	Hong Kong	10.5%	Sri Lanka	5.6%	Philippines	4.2%	India	4.2%	236,598
43 Division	Sri Lanka	6.1%	India	4.3%	Jamaica	3.8%	Guyana	3.8%	Philippines	3.5%	188,089

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Places of Birth – Recent (1996-2001) Immigrants - Top 5 by Division – 2001 Census

		% of Div. immig. pop.		% of Div. immig. pop.		% of Div. immig. pop.		% of Div. immig. pop.		% of Div. immig. pop.	Total Immigrants
CENTRAL FIELD											
11 Division	Ukraine	2.0%	China	1.8%	Russian Federation	1.6%	India	1.3%	Philippines	0.6%	38,125
12 Division	Jamaica	1.4%	Viet Nam	1.0%	India	0.9%	China	0.9%	Pakistan	0.9%	50,215
13 Division	Philippines	2.3%	China	1.2%	Jamaica	0.8%	Russian Federation	0.7%	Ukraine	0.7%	64,518
14 Division	China	7.8%	India	1.1%	Pakistan	1.0%	Philippines	0.8%	Viet Nam	0.6%	71,010
51 Division	China	5.6%	Philippines	3.7%	Sri Lanka	2.3%	Bangladesh	2.0%	Pakistan	1.7%	37,397
52 Division	China	11.2%	India	1.7%	Iran	1.3%	Pakistan	1.1%	Taiwan	1.0%	13,514
53 Division	Pakistan	3.5%	India	2.2%	Iran	1.9%	China	1.9%	Philippines	1.5%	50,982
54 Division	China	3.8%	Pakistan	3.5%	India	2.6%	Bangladesh	2.2%	Sri Lanka	2.1%	64,437
55 Division	China	8.0%	Pakistan	1.9%	Philippines	0.8%	India	0.8%	UK & Viet Nam	0.7%	37,625
AREA FIELD											
22 Division	Ukraine	2.6%	China	1.2%	South Korea	1.2%	Yugoslavia	1.1%	India	1.0%	70,361
23 Division	India	6.4%	Pakistan	1.8%	Jamaica	1.3%	Guyana	1.3%	Somalia	1.1%	82,700
31 Division	India	3.0%	China	1.8%	Jamaica	1.4%	Pakistan	1.4%	Guyana	1.3%	105,012
32 Division	Russian Federation	4.4%	China	2.7%	Ukraine	2.3%	Philippines	2.3%	South Korea	2.2%	99,825
33 Division	China	6.9%	Iran	4.4%	South Korea	2.0%	Romania	1.9%	India	1.8%	101,459
41 Division	China	3.8%	Sri Lanka	3.3%	Philippines	2.9%	India	2.5%	Pakistan	2.1%	76,941
42 Division	China	7.1%	India	2.3%	Hong Kong	2.2%	Sri Lanka	2.1%	Pakistan	1.2%	153,208
43 Division	India	4.3%	Sri Lanka	3.9%	Pakistan	1.9%	China	1.8%	Philippines	1.5%	91,702

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Proportion of Divisional Population by Visible Minority (Single Response) Group – 2001 Census

	Chinese	South Asian*	Black	Filipino	Latin American	Southeast Asian **	Arab ***	West Asian †	Korean	Japanese	Visible Minority n.i.e.††	Aboriginal Identity †††
CENTRAL FIELD												
11 Division	3.6%	4.3%	4.5%	1.6%	1.9%	1.5%	0.6%	0.8%	1.1%	0.6%	1.2%	0.7%
12 Division	3.8%	7.6%	18.5%	2.2%	7.8%	5.0%	0.3%	0.7%	0.7%	0.3%	2.3%	0.6%
13 Division	3.9%	2.5%	8.0%	4.4%	4.5%	1.5%	0.3%	0.4%	0.5%	0.3%	1.1%	0.5%
14 Division	13.0%	5.5%	5.2%	2.2%	2.3%	2.4%	0.3%	0.5%	0.9%	0.5%	1.3%	0.6%
51 Division	8.7%	10.9%	11.7%	6.9%	2.3%	2.5%	1.0%	1.0%	2.4%	0.5%	1.0%	1.0%
52 Division	23.1%	6.0%	4.3%	1.7%	1.0%	1.5%	1.6%	1.4%	2.5%	1.5%	0.4%	0.5%
53 Division	3.4%	6.1%	2.0%	2.7%	0.9%	0.2%	0.4%	1.1%	0.8%	0.6%	0.4%	0.4%
54 Division	8.4%	14.9%	5.7%	4.5%	1.1%	0.5%	0.6%	2.4%	0.8%	0.5%	1.2%	0.7%
55 Division	16.6%	3.7%	5.3%	1.7%	0.8%	1.2%	0.2%	0.6%	0.3%	0.6%	0.5%	1.0%
AREA FIELD												
22 Division	3.2%	4.0%	3.7%	2.3%	1.3%	0.5%	0.6%	0.6%	1.7%	0.5%	0.6%	0.5%
23 Division	2.1%	21.1%	15.8%	1.7%	3.3%	1.2%	1.6%	1.7%	1.0%	0.2%	2.7%	0.2%
31 Division	5.1%	12.3%	16.3%	1.7%	7.6%	4.6%	1.2%	1.2%	0.6%	0.1%	3.0%	0.3%
32 Division	11.1%	2.5%	3.8%	4.5%	1.1%	0.7%	0.5%	2.1%	3.4%	0.6%	0.6%	0.2%
33 Division	19.1%	9.1%	5.5%	3.0%	0.7%	0.4%	2.5%	5.1%	2.7%	0.7%	0.9%	0.2%
41 Division	8.5%	15.3%	7.9%	6.5%	1.2%	0.7%	1.5%	1.8%	0.7%	0.5%	2.0%	0.5%
42 Division	34.3%	18.2%	10.3%	5.2%	0.7%	0.7%	1.2%	1.2%	0.5%	0.4%	2.5%	0.2%
43 Division	5.6%	20.2%	11.8%	4.7%	1.0%	0.5%	0.5%	1.5%	0.6%	0.6%	2.6%	0.6%

* E.g. East Indian, Pakistani, Sri Lankan
 ** E.g. Laotian, Cambodian, Indonesian, Vietnamese
 *** E.g. Egyptian, Lebanese, Moroccan

† E.g. Afghan, Iranian
 †† n.i.e. = not included elsewhere
 ††† 'Aboriginal Identity' = reported identifying with at least one Aboriginal group

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Home Language* (Non-Official Languages, Single Responses) - Top 5 by Division – 2001 Census

		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.
CENTRAL FIELD										
11 Division	Polish	2.2%	Chinese	1.3%	Portuguese	1.3%	Ukrainian	1.2%	Russian	0.8%
12 Division	Portuguese	4.7%	Spanish	3.5%	Italian	2.9%	Vietnamese	2.7%	Chinese	1.5%
13 Division	Italian	4.9%	Portuguese	4.6%	Chinese	1.9%	Spanish	1.8%	Tagalog(Pilipino)	0.7%
14 Division	Portuguese	8.8%	Chinese	7.1%	Vietnamese	1.6%	Italian	1.5%	Spanish	0.8%
51 Division	Chinese	4.0%	Tamil	2.1%	Tagalog(Pilipino)	1.3%	Korean	1.2%	Bengali	1.0%
52 Division	Chinese	11.5%	Korean	0.9%	Japanese	0.7%	Vietnamese	0.6%	Persian (Farsi)	0.4%
53 Division	Chinese	0.8%	Urdu	0.6%	Persian (Farsi)	0.5%	Gujarati	0.5%	Serbian	0.3%
54 Division	Chinese	3.7%	Greek	2.4%	Tamil	1.7%	Persian (Farsi)	1.1%	Urdu	0.9%
55 Division	Chinese	9.4%	Vietnamese	0.6%	Greek	0.5%	Urdu	0.5%	Italian	0.3%
AREA FIELD										
22 Division	Polish	2.2%	Ukrainian	1.1%	Chinese	0.9%	Korean	0.8%	Serbian	0.8%
23 Division	Punjabi	4.6%	Italian	1.9%	Spanish	1.2%	Arabic	1.1%	Tamil	1.1%
31 Division	Italian	6.1%	Spanish	3.3%	Chinese	2.7%	Vietnamese	2.1%	Punjabi	1.7%
32 Division	Chinese	4.6%	Russian	4.5%	Korean	1.8%	Italian	1.2%	Persian (Farsi)	0.9%
33 Division	Chinese	8.4%	Persian (Farsi)	2.3%	Korean	1.4%	Arabic	0.8%	Romanian	0.8%
41 Division	Chinese	4.5%	Tamil	3.0%	Tagalog(Pilipino)	1.0%	Greek	0.9%	Urdu	0.8%
42 Division	Chinese	19.3%	Tamil	2.9%	Urdu	0.7%	Tagalog(Pilipino)	0.6%	Punjabi	0.6%
43 Division	Tamil	3.2%	Chinese	2.4%	Gujarati	0.9%	Urdu	0.8%	Tagalog(Pilipino)	0.6%

* 'Home Language' is defined by Statistics Canada as language spoken most often or on a regular basis at home or (if live alone) language most comfortable with.

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Religious Affiliation - Top 5 by Division – 2001 Census

		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.		% of Div. pop.
CENTRAL FIELD										
11 Division	Roman Catholic	35.7%	None	22.1%	Anglican	6.3%	United	5.5%	Muslim	3.1%
12 Division	Roman Catholic	45.9%	None	10.9%	Muslim	7.4%	Christian n.i.e.*	5.1%	Buddhist	4.5%
13 Division	Roman Catholic	44.8%	None	13.3%	Jewish	13.1%	Anglican	3.8%	Christian n.i.e.	3.0%
14 Division	Roman Catholic	41.4%	None	25.6%	Buddhist	5.1%	Anglican	3.6%	Muslim	3.5%
51 Division	None	26.6%	Roman Catholic	26.6%	Muslim	9.2%	Christian n.i.e.*	5.7%	Anglican	5.4%
52 Division	None	34.1%	Roman Catholic	21.4%	Anglican	6.2%	Muslim	5.7%	Jewish	4.8%
53 Division	Roman Catholic	21.6%	None	19.5%	Anglican	12.9%	Jewish	11.4%	United	10.5%
54 Division	Roman Catholic	23.3%	None	18.6%	Muslim	12.0%	Greek Orthodox	7.4%	Anglican	6.2%
55 Division	None	35.1%	Roman Catholic	21.4%	Anglican	9.1%	United	7.1%	Buddhist	5.3%
AREA FIELD										
22 Division	Roman Catholic	39.6%	None	13.6%	United	9.3%	Anglican	8.5%	Muslim	3.7%
23 Division	Roman Catholic	34.4%	Muslim	10.7%	Hindu	9.0%	None	8.0%	Sikh	7.1%
31 Division	Roman Catholic	44.7%	None	10.9%	Muslim	7.1%	Hindu	6.4%	Christian n.i.e.	5.4%
32 Division	Roman Catholic	24.3%	Jewish	21.4%	None	17.9%	United	5.4%	Anglican	5.3%
33 Division	Roman Catholic	21.8%	None	19.4%	Muslim	10.2%	Jewish	6.6%	Anglican	5.8%
41 Division	Roman Catholic	27.9%	None	16.4%	Muslim	9.3%	Hindu	7.8%	United	7.3%
42 Division	None	26.2%	Roman Catholic	23.2%	Hindu	10.1%	Muslim	6.4%	Christian n.i.e.	5.6%
43 Division	Roman Catholic	27.7%	None	13.7%	Hindu	11.1%	Muslim	8.6%	Anglican	8.3%

* n.i.e. = not included elsewhere

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Families and Households by Division – 2001 Census

	% One Parent* Families of Div. Families	HOUSEHOLDS BY SIZE – PROPORTION OF DIVISIONAL HOUSEHOLDS					HOUSEHOLDS BY TYPE – PROPORTION OF DIV. HOUSEHOLDS		
		1 Person	2 Persons	3 Persons	4-5 Persons	6 + Persons	Non- Family	One Family	Multi- Family
CENTRAL FIELD									
11 Division	18.5%	35.7%	31.3%	15.0%	15.9%	2.2%	43.3%	55.3%	1.5%
12 Division	26.7%	24.7%	25.3%	18.2%	25.9%	5.9%	29.1%	66.8%	4.2%
13 Division	19.5%	30.2%	28.2%	16.3%	21.4%	4.0%	36.3%	60.3%	3.3%
14 Division	19.8%	33.6%	29.7%	15.9%	16.7%	4.1%	44.0%	52.1%	4.0%
51 Division	25.8%	50.6%	29.3%	10.5%	8.2%	1.4%	59.9%	39.1%	1.1%
52 Division	14.1%	48.8%	33.9%	9.8%	6.4%	1.0%	58.9%	40.4%	0.5%
53 Division	12.6%	44.4%	30.3%	10.5%	13.0%	1.6%	50.6%	48.9%	0.5%
54 Division	20.1%	29.6%	29.2%	17.4%	20.3%	3.5%	35.4%	62.0%	2.6%
55 Division	21.7%	32.6%	30.2%	15.9%	17.5%	3.6%	39.9%	57.2%	3.0%
AREA FIELD									
22 Division	17.4%	27.9%	32.5%	16.5%	20.5%	2.4%	31.9%	66.2%	2.0%
23 Division	21.9%	18.4%	26.5%	18.1%	28.3%	8.5%	22.0%	71.7%	6.3%
31 Division	25.1%	19.1%	26.4%	19.7%	27.3%	7.3%	23.2%	70.8%	6.2%
32 Division	16.1%	27.2%	30.9%	16.8%	21.7%	3.3%	31.8%	65.8%	2.3%
33 Division	16.9%	22.0%	29.3%	19.2%	25.3%	4.0%	25.8%	70.6%	3.4%
41 Division	22.1%	23.5%	29.0%	18.9%	23.6%	4.8%	27.6%	68.2%	4.3%
42 Division	19.0%	13.8%	22.7%	19.8%	33.9%	10.1%	16.3%	74.8%	9.0%
43 Division	21.1%	18.9%	27.0%	19.2%	29.0%	6.2%	21.7%	73.6%	5.1%

* In approximately 85% of one parent families, women were the lone parent.

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



Proportion of Dwelling Types by Division – 2001 Census

	Single Detached	Semi-Detached	Row Houses	Apts.- Detached Duplex	Apts. < 5 Stories	Apts. = 5 Stories	Other	Owned	Rented
CENTRAL FIELD									
11 Division	26.3%	14.0%	3.3%	7.0%	21.7%	27.0%	0.7%	44.9%	55.2%
12 Division	32.8%	12.1%	2.6%	2.8%	12.2%	37.4%	0.2%	49.4%	50.5%
13 Division	36.0%	11.8%	1.7%	4.7%	19.8%	25.6%	0.3%	49.5%	50.4%
14 Division	11.1%	20.5%	8.9%	3.7%	27.4%	27.1%	1.4%	39.4%	59.8%
51 Division	2.1%	2.4%	5.4%	0.9%	10.7%	78.2%	0.3%	18.2%	76.8%
52 Division	0.9%	2.1%	2.6%	0.2%	9.3%	84.6%	0.3%	28.4%	71.1%
53 Division	24.9%	6.7%	2.2%	2.2%	15.3%	48.7%	0.4%	39.8%	59.1%
54 Division	28.6%	12.0%	3.3%	2.8%	12.0%	40.6%	0.6%	49.1%	50.9%
55 Division	21.4%	31.5%	7.8%	3.5%	24.4%	10.7%	1.0%	54.1%	45.4%
AREA FIELD									
22 Division	48.5%	2.4%	3.2%	1.9%	15.1%	28.7%	0.1%	61.9%	38.1%
23 Division	42.1%	3.8%	7.7%	1.1%	2.8%	42.7%	0.1%	56.4%	43.9%
31 Division	22.6%	18.5%	6.2%	0.5%	10.5%	41.4%	0.1%	43.9%	56.0%
32 Division	43.3%	3.5%	2.9%	1.9%	11.9%	36.2%	0.2%	55.4%	44.7%
33 Division	28.7%	11.7%	9.7%	0.3%	8.0%	41.6%	0.0%	53.1%	46.8%
41 Division	43.2%	5.8%	3.2%	4.7%	7.9%	35.3%	0.2%	54.5%	44.7%
42 Division	41.1%	8.0%	14.2%	1.7%	2.8%	32.2%	0.2%	69.7%	30.3%
43 Division	48.5%	2.6%	5.7%	3.2%	2.6%	37.3%	0.0%	60.3%	39.0%

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



2000 Household Income by Division – 2001 Census

	PROPORTION OF DIVISIONAL HOUSEHOLDS										
	<\$10,000	\$10,000- \$19,999	\$20,000- \$29,999	\$30,000- \$39,999	\$40,000- \$49,999	\$50,000- \$59,999	\$60,000- \$69,999	\$70,000- \$79,999	\$80,000- \$89,999	\$90,000- \$99,999	\$100,000+
CENTRAL FIELD											
11 Division	6.7%	11.8%	11.0%	11.8%	9.3%	7.9%	7.4%	6.0%	4.9%	4.3%	18.9%
12 Division	11.0%	15.3%	12.5%	12.5%	11.3%	9.0%	7.5%	6.0%	4.6%	3.1%	7.3%
13 Division	5.8%	12.8%	11.9%	11.6%	10.8%	8.1%	7.5%	6.1%	4.7%	3.5%	17.4%
14 Division	8.6%	14.3%	12.6%	11.6%	9.5%	8.3%	7.2%	5.7%	4.7%	3.8%	13.8%
51 Division	13.5%	16.6%	12.7%	12.4%	9.7%	7.2%	6.3%	4.4%	3.1%	2.7%	11.5%
52 Division	8.7%	11.3%	10.6%	10.0%	9.7%	8.2%	7.2%	6.1%	4.6%	4.2%	19.2%
53 Division	4.7%	8.4%	8.3%	9.5%	9.6%	7.6%	6.7%	5.7%	4.7%	3.9%	30.9%
54 Division	7.1%	13.4%	12.2%	12.7%	10.4%	8.6%	7.8%	6.3%	4.7%	4.1%	12.8%
55 Division	7.1%	11.4%	10.2%	9.9%	9.4%	8.2%	7.8%	6.6%	5.2%	4.2%	20.1%
AREA FIELD											
22 Division	4.3%	10.0%	9.5%	10.1%	9.9%	8.3%	8.0%	6.7%	5.7%	4.6%	22.9%
23 Division	6.4%	10.5%	11.5%	11.2%	10.5%	9.4%	8.4%	6.9%	5.8%	4.9%	14.5%
31 Division	9.8%	13.6%	13.4%	12.4%	10.5%	9.0%	7.7%	5.8%	4.6%	3.6%	9.8%
32 Division	6.7%	11.4%	10.6%	10.2%	9.1%	7.8%	6.6%	5.5%	4.8%	4.2%	23.3%
33 Division	5.6%	8.9%	9.7%	10.5%	10.1%	8.7%	7.7%	6.9%	5.4%	4.4%	22.1%
41 Division	7.5%	11.4%	12.7%	12.0%	10.8%	9.3%	8.1%	6.6%	5.5%	4.0%	12.1%
42 Division	5.0%	8.8%	10.2%	10.4%	9.9%	9.8%	9.0%	7.7%	6.2%	4.8%	18.2%
43 Division	7.1%	11.5%	9.8%	10.2%	9.6%	8.5%	7.6%	6.7%	6.0%	5.1%	17.9%

Data Source: Statistics Canada

♦ Some divisional information may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to changes to divisional boundaries during 2004.



II. CRIME TRENDS

The nature and extent of crime are social indicators of the safety and security of the public and are often used for the evaluation of effectiveness of policies and programs to reduce crime. In policing, a significant portion of police activity is spent in the prevention and detection of crime and the apprehension of offenders. Information about changing crime patterns or types of offenders allows Police Service members to develop strategies to address changing problems, make rational decisions, and plan activities according to, or in anticipation of, crime-related trends.

HIGHLIGHTS

- In 2004, a total of 195,121 non-traffic Criminal Code offences occurred in Toronto, representing a 3.0% decrease from 2003 and a slight 0.9% decrease from five years ago.
- While overall crime showed a large decrease over the past ten years (22.6%), the decrease was driven mainly by a decrease in property crimes (35.5%). The decrease in number of violent crimes between 1995 and 2004 was a much smaller 4.5%.
- Between 2003 and 2004, decreases were noted for violent crime (4.2%), property crime (4.3%), and traffic offences (1.5%), while other Criminal Code offences increased by a 1.0%.
- Robberies decreased 2.1% in 2004 compared with 2003, increased 13.0% over the past five years, and decreased 7.5% over the past ten years.
- The number of non-sexual assaults decreased 5.9% in 2004, which was also a 12.6% and 4.6% decrease over the past five and ten years, respectively.
- Sexual assaults increased 8.3% in 2004 compared with 2003, increased 6.9% over the past five years, and increased 0.8% over the past ten years.
- In 2004, an average of 73.1 non-traffic Criminal Code offences occurred for every 1,000 population, of which 12.4 were violent crimes, 42.9 were property crimes, and 17.8 were other Criminal Code offences. The overall crime rate was a 4.0% decrease from 2003 and a large 29.4% decrease from 1995.
- In terms of the total number of crimes per 1,000 population, a clear trend of decrease was seen between 1995 and 2000, after which the rate remained relatively stable at about 76 to 77 occurrences per 1,000 population, before dropping to 73.1 in 2004.
- The proportion of cases involving the use of weapons decreased for both robbery and non-sexual assaults over the past ten years, from 44.3% and 29.8% in 1995 to 23.9% and 12%, respectively, in 2004. About 15% of sexual assaults involved the use of weapons in 2004, which was an increase from previous years.



- The proportion of robberies involving the use of firearms decreased. However, the number of gun-related calls received by the police increased considerably in recent years.
- Despite a decrease in number of drug offences and arrests, primarily enforcement driven statistics, there is evidence that the number of marijuana grow-operations (MGOs) increased considerably, most of which are believed related to organised crime.
- Other new developments in criminal activities include the use of technology in committing crimes, such as identity theft, and the use of the stolen information for furthering other crimes, such as fraud.
- The number of persons arrested and charged for Criminal Code offences in 2004 was a 1.5% decrease from 2003, but a 4.1% increase from 2000. Over the past five years, the number of persons arrested/charged decreased for violent crime, but increased for all other major Criminal Code offence categories, particularly property crime and other Criminal Code offences. Males in the younger age groups continued to have the highest arrest rates.
- In 2004, 42, 41, 52, and 14 Divisions were the busiest stations in terms of number of crimes occurred and dispatched calls serviced.
- Relative to 18 other Canadian cities of ‘comparable’ population size, in 2003, the crime rate in Toronto ranked below middle (twelfth) in overall crimes, and ranked sixth and fourteenth in violent crimes and property crimes, respectively. Between 1999 and 2003, Toronto was among the nine cities that had a decrease in the overall crime rate, and was among the fourteen cities having a decrease in the property crime rate. In terms of the violent crime rate, it had the smallest 0.2% increase. Among the 17 cities having an increase in the per capita cost, Toronto had the fourth smallest increase of 15.1%, compared to the largest increase of 38.2%.

A. NATIONAL CRIME TRENDS³⁸

Canada’s crime rate, based on crimes reported to or detected by the police, increased by 6% in 2003, after a period of decline throughout the 1990s and a period of stability from 2000 to 2002. The rise in crime was driven mainly by increases in counterfeiting, property crimes, and minor offences, such as mischief and disturbing the peace.

Crime rates increased in all provinces/territories except Ontario and the Yukon, where they remained stable. The violent crime rate remained stable in 2003, but the rate for both property crime and other Criminal Code offences increased.

The national violent crime rate remained relatively stable in 2003 (-1%), with declines reported for all violent crime categories except robbery and attempted murder. The homicide rate dropped 7%, a continuation of the downward trend seen since the mid-1970s. The robbery rate increased 5%, the first increase since 1996. Robberies committed with a firearm also increased 10% in 2003. The sexual assault rate declined 5% to its lowest point since 1985.

³⁸ Based on: Wallace, M. *Crime Statistics in Canada 2003*, **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 24(6), July 2004. (At time of writing, national 2004 year end statistics were not available.)



The property crime rate was up 4% in 2003, the first substantial increase since 1991, with increases in rates for break-ins (2%), motor vehicle thefts (5%), and thefts under \$5,000 (4%).

The rate of drug crimes in Canada fell 8% in 2003, after nearly a decade of increases. The 18% drop in the rate of cannabis possession was the main cause of the decline. The rate of persons charged with cannabis possession fell by 30%. These drops may be in part due to a climate of uncertainty within the law enforcement and criminal justice communities, as a result of the introduction of legislation to decriminalize possession of small amounts of cannabis and the challenge in court regarding the constitutionality of current laws on cannabis possession. The rate of cannabis cultivation incidents (marijuana grow-ops) increased by 3% in 2003.

B. INTERPRETATION OF POLICE-REPORTED CRIME DATA

There has been argument that the decline in number of police-reported crimes may not be indicative of the real crime picture. There is a general understanding that official crime statistics do not cover all the crimes that have occurred. The International Crime Victimization Survey reported that only 49% of the Canadian crimes were reported to the police.³⁹ It has been recognised that the following factors, in addition to the dynamics that determine the level of criminal activities, such as social, economic, and demographic changes, can influence official crime statistics:⁴⁰

- reporting by the public to the police;
- reporting by police to the CCJS;
- changes in legislation; and/or
- changes in policies or enforcement practices.

Reporting of crime by the public to the police is affected by a number of factors, including: perceived seriousness of the incident; readiness to involve the police; fear of reprisal from the aggressor or other negative consequences of criminal justice intervention; desire to bring justice to the offender; social obligation to report criminal behaviour; and, the need to obtain a police report for insurance purposes.

Changes in law that limit or broaden the definition of an existing offence will influence the number of incidents reported to the police. Proactive policing initiatives targeting specific types of crime, such as prostitution and drugs, will also affect official crime statistics.

In terms of the impact of demographics on crime, the size of the youth population will affect the number of criminal occurrences, due to the higher rates of offending and victimisation among young persons as revealed by police crime data. Statistics from Statistics Canada showed that the general decrease in crime rates since the early 1990s coincided with a decrease in the proportion of persons aged 15 to 24 years.

Unemployment, poverty, and income inequality are frequently considered the risk factors that affect criminal activity. Fluctuations in these social and economic conditions may interact

³⁹ Besserer, S. *Criminal Victimization: An International Perspective – Results of the 2000 International Crime Victimization Survey*, *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 22(4), May 2002.

⁴⁰ Wallace, M. *Crime Statistics in Canada 2002*, *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 23(5), July 2003.



with demographic shifts to affect crime rates. The level of resources available to institutions of social control, such as family and school, may affect their ability to prevent youth and young adults from becoming involved in crime. Economic conditions, on the other hand, may affect people's integration into the job market, which in turn, affects their ability to maintain a decent living. The higher crime rates among young people in Canada during the 1980s, for example, was attributed to the more serious difficulties integrating into the job market during the recession in the early years of that decade.⁴¹

A recent study by Statistics Canada revealed that there are also relationships between crime rates and trends in other major socio-economic indicators, including inflation rates, population shifts, unemployment rates, and per capita alcohol consumption.⁴² A positive correlation was found between homicide rates and unemployment rates and alcohol consumption. The study also revealed a positive correlation between inflation and financially-motivated crimes (including robbery, motor vehicle theft, and break & enter), as well as a positive relationship between rates of break and enter and the proportion of the population aged 15-24 years. These findings were taken to suggest that years in which certain social problems (unemployment, inflation, and alcohol consumption) occur with greater intensity also tend to have higher rates of crime, and that shifts in the age composition of the population make only a small contribution to the change in overall crime.

Other exogenous and endogenous factors, such as the need to address the issue of terrorism after the September 11th, 2001, attacks and the diminishing ability of the police to detect, investigate, and take reports of less serious crimes due to changing service priorities and dwindling resources resulting from persistent budget constraints, also have an impact on official crime statistics.

C. LEVEL OF CRIME AND POLICE RESOURCES

There are controversies regarding the implication of changes in the level of crime on resource requirements for policing. There are critiques that while increase in crime would provide justification for increasing policing resources, decrease in crime should be construed as an indication that fewer policing resources are required because of a decreased workload. This reasoning is solely based on reactive policing, where police programs simply react to crime and emergencies; it is less applicable to proactive community policing, where prevention of victimisation and improvement of quality of life are among the goals of policing.

Another concern about the change in police workload is the impact of initiatives and changes in legislation on law enforcement, investigation of crimes, justice administration, and freedom of information. Many of these result in changes and new responsibilities to be taken up by the police, and imply more work for the police or require more time to process an investigation because of the new or added requirements to comply with under the law.⁴³ Thus,

⁴¹Wallace, 2004.

⁴² Pottie Bunge, V., Johnson, H. and Balde, T. *Exploring Crime Patterns in Canada, Crime and Justice Research Paper Series*, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics and Time Series Research and Analysis Centre, Statistics Canada, June 2005.

⁴³ Changes in Federal, Provincial and Municipal legislation, as well as Common Law rulings, have implications for police practices and thus workload. Many changes have already imposed additional work requirements on the police, whether it be actual work or training required. Examples include: the *DNA Identification Act* regarding the preparation of warrant and actual taking of DNA sample from a subject involved in serious crimes; the Feeny



when there is a decrease in number of criminal occurrences, police workload or officer time required for police work may not have decreased, and may, on the contrary, have increased. Unfortunately, there has not been any known systematic study conducted to shed light on the impact of existing programs and legislative changes on police resource requirements.

There is no doubt that contemporary policing has shifted its philosophy and method of service delivery from reactive to proactive. On top of the traditional goals of enforcement and response to emergencies, proactive measures to minimise or prevent the occurrence of crime have increasingly been incorporated as one of the primary goals in policing. Police administrators know that policing cannot effectively address the issue of crime by simply reacting to crime without also dealing with those causes of crime that policing can have an impact on. There is also increasing expectation from the public that the police will work in partnership with the community to address crime issues. Compared with the past, more police programs today are focused on community partnership and crime prevention.

Police resources have been deployed to strike a balance between the need to react to emergencies and calls for service on the one hand, and the need to address community concerns and be proactive on issues before they give rise to crime, on the other. These proactive crime prevention programs are resource demanding.

The number of crimes that have occurred is in part the end result of such an approach and, therefore, should not be construed as the sole indicator for police resource needs. In essence, police resource requirements should be determined on the basis of contemporary policing goals and community expectations, as well as the requirements and constraints of existing laws. Focusing on criminal occurrences as the only factor in determining resource requirements risks missing the total picture.

D. NUMBER OF CRIMES IN TORONTO

Last year, 2004, marked the first complete year for the production of corporate statistics on crime and arrest by the Enterprise Case and Occurrence Processing System (eCOPS). The current information system represents a live database, which allows data entry and search of all primary police databases from one location. While this change enhances front-line officers' access to information in the police system and ability to track and manage cases, the regular updates to the live database require that statistics that were produced and published in the past be revised from time to time. Initiatives to further stabilize the system and standardize the statistics production system are still being developed. **Due to these changes in Service data systems and**

Amendment on search warrants; the *Firearms Safety Act* requiring background checks and spousal notification before firearms ownership licence is issued; judicial reports, including the Campbell Report for greater sharing of information and enhanced training for investigators and the Kaufman Inquiry's recommendation (on the wrongful conviction of Guy Paul Morin) for enhanced police training and practices relative to criminal investigation; By-law 58-92 of the City of Toronto Council regarding the retention of police video tapes on booking of prisoners, video statements, impaired driving statements, scenes of crimes, and others; the new Adequacy and Effectiveness of Police Services Regulation under the *Police Services Act*, requiring the police to deliver the defined services at appropriate levels; and the *Youth Criminal Justice Act* that requires officers to complete a number of administrative forms and to determine the course of action to take regarding the youth involved. These changes, and others, have resulted in the development of new procedures and the training of staff to comply with the various demands of the regulations. The Adequacy Standards alone, for example, resulted in 28 new procedures being created. All these affect available officer time and other police resources.



extraction procedures, coupled with the regular updates to the live database, all crime and arrest/charge data for previous years have been recalculated to allow fair comparison and may differ from statistics published in previous Scans.

In 2004, a total of 195,121 non-traffic Criminal Code offences occurred in Toronto, which was a 3.0% decrease from the 201,237 offences in 2003, a 0.9% decrease from the 196,933 offences in 2000, and a 22.6% decrease from the 252,238 offences in 1995.⁴⁴ Figure 2.1 shows the number of reported non-traffic Criminal Code offences in each of the past ten years. In general, crime showed a downward trend between 1995 and 2000 and remained relatively stable over the past four years.

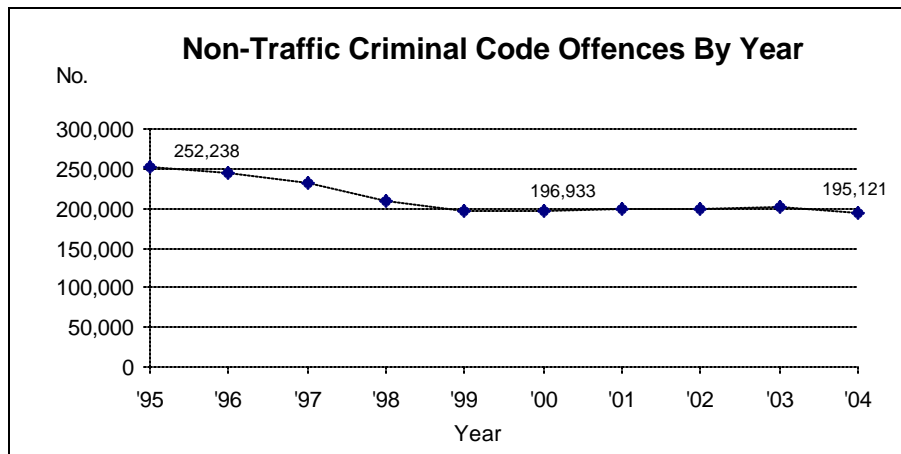


Figure 2.1

Source: TPS Database

Table 2.1 shows changes in the number of reported crimes by major offence categories and by specific offences. With a 3.0% decrease for crimes in general between 2003 and 2004, a 4.2% and a 4.3% decrease was noted for violent crime and property crime, respectively, while there was a slight 1.0% increase for other non-traffic Criminal Code offences. The Appendix to this chapter shows more detailed information about the offence categories.

⁴⁴ The number of Criminal Code traffic offences continues to be under-counted due to problems experienced with the information system. Since the continued systems problems prevent an accurate count of Criminal Code traffic offences, they have been excluded from the above analysis.



**Table 2.1
Non-Traffic Criminal Code Offences: Major Categories and Specific Offences**

OFFENCE CATEGORIES	Number of Crimes					% Change		
	1995	2000	2002	2003	2004	(1 yr) 03-04	(5 yr) 00-04	(10 yr) 95-04
Total Non-Traffic CC	252238	196933	199150	201237	195121	-3.0	-0.9	-22.6
Violent	34748	35923	35183	34669	33200	-4.2	-7.6	-4.5
Property*	177602	114796	117709	119610	114491	-4.3	-0.3	-35.5
Other CC	39888	46214	46258	46958	47430	1.0	2.6	18.9
SPECIFIC CRIMES								
Homicide	58	61	62	67	64	-4.5	4.9	10.3
Sexual Assault**	2878	2714	2731	2680	2902	8.3	6.9	0.8
Non-sexual Assault	25489	27814	27216	25831	24307	-5.9	-12.6	-4.6
Total Robbery	5784	4733	4581	5463	5348	-2.1	13.0	-7.5
Robbery - Fin. Inst.	na	214	127	141	146	3.5	-31.8	na
B&E	25513	15698	15679	16451	17156	4.3	9.3	-32.8
Auto Theft	17029	14021	13012	13865	10248	-26.1	-26.9	-39.8
Theft from Auto	37807	20369	19878	17814	17368	-2.5	-14.7	-54.1
Other Theft	50018	34409	35075	36969	35182	-4.8	2.2	-29.7
Fraud	9660	7770	10276	11814	12628	6.9	62.5	30.7
Offensive Weapons	3981	4173	4606	5412	5486	1.4	31.5	37.8
Mischief	31796	17338	17569	15830	14998	-5.3	-13.5	-52.8
Drugs	6438	11182	9723	7158	9617	34.4	-14.0	49.4

* Mischief offences are included under Property Crime. For the purposes of other reports, mischief offences may be included under Other Criminal Code.

** Includes sexual offences.

Source: TPS Offence Database

Over the past five years, the total number of crimes remained roughly the same, with only a 0.9% decrease; there was also a decrease in violent crime (7.6%), a small increase in other non-traffic Criminal Code offences (2.6%), and relatively little change in property crime (a 0.3% decrease). Specific types of crimes showed relatively large increases over the past five years, including fraud (62.5%), offensive weapons offences (31.5%), robbery (13.0%), and break & enter (9.3%). Other crimes that had increases include sexual assault (6.9%) and other theft (2.2%). Considerable decreases were noted for auto theft (26.9%), theft from auto (14.7%), mischief (13.5%), non-sexual assault (12.6%), and drugs (14.0%).

While crime in general decreased over the past ten years (22.6%), the decrease was driven mainly by decreases in property crime (35.5%). The number of violent crimes decreased only 4.5% between 1995 and 2004. There was an increase in the number of other Criminal Code offences (18.9%) for the same period of time.



E. RATES FOR COMPARISONS

In terms of the total number of crimes per 1,000 population, a clear trend of decrease was seen between 1995 and 2000, after which the rate remained relatively stable at about 76 to 77 occurrences per 1,000 population, before dropping to 73.1 in 2004.

Figure 2.2 shows the crime rates by major offence group for each of the past ten years. Of the average 73.1 non-traffic Criminal Code offences that occurred per 1,000 population in 2004, 12.4 were violent crimes, 42.9 were property crimes, and 17.8 were other non-traffic Criminal Code offences.

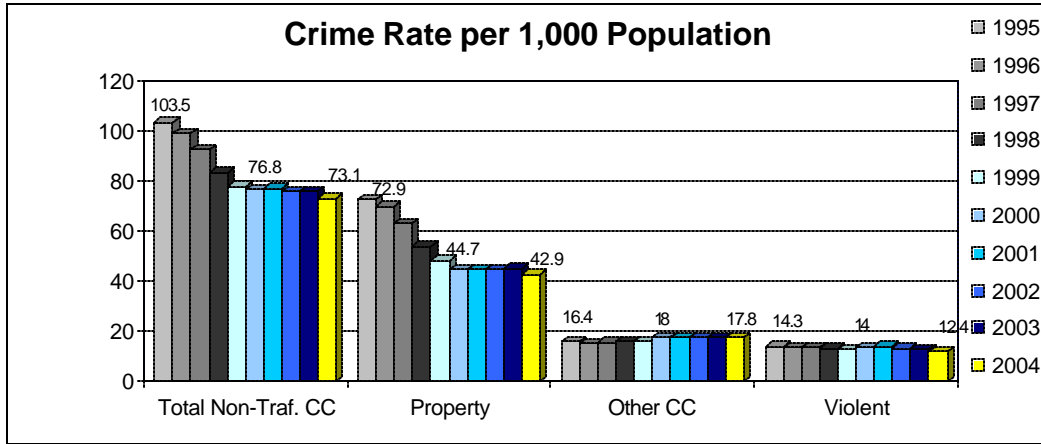


Figure 2.2

Source: TPS Database

Compared to 2003, the 2004 total crime rate decreased 4.0%, with a 5.2% decrease for the rates of both violent crime and property crime, and no change for the rate of other Criminal Code.

Over the past five years, the total crime rate (non-traffic) decreased 4.8%, including a 11.2% drop in the rate of violent crime, a 4.2% drop in the rate of property crime, and a small 1.4% drop in the rate of other Criminal Code offences.

Over the past ten years, the total crime rate dropped considerably, by 29.4%, including a 12.8% drop for the violent crime rate, a 41.1% drop for the property crime rate, and an 8.6% increase for the rate for other Criminal Code offences.

While crime rates are usually considered important indicators of public safety, police crime clearance rates can be taken as indicators of police effectiveness in crime solving. Figure 2.3 shows the crime clearance rates broken down by major offence group for the past ten years. While crimes can be cleared in a number of different ways, crimes are primarily cleared or solved by an arrest made and charges laid.⁴⁵ The clearance rate here is computed as the proportion of crimes cleared among the crimes that occurred for the period under review.⁴⁶ It

⁴⁵ A small number of cases are cleared by other modes, such as the death of the accused or complainant/witness prior to the laying of charges, etc.

⁴⁶ This computation method is different from that of Statistics Canada (CCJS), which defines clearance rate for crime as the number of crimes cleared in a specific period of time divided by the number of cases occurred for the same period of time.



should be noted that since a crime that happened in a particular year can be solved in a subsequent year, the clearance rates for the more current years are always deflated numbers compared with those of more distant past years. The clearance rates for the more current years are expected to increase in future years. Figure 2.3 shows the clearance rates by major offence categories over the past ten years.

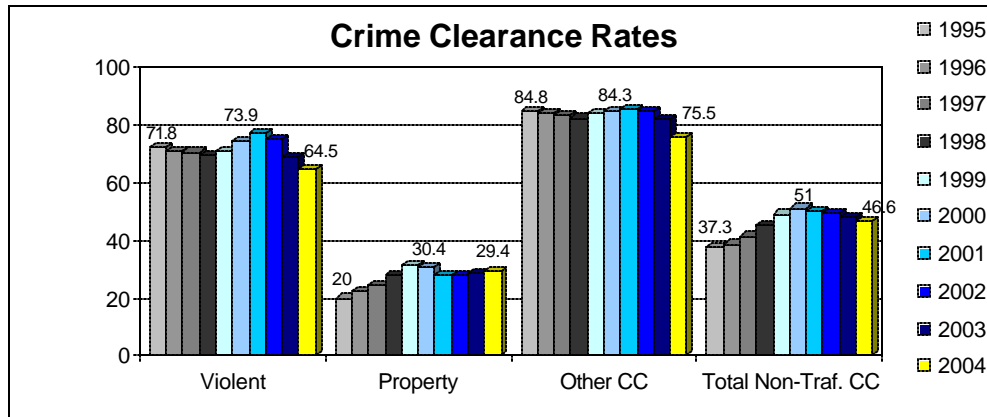


Figure 2.3

Source: TPS Database

The clearance rates for 1999 through 2002 showed that about half of all the crimes were cleared. In 2004, 46.6% of the crimes that occurred were cleared within the same year. These rates are an improvement when compared with the 37.3% clearance rate in 1995. Over the past ten years, the category of Other Criminal Code offences had the highest clearance rate of over 80% in each year, although this rate dropped to 75.5% in 2004. Violent crimes consistently had the second highest clearance rate; this rate slightly decreased over the past ten years, from 71.8% in 1995 to 68.6% in 2003. Again, this rate dropped in 2004, to 64.5%. Although property crime had the lowest clearance rate each year, an increasing clearance rate for this offence category was seen over recent years, from 20.0% in 1995 to 28.7% in 2003, and to 29.4% in 2004.

F. CHANGES IN PROPORTION OF MAJOR OFFENCE GROUPS

In terms of the composition of crimes, property crimes continued to constitute the majority (58.7%) of the total number of non-traffic Criminal Code offences in 2004. Violent crimes and other Criminal Code offences constituted 17.0% and 24.3%, respectively. Figure 2.4 shows each of the three major offence categories as a proportion of the total number of non-traffic Criminal Code over the past ten years.

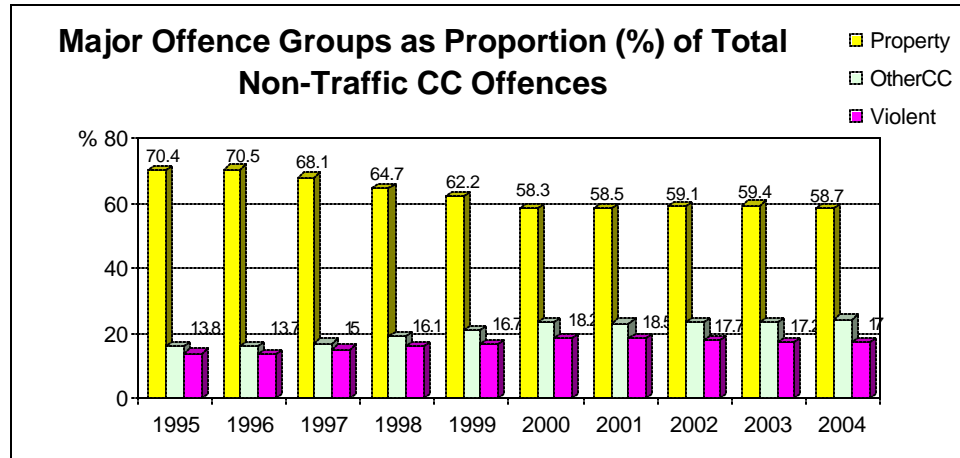


Figure 2.4

Source: TPS Database

Over the past ten years, the proportion of violent crimes and the proportion of other Criminal Code offences increased, while that of property crimes decreased. As a proportion of total crimes, property crime dropped from 70.4% in 1995 to 58.7% in 2004, while the proportions of violent crime and other Criminal Code increased from 13.8% to 17.0% and from 15.8% to 24.3%, respectively.

G. CRIMES OF VIOLENCE

The number of violent crimes decreased over the past ten years. After reaching the peak of 37,049 occurrences in 2001, the number of violent crimes decreased over each of the past three years. As was shown in Table 2.1, the total of 33,200 violent crimes in 2004 was a 4.5% decrease from 1995, a 7.6% decrease from 2000, and a 4.2% decrease from 2003. Of the violent crimes, most were non-sexual assaults (73.2%), followed by robberies (16.1%), and sexual assaults (8.7%).

The number of non-sexual assaults decreased in 2004, a 5.9% drop from 2003, a 12.6% drop over the past five years, and a 4.6% drop over the past ten years. Sexual assaults increased 8.3% in 2004, which was also a 6.9% increase over the past five years, and a slight 0.8% increase over ten years ago. The number of robberies showed a 2.1% decrease in 2004, which was a 13.0% increase over the past five years, but a 7.5% decrease over ten years ago. The 5,946 robberies recorded in 1996 was, in fact, the highest number seen in the past ten years.

H. USE OF WEAPONS AND INJURY OF CRIME VICTIMS

Table 2.2 shows the proportion of robberies, assaults, and sexual assaults by type of weapons involved over the past ten years.⁴⁷ It should be noted that due to data entry issues, the 2004 statistics in Table 2.2, for robberies and assaults in particular, may not be reliable or

⁴⁷ The 'Most Serious Weapon' rule used by the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics was recently adopted by the Toronto Police Service and the used weapons statistics for previous years have been recalculated/ revised to enable fair comparison across the years.



comparable with previous years. Caution is therefore advised when examining the 2004 data provided below.

As shown by statistics of recent years, about one-quarter of non-sexual assaults, over one-third of robberies, and less than 10% of sexual assaults involved the use of weapons. These proportions represented decreases when compared to ten years ago. The use of firearms constituted about 1% of non-sexual assaults and less than 1% of sexual assaults. The use of firearms was more frequent in robberies. Statistics of recent years showed that about 14% to 16% of robberies involved the use of a firearm, which also represented decreases from ten years ago.

Table 2.2
Proportion (%) of Assaults, Robberies, and Sexual Assaults Involving Use of Weapons

	Firearm	Others	Total Weapon	Nil/ Unspec.	Total
ASSAULT					
1995	0.9	28.9	29.8	70.2	100.0
1996	0.9	28.1	28.9	71.1	100.0
1997	0.8	26.3	27.2	72.8	100.0
1998	1.0	26.6	27.6	72.4	100.0
1999	0.9	26.7	27.6	72.4	100.0
2000	0.9	25.3	26.2	73.8	100.0
2001	1.0	24.2	25.2	74.8	100.0
2002	1.0	24.2	25.3	74.7	100.0
2003	1.1	21.7	22.8	77.2	100.0
2004*	0.6	11.4	12.0	88.0	100.0
ROBBERY					
1995	18.0	26.3	44.3	55.7	100.0
1996	19.1	24.9	44.0	56.0	100.0
1997	15.5	25.4	40.9	59.1	100.0
1998	17.8	23.3	41.1	58.9	100.0
1999	17.7	23.5	41.2	58.8	100.0
2000	16.6	21.7	38.3	61.7	100.0
2001	15.8	23.6	39.4	60.6	100.0
2002	12.9	21.8	34.7	65.3	100.0
2003	14.2	20.9	35.1	64.9	100.0
2004*	9.6	14.2	23.9	76.1	100.0
SEXUAL ASSAULT					
1995	0.6	4.4	5.0	95.0	100.0
1996	0.8	6.1	6.9	93.1	100.0
1997	0.5	5.5	6.0	94.0	100.0
1998	0.4	4.3	4.7	95.3	100.0
1999	0.5	3.7	4.2	95.8	100.0
2000	0.6	3.4	3.9	96.1	100.0
2001	0.4	3.1	3.5	96.5	100.0
2002	0.3	2.7	3.0	97.0	100.0
2003	0.6	7.2	7.8	92.2	100.0
2004*	0.1	14.5	14.6	85.4	100.0

* Due to data entry issues, 2004 data may be unreliable and should be compared to previous years with caution.

Source: TPS Database



While statistics on use of weapons in criminal occurrences in general do not paint a particularly bad picture about the use of weapons and firearms, the number of gun-related calls from the public for police assistance has increased considerably in recent years. Table 2.3 shows the number of such calls received and attended by the police over the past five years. As shown, the number of gun-related calls increased 14.9% over the past 5 years. A majority of these calls were related to person with a gun or the sound of gunshot. A smaller number was related to shooting.

Table 2.3
Gun-Related Calls from the Public for Police Assistance

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	% Change	
						2003-2004	2000-2004
Person with a gun	1,697	1,638	1,609	1,794	1,794	0.0	5.7
Shooting	222	208	228	265	216	-18.5	-2.7
Sound of gunshot	850	929	893	1,040	1,171	12.6	37.8
Total gun-related calls	2,769	2,775	2,730	3,099	3,181	2.6	14.9

With regard to injuries to victims, in 2004, 46.8% of the victims of non-sexual assaults were injured, a drop from both 2000 (56.2%) and 1995 (62.7%). About 29% of the victims of robbery were injured in 2004, which was similar to both 2000 (30.1%) and 1995 (29.1%). For sexual assaults, there was a considerable drop in the proportion of victims injured, from 19.7% in 1995 to 17.5% in 2000 and to 10.6% in 2004.

I. THEFT OF MOTOR VEHICLES AND BREAK & ENTER

Theft of automobiles and break & enters are crimes that can have a significant impact on the quality of life in the community. Motor vehicles are the most widely used form of transportation in Canada. The theft of an automobile is a loss of property and means for commuting, limiting mobility and causing other inconvenience to the victims and their families. Break & enter is an invasion of a private home, resulting in both financial and psychological consequences for victims.⁴⁸ Victims are usually left fearful of recurrence or personal harm and constantly anxious about the security of their homes.

In 2004, citizens of Toronto had about 1% chance of being the victim of either theft of automobile or break & enter. This means that for every 1,000 members of the population, an average of 10.3 persons were victims of one of these two crimes. This rate is a decrease from the 11.6 persons five years ago and the 17.5 persons ten years ago.

⁴⁸ Kowalski, M. *Break And Enter, 1999*, *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 20(13), 2000.



Theft of Motor Vehicles:

The Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics reported that, nationally, vehicles were generally stolen for thrill-seeking and transportation purposes.⁴⁹ They were abandoned/recovered once they had served their purpose.

Vehicle theft is a crime characterised by relatively low clearance rates. In 2002, only 12% of motor vehicle thefts were solved by the police; about one in every five stolen vehicles was never recovered. This non-recovery rate is regarded as a proxy indicator of the number of vehicles stolen by organised crime groups, which then use the profits so raised to fund other criminal activities.

Organised crime groups are reported to be involved in every aspect of the auto theft for export process, including placing orders for specific types of vehicles, commissioning the thefts, counterfeiting the identity of the cars and accompanying paperwork, transporting the cars, and arranging for their illegal export. According to Statistics Canada, groups believed involved in perpetrating vehicle theft included the Aboriginal-based organised crime groups, Eastern European organised crime groups, and street gangs. Vehicle theft rings, loosely or well organised, are also responsible for stealing and selling motor vehicles or their parts for profit. They are generally found to be multi-layered, made up of brokers, middlemen, thieves, and other 'experts' who are responsible for chopping/dismantling for parts, re-venning or altering the Vehicle Identification Number to disguise the vehicle, and exporting.

In 2004, a total of 10,248 vehicle thefts were recorded in Toronto, which was a large 26.1% decrease from 2003, a 26.9% drop from 2000, and a 39.8% decrease from 1995. Figure 2.5 shows the number of vehicle thefts in the past ten years. In general, motor vehicle thefts in Toronto decreased from the peak in 1996 when 19,864 such occurrences were recorded. The clearance rate for vehicle thefts was 11.2% in 2004, compared with 14.5% in 2000 and 8.8% in 1995.

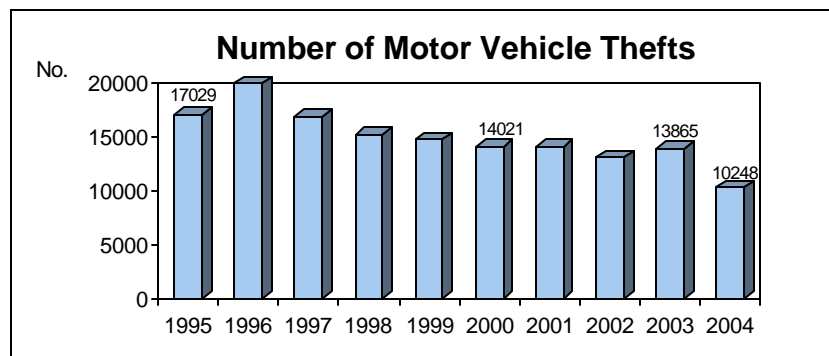


Figure 2.5

Source: TPS Database

The Help Eliminate Auto Theft (HEAT) project, in response to observed increases in auto thefts at the beginning of 2003, was launched by the Toronto Police Service as a short-term crime management initiative, with the aims of identifying and targeting auto theft 'hot-spots', suspects, and potential victims via enforcement and education. It brought together various

⁴⁹ The analysis in this paragraph is based on: Wallace, M. **Exploring the Involvement of Organized Crime in Motor Vehicle Theft**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, May 2004.



internal and external resources, including an Internet website that the public could access, to enable a unified impact on the issue. It also showed via its accomplishments that the collection and timely dissemination of information are essential to efficient and strategic deployment of resources.

In general, addressing the issue of vehicle theft requires two main approaches:

- collaboration and partnership at all levels of the public and private sectors, particularly in gathering and sharing intelligence to identify and prosecute organised crime groups involved in vehicle theft; and,
- encouraging both car manufacturers and vehicle owners to adopt theft prevention measures to make vehicle theft more difficult and less profitable.

Break & Enter:

Over the past ten years, the largest number of break & enters in Toronto was reported in 1995, when 25,513 occurrences were recorded. A steady decrease of such crimes started in 1996, levelled off between 2000 and 2003, and increased again in 2004 when 17,156 such occurrences were recorded. The number of break & enters in 2004 was a 4.3% increase over 2003 and a 9.3% increase over 2000, but was a 32.8% decrease from the ten years ago. Figure 2.6 shows the number of break & enters in each of the past ten years.

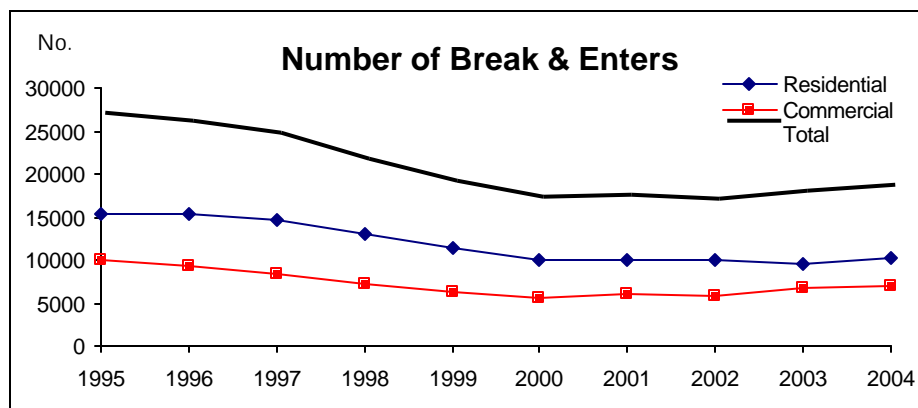


Figure 2.6

Source: TPS Database

As shown, both residential and commercial break & enters decreased over the past ten years and remained relatively stable in recent years. Of the premises broken into in 2004, about 60% were residential homes and 40% were commercial premises. The proportion of residential break & enters rose to a peak of 65% in 1999, but has since decreased; the 2004 proportion was about the same as ten years ago. The clearance rate for break & enters was 15.6% in 2004, compared with 13.7% ten years ago.

While the prevention of random break & enters depends very much on the care and security measures of the premise occupants, the prevention of break & enters by organised



criminal groups requires more effort on the part of police. The following are some common police initiatives to reduce break & enters:⁵⁰

- Police studies found that a small number of offenders were responsible for the majority of break & enters. Therefore, the enhancement of the crime analysis function, better information keeping and extraction regarding break & enters and the offenders involved, and sharing of such information by neighbouring police services will allow better profiling of likely suspects, thereby increasing the chances of apprehending these offenders.
- Special police response units to deal with break & enters.
- Identification and targeting of repeat or organised offenders.
- Improved communication with victims and potential witnesses.

J. DRUG-RELATED CRIMES

Drug use and drug-related crimes have a complex relationship with crime. According to the findings of a study reported by Statistics Canada, drug-dependent federal inmates were more likely to have committed a gainful crime (theft, break & enter, etc.), and 36% to 46% reported committing the crime to support their substance abuse.⁵¹ About 38% of the newly admitted federal male inmates and almost half of provincial inmates were dependent on drugs or alcohol or both. While criminal activity is often used to fund substance abuse at the individual level, drug trafficking can be used to fund the activities and increase the power of organized crime and extremist groups. There is also a strong link between drugs and violent crime in the illegal drug market. Violence is understandably the means for eliminating competition, settling disputes, and/or protecting turf or a shipment of drugs.

Nationally, after a period of decline in the 1980s, the rate of police-reported drug offences increased by 42% between 1992 and 2002 in Canada, largely due to a rise in the cannabis possession rate, which nearly doubled (96%) for the same period of time.⁵² Of the total drug incidents recorded, the most common offence was the possession of illegal drugs, followed by drug trafficking and the importation/exportation or production of drugs. Cannabis offences accounted for 76% of all drug-related incidents. Males were more likely charged with drug offences than females, and young adults and adolescents had the highest rates for drug-related offences. About half of the drug-related cases tried in court resulted in a finding of guilt for the accused and fines were normally imposed for possession offences, while a prison term was the most common sentence imposed to drug trafficking cases.

Canada's laws governing drug use are currently in a state of transition and a more permissive social policy on drug use appears to be emerging. A number of recent court rulings have raised questions about the constitutionality of current laws regarding possession of small amounts of marijuana. Also, Canada's first supervised injection site, approved by Health Canada

⁵⁰ Kong, R. *Break And Entering In Canada, 1996*, **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 18(5), March 1998.

⁵¹ Study by Pernanen, Cousineau, Brochu, and Sun (2002), as reported in Desjardins, N. and Hotton, T. *Trends in Drug Offences and the Role of Alcohol and Drugs in Crime*, **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 24(1), February 2004.

⁵² Analysis of national trends of drug offences is based on Desjardins and Hotton, 2004.



as a 3-year pilot project, was opened for heroin and cocaine addicts in Vancouver in September 2003.⁵³ Subsequently, bills to amend the current legislation (*Contraventions Act* and the *Controlled Drugs and Substances Act*) have been introduced to decriminalize the possession of small quantities of marijuana.⁵⁴ These developments appear to indicate a more permissive public attitude towards use of illicit drugs. The impact of these changes on drug use and crime has yet to be seen.⁵⁵

According to the report ‘Drug Use In Toronto 2004’, based on a 2003 survey, no significant short-term changes in drug use patterns were identified.⁵⁶ Marijuana remained the most popular illicit drug used in Toronto. Compared with previous years, the proportion of reported use of marijuana within the past year for both students and adults slightly increased – from 22% in 2001 to 23% in 2003 for students, and from 14% in 2001 to 15% in 2003 for adults. These proportions, however, represented about the highest levels recorded since monitoring began 30 years ago. Cocaine was the other most frequently abused drug. Although there was indication that this drug gained popularity in recent years, the use of it was reported by fewer than 5% of the people surveyed. Inhalant use was reported by about 8% of Toronto students. About 3% of the students and less than 1% of the adults surveyed reported the use of ecstasy. Heroin use remained low in the general population. It was also revealed that homeless youths and other marginalized populations were more vulnerable to drug addiction.

Figure 2.7 shows the changes in drug offences and arrests in Toronto. It is important to note that resources available for enforcement and police priorities affect the number of drug crimes recorded. Therefore, changes in the number of reported/detected drug offences do not necessarily reflect changes in the number of drug users or number of individuals involved in trafficking, import/export, or production of drugs.

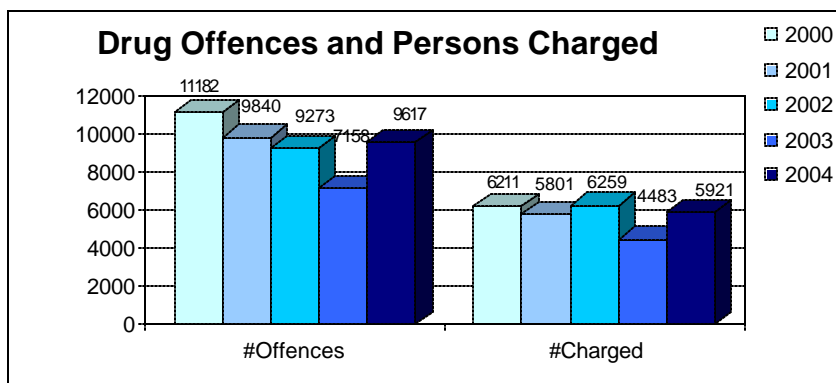


Figure 2.7

Source: TPS Database

⁵³ Ibid.

⁵⁴ Bill C-17, legislation to decriminalize the possession of small quantities of marijuana, was introduced on November 1, 2004 to replace the former Bill C-38.

⁵⁵ More information on changes to legislation is available in the chapter on Legislative Impacts.

⁵⁶ Following analysis is based on: **Drug Use in Toronto 2004**, Research Group On Drug Use, City of Toronto website (city.toronto.on.ca/health/rgdu/index.htm).



The number of drug offences increased 34.4% in 2004 over 2003, and the number of persons arrested/charged for drug offences increased 32.1%.⁵⁷ Over the past 5 years, drug offences and arrests decreased 14.0% and 4.7%, respectively.

In 2004, an average 2.3 persons were arrested/charged for drug offences per 1,000 population. This was an increase from the 1.8 persons in 2003 and a drop from the 2.5 persons in 2000. On average, of every 10 persons arrested for drug offences, 8.8 were male and 1.2 were female. Males in the younger age groups (18-24, 25-34, and 12-17 years) were more likely charged for drug offences than other age groups. Males in the 18-24 years age group consistently had the highest drug charge rate – 16.3 persons per 1,000 population in 2004, about 7 times higher than the overall charge rate of 2.3 persons.

A worrying trend of development in terms of the drug problem has been noted – the proliferation of marijuana grow operations (MGOs), mostly in residential areas. Apparently increasingly liberal attitudes towards drug use, the proposed legislation to decriminalise the use and possession of marijuana, and the easy availability of legitimate indoor growing equipment are among the many factors believed to have led to the flourishing of large and small scale MGOs. It has been estimated that between 65% and 98% of cannabis production is related to organised crime in Canada.⁵⁸ Traditionally linked to outlaw motorcycle gangs, the grow-operations have expanded to other criminal groups, such as the Asian organised crime groups, because of the large rapid profit and the low risk involved.^{59, 60} Violent crime has always been an integral part of the production, trafficking and distribution of illegal drugs. There is some indication of co-operation among criminal organizations working together to get the product to market. A division of labour is found among the criminal groups, with specific gangs specialised in functions of growing, brokering the product, transportation, and drug money laundering.⁶¹

In Ontario, the proliferation of MGOs is evidenced by the large increase in number of such grow-operations investigated and dismantled by police. In 2004, the Toronto Drug Squad attended, assessed, and assisted with the investigation and dismantling of 320 MGOs, a 129% increase over the 140 cases investigated in 2003 and almost a 300% increase over the 81 cases in 2002.⁶² The grow-operations pose a number of hazards to the community, including hazards to public safety (risk of fire and electrocution from hydro bypass to divert electricity, and violence in connection with drug rip-offs, protecting crops, and turf wars) and to health (chemicals used and toxic moulds from in-door cultivation). They also result in economic losses through stolen electricity and potential drops in real estate prices when grow-operations are uncovered, and in organised criminal groups becoming more powerful via accumulation of financial profit, thus becoming larger in operation and more difficult to manage.⁶³

⁵⁷ The number of drug offences is based on number of charges laid.

⁵⁸ Desjardins and Hotton, 2004.

⁵⁹ See, for example: *Planting Profit - Police Fight for Ground in the Battle Against Marijuana Cultivation*, **RCMP Gazette**, 64(3), 2002, and *Asian-Based Organized Crime (AOC)*, **Blue Line Magazine**, 15(6), June 2003.

⁶⁰ It is estimated that with 16 marijuana plants producing one pound, and prices at about \$2,000 a pound, 1,600 plants can bring in \$200,000 in less than nine weeks (*Planting Profit - Police Fight for Ground in the Battle Against Marijuana Cultivation*, **RCMP Gazette**, 64(3), 2002).

⁶¹ *The West Connection*, The Toronto Star, March 29, 2005.

⁶² Marijuana Grow Operations – Report to the Police Services Board Meeting of April 7th, 2005 (Police Services Board Minute P116/05).

⁶³ This can be manifested as more complex and resource-intensive investigations, mega-trials (complex, lengthy trials with many defendants), and challenges/appeals in the criminal justice process.



The detection, investigation and dismantling of the rapidly increasing number of MGOs have proven to be very time-consuming tasks for the police. The legal requirements for obtaining search warrants and the procedures to comply with in addressing the health and safety risks associated with the raid, seizure, preparation, and storage of the plants and other properties seized are all resource demanding. Combating the problem of the large increase in MGOs is a difficult task and requires more dedicated and specialised enforcement, as well as legislative support in terms of police discretion to lay criminal charges in aggravating circumstances of drug possession.

K. ORGANISED CRIME

Organised crime is reported to have increased in recent years and organised criminal groups have become more complex and sophisticated.⁶⁴ Organised criminal activity has serious and complex social and economic ramifications regionally, nationally, and internationally. However, these economic and social repercussions from organised crime are sometimes not obvious to the public. The sophistication of criminal organisations and the increasing extent of their activities have made the efforts to combat their activities more difficult.⁶⁵ Organised criminal organisations have networks of their own, which may operate on regional, national, or multi-national levels.

The organised criminal groups posing a threat to Canada's public safety include the Asian-based, East European-based, Aboriginal-based, and Traditional (Italian-based) organised crime groups, as well as organised crime at marine ports, airports, and land border areas, and the outlaw motorcycle gangs.⁶⁶ Most of them have monetary gain as the primary objective of their organisational function. They further their own goals via structured but illegitimate activities, sometimes under the camouflage of legitimate businesses, and co-operation with other organised criminal groups. There are some non-traditional organised criminal groups, which have political or special interests on top of their financial goals. Many of these groups are organised along ethnic lines and they extend the political conflicts or struggles from their homeland to the host country. Some of these organised crime groups are involved in illicit activities to raise funds to support specific political pursuits in their home country.

The adverse impact of organised crime on the health, economy, safety, and well being of society has long been recognised. The advance in technology has provided opportunities for organised crime groups to expand their horizon of activities. Traditional crimes can now be committed with new means and opportunities for new crimes are easily available, such as those committed via the Internet, including identity theft and cyber extortion/terrorism. As a result, the scope and potential impact of their criminal activities is increased and the financial resources that accumulate enable these groups to become more sophisticated and powerful.

Due to the nature and financial resources of organised criminal organisations, fighting organised crime appears to be beyond the ability of any single police service. The importance of

⁶⁴ **Facts About Organized Crime in Canada and Working Together to Combat Organized Crime: A Public Report On Actions Under the National Agenda to Combat Organized Crime**, Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada website (www.psepc-sppcc.gc.ca).

⁶⁵ *Message From The Chair*, by Commissioner G. Zaccardelli, **Criminal Intelligence Service Canada 2002 report**, CISC; from CISC website (cisc.gc.ca).

⁶⁶ *Executive Summary*, **Criminal Intelligence Service Canada, Annual Report 2004**; CISC website (cisc.gc.ca/AnnualReport2004/Cisc2004/executive2004.html).



sharing intelligence among law enforcement partners to enable multi-agency and multi-jurisdictional responses is also recognised. Successes against organised crime require a continual, co-ordinated effort that recognises its global networks, complex social milieu, and use of technology. Strategic co-ordination, commitment to intelligence, and communication are all considered integral to the fight against organised crime. Integrated approaches are essential, particularly those that reach beyond organisational, jurisdictional, and national boundaries.

The fight against organised crime was declared a national priority in 2000, in a meeting of federal, provincial and territorial Ministers responsible for justice. Eight national priorities have been identified:⁶⁷

- Illegal Drugs (which fuels the Organised Crime Machine);
- Outlaw Motorcycle Gangs;
- Economic Crime;
- High-tech Crime;
- Money Laundering;
- Trafficking in Human Beings and Migrant Smuggling;
- Infiltration of the Authorities by Organised Crime, leading to Corruption; and
- Street Gangs.

The following areas of emerging or pressing concerns have been identified:

- Intimidation of criminal justice personnel and their families in an attempt to influence investigations and trials;
- Gaming;
- Auto theft;
- Criminal activities related to diamond mining; and
- Presence of organised crime in marine ports and other gateways to Canada.

The following strategies to address the issues are identified:

- National and regional co-ordination;
- Strengthening of legislative and regulatory tools;
- Research and analysis; and
- Communications and public education.

Intelligence-driven policing continues to be the primary strategy to deal with organised crime and to proactively guide police operations. The first step in fighting organised crime involves revealing the existence of organised crimes and its related activities, and the identification of organised crime groups, their members, internal administration, network,

⁶⁷ The priorities, concerns and strategies presented are based on information reported in: **Facts About Organized Crime in Canada** and **Working Together to Combat Organized Crime: A Public Report On Actions Under the National Agenda to Combat Organized Crime**, Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada website (www.psepc-sppcc.gc.ca).



criminal activities, financial sources (whether legitimate or illegitimate), and vulnerabilities. The collection, maintenance, and sharing of criminal intelligence information are, therefore, essential parts of the process.

Criminal Intelligence Service Canada (CISC) is an organisation that provides the facilities to unite the criminal intelligence units of Canadian law enforcement agencies in the fight against organised crime in Canada. It is comprised of a Central Bureau and a system of nine provincial bureaux, with approximately 380 member agencies from federal, provincial, and municipal police forces, as well as from other government departments, such as Canada Customs and the Department of National Defence. The intelligence and specialised units of these law enforcement agencies supply provincial bureaux with intelligence and raw data for further analysis and dissemination. The intelligence gathered from the member partners across Canada is centralised in a national intelligence repository for the use of all CISC members in Canada.

Strategic intelligence provides a broad overview of the trends, changes, threats, and opportunities for enforcement, so as to assist in successful prosecution and to disrupt organised crime groups. As organised criminal activities have increasingly international connections, co-operation between police services of different jurisdictions is required in order to allow effective investigations and enforcement. In fact, strategic co-ordination, commitment to intelligence, timely communication, and multi-agency/multi-jurisdictional approaches are seen as being integral to the fight against organised crime

A basic problem in addressing organised crime is the difficulty in quantifying the issue itself, for a number of reasons.⁶⁸ First among the difficulties in measuring organised crime is that there is no unanimously agreed or satisfactory definition for organised crime other than the provision of Canada's Criminal Code (section 467.1), which has been criticized as being too broad and subject to interpretation, and can be applied to many criminal situations that are not necessarily organised crime.⁶⁹ On the other hand, while it is crucial to have clear, standardised, and accepted definitions and guidelines for data collection, research, and sound policy-making, it is also understood that any rigid definition in this regard may unknowingly eliminate some of the new and emerging trends in organised crime.

Second, the count of crimes based on such provisions will be a serious under-estimation of the extent of organised criminal activity, as the workings of criminal organisations are, by their nature elusive and often hidden from visibility. It is extremely difficult to assess the volume of organised crime that is undetected or unreported.

And third, most of the information collected, stored, and compiled on organised crime is typically narrative in nature, mostly stored in separate, stand-alone systems for confidentiality and security reasons, making quantitative/statistical assessment of organised crime and sharing of information very difficult.

⁶⁸ **Organized Crime in Canada: An Investigation Into The Feasibility Of Collecting Police-Level Data**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics (2002), Chapter Three: Summary of Findings.

⁶⁹ As defined by section 347.1 of the Canadian Criminal Code, "Criminal organization means a group, however organized, that (a) is composed of three or more persons in or outside Canada; and (b) has as one of its main purposes or main activities the facilitation or commission of one or more serious offences that, if committed, would likely result in the direct or indirect receipt of a material benefit, including a financial benefit, by the group or by any of the persons who constitute the group. It does not include a group of persons that form randomly for the immediate commission of a single offence".



Within the Toronto Police Service, the Intelligence Support unit is responsible for the collection, retention, and dissemination of criminal intelligence information throughout the Service to support 'Intelligence-Led Policing'. Specifically, it is responsible for the collection, analysis, and dissemination of criminal intelligence to front-line officers, investigative units, and other partner law enforcement agencies combating organised crime, criminal extremism, and other criminal activities.⁷⁰ It has implemented an information sharing system within the Service, and is a member of the Criminal Intelligence Service of Ontario (CISO).

The Toronto Police Service Intranet website maintained by Intelligence Support is a significant initiative to facilitate the flow or exchange of information between the specialized unit and front-line officers on organised crime and officer safety related issues. This channel of communication allows the timely collection and dispatch of information on organised crime to Service members, thus facilitating more effective enforcement. Intelligence Support also provides facilities and specialized support in law enforcement, joint-forces operations, international assistance, security, anti-terrorism, and technical assistance to support policing against organised crime.

Organised crime groups pose threats not only to public safety through their criminal activities and violence in furtherance of their own interests, they also pose threats to police officers. There is indication that organised crime groups have launched counter-surveillance on Toronto police facilities and have engaged in acts of intimidation against police officers.

The following are some of the initiatives being undertaken by legislatures and law enforcement agencies to counter gangs and terrorist groups:

- Creating new anti-gang legislation (i.e. Bill C-24) to more clearly define criminal organisations and gang-related offences, and to facilitate investigations for police officers and successful prosecutions for prosecutors.
- Other legislative changes to facilitate the investigation, extradition and detention of persons involved in organised crime.⁷¹
- Establishing rules to control investments, such as bank procedures for obtaining information on customers' identities and source of funds, in order to monitor transactions for possible money laundering and for reporting suspicious activity to authorities.⁷²
- Establishing joint police forces squads to deal with organised crime groups, such as the biker gangs.
- Establishing specialized units within police services for targeting street and gang violence and to collect intelligence on gangs.
- Stepping up enforcement on known gang members.
- And, monitoring premises that gang members may use for furthering their activities, such as the patrolling cyber cafes to prevent the use of cafe computers by gang members to communicate and bypass police surveillance.⁷³

⁷⁰ Based on the Mandate and Mission Statement of Intelligence Support, TPS Intranet.

⁷¹ **Facts About Organized Crime in Canada**, Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada website (www.psepc-sppcc.gc.ca).

⁷² *US Advances Money Laundering Rules to Control Investments*, **Organised Crime Digest**, December 31, 2001, 22(24).

⁷³ *Cybercafe Gangs Plague California*, **Organised Crime Digest**, January 15, 2002, 23(1).



Addressing organised crime continues to be a Service priority for the Toronto Police. As one of the Service Priorities for 2002 through 2004, and continued through 2005, the following goals have been set:

- Continue to educate members of the Service, the community, political representatives, and legislators on the actual impact and consequences of organised crime.
- Continue to develop and improve the processes by which the Service responds to all organised crime.
- Through increased training, improve the Service's ability to respond to organised crime.
- Continue partnerships with other law enforcement agencies (international, national and regional) to work co-operatively to disrupt and dismantle organised crime groups.
- Improve the Service's ability to identify and disrupt international and domestic terrorist groups active within the City.

L. HI-TECH CRIME AND IDENTITY THEFT

The expansion of the Internet, the widespread availability of high speed access and the increasing number of on-line users and business/commercial transactions has resulted in ever increasing opportunities for unauthorised access to information and other crimes, without any direct contact with the victim. The advancement in computer and communication technology, as well as other electronic equipment, has provided some new and highly sophisticated opportunities for criminal activities and created potential to commit traditional types of crimes in non-traditional ways. It has given rise to the criminal exploitation of technology, resulting in a surge in cyber crime, which is a broad spectrum of criminal activity including computer-assisted crimes and pure computer crimes targeted to computer systems or their contents.⁷⁴

The increased connectivity between information systems and the associated opportunities for hackers to tap into personal and corporate information systems via the Internet give rise to all types of high-tech crimes, including identity theft and fraud, most of which can be attributed to a monetary motivation. The opportunity and ability to hack into corporate databases and to affect the operation of websites also give rise to extortion via threat of leak of confidential information and launch of virus or denial-of-service attacks. The following analysis focuses primarily on identity theft. A more comprehensive discussion of high-tech crimes is in the chapter on Technology and Policing.

Identity theft (ID theft) is "the unauthorised collection and fraudulent use of someone else's personal information".⁷⁵ It occurs when someone's personal information is used, without his/her knowledge or consent, to commit a crime, such as fraud or theft.⁷⁶ There is indication that more Internet viruses are being designed to steal financial data, user names, and passwords

⁷⁴ Cyber crime is defined by the Canadian Police College as "a criminal offence involving a computer as the object of the crime, or the tool used to commit a material component of the offence". For more details, please see Kowalski, M. **Cyber-Crime: Issues, Data Sources, and Feasibility of Collecting Police-Reported Statistics**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, December 2002.

⁷⁵ Lawson, P. and Lawford, J. **Identity Theft: The Need For Better Consumer Protection**, The Public Interest Advocacy Centre, Ottawa, 2003, p.2.

⁷⁶ Ontario Ministry of Consumer and Business Services website (www.cbs.gov.on.ca/mcbs/english/How-IDtheft.htm).



for profit motives.⁷⁷ Identity theft enables criminals to use stolen personal information to drain individuals' bank accounts and obtain fraudulent documentation for the commission of other crimes. The use of the latest technologies, such as laser printers, digital cameras, scanners, and desktop publishing software also facilitate the production of false identities and improve the quality of counterfeit documents. The perpetrators of identity theft include organized criminal groups, individual criminals, and terrorists. While most identity theft is done for economic gain, it can also be done for other purposes, such as to finance or achieve specific causes/ activities, obtain cover employment, or hide the identity of the perpetrators of criminal operations to avoid detection.

The unauthorised collection of personal information can occur in a number of ways, including: hacking into computer databases or 'colonising' computers by virus infection via the Internet; obtaining of personal information through bribery of database administrators; theft of personal information records or computer hard drives from businesses or government; digging up information from publicly available sources (such as the Internet); dumpster diving (garbage sieving); theft or diversion of mail; payment card fraud; card skimming; or posing as a potential employer, Internet service provider, market researcher, or other service provider to solicit personal information for seemingly legitimate purposes.^{78,79} It is increasingly a global problem, beyond the constraints of physical boundaries and political jurisdictions – a borderless crime.

One example of ID theft done via the Internet is pharming, which appeared to be an imminent threat at the beginning of 2005.⁸⁰ Pharming is similar to phishing, but is more sophisticated. Phishing, which has occurred on the Internet for some time, is an attempt to steal consumers' user names and passwords by imitating e-mail from legitimate financial institutions. The Internet user is persuaded into using a specific link provided in an e-mail to connect to a bogus website purported to be that of a legitimate business or financial institution. The purpose is to entice the user into submitting sensitive financial and personal information, which can be used fraudulently to gain access to bank accounts and other private services. Alert users are usually able to detect signs of abnormality about being in the 'wrong' site and can seek protection via security software against certain phishing schemes.

Pharming is a scam where Internet users are redirected to sites that look like a legitimate destination but in fact are set up to capture personal information, even if the correct address is entered by the user. It can be done large scale through DNS (domain name system) corruption/poisoning or small scale through viruses or worms that infect PCs and rewrite their host files to redirect web requests. A DNS acts as a sort of telephone directory for the Internet in terms of connecting the surfer to the web and e-mail addresses desired. If a DNS directory is

⁷⁷ As cited in the Metro, March 15, 2004, the Symantec Engineering Director remarked on the trend of Internet viruses designed for profit-motivated purposes.

⁷⁸ There is the analogy that "People...now understand that it is the databases that carry the goldmines and criminals are mining them." *Credit Agency Reports Security Breach*, March 17, 2004, Computerworld website (www.computerworld.com/printthis/2004/0,4814,91319,00.html).

⁷⁹ There are computer viruses, such as Sobig.F, specifically designed to enable the perpetrator to have control of the infected computer and thus have access to sensitive information, or enabling marketers to disguise bulk messages or spam.

⁸⁰ It was suspected that would-be pharmer attempted a test strike in early March 2005 to redirect some users from eBay, Google, and weather.com to sites that attempted to install a spyware on visitors' computers. *DNS Poisoning Scam Raises Wariness of 'Pharming'* Netcraft website (news.netcraft.com/archives/2005/03/7/dns_poisoning_scam_raises_wariness_of_pharming.html), and Delio, M. *Pharming Out-Scams Phishing*, March 14, 2005, Wired website (www.wired.com/news/print/0,1294,66853,00.html).



'poisoned', i.e. altered to contain false information regarding which web address is associated with what item in the directory, users can be silently shuttled to a bogus website even if they type in the correct e-mail or web address. The end result is that perpetrators have the ability to redirect large numbers of users from legitimate websites to fake versions that prompt people to provide their usernames, passwords, and other personal and financial information, thus making them vulnerable to a variety of ID theft and financial rip-offs.⁸¹

Pharming is regarded more sophisticated than phishing in that it hijacks the website address on the DNS server so that the user doesn't even suspect that they have been hijacked. Using name resolution system modification, pharming makes the victim think he or she is accessing an intended web page, when it in fact is a faked site. It is not detected easily by even careful and alert Internet users and it does not depend on the users to take the bait, as phishing does. It could result in much larger financial losses by its potential massive catch of victims among those who do their banking or financial transactions through the Internet.

As can be seen, the most common purpose of ID theft is financial gain. The personal information obtained, legally and illegally, is often used for furthering other crimes, including fraud and activities supporting organised crime and terrorist organisations. The stolen personal identity information, such as name, address, date of birth, Social Insurance Number, credit cards, debit cards and PINs, financial data, and other personal and business data are often used to open bank accounts, obtain loans, or pay bills and expenses not incurred by the victim. Criminals, for example, can set up a bill payment account, then pay themselves from the accounts of the victims by using the stolen personal and financial data.

In addition to financial gain, other reasons for stealing personal information include ruining the reputation of another person, starting a new life under a new identity, or avoiding criminal prosecution by hiding one's illegal activities under another identity to make the perpetrator untraceable. The acquisition of fraudulent identification and payment cards allows criminals, militants, and terrorists to move anonymously, perpetrating crimes and raising funds to support their operations.

It is estimated that ID theft may be growing at a rate of more than 300% a year in large urban areas and that more than 80% of such cases go unreported to the police. It is attractive to criminals because of the relatively low risk of being caught, and is regarded as a difficult crime to prevent and to solve.⁸²

Victims of such thefts may be unaware for long periods of time that their identity information has been wrongfully used, and the full extent of losses from identity theft are not usually known when the crime is first discovered. As a consequence, victims suffer financial loss, damage to their reputation, and emotional distress, and are left with the complicated and sometimes arduous task of clearing their names.

The rapid growth of credit, debit, and banking cards, careless consumer behaviour, easy availability of personal-financial information and consumer data, escalating on-line opportunities for theft and fraud, lax business and government security practices, and easy availability of automated hacking tools are among the major factors contributing to the rise in identity theft

⁸¹ MacMillan, R. *Phar of Pharming*, March 14, 2005 (www.washingtonpost.com), and Delio, M. *Pharming Out-Scams Phishing*, March 14, 2005 (www.wired.com/news/print/0,1294,66853,00.html).

⁸² *Identity Theft Artists Expand Routes to Access – with Technology at Top*, **Organized Crime Digest**, 23(7), April 20, 2002.



over the past several years.⁸³ In fact, inadequate corporate and government information security, over which consumers have little or no control, has increasingly been regarded as the key factor in the surge of ID thefts and related crimes. Identity thieves have taken advantage of careless waste practices, unnecessary disclosure of sensitive personal information on documents sent by mail, inadequately secured physical files and electronic databases, and inadequate screening or supervision of employees.⁸⁴ It is estimated that half of all mass ID theft cases come from thefts of business databanks that are not properly safeguarded, which also signifies a shift by identity thieves from going after single individuals to going after a mass amount of information.⁸⁵

Identity theft is not consistently treated as a serious and distinct criminal offence in all jurisdictions across Canada. Currently, there is no separate federal or provincial offence for identity theft. The Canadian Criminal Code provisions in relation to fraud, forgery, unauthorized use of computer, and theft are generally used to prosecute such crimes. However, most of these applicable Criminal Code offences require proof of the accused's intent to gain advantage or cause disadvantage to others, which can be difficult to establish. The simple possession of multiple identification documents of information belonging to others without further evidence/proof of intent (i.e., that this information will be used to gain advantage) does not amount to an offence. The existing Criminal Code also does not specifically address other areas of identity theft, particularly in regard to incidents involving criminal/terrorist organisations. In general, current law does not seem to provide adequate or effective deterrence to such crimes.

The extent of identity theft and related crimes is not always known and there are no comprehensive statistics on ID theft in Canada. This is partly because of the lack of legislation for reporting such crimes and partly because financial institutions are usually ready to offset the losses of the victims who are their customers and are not ready to disclose such information for business reasons. In addition, victims complain to a variety of diverse bodies, including credit bureaux, banks, credit card companies, the government, and police.

Law enforcement agencies have started collecting and reporting ID theft statistics only recently. The Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) have responded to the problem of identity theft in Ontario in part through the use of the PhoneBusters National Call Centre (PNCC), created in 1993 to fight telemarketing scams, as a central source location for the collection, analysis, and dissemination of identify theft complaint data. A total of 13,359 identity theft complaints, involving a loss of \$21,564,104, were received from across Canada by the PNCC in 2003, compared to 8,187 complaints, involving \$11,786,843, in 2002. This represented a 63% increase for such complaints and an 83% increase for the money lost over the past two years.⁸⁶ The largest number of complaints surrounding ID theft relate to credit cards or false application for a credit card (32%).⁸⁷ About 43% of the complaints, involving 59% of the total money lost to identity thefts, were reported in Ontario. These numbers were deflated, as they represented only those ID thefts that were known to the victims. Also, these numbers only include cases reported

⁸³ **Fact Sheet: High-tech Crime**, Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada website (www.psepc-sppcc.gc.ca).

⁸⁴ Lawson and Lawford, 2003.

⁸⁵ Ibid.

⁸⁶ Information from PhoneBusters website (www.phonebusters.com/english/statistics_E03.html).

⁸⁷ *Identity Theft: A Report to the Minister of Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada and the Attorney General of the United States*, October 2004, Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness Canada website (www.psepc-sppcc.gc.ca).



to PhoneBusters, and so do not present a complete picture of the extent of the problem. There is no doubt that it is a significant problem and will continue to grow.

Dealing with identify theft requires a comprehensive approach that involves⁸⁸:

- review of the legislative framework appropriate for protection of personal data and applicable to ID theft so as to keep in pace with the evolving nature of ID theft;
- better security to protect the integrity of databases and foundation documents;
- efforts to work towards greater security and consistency in identity document issuance and verification processes;
- liaison between the private sector and law enforcement to enhance the reporting of ID theft to law enforcement;
- better co-ordination and co-operation between different enforcement agencies in analyzing and using identity theft data;
- prevention through public education to improve consumer awareness of risks and responsibilities regarding ID theft; and,
- access to one’s personal information held by organisations in order to monitor use and possible abuse of the information.

M. PERSONS ARRESTED AND CHARGED

In 2004, a total of 50,064 persons were arrested and charged for Criminal Code offences, which was only a 1.5% decrease from 2003, but a 4.1% increase over 2000.⁸⁹ Compared to five years ago, the number of persons charged increased for most major offence categories, including an 18.1% increase for property crime, an 11.6% increase for Other Criminal Code, and a 1.6% increase for Criminal Code traffic. The number of persons charged for both violent crime and drug offences decreased, by 11.6% and 4.5%, respectively. Figure 2.8 shows the number of persons charged, overall and by various offence categories, for each of the last five years.

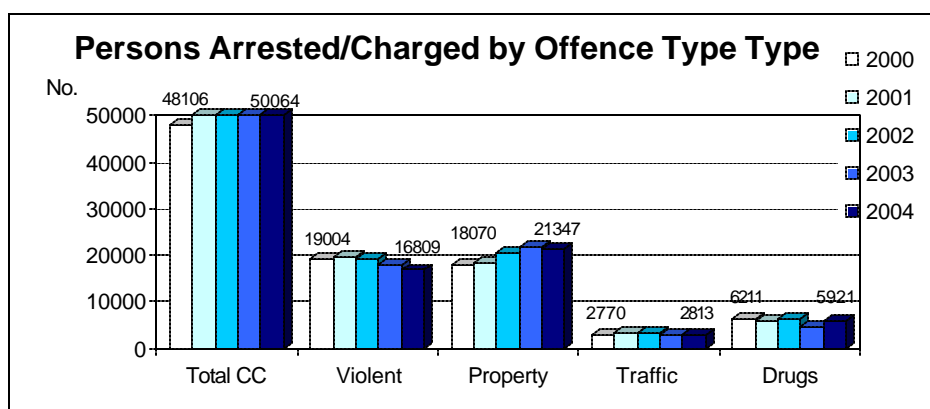


Figure 2.8

Source: TPS Database

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ This number represents actual persons/bodies charged for Criminal Code offences. In some cases, multiple charges laid against the same person could cause that person to be counted under more than one offence category. For this reason, the sum of persons charged under the various offence categories is always larger than the actual total number of persons charged. This condition applies to the counts of all years.



Figure 2.9 shows the overall charge rate and the charge rate for young persons (aged 12-17). As shown, in 2004, an average 19.4 persons were charged for Criminal Code offence per 1,000 population, which was the same as in 2000. Youths had a much higher charge rate than the average. Their rate of 39.8 persons per 1,000 population was about double the adult rate of 20.9. Over the past five years, the arrest/charge rate for young persons decreased 14.6%, compared to a 1.8% increase for adults. More details on and analysis of crimes involving youth are provided under the Youth Crime Chapter.

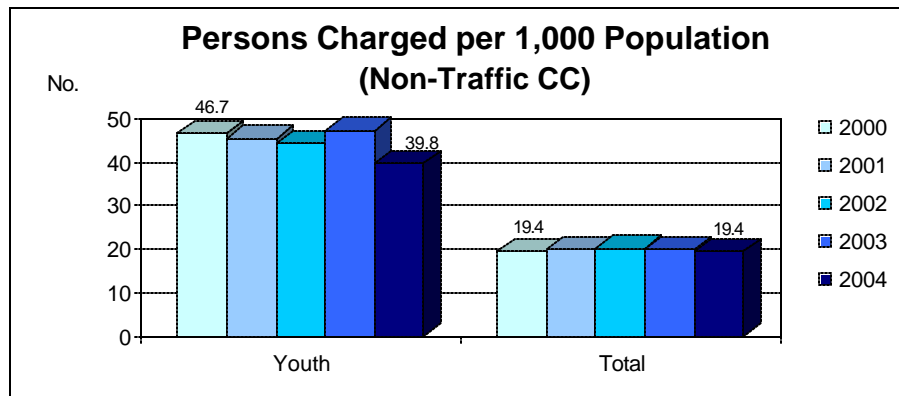


Figure 2.9

Source: TPS Database

Table 2.4 shows the arrest rates for Criminal Code and drug offences in 2004, broken down by gender, age group, and major offence groups.⁹⁰

⁹⁰ The sum of the various Criminal Code offence groups should not be taken as the total charge rate. As noted in Footnote 52, this total is greater than the actual total number of persons/bodies charged due to multiple charges laid in some cases, which caused the same person to be counted under more than one offence category.



Table 2.4
Rate of Persons Arrested/Charged (per 1,000 population) by Gender by Age Groups - 2004

Age Group		# Persons Charged/1,000 pop				
		Violent	Property	Other CC	Traffic	Drug
12-17 (Youth)	Male	19.9	26.5	26.3	0.5	6.2
	Female	5.7	13.5	4.8	0.1	0.7
	Sub-total	13.0	20.2	15.9	0.3	3.5
18-24	Male	27.5	30.1	44.3	4.0	16.3
	Female	4.4	10.7	6.7	0.3	1.8
	Sub-total	15.8	20.3	25.3	2.2	8.9
25-34	Male	16.9	17.3	21.8	3.4	6.7
	Female	2.8	5.6	4.1	0.3	0.9
	Sub-total	9.6	11.2	12.6	1.8	3.7
35-44	Male	16.2	17.0	18.7	3.5	4.5
	Female	2.5	5.0	3.8	0.3	0.7
	Sub-total	9.2	10.8	11.0	1.9	2.5
45 & +	Male	5.3	5.3	4.9	1.4	1.0
	Female	0.5	1.7	0.6	0.1	0.1
	Sub-total	2.7	3.3	2.5	0.7	0.5
18&+ (Adult)	Male	13.0	13.5	16.5	2.7	4.9
	Female	1.8	4.2	2.7	0.2	0.6
	Total	7.1	8.6	9.1	1.4	2.6
TOTAL	Male	11.7	12.7	14.9	2.1	4.3
	Female	1.8	4.3	2.5	0.2	0.5
	Total	6.5	8.3	8.4	1.1	2.3

Source: TPS Database

As shown in Table 2.4, in 2004, young persons (18-24 years) and youth (12-17 years) were the two groups with the highest charge rates. As can also be seen in Table 2.4 that the arrest rates for males of the younger age groups were much higher than the rates for other age groups. Males in the age-groups of 18-24 and 12-17 years consistently had the highest arrest rates for violent crimes, property crimes, and other non-traffic Criminal Code offences. Males in the younger age groups also had higher arrest/charge rates for drug offences. Males in the 18-24 age group had the highest arrest rate of 16.3 persons per 1,000 population in 2004, compared to the overall rate of 2.3.

Table 2.5 shows the change in arrest/charge rates by age group and gender between 2000 and 2004. As shown, over the past five years, the charge rate for violent crime and traffic offences decreased, 15% and 2.1%, respectively. The drug arrest rate also dropped 8.2%. The rates for property crime and other Criminal Code offences, on the other hand, increased 13.5% and 7.2%, respectively.



Table 2.5
Change (%) in Population and Arrest/Charge Rates 2000-2004

Age Group		Projected					
		Population	Violent	Property	Other CC	Traffic	Drug
12-17 (Youth)	Male	9.8	-24.9	-12.1	-4.4	-3.4	-25.8
	Female	10.2	-29.2	9.7	-20.9	8.9	-34.2
	Sub-total	10.0	-26.0	-6.1	-7.3	-2.3	-26.9
18-24	Male	6.9	-13.1	-2.1	4.3	3.8	-18.2
	Female	6.2	-9.1	21.5	-6.1	88.3	-16.6
	Sub-total	6.6	-12.4	3.3	3.0	8.0	-17.9
25-34	Male	-0.4	-13.8	14.0	11.9	-10.0	5.2
	Female	1.4	-22.5	10.5	-17.8	-6.7	-1.4
	Sub-total	0.6	-15.7	12.6	4.9	-10.3	3.8
35-44	Male	1.2	-15.2	23.9	19.8	-4.2	3.2
	Female	2.7	-19.8	13.6	-2.4	-25.8	-12.9
	Sub-total	2.0	-16.3	20.7	14.6	-6.7	-0.1
45 & +	Male	6.2	-2.4	60.4	33.5	8.3	23.7
	Female	6.7	-15.1	39.8	22.3	56.1	12.4
	Sub-total	6.5	-4.3	53.6	31.7	11.3	21.9
18&+ (Adult)	Male	3.7	-12.7	16.4	12.9	-2.7	-5.2
	Female	4.7	-18.3	18.5	-8.0	6.2	-9.7
	Total	4.2	-13.9	16.6	8.7	-2.3	-6.1
Total	Male	3.4	-13.6	12.4	11.5	-2.3	-7.1
	Female	4.7	-19.9	18.2	-9.2	6.4	-12.2
	Total	4.1	-15.0	13.5	7.2	-2.1	-8.2

Source: TPS Database

The charge rate for youth (12-17 years) showed large decreases for violent crime (26.0%) and drug offences (26.9%), and moderate decreases for the other major offence categories. While adults also had decreases for their rates in violent crime, Criminal Code traffic, and drug offences, they had considerable increase in the rates for property crime (16.6%) and other Criminal Code offences (8.7%).

Males continued to constitute the majority (79.4%) of those arrested/charged for Criminal Code offences. Males accounted for an even higher proportion (88.2%) of all the persons arrested for drug offences. The involvement of females in crime remained low in general when compared with males. In 2004, 20.6% of the total persons charged for Criminal Code violations and 11.8% of those charged for drug offences were female, similar to the proportions in 2000 – 20.8% and 12.3%, respectively. There was, however, indication, that females' involvement in property crime increased, as witnessed by a 23.8% increase in number of females charged and an 18.2% increase in their charge rate.



N. TRENDS ACROSS POLICE DIVISIONS

Table 2.6 is a comparison of Toronto Police Service divisions in terms of the proportion of crimes, the crime rates, and the workload (number of calls and crimes) per officer.⁹¹ The statistics presented are based on the revised divisional boundaries implemented in May 2004, except for Divisions 41 and 42, for which boundaries similar to the old ones were used. It should be noted that the following analysis is meant to be a description of facts, patterns, and changes; it is not meant to be a comparison of performance or efficiency, which requires a much more sophisticated methodology, such as Data Envelopment Analysis.

**Table 2.6
Crime and Crime Rates: Comparison of Divisions**

2004 DIV	Division As % of Field Total						Rate of Occurrences (number per 1,000 pop.)			Workload per Officer	
	Pop	Viol	Prop	Tot Non- Traf CC	Disp. Calls	Unif. Offr.	Viol	Prop	Tot Non- Traf CC	Calls	Crimes
11	3.8	3.3	3.4	3.4	4.3	4.7	10.8	37.7	63.3	164.2	37.7
12	3.7	5.1	3.5	4.0	5.1	4.6	16.9	39.8	78.9	194.8	45.5
13	5.4	4.7	3.9	4.1	5.5	5.0	10.8	30.5	55.2	193.2	42.7
14	5.8	8.8	8.2	7.8	8.2	8.3	18.6	59.6	96.6	175.1	49.3
22	7.4	5.4	7.2	6.5	6.7	6.0	9.1	41.4	63.6	198.4	56.8
23	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.5	5.3	6.1	12.0	39.3	64.3	154.4	47.7
31	7.3	9.0	6.2	7.3	7.2	7.2	15.1	36.2	72.3	178.0	53.1
32	8.1	5.7	7.6	7.0	6.9	7.0	8.6	39.4	62.1	172.5	51.9
33	7.3	3.7	5.3	4.7	5.1	4.8	6.3	31.0	46.3	187.5	50.9
41	9.2	9.4	9.0	9.5	8.4	8.4	12.6	41.1	73.8	176.3	58.8
42	14.6	11.6	9.6	10.0	9.5	9.2	9.8	27.7	49.5	182.8	57.0
51	3.4	6.6	6.3	6.4	6.0	6.4	23.9	77.8	135.1	166.6	52.3
52	1.2	5.5	7.9	8.9	6.2	6.7	55.3	273.2	524.2	165.2	69.4
53	6.6	4.1	6.5	5.2	4.9	5.0	7.7	41.6	57.3	172.1	54.2
54	5.3	4.8	3.8	4.1	5.3	4.9	11.0	30.1	55.4	192.0	43.4
55	4.5	6.2	6.0	5.7	5.4	5.8	16.9	56.3	90.3	166.0	51.1
Field Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	12.3	42.4	72.2	176.9	52.2

Source: TPS Database; Toronto Urban Development Services.

In 2004, compared with other divisions, 41, 42, and 52 Divisions had the largest proportions of crime. These 3 divisions together constituted 25.0% of the Toronto population and 28.4% of the crimes. They also had 24.3% of the total number of divisional officers. In fact 41 and 42 Divisions consistently had the largest proportion of crime over the past ten years. In terms of calls for service, 41, 42, and 14 Divisions had the largest proportion of calls, which together constituted 26.1% of all calls received.

In terms of the overall crime rate (number of crimes per 1,000 population), 52, 51, and 14 Divisions continued to have the highest rates in 2004; 52 Division also had the highest rates in

⁹¹ The uniform strength of the division, which includes all officers assigned to the division, was used for the computation.



both violent and property crimes, followed by 51 Division. This same pattern existed in 1995. It has to be noted, however, that the computation of crime rates take into account the residential population only. For areas such as the downtown core frequented by a large transient population on a daily basis, the crime rate so computed represents an inflated rate.

The average number of dispatched calls and crimes per officer are usually regarded as workload indicators for officers. In 2004, 22 Division had the largest number of calls per officer (198.4), followed by 12 Division (194.8) and 13 Division (193.2). In terms of number of crimes per officer, 52 Division had the largest rate of 69.4, followed by rates of around 57 offences per officer for 41, 42, and 22 Divisions. The highest crime rates and the largest crimes-per-officer ratio were seen in 52 Division, but its calls-per-officer rate was low relative to other divisions.

Table 2.7 shows the percent change in number of crimes and crime rates for divisions over the past ten years. Workload comparison is not included because it is not possible to revise the staffing strength of divisions in the past years on the basis of the new divisional boundaries. Between 1995 and 2004, there was a 23.3% decrease in non-traffic Criminal Code offences for all the divisions, including a 36.1% decrease for property crimes, a 5.0% decrease for violent crime, and a 17.9% increase for other Criminal Code offences.

Table 2.7
Change* (%) in Crime and Crime Rates: 1995-2004

DIV	Change in No. of Crimes				Rate of Occurrences (number per 1,000 pop.)			
	Viol	Prop	Other CC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	Other CC	Tot Non-Traf CC
11	-27.2	-41.3	-20.7	-35.2	-32.0	-45.2	-26.0	-39.5
12	-9.7	-37.0	27.4	-20.6	-17.9	-42.7	15.9	-27.8
13	0.0	-44.5	49.3	-26.4	-5.8	-47.7	40.5	-30.7
14	-16.8	-32.5	-12.3	-26.6	-23.0	-37.5	-18.8	-32.1
22	8.1	-26.7	-9.7	-19.9	0.6	-31.8	-15.9	-25.5
23	-15.0	-38.3	25.0	-27.1	-21.4	-43.0	15.5	-32.7
31	10.6	-42.2	74.5	-18.1	5.5	-44.9	66.4	-21.9
32	19.4	-23.8	36.9	-10.2	5.2	-32.8	20.7	-20.8
33	-6.5	-35.5	47.7	-24.0	-13.2	-40.1	37.1	-29.4
41	-4.4	-34.0	41.2	-17.7	-14.4	-40.9	26.4	-26.3
42	4.0	-37.5	46.6	-20.1	-6.6	-43.9	31.6	-28.3
51	-24.9	-49.9	-38.6	-44.1	-34.1	-56.1	-46.1	-51.0
52	17.2	-27.6	37.7	-7.5	5.1	-35.0	23.5	-17.0
53	1.8	-41.5	-4.2	-34.2	-9.2	-47.9	-14.6	-41.3
54	-14.0	-34.5	31.1	-20.5	-22.1	-40.6	18.8	-27.9
55	-7.3	-31.8	15.6	-21.9	-14.2	-36.9	6.9	-27.7
Field Total	-5.0	-36.1	17.9	-23.3	-13.3	-41.7	7.6	-30.0

**Based on statistics recalculated for 1995, using the 2004 revised divisional boundaries, except for Divisions 41 and 42.*

Source: TPS Database; Toronto Urban Development Services.



Overall crimes decreased in all divisions, with the largest 44.1% decrease in 51 Division and the smallest 7.5% decrease in 52 Division. The drop in property crime was particularly large, with decreases ranging from 24% to 50% for the divisions. There was a mixed picture in terms of the change in violent crimes occurring in divisions. Despite a 5% drop in violent crime for divisions as a whole, 32, 52, 31, and 22 Divisions actually had relatively large increases in violent crimes recorded.

There is a corresponding drop in the overall crime rate per 1,000 population for all the divisions, with the largest decreases noted in 51, 53, and 11 Divisions. Most divisions had a drop of more than 40% in the rate for property crime. While most divisions had decreases in the violent crime rate, Divisions 31, 32, and 52 had the largest, though mild, increases.

The diminishing number of crimes and the relatively stable number of calls for service received by the police over the past years may paint a picture of a diminishing workload per officer in the divisions. However, this is not necessarily the case for a number of reasons. First, contemporary policing is no longer simply confined to reacting/responding to crimes and calls. Currently, there are policing programs that focus on crime prevention and problem solving at the local level, which have become a regular part of the workload for the police. These pro-active programs in turn may have an impact on criminal occurrences and calls for service. Secondly, changes in the way that calls were managed/dispatched might have reduced the number of calls assigned directly to the divisions. In 2004, the calls dealt with by the Central Alternate Response, which constituted about 11% of the total dispatched calls, were not reflected in the divisional workload. Thirdly, as discussed in the chapter on Calls for Service, there has been a considerable increase in time required for servicing a call over the past few years. This increase in servicing time for calls amounts to an increase in workload and is a drain on existing police resources.

Statistics regarding number of crimes, crime clearance, and crime rates by division, for selected years over the past ten years, are shown in the Appendix at the end of this chapter.

O. COMPARISON WITH OTHER CANADIAN CITIES

This section compares the crime rates of Toronto to those of other large Canadian cities. Crime statistics from Statistics Canada are usually delayed by one year and so only 2003 crime statistics were available for this analysis. The crime statistics reviewed under this section are incident-based. These statistics are different from those compiled by the Toronto Police Service, which are based on offences or violations of the law. It should be noted that the counts based on offences are always larger than the counts based on incidents. For example, the incident-based number of crimes (non-traffic) for Toronto in 2003 was 164,115, compared with the offence-based count of 201,237 crimes; the offence-based count was about 23% higher than the incident-based count. The two sets of crime statistics are useful for different purposes.

In 2003, of the 19 police services serving a population of more than 250,000, Toronto had the second largest per capita cost for policing, following Vancouver (Table 2.8). Toronto, following Montreal and Vancouver, had the third smallest number of population per police officer. The factors associated with high policing cost in Toronto are many and varied. It has to



be noted that per capita cost and the population-police ratio are based on residential population. According to Cordon Count statistics (Traffic Data Report – Year End Review 2002, City of Toronto, Transportation Services), in 2002, there was a daily influx into Toronto of 1.273 million vehicles, which brought in a large daily transient population and a large number of seasonal visitors. For Toronto, due to various constraints, the computation of these ratios cannot take into account the large transient population also served by the Toronto Police, and thus results in an inflation of these ratios. This, together with other factors such as the City’s ethnically and culturally diverse populations and its position as the centre of business, cultural, entertainment, and sporting activities in the GTA, all pose special demands on the Police Service, which certainly impact on the per capita cost but can not easily be quantified.

Table 2.8
Crime Rates* (per 10,000 population), Police Strength & Per Capita Cost in Canadian Municipalities with Populations of 250,000 and Over - 2003

2003 Police Agency	Population	(1) Violent Crimes		(2) Property Crimes		(3) Other Crimes		(4) Total Crimes		Police Strength	Pop/ Pol. Ratio	Cost Per Capita (\$)
		No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate			
Toronto	2611661	27,235	104.3	89,738	343.6	47142	180.5	164,115	628.4	5315	491.4	258
Montreal	1871774	20,108	107.4	86,233	460.7	87481	467.4	193,822	1035.5	4070	459.9	228
Peel Reg.	1063393	5,273	49.6	24,430	229.7	10887	102.4	40,590	381.7	1454	731.4	190
Calgary	936270	8,145	87.0	43,218	461.6	17098	182.6	68,461	731.2	1442	649.3	213
York Reg.	851705	3,976	46.7	22,425	263.3	11836	139.0	38,237	448.9	973	875.3	149
Ottawa	823608	6,294	76.4	30,521	370.6	16308	198.0	53,123	645.0	1107	744.0	178
Edmonton	702379	6,983	99.4	50,423	717.9	29880	425.4	87,286	1242.7	1225	573.4	237
Winnipeg	644417	8,338	129.4	43,298	671.9	27731	430.3	79,367	1231.6	1211	532.1	227
Vancouver	569814	6,965	122.2	49,196	863.4	17121	300.5	73,282	1286.1	1192	478.0	267
Durham Reg.	547759	3,740	68.3	14,845	271.0	12670	231.3	31,255	570.6	736	744.2	180
Quebec	524054	2,830	54.0	17,295	330.0	9239	176.3	29,364	560.3	718	729.9	168
Hamilton	516776	5,435	105.2	21,686	419.6	10965	212.2	38,086	737.0	712	725.8	185
Waterloo Reg.	470022	2,636	56.1	17,086	363.5	7828	166.5	27,550	586.1	611	769.3	154
Niagara Reg.	429949	2,537	59.0	16,100	374.5	10539	245.1	29,176	678.6	632	680.3	225
Halton Reg.	413454	1,915	46.3	9,544	230.8	6405	154.9	17,864	432.1	502	823.6	151
Surrey	390145	4,813	123.4	32,060	821.7	13541	347.1	50,414	1292.2	413	944.7	102
Longueuil	383396	3,094	80.7	14,080	367.2	8255	215.3	25,429	663.3	500	766.8	168
Laval	359707	2,375	66.0	12,421	345.3	5912	164.4	20,708	575.7	471	763.7	162
London	355169	2,475	69.7	17,276	486.4	9532	268.4	29,283	824.5	481	738.4	154

Notes:

Only non-traffic Criminal Code offences are included in this analysis.

* Crime rate is by number of crimes per 10,000 population.

- (1) Violent crimes include homicide & attempts, assault, sexual offences, abduction & robbery.
- (2) Property crimes include break & enter, thefts and fraud.
- (3) Other crimes include prostitution, gaming & betting, offensive weapons and other non-traffic CC offences.
- (4) Sum of (1) through (3).

Source: Police Resources in Canada 2004 and crime statistics by Canadian municipalities, both from Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada



In terms of crime rates, Toronto ranked below middle (twelfth) in overall crimes among the 19 cities under review, with Surrey, BC, showing the highest overall crime rate, followed by Vancouver. Toronto ranked sixth and fourteenth in violent crimes and property crimes, respectively. Winnipeg had the highest violent crime rate in 2003, followed by Surrey, while Surrey had the second highest property crime rate after Vancouver.

Within the Greater Toronto Area, between 2002 and 2003, the overall crime rate increased in areas policed by Durham Regional Police (10.2%), Halton Regional Police (7.8%), and York Regional Police (5.9%), while decreasing for Peel Regional Police (5.8%) and remaining relatively stable for Toronto Police (0.4%).⁹²

Between 1999 and 2003, 9 out of the 17 large Canadian cities under review had decreases in the overall crime rate (Table 2.9).⁹³ Toronto was among those that had a decrease in total non-traffic criminal incidents per 10,000 population. It also was among the 14 municipalities that had a decrease in the property crime rate. In terms of the violent crime rate, Toronto had the smallest increase (0.2%) among the 6 municipalities that had an increase over the same period, with the largest increase (26.4%) being seen in Laval. All 17 cities had an increase in the per capita cost and the increase for Toronto was the fourth smallest (15.1%), compared to the largest increase of 38.2% for Niagara Regional Police. In terms of the size of population per officer, Toronto was among the 11 cities that had a decrease due to the gain in police strength for the period under review. Toronto had a decrease of 3.3% for the population-police ratio, the second smallest decrease.

⁹² Wallace, 2004.

⁹³ Two police services (Quebec and Longueuil) that had changes in their jurisdiction during the period under review are excluded from the comparison.



Table 2.9

% Change in Number of Crimes, Crime Rates* (per 10,000 population), Police Strength & Per Capita Cost in Canadian Municipalities with Populations of 250,000 and Over: 1999-2003

Police Agency	Population	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		Police Strength	Pop/ Pol. Ratio	Cost Per Cost(\$)
		Violent Crimes No.	Violent Crimes Rate	Property Crimes No.	Property Crimes Rate	Other Crimes No.	Other Crimes Rate	Total Crimes No.	Total Crimes Rate			
Toronto	3.2	3.4	0.2	-3.7	-7.1	8.0	5.0	0.8	-2.4	6.2	-3.3	15.1
Montreal	3.9	-3.4	-7.6	-16.4	-21.1	55.7	53.9	17.5	14.1	1.5	2.4	8.3
Peel Reg.	11.9	4.3	-8.7	5.9	-6.8	14.8	3.3	8.1	-4.3	18.4	-7.9	16.8
Calgary	7.5	6.9	-0.7	-5.1	-13.7	17.8	11.0	2.0	-6.0	15.5	-9.5	21.1
York Reg	19.0	7.7	-13.9	17.0	-2.5	40.4	26.4	23.3	5.3	17.5	1.9	20.8
Ottawa	7.9	10.9	3.2	-2.3	-11.1	18.2	11.1	5.6	-2.6	11.4	-3.9	8.4
Edmonton	7.3	7.9	0.7	25.3	19.5	34.8	29.7	27.2	21.5	6.6	0.7	19.8
Winnipeg	2.5	2.1	-0.5	14.9	12.7	31.1	29.3	19.2	17.1	1.7	0.9	23.3
Vancouver	1.8	-3.5	-5.3	-28.3	-30.6	32.8	31.6	-11.6	-13.7	3.6	-1.9	16.9
Durham Reg.	8.2	15.9	8.4	5.9	-2.5	33.4	27.5	18.3	10.9	22.7	-18.7	23.9
Hamilton	4.4	-7.5	-12.5	-2.6	-7.3	1.7	-2.9	-2.1	-6.8	2.4	2.1	13.0
Waterloo Reg.	6.7	-11.2	-19.2	-3.5	-11.0	6.9	0.2	-1.3	-8.6	14.4	-9.0	16.2
Niagara Reg.	1.9	-2.4	-4.4	-5.8	-7.8	12.9	11.2	1.3	-0.7	10.1	-9.1	38.2
Halton Reg.	10.8	11.7	1.0	10.4	-0.5	32.3	24.1	18.4	8.5	17.9	-8.7	21.2
Surrey	13.9	4.1	-11.3	17.5	4.3	21.1	8.4	17.2	3.9	13.1	0.9	18.6
Laval	3.7	29.1	26.4	-7.3	-11.4	29.4	26.7	7.3	3.8	14.0	-12.0	17.3
London	4.2	-12.6	-17.5	-5.2	-9.8	24.0	20.7	3.7	-0.5	12.1	-8.9	16.2
Quebec**												
Longueuil**												

Notes:

Only non-traffic Criminal Code offences are included in this analysis.

* Crime rate is by number of crimes per 10,000 population.

(1) Violent crimes include homicide & attempts, assault, sexual offences, abduction & robbery.

(2) Property crimes include break & enter, thefts and fraud.

(3) Other crimes include prostitution, gaming & betting, offensive weapons and other non-traffic CC offences.

(4) Sum of (1) through (3).

** Due to changes in jurisdiction during the period under review, % change was not computed for the sake of fair comparison.

Source: Crime and Police Resources in Canadian Municipalities 1999, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada; Police Resources in Canada 2004, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- One of the major challenges in contemporary policing is to tackle public safety issues on a broader spectrum in order to address the ‘root causes’ of crime and be effective in crime control. This coupled with the management need for efficiency and accountability often require the police to go beyond the traditional police practices for more effective ways of doing business. Continual effort should be made to identify and develop innovative methods in order to deliver police services in a cost-effective manner.



- Another challenge for municipal police services is to contain their budgets while trying to meet changing public demands for police services. Continual effort should be made to enhance the efficiency of police resource deployment, particularly in matching the supply of service to the demand for such service.
- Despite a large overall decrease in crime over the past ten years, violent crime decreased to a lesser extent. In fact, specific violent crimes, such as robbery and sexual assault, increased over the past five years. Appropriate police initiatives should be maintained and new initiatives developed to address the issues presented by violent crime.
- While crime clearance rates for crimes have generally improved over the past ten years, the clearance rate for property crimes remained low at less than 30%. The clearance rates for specific property crimes that affect the community's perception of safety, such as break and enter and theft of auto, were even lower. Innovative methods need to be constantly developed to address these crimes in a more effective manner.
- Appropriate support should continue to be given to police community response programs to address community concerns. Understandably, the community pays more attention to safety, visible public disorder, and quality of life issues that may not necessarily be in line with police priorities. Fixing 'broken windows' is considered instrumental in controlling crime and enhancing quality of life within the community.⁹⁴
- To maintain community-oriented policing, continued support should be given to the infrastructure for local problem solving, crime prevention, and community partnerships. The Community Police Liaison Committees, the divisional crime management teams, and the field crime analysis capability are currently the main components of the local problem solving process. Continued support should also be given to the research and development of tools and methodologies that will enhance crime analysis, prediction, and management functions.
- The proliferation of marijuana grow-operations requires continual effort from the Service to strengthen partnerships with local, regional, and national police services and other government agencies, to effectively check the supply side of the drug issue. There is a need for police organisations to improve their ability to detect, dismantle, and prosecute such operations. In addition, continued partnerships with local agencies and services, such as public utilities and real estate representatives, are required to provide a multi-faceted response to this particular issue.
- There is indication that organised crime groups are involved in an increasing number and types of crimes, such as computer crimes, ID theft, vehicle theft, drug trafficking, and marijuana grow-operations. Police initiatives to address the issue of organised crime, including intelligence-driven enforcement and partnerships with regional, national, and international enforcement agencies, should be maintained and enhanced as necessary.

⁹⁴ Authored by criminologists George L. Kelling and James Q. Wilson in 1982, the Broken Window theory describes that visible physical and social disorder conditions can combine to create a criminogenic environment that leads to more serious crime and urban decay.



- At present, the extent of the problem of organised crime can not be evaluated in a reliable way and the quantification of the problem remains a challenge to the police and the policy makers. There is a need to develop means for the proper measurement of the problem. Police information systems must be modified to enable the capturing and statistical analysis of organised crime data. The Service should be involved in any efforts by Statistics Canada to address this issue.
- Combating cyber crime is an uphill battle for the police – law enforcement must remain in step with current technological knowledge, tools, and equipment. Often, it is difficult for police to continually update training and equipment, or to effectively address the problem, due to financial constraints. Improving the Service’s response to crimes that involve computers and advanced technology requires appropriate resource deployment as well as training to enhance the investigation, solving, and prevention of such crimes. The funding for the Service’s newly created Technological Crime Unit expired at the end of 2004. Continual funding is required to sustain this initiative.
- Identity theft is regarded as a fast growing problem. The Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police has called upon the Government of Canada to amend the federal Criminal Code to create new offences for possession of multiple identities and the sale or use of novelty identification documents capable of being used as a means of personal identity information. New or revision to existing legislation is deemed necessary to ensure both that offences are defined properly to capture all aspects of the crime and that the necessary law enforcement responses are permitted. Until such revisions are made, the Service should attempt to establish an interim, temporary means of tracking ID theft in Toronto.
- Policing programs to address the issue of high arrest rates among young persons should continue. Innovative strategies should be developed for youths at different stages of delinquency. Often, these initiatives require partnership with other government departments and social agencies.
- Officers should continue to be provided with the appropriate training and equipment so as to enable them to do their job in a diverse community and a complex demanding work environment.



Appendix

Statistics* Summary - Population, Crime and Crime Clearance by Division

2004		Number of Crimes						% Crimes Cleared				Rates (Occurrences/1000 Pop)			
DIV	Pop@	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC
11	102,268	1,100	3,856	1,521	229	6,706	6,477	67.8	22.8	83.4	44.7	10.8	37.7	14.9	63.3
12	98,735	1,669	3,929	2,187	266	8,053	7,787	68.7	31.2	85.4	54.5	16.9	39.8	22.2	78.9
13	143,236	1,540	4,364	2,000	153	8,057	7,904	71.0	26.1	82.3	49.1	10.8	30.5	14.0	55.2
14	155,483	2,892	9,268	2,862	371	15,393	15,022	66.0	24.8	80.5	43.3	18.6	59.6	18.4	96.6
22	196,432	1,784	8,126	2,580	385	12,875	12,490	61.1	27.2	76.4	42.2	9.1	41.4	13.1	63.6
23	166,046	1,995	6,533	2,156	238	10,922	10,684	59.2	34.5	73.9	47.1	12.0	39.3	13.0	64.3
31	195,456	2,953	7,067	4,104	330	14,454	14,124	66.3	26.1	74.0	48.4	15.1	36.2	21.0	72.3
32	217,098	1,875	8,543	3,073	270	13,761	13,491	61.8	28.6	67.3	42.0	8.6	39.4	14.2	62.1
33	194,611	1,233	6,039	1,735	201	9,208	9,007	70.6	29.7	73.4	43.7	6.3	31.0	8.9	46.3
41	246,901	3,102	10,147	4,979	422	18,650	18,228	61.8	32.1	73.6	48.5	12.6	41.1	20.2	73.8
42	391,009	3,830	10,812	4,696	523	19,861	19,338	56.4	25.7	73.8	43.5	9.8	27.7	12.0	49.5
51	90,863	2,169	7,071	3,040	197	12,477	12,280	66.1	32.8	85.5	51.7	23.9	77.8	33.5	135.1
52	32,695	1,807	8,933	6,398	150	17,288	17,138	66.1	32.4	67.2	48.9	55.3	273.2	195.7	524.2
53	175,983	1,360	7,326	1,399	150	10,235	10,085	70.9	24.5	76.0	37.9	7.7	41.6	7.9	57.3
54	141,871	1,567	4,270	2,021	222	8,080	7,858	68.5	25.8	76.6	47.4	11.0	30.1	14.2	55.4
55	121,249	2,047	6,827	2,071	187	11,133	10,946	67.2	38.8	80.5	52.0	16.9	56.3	17.1	90.3
Field Total	2,669,936	32,926	113,111	46,822	4,294	197,153	192,859	64.6	29.1	75.5	46.4	12.3	42.4	17.5	72.2

Notes:

* All statistics are based on 2004 revised divisional boundaries, except for Divisions 41 & 42.
 Violent crimes include homicide and attempts, sexual assaults, other assaults, sexual offences, abduction, and robberies.
 Property crimes include break and enter, all types of thefts, possession of stolen goods, mischief, and fraud.
 Other Criminal Code offences are the other non-traffic offences not covered by the first two items.
 Criminal Code traffic offences are undercounted due to information system problems.
 Total CC is the total number of Criminal Code offences, including violent crimes, property crimes, other Criminal Code offences, and Criminal Code Traffic.
 Total Non-Traf CC is the total number of Non-Traffic Criminal Code offences.
 @ Population estimates based on projections from Toronto Urban Development Services.



Statistics* Summary - Population, Crime and Crime Clearance by Division

2003		Number of Crimes						% Crimes Cleared				Rates (Occurrences/1000 Pop)			
DIV	Pop@	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot Non-		Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC
						Tot CC	Traf CC								
11	101,269	1,339	4,029	1,856	227	7,451	7,224	71.6	24.6	83.5	48.5	13.2	39.8	18.3	71.3
12	97,770	1,698	4,024	2,528	261	8,511	8,250	74.4	30.7	86.2	56.7	17.4	41.2	25.9	84.4
13	141,836	1,556	4,650	1,904	161	8,271	8,110	72.2	31.2	81.9	51.0	11.0	32.8	13.4	57.2
14	153,964	2,882	9,378	2,810	355	15,425	15,070	65.3	23.7	81.5	42.5	18.7	60.9	18.3	97.9
22	194,512	1,869	8,167	2,866	365	13,267	12,902	61.4	25.0	74.9	41.4	9.6	42.0	14.7	66.3
23	164,423	2,306	7,775	2,758	217	13,056	12,839	63.1	25.4	79.7	43.8	14.0	47.3	16.8	78.1
31	193,546	2,738	7,523	3,640	444	14,345	13,901	70.7	27.6	82.9	50.6	14.1	38.9	18.8	71.8
32	214,977	1,885	8,515	2,644	279	13,323	13,044	64.9	30.5	76.9	44.9	8.8	39.6	12.3	60.7
33	192,709	1,329	6,151	1,840	204	9,524	9,320	78.3	27.9	84.2	46.2	6.9	31.9	9.5	48.4
41	244,488	3,544	11,362	4,964	492	20,362	19,870	68.3	34.0	80.4	51.7	14.5	46.5	20.3	81.3
42	387,188	3,720	11,341	4,385	420	19,866	19,446	64.0	25.1	79.6	44.8	9.6	29.3	11.3	50.2
51	89,975	2,733	7,891	3,613	214	14,451	14,237	70.7	31.8	86.0	53.0	30.4	87.7	40.2	158.2
52	32,375	1,829	9,356	5,104	143	16,432	16,289	64.6	32.2	83.9	52.0	56.5	289.0	157.7	503.1
53	174,263	1,400	7,609	1,531	163	10,703	10,540	69.9	24.5	77.1	38.2	8.0	43.7	8.8	60.5
54	140,485	1,642	4,705	1,970	208	8,525	8,317	74.7	28.1	84.3	50.6	11.7	33.5	14.0	59.2
55	120,064	2,044	6,204	2,050	230	10,528	10,298	73.9	32.2	82.5	50.5	17.0	51.7	17.1	85.8
Field Total	2,643,842	34,514	118,680	46,463	4,383	204,040	199,657	68.6	28.4	81.6	47.7	13.1	44.9	17.6	75.5

Notes:

* All statistics are based on 2004 revised divisional boundaries, except for Divisions 41 & 42.
 Violent crimes include homicide and attempts, sexual assaults, other assaults, sexual offences, abduction, and robberies.
 Property crimes include break and enter, all types of thefts, possession of stolen goods, mischief, and fraud.
 Other Criminal Code offences are the other non-traffic offences not covered by the first two items.
 Criminal Code traffic offences are undercounted due to information system problems.
 Total CC is the total number of Criminal Code offences, including violent crimes, property crimes, other Criminal Code offences, and Criminal Code Traffic.
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 @ Population estimates based on projections from Toronto Urban Development Services.



Statistics* Summary - Population, Crime and Crime Clearance by Division

2000	DIV	Pop@	Number of Crimes					% Crimes Cleared				Rates (Occurrences/1000 Pop)				
			Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC
	11	98,270	1,347	3,595	1,932	188	7,062	6,874	76.2	24.2	84.6	51.4	13.7	36.6	19.7	70.0
	12	94,875	1,771	3,563	2,501	209	8,044	7,835	82.4	34.0	88.2	62.2	18.7	37.6	26.4	82.6
	13	137,636	1,575	4,345	1,671	162	7,753	7,591	77.4	20.6	80.4	45.5	11.4	31.6	12.1	55.2
	14	149,405	3,136	8,969	3,613	404	16,122	15,718	75.3	28.5	85.8	51.0	21.0	60.0	24.2	105.2
	22	188,752	1,778	7,428	3,230	416	12,852	12,436	76.7	21.8	85.5	46.2	9.4	39.4	17.1	65.9
	23	159,555	2,212	7,659	2,203	304	12,378	12,074	70.9	26.8	76.8	44.0	13.9	48.0	13.8	75.7
	31	187,815	2,924	7,599	2,916	265	13,704	13,439	73.1	21.5	79.9	45.4	15.6	40.5	15.5	71.6
	32	208,611	1,777	8,262	2,848	216	13,103	12,887	71.0	25.9	80.5	44.2	8.5	39.6	13.7	61.8
	33	187,002	1,366	5,439	1,439	143	8,387	8,244	78.0	31.4	83.3	48.2	7.3	29.1	7.7	44.1
	41	237,248	3,839	10,069	4,144	574	18,626	18,052	71.7	29.2	85.2	51.1	16.2	42.4	17.5	76.1
	42	375,723	4,100	11,078	3,966	344	19,488	19,144	76.3	55.5	83.8	65.8	10.9	29.5	10.6	51.0
	51	87,311	2,964	8,881	4,517	183	16,545	16,362	66.6	33.5	88.5	54.7	33.9	101.7	51.7	187.4
	52	31,417	1,744	9,580	5,338	96	16,758	16,662	63.2	28.9	91.1	52.4	55.5	304.9	169.9	530.4
	53	169,103	1,306	7,284	1,579	173	10,342	10,169	72.8	29.0	73.2	41.5	7.7	43.1	9.3	60.1
	54	136,325	1,724	3,858	1,752	170	7,504	7,334	74.8	21.6	80.5	48.2	12.6	28.3	12.9	53.8
	55	116,508	2,197	6,567	2,200	239	11,203	10,964	78.6	28.0	81.5	48.9	18.9	56.4	18.9	94.1
Field Total		2,565,555	35,760	114,176	45,849	4,086	199,871	195,785	73.8	30.1	84.3	50.7	13.9	44.5	17.9	76.3

Notes:

* All statistics are based on 2004 revised divisional boundaries, except for Divisions 41 & 42.
 Violent crimes include homicide and attempts, sexual assaults, other assaults, sexual offences, abduction, and robberies.
 Property crimes include break and enter, all types of thefts, possession of stolen goods, mischief, and fraud.
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 Criminal Code traffic offences are undercounted due to information system problems.
 Total CC is the total number of Criminal Code offences, including violent crimes, property crimes, other Criminal Code offences, and Criminal Code Traffic.
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 @ Population estimates based on projections from Toronto Urban Development Services.



Statistics* Summary - Population, Crime and Crime Clearance by Division

1998		Number of Crimes						% Crimes Cleared				Rates (Occurrences/1000 Pop)			
DIV	Pop@	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot Non-		Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC
						Tot CC	Traf CC								
11	98,397	1,375	4,838	2,047	223	8,483	8,260	75.6	24.1	84.5	47.7	14.0	49.2	20.8	83.9
12	92,543	1,676	4,226	1,712	170	7,784	7,614	75.2	25.7	82.2	49.3	18.1	45.7	18.5	82.3
13	138,978	1,502	5,753	1,714	168	9,137	8,969	72.6	18.2	79.8	39.1	10.8	41.4	12.3	64.5
14	148,323	3,251	10,656	3,346	361	17,614	17,253	70.9	23.6	82.5	43.9	21.9	71.8	22.6	116.3
22	188,424	1,781	9,260	2,749	470	14,260	13,790	73.9	24.7	84.4	43.0	9.5	49.1	14.6	73.2
23	158,159	2,225	7,710	1,770	281	11,986	11,705	64.4	20.2	69.3	36.0	14.1	48.7	11.2	74.0
31	192,032	2,891	8,723	2,322	260	14,196	13,936	68.7	19.8	75.5	39.2	15.1	45.4	12.1	72.6
32	197,258	1,644	9,643	2,233	193	13,713	13,520	61.4	24.5	77.0	37.7	8.3	48.9	11.3	68.5
33	186,273	1,188	6,663	1,197	151	9,199	9,048	78.2	29.0	83.7	42.7	6.4	35.8	6.4	48.6
41	227,833	2,953	10,701	3,498	333	17,485	17,152	63.3	24.0	78.9	41.9	13.0	47.0	15.4	75.3
42	361,661	3,385	13,613	3,398	285	20,681	20,396	70.7	55.3	86.0	62.9	9.4	37.6	9.4	56.4
51	82,145	2,689	10,833	4,506	184	18,212	18,028	65.6	29.9	90.6	50.4	32.7	131.9	54.9	219.5
52	30,218	1,774	11,000	4,344	109	17,227	17,118	61.0	28.4	88.6	47.0	58.7	364.0	143.8	566.5
53	161,713	1,347	9,174	1,506	110	12,137	12,027	69.6	20.3	67.6	31.7	8.3	56.7	9.3	74.4
54	132,502	1,679	4,583	1,448	164	7,874	7,710	74.8	24.2	81.8	46.0	12.7	34.6	10.9	58.2
55	115,621	2,322	7,878	2,287	163	12,650	12,487	70.1	28.1	78.4	45.1	20.1	68.1	19.8	108.0
Field Total	2,512,080	33,682	135,254	40,077	3,625	212,638	209,013	69.2	27.6	82.1	44.7	13.4	53.8	16.0	83.2

Notes:

* All statistics are based on 2004 revised divisional boundaries, except for Divisions 41 & 42.
 Violent crimes include homicide and attempts, sexual assaults, other assaults, sexual offences, abduction, and robberies.
 Property crimes include break and enter, all types of thefts, possession of stolen goods, mischief, and fraud.
 Other Criminal Code offences are the other non-traffic offences not covered by the first two items.
 Criminal Code traffic offences are undercounted due to information system problems.
 Total CC is the total number of Criminal Code offences, including violent crimes, property crimes, other Criminal Code offences, and Criminal Code Traffic.
 Total Non-Traf CC is the total number of Non-Traffic Criminal Code offences.
 @ Population estimates based on projections from Toronto Urban Development Services.



Statistics* Summary - Population, Crime and Crime Clearance by Division

1995		Number of Crimes						% Crimes Cleared				Rates (Occurrences/1000 Pop)			
DIV	Pop@	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot Non-		Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Tot Non-Traf CC
						Tot CC	Traf CC								
11	95,482	1,510	6,567	1,919	508	10,504	9,996	72.5	24.8	82.9	43.2	15.8	68.8	20.1	104.7
12	89,801	1,851	6,240	1,716	289	10,096	9,807	76.6	19.5	83.0	41.4	20.6	69.5	19.1	109.2
13	134,861	1,540	7,861	1,340	225	10,966	10,741	77.9	10.2	80.7	28.7	11.4	58.3	9.9	79.6
14	143,929	3,477	13,737	3,263	651	21,128	20,477	72.2	21.0	87.3	40.3	24.2	95.4	22.7	142.3
22	182,842	1,651	11,090	2,857	813	16,411	15,598	76.1	23.3	85.5	40.3	9.0	60.7	15.6	85.3
23	153,473	2,347	10,592	1,725	380	15,044	14,664	67.8	17.8	79.7	33.1	15.3	69.0	11.2	95.5
31	186,342	2,669	12,229	2,352	474	17,724	17,250	73.3	15.7	85.9	34.2	14.3	65.6	12.6	92.6
32	191,414	1,571	11,209	2,244	256	15,280	15,024	70.0	20.2	83.7	34.9	8.2	58.6	11.7	78.5
33	180,754	1,319	9,360	1,175	192	12,046	11,854	73.2	18.4	78.0	30.4	7.3	51.8	6.5	65.6
41	221,083	3,244	15,384	3,527	642	22,797	22,155	76.9	28.3	89.4	45.1	14.7	69.6	16.0	100.2
42	350,946	3,681	17,309	3,203	546	24,739	24,193	69.7	16.5	79.7	33.0	10.5	49.3	9.1	68.9
51	79,711	2,888	14,125	4,950	345	22,308	21,963	64.4	22.9	89.9	43.5	36.2	177.2	62.1	275.5
52	29,323	1,542	12,331	4,648	170	18,691	18,521	64.2	21.0	93.0	42.6	52.6	420.5	158.5	631.6
53	156,922	1,336	12,531	1,461	251	15,579	15,328	68.5	14.5	66.2	24.2	8.5	79.9	9.3	97.7
54	128,576	1,822	6,519	1,542	301	10,184	9,883	72.0	17.3	76.7	36.6	14.2	50.7	12.0	76.9
55	112,195	2,209	10,013	1,792	343	14,357	14,014	74.3	21.6	80.0	37.4	19.7	89.2	16.0	124.9
Field Total	2,437,653	34,657	177,097	39,714	6,386	257,854	251,468	71.8	19.8	84.7	37.2	14.2	72.7	16.3	103.2

Notes:

* All statistics are based on 2004 revised divisional boundaries, except for Divisions 41 & 42.
 Violent crimes include homicide and attempts, sexual assaults, other assaults, sexual offences, abduction, and robberies.
 Property crimes include break and enter, all types of thefts, possession of stolen goods, mischief, and fraud.
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 @ Population estimates based on projections from Toronto Urban Development Services.



III. YOUTH CRIME

Concern about youth, crime, and 'disrespectful' attitudes has been common throughout history. Nevertheless, this should not minimise the concern and effects of violence and crime by youth in our society nor should it be allowed to act as an easy response and explanation for not taking action. The search for solutions to this social problem demands a commitment to develop a comprehensive response strategy that will address both the individual and systemic factors contributing to this phenomenon. The Service's community policing philosophy provides the necessary approach for reaching creative and effective solutions to youth violence.

HIGHLIGHTS

- To put youth crime in perspective, three issues must be noted. First, a very small proportion of youths (aged 12-17 years) are involved in criminal activity, and even fewer are involved in violent crimes. Second, youth crime statistics reflect the number of youths arrested for criminal offences, not the actual level of crime involving young offenders. Third, it is believed that only a small portion of youth crime is actually reported to police.
- The enumeration of youth crime is different from the enumeration of crimes in general. While crimes in general are counted in terms of number of criminal incidents that occurred, youth crimes are compiled on the basis of arrests, when the age of the suspect can be ascertained. For this reason and a number of other factors, the number of youth crimes recorded is likely lower than the actual number of crimes committed by youth.
- In recognition of the strong provisions for alternative measures contained in the *Youth Criminal Justice Act* (YCJA), proclaimed in April 2003, Statistics Canada revised their reporting of youth criminal activity in Canada to include both youths charged with a criminal offence and youths accused of but not charged with a criminal offence.
- National youth crime statistics showed that, in 2003, 84,482 Canadian youths, aged 12-17 years, were charged with a non-traffic criminal incident and a further 100,406 youths were arrested and cleared otherwise. The overall total youth crime rate (that is, the number of youths accused per 1,000 population) was 73.0, of whom 31.5 were accused of property crimes, 26.4 of other Criminal Code offences, and 15.1 of violent crimes. Over the past decade, the total youth crime rate decreased about 11.0% from 82.0 in 1993 to 73.0 in 2003.
- In Toronto in 2004, 7,523 young persons (aged 12-17 years) were arrested for all types of Criminal Code offences, down 13.8% from 2003 and 6.1% from 2000.
- An overall decrease was noted in the total number of youths arrested/charged for total Criminal Code offences over the past five years, including a 18.6% decrease in violent crimes; youths charged for property and other Criminal Code offences showed small increases over the same period.
- The overall participation of young females in crimes in 2004 compared to 2000 was similar, increasing only 0.3%. While the number of female youths arrested for violent and other



Criminal Code offences decreased 22.1% and 12.8%, respectively, the number of female youths arrested for property crimes increased 20.8%.

- In Toronto in 2004, an average 49.3 of every 1,000 young persons were arrested for a Criminal Code offence, including 13.0 arrested for a violent crime, 20.2 for a property crime, and 15.9 for other Criminal Code offences. The overall charge rates for youths was almost double that for adults. Decreases in the charge rate for youths were noted for all major Criminal Code offence categories between 2003 and 2004, and between 2000 and 2004.
- Male youths had an arrest rate about 3 times that of female youths. Compared to 2003, in 2004, both male and female youths generally showed decreases in the arrest rates in all major offence categories, however, decreases for female youths were somewhat less than that for male youths.
- The total number of crimes occurring on school premises increased 0.4% in 2004. Over the past five years, however, crimes occurring on school premises decreased by 14.4% and decreased 27.8% over the past ten years. Thefts and non-sexual assaults were generally the most frequently reported crimes.
- In 2004, a total of 665 youths were arrested for drug-related offences, a 43.9% increase from the 462 arrests in 2003, but a 19.7% decrease from 828 arrests in 2000. In terms of number charged per 1,000 youths, the 2004 rate was 3.5 youths, again, an increase from 2003 (2.5), but a decrease from 2000 (4.8).

A. A PERSPECTIVE ON YOUTH CRIME

Community perception of youth crime and, in particular, youth violence, is largely influenced by the media saturation of the violent actions of often only a very few young persons. However, response by police and others tasked with the development and well-being of young people can only be effective if they are able to define and focus their attention on the 'real' situation. The actual extent of youth crime in Canada and Toronto, historically defined by the number of Criminal Code charges laid against young people aged 12-17 years, is discussed in detail later in this chapter.

However, to put youth crime in perspective, three things must be clearly noted in advance. First, as revealed by police statistics, only a small proportion of youths are involved in criminal activity, and even fewer are involved in violent crimes. For example, in 2004, the total of 7,523 youths arrested for Criminal Code offences in Toronto represented less than 4% of the youth population (aged 12-17). Assuming that every person arrested was a different individual, which is unlikely and thus results in an inflated count, on average, less than four out of every 100 youths in Toronto were arrested for a Criminal Code offence, and even fewer – 1.3 of every 100 youths – were arrested for a violent criminal offence.⁹⁵ Second, it has to be noted that youth

⁹⁵ It is known that a portion of the total number of youths charged in any one year reflects repeat offenders – youth who offended either earlier in the current year or in a prior year. However, the number of repeat offenders is not known. In *Youth Court Statistics, 1999/00*, Statistics Canada reported that 102,061 youth cases were processed through the courts, about two-thirds resulted in a conviction, and 41,563 young offenders were convicted of an



crime statistics reflect the number of youths arrested for criminal activities, not the actual level of crime involving young offenders. Third, it is generally believed that only a small portion of youth crime is actually reported to police. Overall, youth crime statistics, as currently defined, are most likely understated.

Most experts on the subject of youth crime strongly caution against viewing all youth as potential criminals. Dr. Fred Mathews of the Central Toronto Youth Services has argued that 75% of all youth are rarely or seldom involved in serious crime or violent activity and may be considered no- or low-risk.⁹⁶ A further 20% of youth may be considered moderate-risk as their behaviour can go either way, depending on their perception of the expected consequences of their own violent actions. The final 5% of youth are to be considered high-risk because of high levels of vulnerability, marginalisation from the community, and chronic risk factors including poverty, abuse, and neglect. Even within this group, the portion likely to become involved in serious violent crime is believed to be only 1% or 2%.

Perhaps the single greatest impediment to developing a clear picture of youth crime is the basis for the enumeration of youth crimes. Unlike general crime statistics that count the actual number of Criminal Code incidents (or offences) reported to police, youth crime statistics reflect the number of youths charged with and, more recently, accused of a Criminal Code offence. This method counts the number of Criminal Code offences that result in the arrest of a young person, rather than the number of Criminal Code offences committed by a young person or group of young persons. Since the enactment of the *Youth Criminal Justice Act* (YCJA) in April 2003, as is discussed later, Statistics Canada also includes youths accused of, but not charged with, a criminal offence in reporting the level of youth criminal activity across Canada. Counting of youths charged or cleared otherwise is used because it is the only relatively accurate way to categorise an offence as a youth crime. The use of other estimates, such as a victim's estimate of the age of the suspect, are deemed to be less reliable indicators for the level of youth crime.

The use of statistics on youths accused (charged and not charged) may still fail to present a full picture of the youth crime problem. First, increases and decreases in the number of youths accused may reflect the performance of the police, rather than the level of youth crime. Second, as discussed later, the increasing use of alternative measures, specifically police discretion and pre-charge alternative measures, will cause youth crime based on charges to be understated, particularly for minor crimes committed by first-time offenders. (Statistics Canada's inclusion of youths not charged in the determination of youth crime has, to some extent, addressed this shortcoming in the enumeration of youth crime.) In the absence of a more accurate system of information collection, the current enumeration method appears to be the only relatively reliable indicator for the volume of youth crime and trend analysis.

As with general crime statistics, the issue of reported vs. non-reported crime is also a concern in determining the level of youth crime. According to the 1999 General Social Survey (GSS), 44% of property crimes are reported to police, however, only an estimated 37% of

offence. About 35% of cases with a conviction involved repeat offenders – offenders with at least one prior conviction. Persistent offenders – offenders with at least three prior convictions – accounted for 10% of cases with a conviction. Further, Statistics Canada reported that the number of charges per case increased with repeat offenders – 32% of cases involving persistent offenders included four or more charges, as compared to 18% of cases involving first-time offenders. These statistics may serve as a very general indicator of the extent of repeat offenders. (Sudworth, M. and deSouza, P. *Youth Court Statistics, 1999/00*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada) 21(3), May 2001.)

⁹⁶ Mathews, F. *Drawing Lines and Circles – Responding to Youth Violence*. *Orbit*, 25(3), 1994.



personal crimes are reported.⁹⁷ Youths are much less likely to report personal crimes than adults – only 13% of youths reported personal crimes as compared to 30% of those aged 45 years and older.⁹⁸ If youth are most often victimised by other youths, as is reported by Statistics Canada, the actual level of crime and, in particular, violent crime involving young offenders, may be seriously undercounted.⁹⁹

B. YOUTH CRIMINAL JUSTICE ACT

The *Youth Criminal Justice Act*, which became effective on April 1, 2003, specifically addresses the concerns of Canadians about youth crime in their communities and the effectiveness of the current criminal justice system in dealing with young offenders.¹⁰⁰ The Act, clearly states its primary purpose is the protection of society by preventing crime, imposing sentences that are appropriate and proportional, and rehabilitating youth involved in criminal activities. The new legislation was intended to:

- distinguish between violent young offenders and recidivists, and the majority of young offenders who commit non-violent crimes, and to target the responses of the youth justice system to the seriousness of the offence;
- expand the offences for which a young person, if convicted of the offence, could receive an adult sentence to include a category of a pattern of serious violent offences;
- lower the age at which a young offender may receive an adult sentence to include youths 14 and 15 years old;
- allow the publication of the name of any youth who receives an adult sentence;
- create a special sentence for serious violent offenders who suffer from mental illness or psychological/emotional disorders;
- require a period of controlled supervision in the community to facilitate re-integration, following all periods of custody; and,
- provide for and encourage the use of a full range of extrajudicial sanctions, including community-based sentences, for non-violent offenders.

As is evident from these highlights, the Act provides a clear distinction between violent and non-violent crimes. For youths who commit violent crimes or are repeat offenders, the Act prescribes more severe consequences. However, for youths who commit non-violent crimes, the Act promotes rehabilitation through diversion programs. It accomplishes this by creating the presumption that extrajudicial sanctions, rather than court proceedings, will be used for non-violent first offenders by *requiring* police officers to consider taking no further action, issuing a warning, administering a caution, or referring the youth to a community-based program before a

⁹⁷ Besserer, S. and Trainor, C. *Criminal Victimization in Canada, 1999*. **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 20(10), November 2000.

⁹⁸ Ibid.

⁹⁹ Savoie, J. *Youth Violent Crime*. **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 19(13), December 1999.

¹⁰⁰ The Act received Royal Assent on February 19, 2002, and proclaimed April 2003. The lead-in period was purposely set to allow time for provincial ministries to make a number of policy decisions and for police services to then review and develop appropriate policies and procedures.



charge is laid; by establishing the principle that extrajudicial measures are often the most appropriate approach to rehabilitate young offenders; and by clarifying that non-judicial measures are not restricted to first-time offenders.

The Youth Referral Program:

In 2002, the Toronto Police Service established a pre-charge diversion youth referral pilot program in anticipation of the legislation, to provide treatment alternatives for youth who commit less serious offences by striking a more realistic balance between the youth's need for rehabilitation and the safety of the community. Funded by the Department of Justice Canada and in partnership with Operation Springboard, a community agency that provides programs to youths who have come into conflict with the law, the pilot program was launched by the Service to channel suitable young offenders to alternative community-based programs.

After being arrested for a less serious offence, a young offender, with his/her admission of guilt and consent, could be referred, by the arresting officer, to the Youth Referral Program in lieu of being formally charged.¹⁰¹ The young offender was assessed for commitment to an assignment of consequences, with due consideration for needs of the crime victim, and the needs of the young offender for rehabilitation. Non-completion of the assignment could result in criminal charges being laid.

By February 2003, six of the sixteen Service divisions had joined in the pilot project, and over a period of 21 months ending December 31, 2003, a total of 1,486 young offenders were referred to the Program. During the final months of the pilot, about 1 in three youths arrested in participating divisions were referred to this Program. Statistics revealed that the success rate (completion of assignment) was as high as 95%.¹⁰²

Federal funding for the Youth Referral Program ended as of December 31, 2003, and the program was terminated.¹⁰³

C. YOUTH CRIME IN CANADA

As was discussed earlier in this chapter, the *Youth Criminal Justice Act* (YCJA), which came into effect on April 1, 2003, requires police to consider the use of extrajudicial measures prior to considering a charge. As a result, Statistics Canada now considers both youths formally charged with a criminal offence(s) and youths 'cleared otherwise' to measure and report youth criminal activity in Canada.^{104,105}

¹⁰¹ It should also be noted such pre-charge diversionary programs would likely reduce workload for the criminal justice system and thus allows police and court resources to focus on more serious crime.

¹⁰² The Toronto Youth Referral Program success rate compared favourably to the 86% national success rate (excludes Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, Ontario and British Columbia) as reported by Statistics Canada. (Reitano, J. *Youth Custody and Community Services in Canada, 2002/03*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada) 24(9), October 2004, p.(6).)

¹⁰³ According to a report by TPS Youth Services (Community Programs), about 30% of youths arrested would be suitable for such a referral program (The Toronto Police Service Youth Referral Program – A Toronto Response to Youth Criminal Offending, Prevention and Intervention, March 2004).

¹⁰⁴ Due to changes in the measuring and reporting of youth crime activity by Statistics Canada, national youth crime data for 1993 to 2003 have been recalculated to include both youths charged and youths 'cleared otherwise' or 'not



Statistics from the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics showed that, in 2003, 84,482 Canadian youths, aged 12-17 years, were charged with a non-traffic criminal incident and a further 100,406 youths were arrested and cleared otherwise.¹⁰⁶ In total, 184,888 youths were accused of a Criminal Code offence, an overall increase of 5.3% from the 175,566 accused in 2002.¹⁰⁷ The one-year increase in the number of accused youths reflects a 14.4% decrease in the number of youths charged (from 98,681 in 2002 to 84,482 in 2003) and a 30.6% increase in the number of youths cleared otherwise (from 76,885 in 2002 to 100,406 in 2003).¹⁰⁸ It should be noted that the increase in the number of youths cleared otherwise might be, in part, attributable to increased reporting by police of youths not charged. Even still, according to Statistics Canada, youth crime is likely understated, as some Canadian police services do not maintain records for all youths cleared otherwise. Compared to 1993, the number of youths accused dropped about 3.2% from 190,924 (126,887 charged and 64,037 not charged).¹⁰⁹

Over the past decade, the total national youth crime rate – the number of youths accused of non-traffic Criminal Code offences per 1,000 population – generally decreased between 1993 and 2000 but has generally increased since then (Figure 3.1).

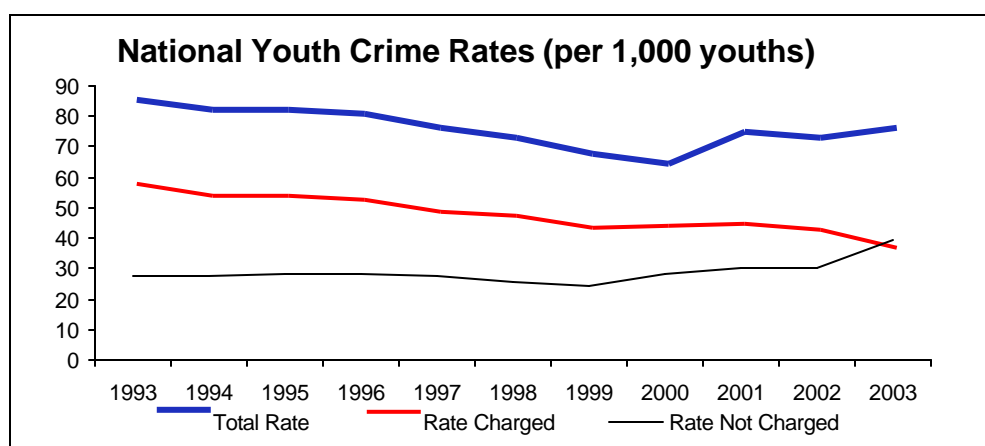


Figure 3.1

Source: Statistics Canada

Overall, the total youth crime rate (youths accused of a Criminal Code offence) decreased about 11.0% from 82.0 youths per 1,000 population in 1993, to 73.0 youths per 1,000 population in 2003.¹¹⁰ Similarly, the youth charge rate has followed in a general decline, decreasing 38.7%

charged' to allow for a more comprehensive representation of youth criminal activity in Canada. National youth crime data therefore differs from data in previous Scans.

¹⁰⁵ An incident is 'cleared otherwise' or 'not charged' when police have identified at least one accused and sufficient evidence exists to lay a charge, but the accused is processed by other means including formal measures (e.g. extrajudicial sanctions or Crown caution) or less formal alternative measures (e.g. police warning or community referral program).

¹⁰⁶ Wallace, M. *Crime Statistics in Canada 2003*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 24(6), July 2004.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.

¹⁰⁹ *Crime Statistics, Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1977 to 2003*. Statistics Canada (www.ccjscsj.statcan.ca).

¹¹⁰ Although the number of youths accused of a non-traffic Criminal Code offence decreased only 3.2% over the past decade years, the total youth crime rate also reflects an 8.8% increase in the population of young people between the ages of 12 and 17 during this same period.



from 54.5 youths per 1,000 population in 1993 to 33.4 youths per 1,000 population in 2003. On the other hand, the rate of youths not charged or cleared otherwise has consistently increased over the past decade, increasing 44.4% from 27.5 youths per 1,000 population in 1993 to 39.7 youths in 2003. In 2003, for the first time, the number and rate of youths not charged surpassed the number and rate of youth charged; prior to 2000, the ratio of youths not charged to youths charged was roughly 2:3; the gap narrowed each year since.

In 2003, the overall youth charge rate – the number of youths charged for non-traffic Criminal Code offences per 1,000 population – was 33.4, of whom 13.9 were charged for property crimes, 11.3 for other Criminal Code offences, and 8.2 for violent crimes. Figure 3.2 shows the national youth charge rate, by offence category, since 1993.

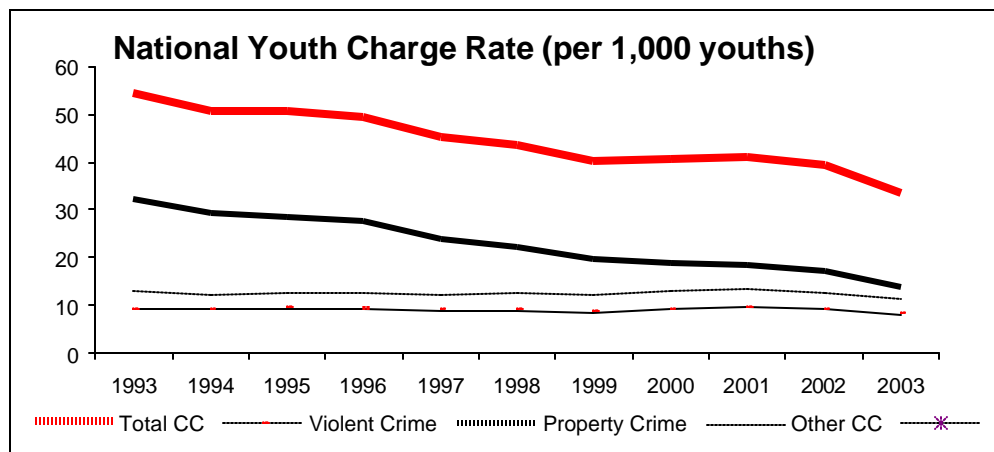


Figure 3.2

Source: Statistics Canada

Compared with 2002, the rate of youths charged by police in 2003 dropped about 14.8%, from 39.2 to 33.4 youths per 1,000 population. The one-year decrease in the national youth charge rate reflects a decrease in each major crime category, including a 11.8% decrease in the violent crime rate, an 18.7% decrease in the property crime rate, and an 11.7% decrease in rate of other crimes.¹¹¹ From 1993 to 2003 the rate of youths charged in Canada dropped by 38.6%, from 54.4 youths per 1,000 population to 33.4 youths. For the same ten-year period, the rate of youths charged decreased 10.9% for violent crime, 56.8% for property crime, and 13.7% for other Criminal Code offences. Youth charge rates in 2003 were at the lowest level, overall and in each category, in the past ten years. In 2003, youth accounted for only about 17% of the total number of persons charged for non-traffic Criminal Code offences, down from 20% in 2002.

As noted earlier, both the number and rate of youths accused of a criminal offence(s), but not charged, has generally increased over the past decade. The number of youths not charged increased 56.8%, from 64,037 in 1993 to 100,406 in 2003; the rate of youths not charged increased 44.4%, from 27.5 youths per 1,000 population in 1993 to 39.7 youths in 2003. The most notable increase in the number and rate of youths not charged occurred between 2002 and 2003, likely the result of the YCJA coming into force in April 2003. As a proportion of total number of youth accused within each crime category in 2003, 45.9% accused of violent crime, 56.0% accused of property crime, and 57.1% accused of other crime were cleared otherwise.

¹¹¹ Wallace, 2004.



Compared to 2002, this reflects substantial increases in the use of non-charge dispositions in all categories. Statistics Canada reports that, of the UCR2 Survey respondents able to provide a breakdown of extrajudicial measures by YCJA categories, informal verbal warnings and formal police cautions accounted for more than eight in ten such dispositions.

The increasing involvement of females in criminal activities, particularly violent crimes, continues to be of concern to many Canadians. Although the involvement of young females in crime remains low compared to young males, the proportion of females accused was higher among youth than adults, particularly for violent crimes. In 2003, females accounted for 26% of youths accused of violent crimes, compared to 16% for their adult counterparts. Overall, females accounted for 30% of total youths accused, compared to 19% for adults.¹¹²

Cases before youth courts continued to decrease (1.2%) in 2002/03.¹¹³ Between 1991/92 and 2002/2003, the number of cases processed in the youth courts declined by 19.8%, caused mainly by a decrease in cases involving crimes against property. There was a marked drop of 46.9% in the number of crimes against property cases, and a 25.4% increase in cases involving crimes against the person. There was also a 207.7% increase in number of drug-related cases. The most common types of crimes processed in the youth courts in 2002/03 included theft (15%), failure to comply with a YOA disposition (12%), common assault (11%), break and enter (9%), and possession of stolen property (7%).

D. YOUTH CRIME IN TORONTO¹¹⁴

Number of Youths Arrested:

During 2004, a total of 50,064 persons were arrested for a Criminal Code offences in Toronto, including 7,523 young persons aged 12-17 years and 42,541 adults. Youths accounted for about 15% of the total number of persons arrested in 2004, but accounted for only 8% of the population 12 years of age and older. The total number of youths arrested for Criminal Code offences in 2004 was a 13.8% decrease from the total number of youths arrested in 2003, and a 6.1% decrease from 2000. On the other hand, the total number of adults arrested for Criminal Code offences in 2004 was a 0.9% increase from the number of adults arrested in 2003 and a 6.1% increase from 2000. Figure 3.3 shows the number of young persons and adults arrested over the past five years.

¹¹² Wallace, 2004.

¹¹³ Robinson, P. *Youth Court Statistics 2002/03*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 24(2), March 2004.

¹¹⁴ Due to changes in Service data systems and extraction procedures, all arrest data for 2000 to 2003 have been recalculated to allow fair comparison and may differ from data in previous Scans. Examination of arrest data is based on five years.

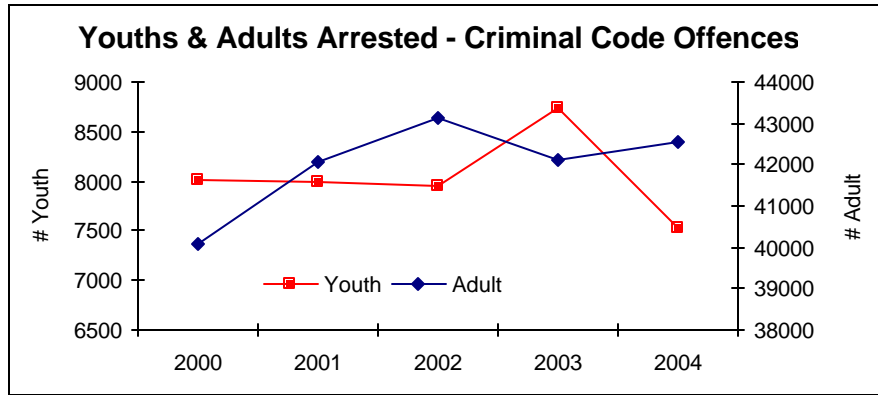


Figure 3.3

Source: TPS Database

As was discussed in relation to national youth crime, not all youths arrested for a Criminal Code offence were formally charged. Since 2000, the proportion of youths arrested and cleared otherwise increased from 526 (6.6%) in 2000 to 1,140 (14.3%) in 2002, and to 2,395 (37.8%) in 2003, but dropped to 1,526 (20.3%) in 2004. These levels closely reflect the period of time the Youth Referral Program was available and the enactment of the Youth Criminal Justice Act. For the purpose of this chapter, youth crime in Toronto will reflect the number and rate of youth arrested, including youths charged and not charged (e.g. cleared otherwise).

Between 2000 and 2004, the number of youths arrested decreased for violent crime (18.6%), but increased for property crime (3.2%) and other Criminal Code offences (1.9%).¹¹⁵ Between 2003 and 2004, the number of youths arrested showed a decrease in every offence category including violent crime (12.1%) and property crime (18.9%).

Table 3.1 is a breakdown of youths (aged 12-17 years) as a proportion of total persons arrested by major categories of Criminal Code offences. In general, the proportion of youths in offence categories, except Traffic, are much larger than their overall representation (8.4%) in the total population aged 12 years and over. Notwithstanding their general over-representation in the proportion of total persons arrested, the proportion in each category in 2004 generally showed a decrease from both 2003 and 2000.

¹¹⁵ These figures are based on the actual number of persons arrested. In all following analyses involving the breakdown of data by the major offence categories, the number of youths arrested for total Criminal Code offences may be greater than the number of actual persons arrested. This is because a youth may have been accused of more than one type of offence (e.g. with a violent crime and a property crime). While the counts in each separate offence category are the actual number of youths arrested for that type of offence, the total Criminal Code count is created by adding the counts for the individual categories.



Table 3.1
Youths as a Proportion (%) of Total Persons Arrested

Year	Youths†	Violent	Property	Other CC	Traffic	Total CC*
2000	8,013	15.9%	20.4%	15.2%	1.9%	17.1%
2001	7,988	14.5%	20.5%	15.2%	2.1%	15.8%
2002	7,959	14.2%	19.5%	14.4%	2.1%	15.4%
2003	8,728	15.6%	21.6%	15.3%	2.7%	16.9%
2004	7,523	14.6%	17.9%	13.9%	2.1%	14.9%

† Actual persons arrested.

Based on the sum of the major offence categories (includes multiple counts for those with multiple charges).

Source: TPS Database

Number of Youths Arrested – By Gender and Major Offence Categories:

In 2004, of the total number of young persons arrested/processed for Criminal Code offences, 5,525 (73.4%) were male and 1,998 (26.6%) were female. This means that for every 100 youths arrested for Criminal Code offences in 2004, on average 73 were male and 27 were female, compared to the 76 who were male and the 24 who were female in 2000. Over the past five years, both the number and proportion of males arrested decreased, while those of females increased.

Table 3.2 shows the number and proportion of male and female young offenders arrested for each of the major offence groups. While in both 2004 and 2000 young females were most likely arrested for property crime, by 2004 they represented almost one-third of those arrested in this category.

Table 3.2
Number & Proportion (%) of Male and Female Young Offenders

	Violent	Property	Other CC	Traffic	Total CC*	Drug
2000						
Male %	77.7%	72.2%	82.7%	90.7%	77.1%	88.9%
Female %	22.2%	27.8%	17.3%	9.3%	22.8%	11.0%
Total	3,017	3,688	2,937	54	9,642	828
2004						
Male %	78.7%	67.5%	85.2%	89.7%	76.3%	90.1%
Female %	21.3%	32.5%	14.8%	10.3%	23.7%	9.9%
Total	2,455	3,807	2,993	58	9,313	665

Based on the sum of the major offence categories (includes multiple counts for those with multiple charges).

Source: TPS Arrest Database

Table 3.3 shows the change in number of youths arrested, broken down by gender and offence category. Between 2003 and 2004, the level of arrests for both male and female youths decreased overall (13.3% and 13.1%, respectively) and in every major Criminal Code category.



The number of male and female youths arrested for property crime decreased 19.2% and 18.0%, respectively, and for violent crime decreased 13.2% and 7.6%, respectively.

Over the past five years, the number male youths arrested for a Criminal Code offence decreased 4.4%, compared to a slight 0.3% increase for female youths. While male youths had a 3.4% decrease in property crime arrests, female youths had a 20.8% increase in arrests for the same crimes. Both male and female youths had a decrease in violent crime arrests (17.5% and 22.1%, respectively).

Table 3.3
% Change in Youths Arrested for Criminal Code and Drug Offences

	Violent	Property	Other CC	Traffic	Total CC	Drug
2003-2004						
Male	-13.2%	-19.2%	-5.9%	-28.8%	-13.3%	48.5%
Female	-7.6%	-18.0%	-3.7%	-14.3%	-13.1%	13.8%
Total	-12.1%	-18.9%	-5.6%	-27.5%	-13.3%	44.2%
2000-2004						
Male	-17.5%	-3.4%	5.0%	6.1%	-4.4%	-18.5%
Female	-22.1%	20.8%	-12.8%	20.0%	0.3%	-27.5%
Total	-18.6%	3.2%	1.9%	7.4%	-3.4%	-19.6%

** This large increase was due to small numbers involved.*

Source: TPS Arrest Database

Because of the larger increase or smaller decreases in female youths arrested under most of the major offence categories, property crimes in particular, the proportion of female youths among the young offenders has increased.

While males were more likely involved in more serious violent crimes than females, there are indicators that this is changing; the Toronto Police Youth Crime Co-ordinator has reported that girls are now involved in gangs, fighting with knives, and stealing. These changes together may paint a picture that female youths have become more crime-prone and violent than before, despite still constituting a relatively small proportion (26.6%) of the young offender population.

As has been discussed, youth crime is measured by the number of youths, 12-17 years old, arrested for criminal offences; however, it fails to capture the criminal offences of children less than 12 years of age. The Service does not capture specific data regarding the criminal activities of children less than 12 years of age, however, the increasing number of children referred to the Child Development Institute Centre (CDIC) – 13 in 2003, 50 in 2004 and 20 in the first four months of 2005 – would suggest the increasing involvement of children in criminal activity and/or the recognition of the importance of dealing with criminal/aggressive behaviour in young children.

The importance of addressing the criminal activities and violent behaviour of these young children was underscored in a recent study published by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) in the United States. The Study Group on Very Young Offenders reported that “Research findings uniformly show that the risk of subsequent violence, serious offences, and chronic offending is two to three times higher for child delinquents than for



later-onset offenders...in addition, [child delinquents] are more likely than later-onset juvenile offenders to become gang members and/or engage in substance abuse.”¹¹⁶

The Study Group further found that most early-onset delinquents showed signs of aggressive, inattentive, or sensation-seeking behaviour as early as pre-school. While they found that incarceration was not the answer in most cases, programs based on developing children’s skills in conflict resolution, anger management, problem solving, and violence prevention have met with some success. In a more recent analysis of the Study Group’s data, it was noted that “Even modestly successful prevention and intervention programs could yield significant benefits, including reducing the overall level of crime in a community, decreasing the future expenditure of tax dollars and improving the well-being of families, children and youth in a community.”¹¹⁷

In February 1999, the Toronto Police Service, the Child Development Institute Centre (formerly known as EarlsCourt Child and Family Centre), and thirteen other stakeholder organisations signed a protocol for dealing with children under 12 years of age in conflict with the law. The Protocol created a co-ordinated process, including all service providers, to quickly and effectively direct these children, and their families, to appropriate services within their communities.

Arrest Rates:

Changes in number of persons arrested can, at times, be due to increases or decreases in the population. In order to control for this effect, rates are calculated for comparison per 1,000 population. The arrest rates for young persons and adults are presented in Table 3.4. More detailed statistics on young persons and adults arrested, broken down by gender and major offence category, are shown in Appendix A at the end of this chapter.

¹¹⁶ Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, **OJJDP Research 2000 – Research on Very Young Offenders** (www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org).

¹¹⁷ Snyder, H., Espiritu, R., Huizinga, D., Loeber R. and Petechk, D. *Prevalence and Development of Child Delinquency*. **Child Delinquency Bulletin Series**, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, March 2003, p. 7.



Table 3.4
Number of Persons Arrested Per 1,000 Population

Youth	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traffic	Tot CC*	Drug
2000	17.6	21.5	17.1	0.3	56.2	4.8
2001	16.4	21.5	17.2	0.4	55.5	4.2
2002	15.1	21.9	16.4	0.4	53.8	4.4
2003	15.2	25.5	17.2	0.4	58.3	2.5
2004	13.0	20.2	15.9	0.3	49.3	3.5
Adult						
2000	8.2	7.3	8.4	1.4	23.9	2.8
2001	8.6	7.4	8.6	1.7	26.3	2.6
2002	8.2	8.2	8.8	1.5	26.7	2.8
2003	7.5	8.5	8.7	1.4	26.2	2.0
2004	7.1	8.6	9.1	1.4	26.1	2.6
% Change: Youth						
2003-2004	-14.3%	-20.8%	-7.9%	-29.2%	-15.3%	40.7%
2000-2004	-26.0%	-6.1%	-7.3%	2.3%	-12.2%	-26.9%
% Change: Adult						
2003-2004	-6.3%	1.2%	4.6%	-4.4%	-0.1%	28.9%
2000-2004	-13.9%	16.6%	8.7%	-2.3%	9.1%	-6.1%

* Based on the sum of the major offence categories.

Source: TPS Database

In 2004, an average of 49.3 of every 1,000 young persons was arrested for Criminal Code offences, almost double the adult arrest rate (26.1).¹¹⁸ However, the overall arrest rate for youths in 2004 was the lowest seen in the past five years, representing a 15.3% decrease from 2003, and a 12.2% decrease from 2000. The decrease in the youth arrest rate reflects decreases in all major offence categories. On the other hand, the overall arrest rate for adults increased 9.1% over the past five years.

Table 3.5 shows the arrest rates per 1,000 population for youths for the past five years, broken down by offence categories and gender. As shown, male youths had a much higher arrest rate than female youths across all major offence categories. In 2004, the arrest rate for male youths was about 3 times the rate for female youths for overall crime; however, the male youth arrest rate for property crime was only twice that for female youths.

¹¹⁸ Arrest rate shown reflects Total Criminal Code based on the sum of the major crime categories. Please refer to Footnote 21. Based on the total number of persons arrested (no duplication by major offence category) the arrest rate is 39.8 and 20.9 for youths and adults, respectively; the youth arrest rate is, again, almost double that of the adult arrest rate.



**Table 3.5
Youth Arrest Rate - Number of Youths Arrested Per 1,000 Population**

	Sex	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traffic	Total CC*	Drug
2000	Male	26.5	30.1	27.5	0.6	84.1	8.3
	Female	8.1	12.3	6.1	0.1	26.5	1.1
	Total	17.6	21.5	17.1	0.3	56.2	4.8
2001	Male	24.5	29.2	27.5	0.7	81.9	7.3
	Female	7.8	13.3	6.2	0.1	27.3	1.0
	Total	16.4	21.5	17.2	0.4	55.5	4.2
2002	Male	22.5	29.5	26.6	0.7	79.3	7.8
	Female	7.1	13.9	5.5	0.0	26.5	0.9
	Total	15.1	21.9	16.4	0.4	53.8	4.4
2003	Male	23.5	33.6	28.6	0.8	86.4	4.3
	Female	6.3	16.9	5.1	0.1	28.4	0.6
	Total	15.2	25.5	17.2	0.4	58.3	2.5
2004	Male	19.9	26.5	26.3	0.5	73.2	6.2
	Female	5.7	13.5	4.8	0.1	24.1	0.7
	Total	13.0	20.2	15.9	0.3	49.3	3.5
Change (%)							
2003-2004	Male	-15.3%	-21.1%	-8.1%	-30.5%	-15.3%	45.2%
	Female	-9.9%	-20.0%	-6.1%	-16.4%	-15.2%	11.0%
	Total	-14.3%	-20.8%	-7.9%	-29.2%	-15.3%	40.7%
Change (%)							
2000-2004	Male	-24.9%	-12.1%	-4.4%	-3.4%	-13.0%	-25.8%
	Female	-29.2%	9.7%	-20.9%	8.9%	-9.0%	-34.2%
	Total	-26.0%	-6.1%	-7.3%	-2.3%	-12.2%	-26.9%

* Based on the sum of the major offence categories.
Source: TPS Database

As shown in Table 3.5, changes in the arrest rate differed between male and female youths. Compared to 2003, in 2004, both male and female youths generally showed decreases in the arrest rates in all major offence categories, however, decreases for female youths were somewhat less than that for male youths.

Over the past five years, the female youth arrest rate for overall crimes decreased 9.0%, and male youths decreased 13.0%. The arrest rate for female youths for property crimes increased 9.7%, while that for male youths decreased by 12.1%. The arrest rate for violent crime decreased 24.9% and 29.2% for male and female youths, respectively.

E. CRIMES OCCURRING ON SCHOOL PREMISES

Children and youths spend a significant number of their waking hours in and around school premises. There is little doubt that crimes, and violent crimes in particular, occurring on school premises, create an unsafe environment, and may have a serious negative impact on learning and other school activities. An enormous effort, by the community, the school boards,



and the police, has been devoted to make schools safer. Yet, Statistics Canada reported that, in 2003, 17% of all types of police-reported assaults against children and youth occurred on school premises, the majority (70%) of which were physical assaults.¹¹⁹

Table 3.6 shows a breakdown of the various crimes occurring on school premises in Toronto over the past ten years.¹²⁰ Theft and common assaults were consistently the most common offences noted.

Table 3.6
Crimes Occurring on School Premises

	1995	2000	2003	2004	% Change		
					03-04	00-04	95-04
Assault	1,256	1,320	1,134	992	-12.5	-24.8	-21.0
Sexual assault	118	209	110	113	2.7	-45.9	-4.2
Robbery	186	191	230	207	-10.0	8.4	11.3
Harassment/Utter Threats	362	677	442	400	-9.5	-40.9	10.5
Weapons offences	215	250	221	206	-6.8	-17.6	-4.2
B&E	559	283	330	315	-4.5	11.3	-43.6
Mischief	728	340	358	350	-2.2	2.9	-51.9
Theft	1,624	825	604	888	47.0	7.6	-45.3
Other CC	498	580	561	533	-5.0	-8.1	7.0
Total	5,546	4,675	3,990	4,004	0.4	-14.4	-27.8

Source: TPS Database

In 2004, compared to 2003, while decreases were noted for most types of crimes occurring on school premises, a large increase in thefts (47.0%) resulted in a 0.4% overall increase. Over the past five years, overall crime decreased 14.4%, with substantial decreases in assaults, sexual assaults, harassment/uttering threats, and weapons offences. Between 1995 and 2004, total crime on school premises decreased 27.8%, with large decreases in thefts (45.3%), break & enters (43.6%), mischief (51.9%), and assaults (21.0%); on the other hand, robberies increased 11.3%.

It should be noted that caution must be exercised in interpreting the level of violent crime reported to have occurred on school premises. The zero tolerance policy, a heightened sensitivity against violence, and the legislated Code of Conduct adopted by the School Boards may have resulted in more incidents being reported to police, thus giving a 'distorted' picture about the prevalence of the problem. For example, the increase in incidents of uttering threats is likely a reporting phenomenon. Given recent experience and Board policies, school

¹¹⁹ AuCoin, K. *Children and Youth as Victims of Violent Crime*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 25(1), April 2005.

¹²⁰ Data on crimes occurring on school premises may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to updates to the Service's database. At present, the Service's live database does not have a cut-off day for data entry; it allows as many updates as required to keep the database current. Crime that occurred in an earlier year but was detected/reported later is an example of the possible reasons necessitating an update and thus revision of statistics reported previously. Statistics on such crimes reported in previous Environmental Scans have been revised, where necessary, to facilitate comparison and trend analysis.



administrators must take threats, particularly threats of violence, very seriously. Further, based on studies detailing the potentially serious consequences of schoolyard bullying, even the mildest threats are likely seriously considered. Efforts on the part of schools, parents, and police to encourage students to report crimes, particularly violent crimes, may also be a factor in affecting the reporting of violent crimes occurring on school premises.

A 2003 study by the Centre of Addiction and Mental Health, based on self reporting by students in Ontario, revealed the following findings:¹²¹

- about one in eight (12%) students assaulted someone at least once during the past year;
- one in ten (10%) reported carrying a weapon;
- 6% reported gang fighting;
- 18% of students reported fighting on school property at least once during the past year;
- 8% were threatened or injured with a weapon on school property at least once during the past year;
- one-third (33%) of students had been bullied at school; and,
- three in ten students (30%) reported taking part in bullying other students at school.

Based on police statistics of crimes occurring on school premises and self-reported violent behaviour among the students, it appears that despite the decrease in recorded crimes on school premises, making the school a safe and drug-free environment, conducive to positive learning, remains a goal to strive for.

Bullying:

In recent surveys, discussed in greater detail in the Public Perceptions chapter, 85% of secondary school administrators and 73% of elementary school administrators in Toronto reported that they were ‘very concerned’ or ‘somewhat concerned’ about bullying in their schools. Just over half (53%) of high school students surveyed also said they were very or somewhat concerned about bullying. Studies would suggest that this concern is not unfounded.

Bullying is a form of violence among children, often occurring in the presence of or in front of adults who fail to intercede.¹²² Bullying includes a number of negative acts – physical, verbal, and psychological – which are repeated by a child or a group over time. A survey by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) found that males tended to bully and be bullied more frequently than females, that physical bullying was more common to males, and that verbal bullying was more common to females. Bullying tended to begin in the elementary grades, peaking between grades six and eight, and continued into high school.

The NICHD study reported that bullying had both long- and short-term psychological effects on both those who bully and those who are bullied. Victims may experience difficulty in socialisation and may develop mental health disorders that can follow them through adulthood.

¹²¹ *Highlights of the 2003 OSDUS (Ontario Student Drug Use Survey) Mental Health and Well-Being Report*, in **CAMH Population Studies eBulletin**, May/June 2004, 5(3), Centre for Addiction and Mental Health website (www.camh.net/pdf/ebulletinv5n3_0504.pdf).

¹²² Ericson, N. *Addressing the Problem of Juvenile Bullying*. **OJJDP Fact Sheet**, June 2001, #27.



Bullying behaviour has been linked to other antisocial behaviour and may be a precursor to criminal behaviour and substance abuse.

Reported in the United States as a possible contributing factor to shootings on school premises and student suicides, bullying is no longer perceived as an inevitable part of growing up. Programs to specifically address bullying are being implemented globally. A co-ordinated effort by all members of the school community – students, teachers, administrators, parents, etc. – to raise awareness of the effects of bullying and reduce the opportunities and rewards of bullying, is the key to successfully eliminating, or at least reducing, school yard bullies.

As a final note, both the Toronto District School Board and the Toronto Catholic School Board have reported an increase in bullying of a different kind – parents bullying teachers and school administrators. A recent newspaper article cited the growing incidences of verbal and physical bullying of teachers, and likened it to behaviour displayed by parents at their children’s hockey games.¹²³ Ironically, parental bullying of teachers and administrators is often evident when their child is bullied or is disciplined for bullying another child.

F. DRUG USE BY YOUTHS

Given that drug arrests are largely determined by the level of police enforcement, drug arrest statistics alone are not a sufficient indicator to reflect the extent of the drug problem. As an indicator of drug use among youths, police statistics on youths arrested for drug offences should be supplemented by other statistics, such as survey findings on drug use among youths.

Figure 3.4 shows the number of youths, total and by gender, arrested for drug offences over the past five years. A total of 665 youths were arrested for drug-related offences in 2004, compared to 462 youths in 2003 and 828 youths in 2000.

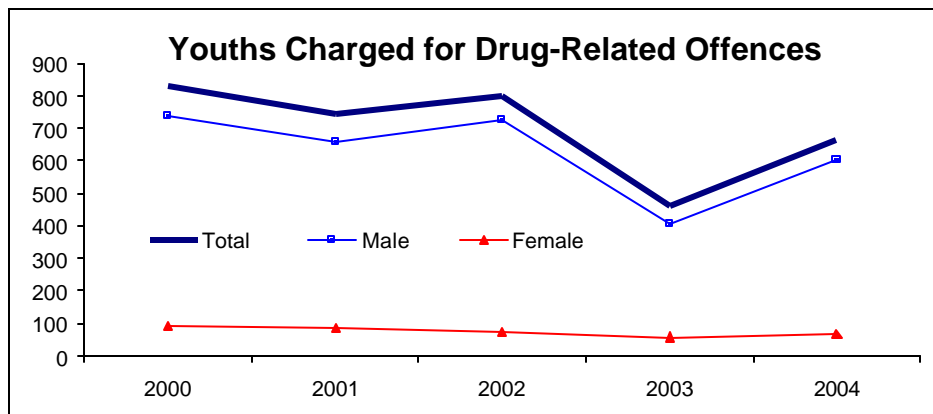


Figure 3.4

Source: TPS Database

The number of youths arrested for drug offences in 2004 was a large increase from those arrested in 2003, but remained well below the levels reported in 2000 through 2002. The 43.9% increase in 2004 from 2003 was echoed by a similar but smaller 30.3% increase for adults. Females constituted about 9.9% of the youths arrested for drug offences in 2004; this proportion

¹²³ *Raging Parents: The new schoolyard bullies*, in The Toronto Star.



has been relatively consistent over the past five years. The youth arrest rate for drug offences was 3.5 in 2004, compared to 2.5 in 2003 and 4.8 in 2000.

Findings from the Centre for Addiction and Mental Health's Ontario Student Drug Use Survey (OSDUS) indicated that the changes in student drug use over the short-term have generally been decreases in use.¹²⁴ An escalating trend in drug use that began in the early 1990s, has generally subsided.¹²⁵ It was also revealed that 32.2% of the students surveyed in 2003 had used some illicit drug, compared to 33.5% in 2001 and 33.6% in 1999, which indicated that drug use among students was relatively unchanged over the few years previous. Cannabis was reportedly the illicit drug most available to students, while cocaine, ecstasy, and LSD were less available. However, the use of cocaine was reported to have increased – from 3.4% in 1999 to 4.8% in 2003. About half (53%) of students believed that drug use in their school was higher today than a few years ago and about one-third reported exposure to drug selling in their neighbourhood in the past year.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- It is essential that commitment to the youth community remains a priority for the Toronto Police Service and is clearly reflected in resource allocation and in the development and application of effective youth service initiatives and programs.
- While it is understood that juvenile delinquency in general and youth crime in specific have a complicated network of root causes embedded in the family and other social institutions, it is also clear that no one agency alone can effectively deal with the problem. The need for a multi-disciplinary approach requires the police, schools, other government departments, and community agencies to work in partnership, each delivering service in their area of specialisation that matches the needs of specific young offenders at different stages of delinquency. It is essential that the infrastructure for such partnerships be maintained.
- The Youth Referral Program funded by the Justice Department provided much flexibility in terms of alternatives other than court proceedings to address the different needs of specific young offenders before the laying of charges by the police. With the expiration of the funding at the end of 2003, the Referral Program ceased. It is essential that resources are sought and allocated to maintain this pre-charge diversion program to benefit young offenders appropriate for such mode of intervention.
- A clear understanding of the nature and extent of youth crime, youth violence, and youth gangs is essential for the development of effective initiatives to address such issues. It is important that resources continue to be deployed to enable the development and maintenance of an information system that allows detailed analysis of police arrest and related data for

¹²⁴ *Highlights from the 2003 Ontario Student Drug Use Survey Drug Report*, in **CAMH Population Studies eBulletin**, November/December 2003, No. 23, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health website (www.camh.net/pdf/eb023_2003OSDUSDrugHighlights.pdf).

¹²⁵ **The 2003 OSDUS Drug Report Executive Summary**, Centre for Addiction and Mental Health website (www.camh.net/pdf/osdus2003_execsummary.pdf).



understanding the nature of youth crime. There is a need for analysis that will consistently and reliably answer basic questions about youth crime – who the young offenders are, who they victimised, the circumstances under which the crime occurred, and common factors among young offenders in connection with their delinquency.

- There is an identified need to encourage the reporting of youth violence and, in particular, gang-related violence. The Toronto Police Service must continue to encourage and expand anonymous, low-risk reporting mechanisms across the city.
- Police must continue to address the behaviour of repeat and persistent offenders through programs such as the Serious Teen Offender Program (STOP). This program, by monitoring the activities of youth at high risk of re-offending and providing comprehensive case information to assist in developing intervention and supervision activities, helps to prevent high-risk youth from ‘falling through the cracks’.
- There is the need to collect and maintain data to enable evaluation of the Service’s youth initiatives and specific programs, such as diversion, with regard to their effectiveness in addressing crime and recidivism.
- The police must undertake, in conjunction with other stakeholders, a comprehensive communication program aimed at educating the community about youth issues – the positive contribution of youth to our community, the challenges youth face, the community’s responsibility to youth and, in particular, the relatively few youths that are involved in crime and even fewer youths that are involved in violent crime. The community’s perception of youth must be changed to more closely reflect the majority of youths rather than the minority of youths who are responsible for youth crime.



Appendix

Number and Rate (per 1,000 population) of Persons Arrested - by Age and Offence

Age Grp	Gender	Proj. Pop.	Number Persons Arrested					Persons Arrested/1000 pop				
			Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC*	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC*
2004												
12-17	Male	97,102	1,932	2,570	2,551	52	7,105	19.9	26.5	26.3	0.5	73.2
	Female	91,694	523	1,237	442	6	2,208	5.7	13.5	4.8	0.1	24.1
	Total+	188,795	2,455	3,807	2,993	58	9,313	13.0	20.2	15.9	0.3	49.3
18&+	Male	951,092	12,359	12,878	15,692	2,525	43,454	13.0	13.5	16.5	2.7	45.7
	Female	1,084,161	1,984	4,555	2,889	238	9,666	1.8	4.2	2.7	0.2	8.9
	Total+	2,035,253	14,350	17,439	18,600	2,765	53,154	7.1	8.6	9.1	1.4	26.1
2003												
12-17	Male	94,803	2,227	3,182	2,710	73	8,192	23.5	33.6	28.6	0.8	86.4
	Female	89,442	566	1,509	459	7	2,541	6.3	16.9	5.1	0.1	28.4
	Total+	184,245	2,794	4,692	3,170	80	10,736	15.2	25.5	17.2	0.4	58.3
18&+	Male	942,249	13,003	12,707	14,720	2,603	43,033	13.8	13.5	15.6	2.8	45.7
	Female	1,071,465	2,149	4,342	2,859	260	9,610	2.0	4.1	2.7	0.2	9.0
	Total+	2,013,714	15,156	17,057	17,589	2,863	52,665	7.5	8.5	8.7	1.4	26.2
2002												
12-17	Male	92,560	2,086	2,730	2,463	64	7,343	22.5	29.5	26.6	0.7	79.3
	Female	87,246	619	1,213	481	3	2,316	7.1	13.9	5.5	0.0	26.5
	Total+	179,806	2,708	3,945	2,945	67	9,665	15.1	21.9	16.4	0.4	53.8
18&+	Male	933,718	13,830	12,159	14,406	2,807	43,202	14.8	13.0	15.4	3.0	46.3
	Female	1,059,119	2,556	4,160	3,033	278	10,027	2.4	3.9	2.9	0.3	9.5
	Total+	1,992,837	16,404	16,331	17,456	3,085	53,276	8.2	8.2	8.8	1.5	26.7
2001												
12-17	Male	90,370	2,215	2,639	2,485	66	7,405	24.5	29.2	27.5	0.7	81.9
	Female	85,105	661	1,129	530	6	2,326	7.8	13.3	6.2	0.1	27.3
	Total+	175,475	2,877	3,769	3,016	72	9,734	16.4	21.5	17.2	0.4	55.5
18&+	Male	925,490	14,263	10,864	13,965	3,051	42,143	15.4	11.7	15.1	3.3	45.5
	Female	1,047,110	2,639	3,770	2,915	284	9,608	2.5	3.6	2.8	0.3	9.2
	Total+	1,972,600	16,914	14,646	16,891	3,336	51,787	8.6	7.4	8.6	1.7	26.3
2000												
12-17	Male	88,408	2,343	2,661	2,429	49	7,433	26.5	30.1	27.5	0.6	84.1
	Female	83,242	671	1,024	507	5	2,202	8.1	12.3	6.1	0.1	26.5
	Total+	171,650	3,017	3,688	2,937	54	9,642	17.6	21.5	17.1	0.3	56.2
18&+	Male	917,127	13,652	10,667	13,401	2,502	37,720	14.9	11.6	14.6	2.7	41.1
	Female	1,035,327	2,319	3,672	2,998	214	8,989	2.2	3.5	2.9	0.2	8.7
	Total+	1,952,454	15,983	14,349	16,414	2,716	46,746	8.2	7.3	8.4	1.4	23.9

* Based on the sum of the major offence categories.

+The sum of male and female would not add up to the total because gender was not specified in a small number of cases.

Source: TPS Arrest database



**Persons Arrested by Age and Offence
% Change in Number and Rate (per 1,000 population)**

**One Year
2003-2004 Change (%)**

Age Grp	Gender	Proj. Pop.	Number Persons Arrested					Persons Arrested/1000 pop				
			Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC*
12-17	Male	2.4	-13.2	-19.2	-5.9	-28.8	-13.3	-15.3	-21.1	-8.1	-30.5	-15.3
	Female	2.5	-7.6	-18.0	-3.7	-14.3	-13.1	-9.9	-20.0	-6.1	-16.4	-15.2
	Total	2.5	-12.1	-18.9	-5.6	-27.5	-13.3	-14.3	-20.8	-7.9	-29.2	-15.3
18&+	Male	0.9	-5.0	1.3	6.6	-3.0	1.0	-5.8	0.4	5.6	-3.9	0.0
	Female	1.2	-7.7	4.9	1.0	-8.5	0.6	-8.8	3.7	-0.1	-9.5	-0.6
	Total	1.1	-5.3	2.2	5.7	-3.4	0.9	-6.3	1.2	4.6	-4.4	-0.1

**Five Year
2000-2004 Change (%)**

Age Grp	Gender	Proj. Pop.	Number Persons Arrested					Persons Arrested/1000 pop				
			Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC*	Viol	Prop	OCC	Traf	Tot CC*
12-17	Male	9.8%	-17.5%	-3.4%	5.0%	6.1%	-4.4%	-24.9%	-12.1%	-4.4%	-3.4%	-13.0%
	Female	10.2%	-22.1%	20.8%	-12.8%	20.0	0.3%	-29.2%	9.7%	-20.9%	8.9%	-9.0%
	Total	10.0%	-18.6%	3.2%	1.9%	7.4%	-3.4%	-26.0%	-6.1%	-7.3%	-2.3%	-12.2%
18&+	Male	3.7%	-9.5%	20.7%	17.1%	0.9%	15.2%	-12.7%	16.4%	12.9%	-2.7%	11.1%
	Female	4.7%	-14.4%	24.0%	-3.6%	11.2	7.5%	-18.3%	18.5%	-8.0%	6.2	2.7%
	Total	4.2%	-10.2%	21.5%	13.3%	1.8%	13.7%	-13.9%	16.6%	8.7%	-2.3%	9.1%

* Based on the sum of the major offence categories.

Source: TPS Arrest database





IV. VICTIMISATION

Understanding of trends in victimisation is important to effective proactive policing. Examining issues such as risk and vulnerability to crime can aid in understanding victimisation trends, reducing crime, and easing the fear of crime. Patterns of victimisation have implications for the protection of and services provided to victims, for the allocation of police resources, and for the success of initiatives directed at reducing crime.

HIGHLIGHTS

- According to the 1999 General Social Survey (GSS) conducted by Statistics Canada, 25% of Canadians 15 years of age and older living in the 10 provinces said they were the victims of at least one crime in the previous year. This was up slightly from 23% in the 1993 GSS.
- A survey of Toronto residents conducted for the Toronto Police in 2004 found that only 3% of respondents said that they had been the victim of a crime in Toronto in the past year and had not reported it to police, lower than the 7% found in 2003.
- Toronto Police Service data indicate that the number of victims of selected violent crimes decreased 4.2% from 2003 to 2004, from 34,040 to 32,622 victims and decreased 4.6% from 1995 when there were 34,211 victims.¹²⁶ When changes in population were controlled by examining the rate of victimisation, it was found that overall victimisation by these violent crimes decreased 12.9% from 1995 to 2004, from 14.0 victims per 1,000 population in 1995 to 12.2 per 1,000 in 2004. Between 2003 and 2004, the rate of victimisation decreased 5.4%.
- In each of the ten years between 1995 and 2004, the rate of victimisation for women was lower than the rate for men. Between 1995 and 2004, the rate of victimisation for women decreased 17.9%, from 13.4 per 1,000 women to 11.0, and decreased 5.2% between 2003 (11.6) and 2004. The rate of victimisation for men in 2004 was 13.4 per 1,000 men, which represented a decrease of 13.0% from 1995 (15.4 per 1,000 men), and a decrease of 6.9% from 2003 (14.4).
- Consistent with previous years, in 2004, men were more likely than women to be victims of assault and robbery while women were at a higher risk than men to be victims of sexual assault. For both men and women in all years analysed, victims of assault accounted for the greatest proportion of victims of the selected crimes of violence, followed by victims of robbery, sexual assault, and homicide.
- In 2004, when the difference in the size of the population at each age was taken into account, those 18-24 years of age were found most likely to be victimised (25.7 per 1,000), followed closely by 12-17 year olds (24.6 per 1,000).

¹²⁶ This chapter focuses on victimisation related to selected crimes of violence only – homicide, sexual assault (including sexual offences), assault, and robbery.



- Those under 12 years of age and those 65 years of age and older consistently had the lowest victimisation rates. For all age groups, victimisation rates were lower in 2004 than in 1995, with 25-34 year olds and 65+ year olds showing the largest decrease (21.7%). The violent victimisation rates for all age groups, except those under 12 years old, decreased between 2003 and 2004.
- In April 2005, Statistics Canada reported that children and youth under 18 years old were victims of 22% of violent crime against a person. Physical assaults at 58% represented the majority of crime against children and youth, followed by other violent or threatening offences (23%) and sexual assaults (19%).
- Seniors continue to be less likely victims of crime than younger age groups. According to the 1999 GSS, seniors were 21 times less likely to be victims of violent crimes (sexual assault, assault, robbery) than the 15-24 age group. Senior victims were more likely to be victimised by strangers (39% versus 31%) and by other immediate family members (17% versus 8%) than younger groups.
- Children and youth witnessing family violence and its link to negative emotional and behavioural functioning has gathered increased attention as studies continue to analyse its consequences. The 1999 GSS found that children heard or witnessed a parent's assault of their partner in 37% of all households where domestic violence took place.
- The number of calls for domestic events attended by officers in 2004 decreased 7.8% from 2003, and 23.0% from 1996. The number of domestic assaults attended in 2004 also decreased, 15.6% from 2003 and 41.6% from 1996.
- The average time spent on a domestic call in 2004 increased 4.8% from 2003 and 78.9% from 1996. Similarly, the time spent on a domestic assault call in 2004 increased 3.7% from 2003 and 82.2% from 1996.
- Reported hate crimes increased 9.4% in 2004 over 2003, but decreased 46% from 1995.

A. VICTIMISATION IN CANADA

A number of industrialised countries including Canada have participated in four International Crime Victimization surveys since 1989. The surveys involved a sample of approximately 2,000 people in each country and were also conducted in 1992, 1996, and most recently in 2000.¹²⁷ The ICVS was created to provide an alternative to police information on levels of crime, to produce crime survey methodology for comparative purposes and to provide information on who is most affected by crime. According to an analysis of the 13 industrialised countries involved in 2000, on average, 22% of the population 16 years of age and older were victims of at least one of the 11 crimes that were surveyed. When compared with previous years,

¹²⁷ van Kesteren, J.N., Mayhew, P., and Nieuwebeerta, P. **Criminal Victimization in Seventeen Industrialised Countries: Key-findings from the 2000 International Crime Victims Survey.** The Hague, Ministry of Justice, WODC, 2000 (www.unicri.it).



Canada showed a downward trend in the victimisation rate: in the 1989 and 1992 surveys, the prevalence rate was approximately 28%, dropping to a 24-27% rate in 1996 and most recently to approximately 24%, slightly higher than the overall average in 2000.

In 2000, the ICVS measured the victimisation rate of robbery, assaults, and sexual assaults. It found that Canada, at 3%, was among a group of countries, including England and Australia, with higher victimisation rates for these particular offences, compared to the United States (US), which was under 2%, or to Japan with a low rate of 0.4%.¹²⁸

According to the 1999 General Social Survey (GSS) conducted by Statistics Canada, 25% of Canadians 15 years of age and older living in the 10 provinces said they were the victims of at least one crime in the previous year.¹²⁹ This was up slightly from 23% in the 1993 GSS. The GSS found only a minimal change in the overall victimisation rates for men and women. The exceptions were sexual assault, in which women were found to be more at risk, and assault and robbery, in which men were more likely to be victims. The GSS also found that the risk of personal victimisation decreased as people aged, and that those with low household income (under \$15,000) were at greater risk for violent victimisation.

The 1999 GSS found that in Canada, in incidents involving one offender, the victim did not know the offender in 51% of robberies, 26% of assaults, and 25% of sexual assaults. A 2003 analysis by Statistics Canada of homicides found that most victims of homicide were male; in 2003, 72% of victims of homicide in Canada were male.¹³⁰ Male victimisation peaked at ages 18-24 years in contrast to female victimisation, which peaked at 25-29 years of age. After the age of 30 years, victimisation rates for both genders generally declined. The age differences for men and women relating to victimisation reflected differences in the homicide victim's relationship to the offender. Females were victimised by current or ex-intimate partners at a higher rate than male victims, who were more likely to be victimised by non-intimate acquaintances.

In the US, according to the US Department of Justice, in 2003, persons aged 12-24 years sustained violent victimisation at rates higher than any other age category.¹³¹ Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) Uniform Crime reports show that in 2002, 90% of US homicide victims were over 18 years old, with 45% being between 20-34 years old. Rates decreased as age rose.

The Statistics Canada analysis also found that, nationally, 52% of all adult (18 years or older) homicide victims in 2003 had a Canadian criminal record; 51% of these victims had prior convictions for violent offences.¹³² Of the 26 youth victims of homicide in 2003, 15% (4) had a previous criminal history. The number of victims of gang-related homicide in Canada has generally increased over the past 10 years. In 2003, there were 84 victims of gang-related homicide, which was a 300% increase from 1995 when there were 21 such victims and a 17% increase from the 72 in 2000.

¹²⁸ van Kesteren, Mayhew, and Nieuwbeerta, 2000 (www.unicri.it).

¹²⁹ Besserer, S. and Trainor, C. *Criminal Victimisation in Canada, 1999*. **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 20(10), November 2000.

¹³⁰ Dauvergne, M. *Homicide in Canada, 2003*. **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 24(8), September 2004.

¹³¹ US Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics website (www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/cvic_v.htm).

¹³² Dauvergne, 2004.



B. REPORTING VICTIMISATION TO THE POLICE

According to an analysis of the 13 of industrialised countries involved in the ICVS survey in 2000, on average, approximately 55% of incidents of crime were reported to the police, with Canada showing one of the lowest rates at 49%. Overall, car thefts were most likely to be reported (91%), while sexual assaults were the least (16%). Canada's 49% reporting rate reflected a decrease of 6% from the 55% rate found in 1996.¹³³

Similar results were found in the 1999 GSS data. In 1999, reporting for 8 crime categories declined 5%, from 42% in 1993 to 37% in 1999. The most common reasons given in the GSS for not reporting offences were 'incident not important enough' and 'police couldn't do anything'.

The results of the 2003 National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) in the US support the trend that certain offences are more likely to be reported than others. The study found that 39% of violent, personal, and property crime was reported to the police in 2000.¹³⁴ This survey found that violent crimes were more likely to be reported than property crimes, violence against women or older persons was more likely to be reported than violence against men or younger persons, and violent crime was more likely to be reported if it was believed the offender was under the influence of drugs/alcohol, if the offender was armed, if the victim was injured, or if the violent crime was committed by a stranger. Robbery was less likely to be reported if the victim thought the offender was a gang member.

A survey of Toronto residents conducted for the Toronto Police in 2004 found that only 3% of respondents said that they had been the victim of a crime in Toronto in the past year and had not reported it to police. This was an improvement from the 7% in 2003 who said they'd been the victim of a crime but not reported it. The crimes most frequently involved in 2004 were damage to car/vehicle, bicycle theft, or robbery. The crimes most frequently involved in 2003 were other property stolen (i.e. not car/vehicle or bicycle), damage to car/vehicle, harassment/stalking, or robbery. In both years, the most common reason for not reporting the crime was: 'not serious enough/minor incident'.

C. VICTIMISATION – TOTAL AND BY GENDER¹³⁵

Toronto Police Service data indicate that the number of victims of selected violent crimes decreased 4.2% from 2003 to 2004, from 34,040 to 32,622 victims, and decreased 4.6% from 1995 when there were 34,211 victims.¹³⁶

Over the ten year period from 1995 to 2004, the number of men who were victims of the selected crimes of violence decreased 5.7%, while the number of women who were victims

¹³³ van Kesteren, Mayhew, and Nieuwbeerta, 2000 (www.unicri.it).

¹³⁴ Hart, T.C. and Rennison, C. **Reporting Crime to Police, 1992-2000**. Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report, US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, March 2003.

¹³⁵ Victim data may differ from that shown in previous Scans due to updates to the Service's database. At present, the Service's live database does not have a cut-off day for data entry; it allows as many updates as required to keep the database current. Crime/victimisation that occurred in an earlier year but was detected/reported later is an example of the possible reasons necessitating an update and thus revision of statistics reported previously.

¹³⁶ This chapter focuses on victimisation related to selected crimes of violence only – homicide, sexual assault (including sexual offences), assault, and robbery.



decreased 8.7%. From 2003 to 2004, the number of reported victimisations for these crimes decreased for both men (6.1%) and women (3.6%).

For the past ten years, men have been victims of the selected crimes of violence more often than women. And, except for a slight variance in 2004, the proportion of women in the total number of victims decreased, while the proportion of men increased. In 2004, 47.6% of victims were women, up from 47.0% in 2003 but down from 48.4% in 1995. In contrast, in 2004, 52.4% of victims were men, down from 53.0% in 2003 but up from 51.6% in 1995.

When changes in population were controlled by examining the rate of victimisation, it was found that overall victimisation by these violent crimes decreased 12.9% from 1995 to 2004, from 14.0 victims per 1,000 population in 1995 to 12.2 per 1,000 in 2004. Between 2003 and 2004, the rate of victimisation decreased 5.4%.

In each of the ten years between 1995 and 2004, the rate of victimisation for women was lower than the rate for men (Figure 4.1). The rate of victimisation for both men and women decreased between 2003 and 2004, and remained lower than in 1995. Between 1995 and 2004, the rate decreased 17.9%, from 13.4 per 1,000 women to 11.0, and decreased 5.2% between 2003 (11.6) and 2004. The rate of victimisation for men in 2004 was 13.4 per 1,000 men, which represented a 13.0% decrease from 1995 (15.4 per 1,000 men), and a 6.9% decrease from 2003 (14.4).

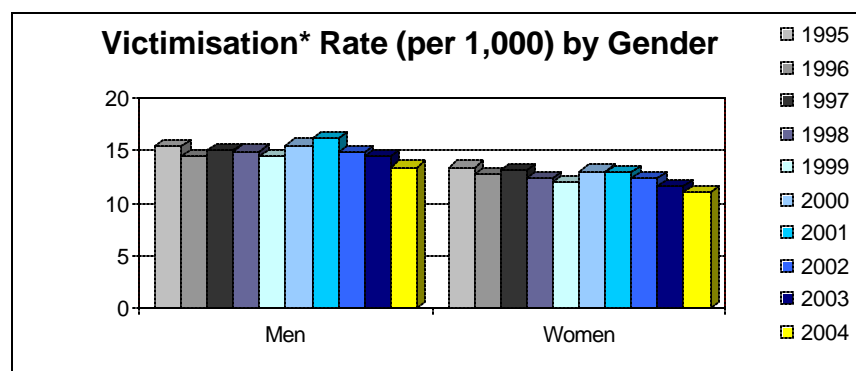


Figure 4.1

Source: TPS Database

* Victims of assault, sexual assault (including sexual offences), robbery, and homicide

In November 2004, the US National Institute of Justice published a report summarising the results of two studies aimed at identifying risk factors related to violence against women. The first study, which was longitudinal, examined the responses of a sample of college students in the early 1990s for a period of 5 years. The second study involved secondary analysis of data from 1990-1997 to explore a relationship between child abuse and risk of victimisation.

The first study found that witnessing domestic violence or being sexually or physically abused both as a child and an adolescent (under age 14) were strong predictors of violent victimisation in the future.^{137,138} Women who were victims of both physical and sexual abuse in their younger years were more likely to become victims of sexual or physical abuse in high

¹³⁷ The effects of witnessing domestic violence are discussed further in the 'Domestic Violence' section of this chapter.

¹³⁸ National Institute of Justice. **Violence Against Women: Identifying Risk Factors**, US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, November 2004.



school. Women who were victimised in high school were found to be at a much higher risk for victimisation later in college. Women who were both physically and sexually abused during high school were most likely to be abused in college, followed by those who were abused sexually but not physically. Physically abused women in general were more likely to be sexually abused in college than those who had never been abused. After controlling for victimisation in high school, the study found that those who had been abused or witnessed domestic violence only in childhood were not at greater risk of victimisation in college.

The second study found similar results. It found that women who had been sexually abused as children and adolescents were at an increased risk for victimisation in adulthood. Sexual abuse in childhood alone was not a predictor of higher risk of victimisation; only women who were abused as children and adolescents were found to be at a greater risk of victimisation. Three-quarters of the women interviewed were sexually assaulted as adults and more than 8 in 10 experienced severe domestic violence. Results from research studies such as these strengthen the idea that early intervention in gender-based violence is important in preventing the continuation of victimisation later in life.

As shown in Figures 4.2 to 4.4, men were more likely in each year to be victims of assault and robbery than women. Women were at a higher risk than men to be victims of sexual assault. Women's rate of victimisation for sexual assault increased in between 2003 and 2004, from 1.7 to 1.8 per 1,000, however, the rate was lower than the 2.0 per 1,000 in 1995. Rates of victimisation for both men and women were lower in 2004 than in 1995 for robbery and assault. Men's rate of victimisation relating to robbery decreased in 2004 compared to 2003, while the rate for women remained the same. For both men and women in all years analysed, victims of assault accounted for the greatest proportion of victims of the selected crimes of violence, followed by victims of robbery, sexual assault, and homicide.

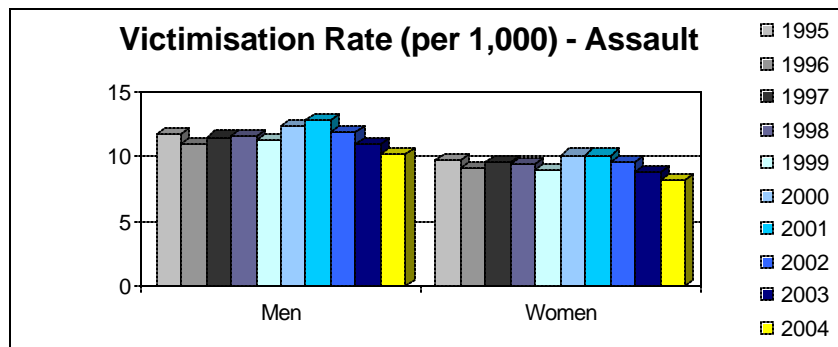


Figure 4.2

Source: TPS Database

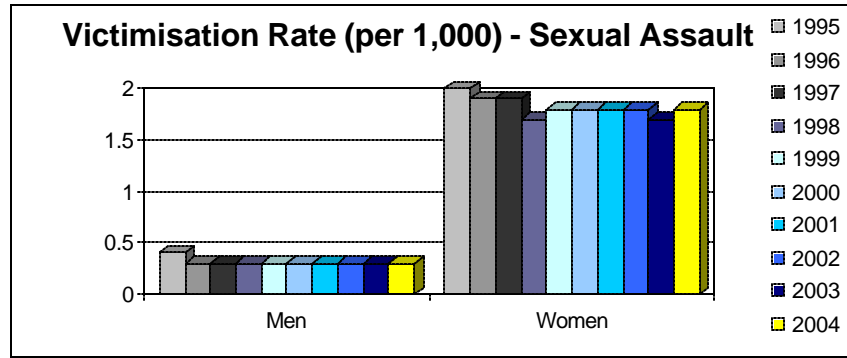


Figure 4.3 Source: TPS Database

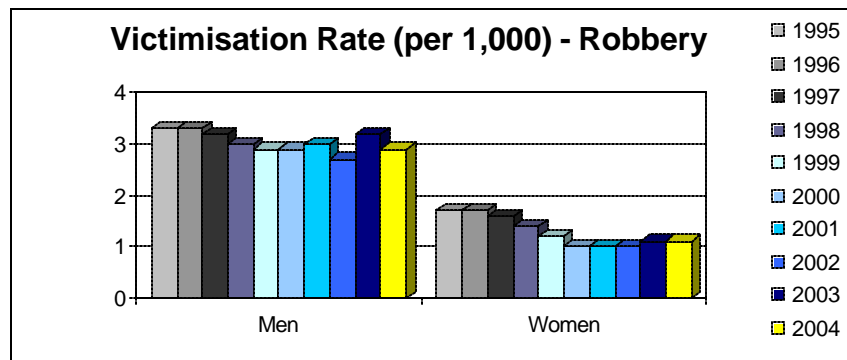


Figure 4.4 Source: TPS Database

Although not shown due to the small numbers involved, men were 2 to 4 times more likely than women each year to be victims of homicide. Over the ten-year period of 1995 to 2004, the homicide rate for men varied between 0.03 and 0.04 per 1,000 men, while the homicide rate for women was 0.01 per 1,000 women in every year except 1995, when it increased to 0.02.

In 2004, the University of Toronto Centre of Criminology published a study on trends in homicide in Toronto. The study looked at trends in homicide related to sex, age, and race. It found that over the last 30 years, the overall risk of homicide was relatively stable, but on the basis of the analysis, it was suggested that Toronto has become more dangerous for some people and less for others.¹³⁹ It was found that since 1974, males have been victims of homicide at a higher rate than females, but the gender gap increased over time: female victimisation declined while male victimisation increased. According to the study, 64% of all victims of homicide in Toronto prior to the 1990s were male, but after 1990, males accounted for 73% of all homicide victims, representing a 9% increase in male victimisation. This trend was found for all of Canada as well, although not as marked.

According to an analysis by the Toronto Police Service in December 2004, in the ten-year period between 1994 and 2003, the trend in homicides in the City was fairly consistent. The rate of homicides per 100,000 population in 2003 was 2.6 compared to 2.7 in 1994. In 2003, 34

¹³⁹ Gartner, R. and Thompson, S. *Trends in Homicide in Toronto*. In **Research on Community Safety**, B. Kidd and J. Phillips (Eds.), Centre of Criminology, University of Toronto, Toronto, 2004.



homicides were identified as gang-related, which represented a dramatic increase from the previous five years when gang-related homicides were consistently below 10. The increase in gang-related homicide victims was largely due to a broader definition supplied by the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics; in previous years, the Service applied the definition included in the Criminal Code. In 2003, the average age of gang-related victims was 25 years old.

Over the ten-year period analysed by the Service, males consistently represented the majority of homicide victims, ranging from a low of 65.3% in 1999 to a high of 80.3% in 2000. Of the 300 homicides committed between 1999 and 2003, less than 1 in 4 victims were female.

Criminal Harassment (Stalking):

Since 1993, when criminal harassment first became an offence in Canada, research into it has contributed to a better understanding of this behaviour. Criminal harassment, or stalking, is generally defined as “repeatedly following or communicating with another person, repeatedly watching someone's house or workplace, or directly threatening another person or any member of their family, causing a person to fear for their safety or the safety of someone known to them.”¹⁴⁰

Most victims of criminal harassment know who is stalking them. According to a Statistics Canada study of 94 police services in 2002, there were 8,750 victims of criminal harassment reported; over 80% of the victims knew their stalkers.¹⁴¹ Females were more likely to be stalked by a partner: 29% by ex-spouses and 22% by other partners. Males were more likely to be criminally harassed by an acquaintance (49%). Females between the ages of 25 to 34 years were most at risk, similar to findings in domestic violence research.

Total stalking incidents reported to the Toronto Police Service increased 75.0% from 1995 to 2004, from 1,313 to 2,298 incidents.¹⁴² The 2004 numbers represent a 45.1% increase from the 1,584 incidents in 2003 (Figure 4.5). Also shown in Figure 4.5, criminal harassment remains a crime that mainly affects women: most victims in each of the past ten years were female although this proportion continued to decrease, declining from 82.6% in 1995 to 74.5% in 2004. Similarly, while both incidents where men were victims of stalkers and incidents where women were victims of stalkers showed an increase over the ten year period, the number of male victims showed larger increase than the number of female victims. The number of men who were victims of stalkers increased 145.5% from 1995 to 2004, while the number of women who were victims of stalkers increased 57.9%.

¹⁴⁰ Kong, R. *Stalking: Criminal Harassment in Canada*. **Canadian Social Trends**, Statistics Canada, Autumn 1997, p.29.

¹⁴¹ Brzozowski, J.A. *Spousal Violence*. In **Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile, 2004**. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, July 2004.

¹⁴² The increase in 2004 may be related in part to changes to the police data processes and systems. Data collection in future years will give some indication as to whether the trend shown is actual or an artefact of a change in data processes.

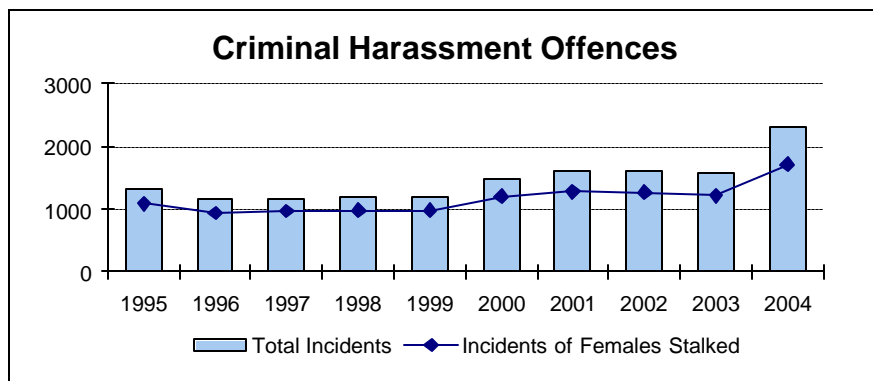


Figure 4.5

Source: TPS Database

Examination of the ten-year period, revealed that, historically, women were most often stalked by ex-boyfriends, while men, on the other hand, were most often stalked by offenders who they knew by name.

In this era of technology, people are no longer tied to their immediate community social networks. Access to the Internet has provided a global forum for people to discover and maintain relationships that at one time required close proximity and physical contact. A continuing and growing challenge for police services is the increase in cyber-stalking. With access to computers and the Internet in most homes, people are becoming more vulnerable to cyber crimes. Cyber-stalking shares many characteristics with traditional criminal harassment. The available evidence suggests that women are the targets of on-line harassment at a higher rate than men, and in many of the cases, the victim and offender had a relationship that had recently ended.¹⁴³

The anonymity, ease, and global use of the Internet may act as an incentive for a potential stalker. A potential stalker, unwilling or unable to physically confront a victim, may have little hesitation in sending harassing or threatening messages on-line. The fact that cyber-stalking does not initially involve physical contact may give a false sense of security to a victim: 'false' because of the ease of gathering personal information from cyberspace. Further, sophisticated cyber-stalkers may use programs to send harassing communications to a victim at regular or random intervals without even physically being at a computer.¹⁴⁴ It is important when dealing with cyber-crime to educate people on the risk the Internet poses. On-line harassment may be a prelude to a physical confrontation.¹⁴⁵

At present, there is very little indication of rates of cyber-stalking, however, some research has shown an increasing trend in cyber-stalking cases. A study in 1999 involving a random survey of 4,446 women attending college in the US, found that 581 women (13.1%) indicated they were stalked, reporting a total of 696 incidents (many of the women reported multiple incidents). For almost 24% of the incidents reported (166 incidents), victimisation was through e-mail. Internet service providers (ISPs) continue to receive increasing numbers of

¹⁴³ US Department of Justice. **1999 Report on Cyberstalking – A New Challenge for Law Enforcement and Industry**, A Report from the Attorney General to the Vice President, August 1999, (www.usdoj.gov/criminal/cybercrime/cyberstalking.htm).

¹⁴⁴ Ibid.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.



complaints from their customers regarding cyber-stalking, in contrast to a few years ago when they received none.¹⁴⁶

In response to growing concern over stalking and other abuses of the Internet and e-mail, many major ISPs have established Internet addresses to which complaints of abusive or harassing email can be sent.¹⁴⁷ The agreements for ISP service also specifically prohibit abusive or harassing conduct, with consequences for non-compliance. What is still absent in many areas, is education on the services that ISPs provide, follow-up on customer complaints, and a co-operative relationship with policing services. As cyber-stalking continues to rise, it is important that law enforcement prepare for these new challenges. Education, access to current technology and cyber-stalking legislation will assist in the investigation of this phenomenon and will reduce the limitations placed on investigating Internet crimes due to multi-jurisdictional boundaries.

D. VICTIMISATION – BY AGE

In cases where the age of the victim was known, generally over the past ten years, the greatest number of victims of the selected crimes of violence were people aged 25-34 years. However, when the difference in the size of the population at each age was taken into account, in all but 2004, 12-17 year olds showed the highest rate of victimisation. In 2004, those 18-24 years of age were found most likely to be victimised (25.7 per 1,000), followed by 12-17 year olds (24.6 per 1,000).

As seen in Figure 4.6, the victimisation rates per 1,000 population in each age group generally decreased with increasing age. Those under 12 years of age and those 65 years of age and older consistently had the lowest victimisation rates. For all age groups, victimisation rates were lower in 2004 than in 1995, with 25-34 year olds and 65+ year olds showing the largest decrease (both 21.7%). The violent victimisation rates for all age groups, except those under 12 years old, decreased between 2003 and 2004. The under 12 years age group showed an increase of 17.9%, which was still the second lowest rate seen since 1995.

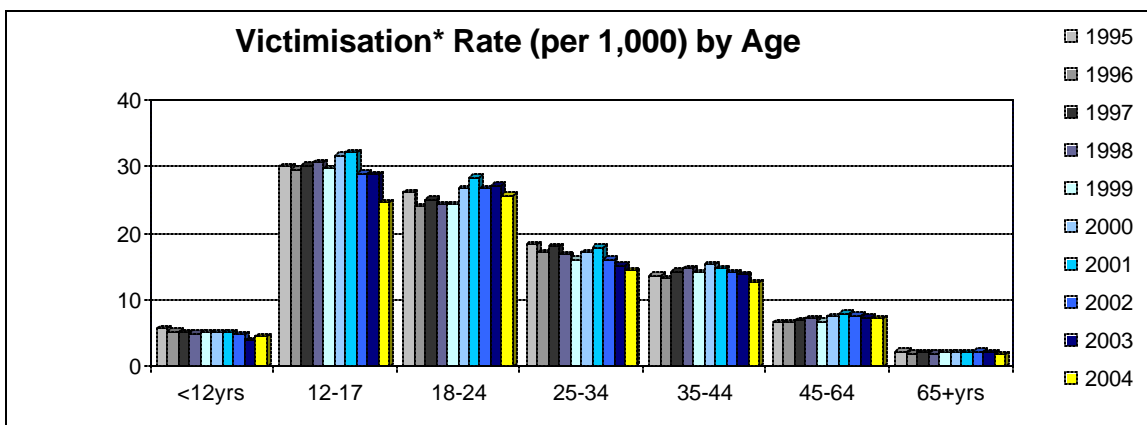


Figure 4.6

Source: TPS Database

* Victims of Assault, Sexual Assault, Robbery, and Homicide

¹⁴⁶ Ibid.

¹⁴⁷ Ibid.



As shown in Figure 4.7, 18-24 year olds typically had the highest victimisation rates for assault, followed by 12-17 year olds; the exception occurred in 1998, when 12-17 year olds had a higher assault rate than 18-24 year olds. Those age groups spanning 12-44 years and 65+, had lower assault rates in 2004 than in 1995, while those age groups 45-64 years and under 12 years old, had higher rates in 2004 than in 1995. All age groups except those less than 12 years old had lower victimisation rates for assault in 2004 than in 2003.

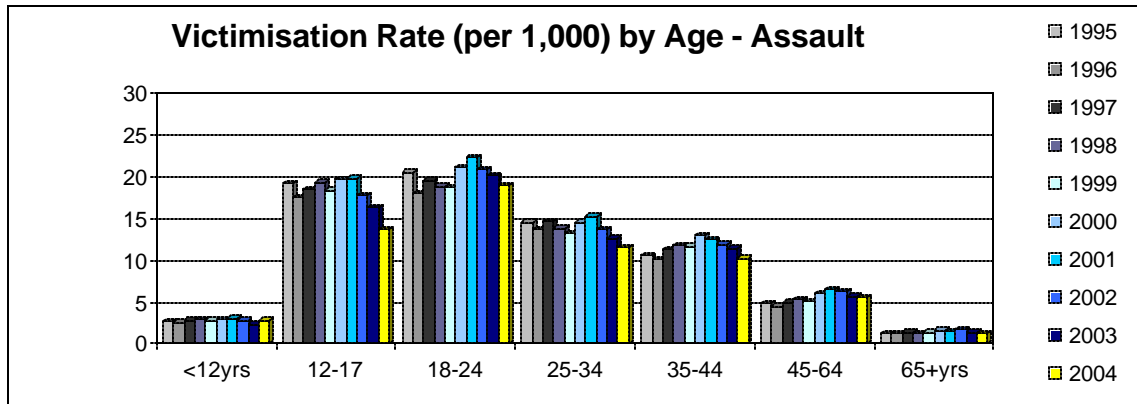


Figure 4.7

Source: TPS Database

As shown in Figure 4.8, in 2004, 12-17 year olds continued to be, by far, the most likely victims of sexual assault, although the numbers represented a decrease from both 2003 and 1995. The under 12 years of age and 12-17 years of age groups were the only groups to show a decrease in the rate of sexual assault compared to 1995. The 65+ years of age group remained the same in 2004 as in 1995. The 12-17 year olds were also the only group to show a decrease in the rate from 2003. The rate of sexual assault for 45-64 year olds and 65+ year olds stayed the same, while the other age groups showed an increase.

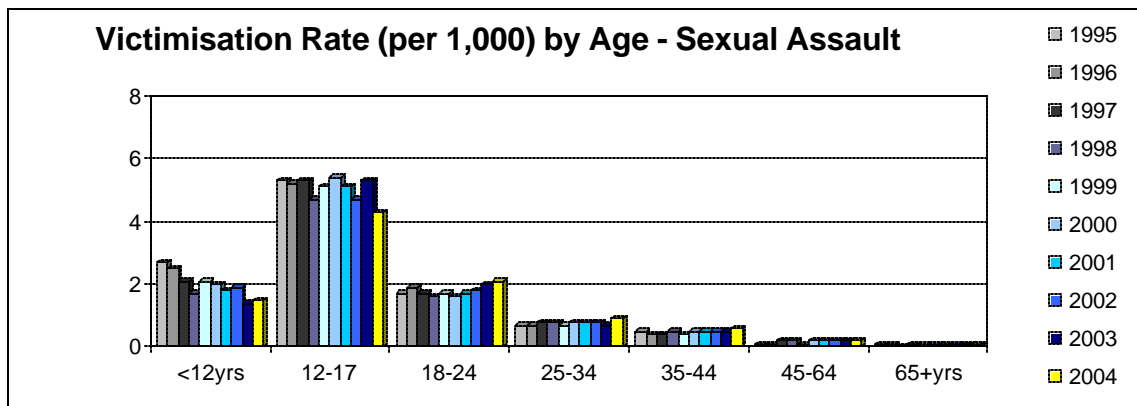


Figure 4.8

Source: TPS Database

Since 1995, those in the 12-17 year age group were the most likely to be victimised by robbery (Figure 4.9). While those under 12 years of age were consistently the least likely victims of robbery, the robbery rate generally decreased with increasing age. Young people (12-17 and 18-24 years of age) were the only ones to show an increase in robbery victimisation from



1995 to 2004, with 12-17 year olds showing the greatest increase. All age groups showed a decrease in 2004 compared to 2003 except children under 12 years and 35-44 year olds who remained the same.

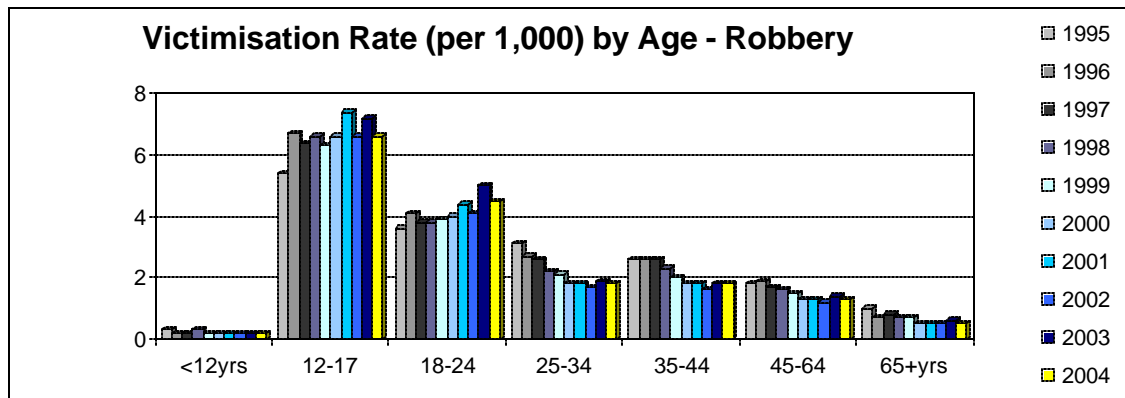


Figure 4.9

Source: TPS Database

Between 2000 and 2004, almost 25% of all robberies involved swarming. In 2004, there were 1,161 robbery victimisations involving swarming, which was a decrease of 14.8% from the 1,362 in 2003, and an increase of 2.5% from the 1,133 in 2000.¹⁴⁸

Robbery victims aged 12-17 years were those most likely to experience swarming. In the last five years, almost half of victimisations of swarming have consistently involved 12-17 year olds. In 2004, 48.4% of victims of swarming were within the age group 12-17 years, followed by 18-24 year olds who represented 23.8%. In 2003, 12-17 year olds represented 42.4% of all victimisations of swarming, and in 2000, 44.9% were 12-17 year olds.

Since the homicide rate per 1,000 population was so low for each age group (no age group in any year reached a rate of 0.1 homicides per 1,000 population), Figure 4.10 shows the actual number of victims in each age group in each of the past ten years. As can be seen, the greatest number of homicide victims each year were generally in the 18-24 and 25-34 years age groups. Those 17 years and under and 65 years and older generally showed the lowest number of homicides each year.

¹⁴⁸ In October 1998, due to recommendations arising from the Service’s ‘Robbery Reduction Strategy’, new codes were added to assist with data calculation and to more accurately account for current and emerging robbery offences such as swarming, therefore only a 5 year analysis was conducted.

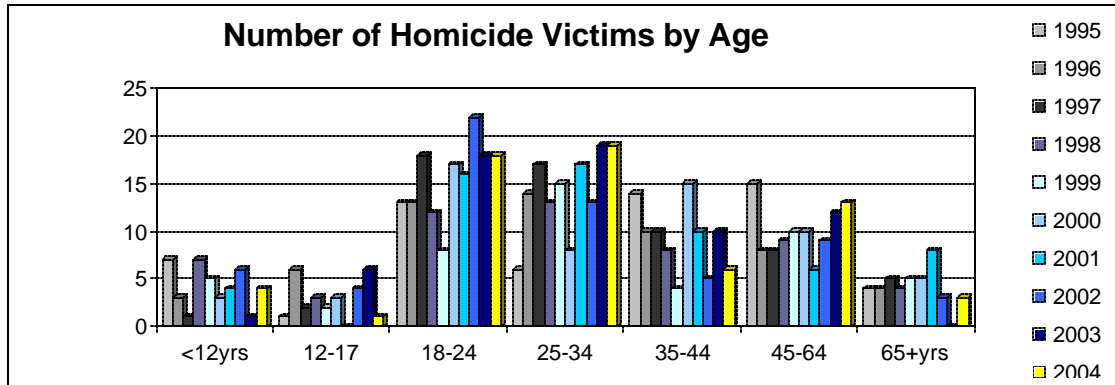


Figure 4.10

Source: TPS Database

The University of Toronto study on homicide, noted previously, also looked at links between victimisation and age and found that victims of homicide have become younger over time.¹⁴⁹ In the 1970s, the average age of homicide victims was 37 years and only one-quarter of these victims were under the age of 25. Since 1998, the average age of victims of homicide in Toronto has decreased to 33 years old and 40% of these victims were found to be under the age of 25.

The Service analysis of homicides between 1994 and 2003 found that, in 2003, 58.8% of male homicide victims were 18-29 years of age. A five-year analysis (1999-2003) found that male victimisation peaked at 18-24 years and generally decreased as age increased. Female homicide in the age groups less than 12 years and older than 60 years were similar to males, but occurred considerably less frequently in the other age categories. In 2003, female homicide victimisation peaked in the age group 30-39 years and again in the age group over 60 years.

Children and Youth - Violent Crime:

In April 2005, Statistics Canada published the results of a study entitled ‘Children and Youth as Victims of Violent Crime’. The results were based on data collected from 122 police services in 9 Canadian provinces, representing 61% of the national volume of reported, actual Criminal Code incidents.¹⁵⁰ The study found that in 2003, children and youth under 18 years old were victims of 22% of violent crime against a person. Physical assaults at 58% represented the majority of crime against children and youth, followed by other violent or threatening offences (23%) and sexual assaults (19%).

The risk of victimisation increased as age increased. Violent victimisation for both male and female victims was similar up to the age of 8 years, after which male rates exceeded female rates. The peak for female victimisation was 15 years old, while the peak for males was 17. Half of all sexual assault victims and six out of ten physical assault victims under the age of 6 years were victimised by a family member. Youths aged 14-17 years were victimised at a higher rate by people outside their family. The link between age and victimisation may be due to increased risk-behaviour, such as the increased use of alcohol or drugs, as age increases.

¹⁴⁹ Gartner and Thompson, 2004.

¹⁵⁰ AuCoin, K. *Children and Youth as Victims of Violent Crime*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 25(1), April 2005.



Although they represented only 5% of the population, youths aged 14-17 were victims of 17% of all reported robberies in 2003.

Males 11 years and older experienced more victimisations by physical assault in parking lots, on streets, roads, and in open areas. Female victims of physical assault 11 years and older experienced higher victimisation rates in private dwellings. Overall, in 2003, children and youth accounted for 61% of all victims of reported sexual assaults; the majority (80%) were female victims. For female victims, the rate of sexual assault generally increased until age 13, after which it steadily decreased.¹⁵¹

The Statistics Canada study found that trends in relation to all categories of violent victimisation remained steady for children under the age of 11 years. This decrease was mainly driven by a decrease in physical assault rates each year since 2000. Sexual assault victimisation against children and youth generally increased between 1999 and 2002, but fell in 2003 for all age groups. In contrast, victimisation in relation to other violent offences, such as robbery, threatening, extortion, criminal harassment, etc., increased in 2003 falling to a four year low in 2002.¹⁵²

The 1999 GSS 1999 found that although 12 to 17 year olds made up only 8% of the Canadian population, they were victims in 16% of all violent crimes reported to the police. They represented 31% of sexual assault victims and 15% of all physical assault victims. Rates of victimisation were highest between the ages of 15 to 19 years. Female youth were victims of more violent crime than males. About 280,000 (280 per 1,000) females were victims of violent crime compared to about 261,000 (249 per 1,000) males. The higher overall rate for females was linked to their greater risk for being sexually assaulted (111 per 1,000). Males were slightly more likely to be assaulted than females (162 per 1,000 compared to 142 per 1,000). One-fifth of victimisations occurred at school or on school grounds.

According to the US National Center for Victims of Crime, in 1999, 659 children aged 12 and under were victims of homicide, with firearms being used in over half of the killings.¹⁵³ Further, one-third of 11-18 year olds were involved in at least one serious violent confrontation within the last 12 months, and 33% of all sexual assault victims were between the ages of 12 and 17 years old.

The most common victims of youth violence were peers, including boyfriends, girlfriends, and other friends. Victimisation has been linked to a number of risk behaviours that youth engage in that have been found to contribute to violence. A school survey in the US, published in 2003, found that 17% of students carried a weapon, including 6% who carried a gun and 6% who carried a weapon on school property.¹⁵⁴ One-third of students reported having been in a physical fight one or more times during the previous 12 months, including 4% who required medical attention for the fight. The study also found that 9% reported being sexually assaulted, 9% were threatened or injured with a weapon, and 5% had not gone to school in the previous 30 days preceding the survey because of safety concerns.

¹⁵¹ Ibid.

¹⁵² Ibid.

¹⁵³ **Violence Involving Youth**, The National Center for Victims of Crime, 2001 (www.ncvc.org).

¹⁵⁴ Grunbaum J.A., Kann, L., Kinchen, S., Ross, J., Hawkins, J., Lowry, R., Harris, W.A., McManus, T., Chyen, D., and Collins, J. *Youth Risk Behaviour Surveillance – United States 2003*. **Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report**, US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, May 2004.



An earlier 1995 study in the US of 4,000 youth found that 8% of 12-17 year olds had been sexually assaulted, 17% had been physically assaulted, and 39% had witnessed violence against someone else.¹⁵⁵ Three-quarters of these victims were sexually assaulted by someone they knew (most often a friend) and only 13% said they reported the victimisation to police. Almost two-thirds of the youths that reported being physically assaulted said they had also been assaulted by someone they knew well (again, most often a friend) and only 17% of these victims reported the assault to the police.

In Toronto, as was seen in Figure 4.6, in cases where the age of the victim was known and when population was taken into account, those 12-17 years of age, although slightly lower than the 18-24 year old group in 2004, were generally most likely to be victimised.

In Toronto in 2004, 12-17 year olds constituted 12.2% of all physical assault victims, 30.7% of all sexual assault victims, 25.1% of all robbery victims, and 1.6% of all homicide victims. These proportions were all decreases from 2003, and decreases for all but robbery from 1995. In 2003, 12-17 year olds constituted 13.3% of all physical assault victims, 37.6% of all sexual assault victims, 25.4% of all robbery victims, and 9.0% of all homicide victims. In 1995, 12-17 year olds represented 13.7% of all physical assault victims, 30.4% of all sexual assault victims, 15.6% of all robbery victims, and 1.7% of all homicide victims.

In each of the ten years under review, of all of the selected violent victimisations against 12-17 year olds, most were physical assaults, although this proportion decreased from 64.1% in 1995 to 55.8% in 2004. After physical assaults, 12-17 year olds were most likely victimised by robbery; they were rarely victims of homicide. As was noted previously, robbery victims aged 12-17 years were also those most likely to experience swarming.

Those under 12 years old were less likely than older children to be victimised. In 2004, those under 12 constituted a lower proportion of total victims than 12-17 year olds for each of the violent crimes identified except homicide. They constituted 4.8% of all physical assault victims, 20.7% of all sexual assault victims, 1.8% of all robbery victims, and 6.3% of all homicide victims. These proportions were increases from 2003 when those under 12 constituted 3.7% of all physical assault victims, 19.1% of all sexual assault victims, 1.3% of all robbery victims, and 1.5% of all homicide victims. The proportions for physical assault increased in 2004 from 1995 when those under 12 constituted 4.3% of all physical assault victims. The proportions for sexual assault, robbery and homicide decreased from 1995 when those under 12 constituted 33.5% of all sexual assault victims, 2.1% of all robbery victims and 11.7% of homicide victims. It should also be noted, however, that figures related to this age group may be influenced by under-reporting, given the vulnerability of young children and the possibility that those committing the offences may be family members.

In each of the ten years under review, of all violent victimisations against children under 12 years of age, the majority were physical assaults; this proportion increased from 47.3% in 1995 to 59.6% in 2004. Until 1998, the proportions of victimised children under 12 who were physically assaulted and who were sexually assaulted did not differ greatly; from 1998 on, the proportion of those physically assaulted generally increased, while the proportion of those sexually assaulted generally decreased. In all years, of those victimised in this young age group, few were victims of robbery and even fewer were victims of homicide.

¹⁵⁵ Kilpatrick, D.G., Saunders, B.E., and Smith, D.W. **Youth Victimization: Prevalence and Implications.** National Institute of Justice Research in Brief, US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, April 2003.



Elderly – Violent Crime:

Seniors make up one of the fastest growing population groups in Canada. In 2000, seniors (65 years and older) made up 13% of the population, up from 10% in 1981 and 8% in 1971.¹⁵⁶ As noted in the Demographics chapter, the senior population is expected to grow even more rapidly during the next several decades, especially as people born during the ‘baby boom’ (1946-1965) begin to turn 65. As the senior population grows, it is important to understand the prevalence of, and reasons behind, victimisation of the elderly.

Seniors continue to be less likely the victims of crime than younger age groups. According to the 1999 GSS, 8% of the senior population reported having been the victim of at least one crime in the 12 months preceding the survey – seniors were 21 times less likely to be victims of violent crimes (sexual assault, assault, robbery) than the 15-24 age group.¹⁵⁷ Senior victims were more likely to be victimised by strangers (39% versus 31%) and by other immediate family members (17% versus 8%) than younger groups.

As was seen in Figure 4.6, seniors were the least likely age group to be victimised in each of the past ten years. In Toronto in 2004, those 65 years and older constituted 2.0% of all physical assault victims, 0.7% of all sexual assault victims, 3.5% of all robbery victims and 4.7% of all homicide victims. In 1995, persons 65 years and older constituted 1.8% of all physical assault victims, 0.6% of all sexual assault victims, 5.7% of all robbery victims, and 6.7% of all homicide victims.

In each of the ten years under review, of all violent victimisations against those 65 years of age and older, most were physical assaults; this proportion increased from 54.8% in 1994 to 68.5% in 2004, slightly below the 68.9% in 2003. After physical assaults, older adults were most likely victimised by robbery in all years; they were rarely victims of sexual assault or homicide.

E. VICTIMISATION WITHIN THE FAMILY

Children and Youth - Abuse:

Children and youth represent segments of society that are most vulnerable to abuse because of their dependency, stature and inability to defend themselves. A paramount task of policing is to ensure that vulnerable segments of society are protected; an understanding of the scope of abuse, and the trends associated with it, is important to ensuring that private crimes within families are made public.

Abuse is often hidden and it is therefore difficult to obtain a complete picture of child and youth abuse in Canada. A person who is being victimised may endure the abuse for a long time before reporting it; many victims never report it.

¹⁵⁶ **Seniors in Canada**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics Profile Series, Statistics Canada, June 2001.

¹⁵⁷ Ibid.



Neglect:

Studies of statistics in Canada and the US have found that neglect occurs at a higher rate than physical abuse, but only recently have the serious negative effects of neglect received public attention.¹⁵⁸ Neglect is commonly viewed as a failure to meet minimal community standards of care; in contrast to physical and sexual abuse, neglect refers to acts of omission rather than commission.¹⁵⁹ Unlike other abuse, which is normally incident specific, neglect often involves chronic situations that are difficult to identify.¹⁶⁰

The Canadian Incidence Study of Reported Child Abuse and Neglect (CIS) was the first nation-wide, central source study to examine the incidence of child abuse in Canada.¹⁶¹ It provided a snapshot study of children who were reported to, and investigated by, child welfare agencies during a three-month period, from October to December 1998; the results were based on the analysis of 7,672 investigations from 51 sites in all provinces and territories. According to the results of the CIS, there were approximately 21.5 investigations of child abuse and neglect per 1,000 children in 1998. Of these, 9.7 were confirmed, 4.7 were suspected and 7.1 were unsubstantiated. Neglect was the most frequent type of abuse investigated: 40% of the investigations concerned neglect, compared to 31% for physical abuse, 10% for sexual abuse, and 19% for emotional maltreatment. Neglect was confirmed in 43% of these cases, representing a rate of 3.7 cases per 1,000 Canadian children. The CIS analysed eight areas of neglect; failure to supervise leading to physical harm represented almost half (48%) of the confirmed cases.

A similar trend was found in a study conducted by the US Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) in 2001.¹⁶² Over half (59.2%) of the incidents of abuse studied involved neglect, representing a prevalence rate of 7.1 incidents per 1,000 children in the US. Neglected children were found to be 44% more likely than physically abused children to experience re-occurring victimisation.

The consequences for victims of neglect are far reaching. Research has found that neglect, compared to other types of abuse, has the most pervasive and negative outcomes.¹⁶³ Neglect can lead to death, physical, and psychological problems; neglected children may suffer severe social, emotional, and academic problems. As neglected children grow older, they have a higher likelihood of engaging in criminal activities, violent crime, prostitution, and running away from home. They also have a higher incidence of developing personality disorders and psychological problems, such as depression.¹⁶⁴

Physical Abuse:

As noted above, the CIS found that 31% of the investigations sampled involved physical abuse. Physical abuse was defined by the study as involving the deliberate application of force

¹⁵⁸ Hines, D. and Malley-Morrison, K. **Family Violence in The United States**, California: Sage Publications, 2005.

¹⁵⁹ Ibid.

¹⁶⁰ Trocme, N., MacLaurin, B., Fallon, B., Dacink J., and Billingsley, D. **Canadian Incidence Study of Reported Child Abuse and Neglect: Final Report**. Ottawa, Ontario: Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada, 2001.

¹⁶¹ Ibid.

¹⁶² Hines and Malley-Morrison, 2005.

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ Ibid.



to any part of a child's body, which resulted or may have resulted in a non-accidental injury. It might involve one or many incidents. Physical abuse was confirmed in 34% of these investigations, representing a rate of 2.3 cases of physical abuse for every 1,000 children in Canada. Most child physical abuse was associated with physical punishment or was confused with disciplining a child. Over two-thirds of the physical abuse cases consisted of physical abuse related to inappropriate punishment.

According to a statistical profile of family violence published by Statistics Canada, in 2002, children and youth under the age of 18 represented 23% of the population of Canada and they accounted for 20% of all victims of assault.¹⁶⁵ Family-related physical assaults against boys and girls generally increased with age, peaking at age 17 for girls and 15 for boys. Girls aged 13-17 years were more likely to be assaulted than boys in the same age group. In contrast, boys aged 1-12 years were more likely than girls to be victimised. The highest rate of physical injury for children and youth was found within the age group of 12-17 years, possibly due to increasing child-parent conflict in the adolescent development years.

According to the US DHHS, in 2001, substantiated physical abuse revealed that physical abuse comprised 18.6% of all maltreatment cases, similar to Canada in being second only to neglect. The DHHS report also indicated that rates of physical abuse declined steadily between 1993 and 1999, but then remained constant between 1999 and 2001. In 2001, the rate was approximately 2.3 children per 1,000. Just over one-quarter (26.3%) of maltreatment deaths were due to physical abuse, with an additional 21.9% of deaths due to physical abuse coupled with neglect.¹⁶⁶ Younger children were at a higher risk of being abused than older children.

Research has shown that there are both short and long-term consequences in almost every area of functioning for victims of physical abuse. In the short term, physical injury is the most obvious outcome of physical abuse. According to research in the US using hospital emergency department data, skin lesions were the most common type of injury, followed by fractures. Belts or straps (23%) and open hands (22%) were responsible for most of the injuries.

Another widely discussed type of injury in infants has been Shaken Baby Syndrome. Infants under 1 year of age who have been victims, suffer from central nervous system damage and a number of medical problems, all of which may lead to death.¹⁶⁷

Psychologically, abused children and youth suffer socially, emotionally, and cognitively. As toddlers, they may develop an insecure attachment to their parents; as they become older they tend to have less friendly peer interaction, lack motivation, and show antisocial behaviour, aggressiveness, etc. They are more likely to suffer from major depression and other associated disorders.¹⁶⁸ In the long-term, people with histories of physical abuse have been shown to have a greater risk of financial, social, emotional, marital, and behavioural functioning problems. Studies have also found that those who were abused were more likely to be involved in violent crime and other criminal behaviour, as well as prostitution and other sexual risk taking behaviours.¹⁶⁹

¹⁶⁵ Brzozowski, J.A. *Family Violence Against Children and Youth*. In **Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile 2004**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, July 2004.

¹⁶⁶ Hines and Malley-Morrison, 2005.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid., p.99

¹⁶⁸ Ibid.

¹⁶⁹ Ibid., p.100.



Sexual Abuse:

In 1998, the CIS found that 10% of investigations involved the primary reason of sexual abuse; 38% of these cases were confirmed. The rate was about 0.9 cases per 1,000 Canadian children. At 68%, touching and fondling genitals was the most common form of substantiated sexual abuse, followed by attempted and completed sexual activity (35%), adults exposing their genitals to children (12%), sexual exploitation (6%), and sexual harassment (4%).

Statistics Canada reported that, in 2002, girls represented 81% of victims of family-related sexual assaults, nearly four times higher than boys.¹⁷⁰ Girls 11-14 years old were victimised at the highest rates, with the peak at age 13. In relation to boys, victimisation was highest for ages 3-7 years, with the peak at age 4. Girls (44%) were more likely to be sexually assaulted by a parent than boys (36%).

In 2001, the National Incidence Study of Child Abuse and Neglect in the US found that 1.2 children per 1,000 were victims of sexual abuse. These rates represented a decrease from 1.7% per 1,000 victims found in an earlier study. Relatives were perpetrators in 60% of cases, with parents the perpetrators in the remaining 40%. Females were victimised at a rate 3 times higher than males. Children were found to be consistently vulnerable to sexual abuse from age three on; the peak range of victimisation was 7-13 years, with an average of 9 years.¹⁷¹

Child sexual abuse affects almost every aspect of the victim's functioning. In the short term, it has been found to affect emotional, behavioural, cognitive, and interpersonal health. Victims were found to be more depressed, anxious, suicidal, and aggressive; they suffered low self-esteem, post traumatic stress disorder, and engaged in more sexualised behaviour.¹⁷² Although some symptoms may improve over time, symptoms sometimes worsen in adolescence and adulthood bringing more depression, relationship problems, suicidal tendencies, and so on.

Child Abuse Fatalities:

Despite the efforts of law enforcement and child protection agencies, child deaths due to abuse are a reality. According to the US National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System (NCANDS), in 2002, there were approximately 1,400 child fatalities (2 children per 100,000) where neglect and abuse were contributing factors.¹⁷³ Many researchers believe that child deaths due to abuse are underreported because of different definitions of key terms and the incorrect findings of some deaths as accidental or attributed to conditions such as Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS). Recent studies in the US found that 50%-60% of child deaths due to abuse or neglect may go unreported.¹⁷⁴

Research has also indicated that babies and toddlers are the most common victims of fatalities due to abuse. The data from the NCANDS in 2002 found that children under 1 year old accounted for 41% of fatalities, with children under 4 years old accounting for 76%. In 2002, approximately 38% of child abuse fatalities were associated with neglect alone. Deaths in 30% of cases were attributed to physical abuse.

¹⁷⁰ Brzozowski, J.A. *Family Violence Against Children and Youth*. In **Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile 2004**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, July 2004.

¹⁷¹ Hines and Malley-Morrison, 2005.

¹⁷² Ibid.

¹⁷³ **Child Abuse and Neglect Fatalities: Statistics and Interventions**, National Clearinghouse on Child Abuse and Neglect Information, Washington, DC, April 2004 (nccanch.acf.hhs.gov/pubs/factsheets/fatality.cfm).

¹⁷⁴ Ibid.



Canadian Statistics on child abuse and neglect deaths are very limited, unless the death is classified as a homicide, and there are no reliable national statistics on deaths due to neglect.¹⁷⁵ In 1981, a study on deaths from neglect was conducted with the assistance of Health Canada. The study concluded that the expertise of the coroner, pathologist, or medical examiner is crucial to determining whether a child's death is correctly classified. Health Canada is currently funding the 'Child Mortality Analysis Project' that will be examining the problem of abuse fatalities in Canada.

Child and Youth Exposure to Family Violence:

Children and youth witnessing family violence and its link to negative emotional and behavioural functioning has gathered increased attention as studies continue to analyse its consequences. The 1999 GSS found that children heard or witnessed a parent's assault of their partner in 37% of all households (461,000) where domestic violence took place.¹⁷⁶ Children were more likely to see their mother assaulted (70%) than their father (30%). Victims of spousal assault were more likely to report the incidents to police if children had been witnesses to violence. In 10% (70,000) of domestic violence incidents against women and 4% (20,000) in domestic violence incidents against men, a child under 15 years of age was threatened or assaulted. According to data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth in 1988/99, 8% (1 in 12) children between the ages of 4 and 7 witnessed different degrees of physical violence in their home.¹⁷⁷ Witnessing violence was associated with aggression, including behaviours such as threatening, anger, bullying, and fighting. In the short term, 43% of males who witnessed violence in the home were overtly aggressive compared to 25% of males who did not witness it. For females, the effect was less dramatic, as 27% who witnessed violence became aggressive compared to 17% who did not witness violence.

Studies on the effects of witnessing violence have focused on two main areas: behavioural and emotional functioning, and cognitive functioning and attitudes. A number of studies report that children and youth exposed to domestic violence show more aggressive and antisocial behaviours, as well as inhibited and fearful behaviours, when compared to children and youth who were not exposed to violence.¹⁷⁸ According to some studies, children and youth exposed to violence have lower social skills and higher than average anxiety, trauma symptoms, depression, and temperament problems than those not exposed. Although there have been differing results, some studies have also found that cognitive functioning was negatively affected by exposure to violence. For exposed children and youth, consequences related to a higher acceptance of violence (especially in conflict resolution), enhancing one's reputation through violence, and general approval of violence were found to be more associated with males than females.¹⁷⁹

¹⁷⁵ Christianson-Wood, J. and Murray, J. **Child Death Reviews and Child Death Mortality Data Collection in Canada**, Health Canada, 1999 (www.phsc-aspc.gc.ca).

¹⁷⁶ Dauvergne, M. and Johnson, H. *Children Witnessing Family Violence*, **Juristat** (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 21(6), June 2001.

¹⁷⁷ Brzozowski, J.A. *Family Violence Against Children and Youth*. In **Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile 2004**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, July 2004.

¹⁷⁸ Jaffe, P., Baker, L. and Cunningham, A. **Protecting Children from Family Violence**. New York: The Guilford Press, 2004.

¹⁷⁹ Ibid.



In Toronto, the number of child abuse offences reported to the police in 2004 decreased 20.0% compared to 1995, and 26.6% from 2003 to 2004 (Figure 4.11). Again, it should be noted that these figures are undoubtedly influenced by under-reporting.

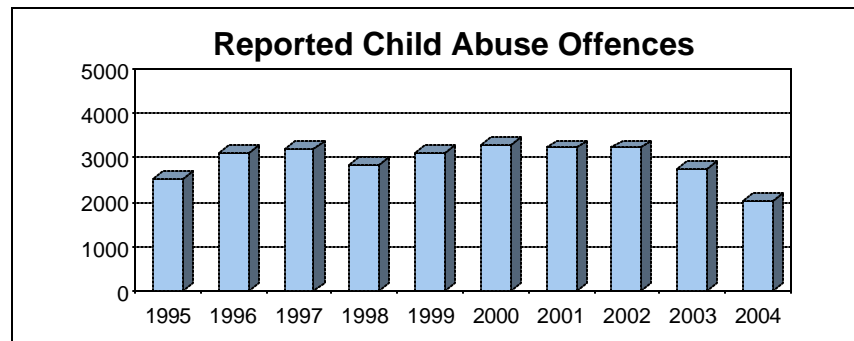


Figure 4.11

Source: TPS Database

Assault and sexual assault represented the majority of child abuse offences reported. In 2004, assault victimisations represented 26.1% of child abuse, while sexual assaults represented 17.1%. The proportion in 2004 is an increase for assault and a slight decrease for sexual assault compared to 2003 when the proportion for assault was 22.2% and for sexual assault was 17.6%. The proportions in 2004 were both decreases compared to 1995, when the proportion for assault was 26.7% and sexual assault 28.5%.

Children 10 years of age and under generally formed just over half of the victims of child abuse in the ten years being reviewed, although this proportion increased in 2004. In 2004, 55% of the victims of child abuse offences were 10 years or younger, compared to 46.8% in 2003 and 48.8% in 1995. Girls, similar to the past 10 years, made up the largest proportion of both the 0-10 and 11-15 year age groups. In 2004, the proportion of child abuse victimisations involving girls rose to 27.7% from 24.5% in 2003, but decreased from 30.6% in 1995 for the 0-10 age group, and decreased to 24.4% from 35.6% in 2003 and 34.2% in 1995, for the 11-15 year age group.

Domestic Violence:

In April 2004, the Ontario Government announced a long-term action plan aimed at fighting domestic violence. The government's plan includes: investing in core services and expanding community supports; spending \$5.9 million over 5 years for research, training and conferences in key sectors to assist in the prevention of domestic violence; investing \$4.9 million into a four-year public education and prevention campaign focused on communities playing an active role in ending domestic violence; and, improving access to French language violence prevention services. Strengthening the justice system response to domestic violence is also a goal of the plan. The government is planning the following actions:¹⁸⁰

- improving and evaluating domestic violence courts and the Partner Assault Response Program (PAR) for abusers;

¹⁸⁰ Ontario Ministry of Community and Social Services website, March 2005 (www.cfcs.gov.on.ca).



- a bail safety pilot program review;
- holding an inaugural meeting of federal/provincial/territorial Attorneys General and Ministers Responsible for Women's issues in 2005;
- reviewing and proposing amendments to the *Children's Law Reform Act* to require courts to consider issues relating to domestic violence and child custody;
- improving programs aimed at serving incarcerated women who have been victims of sexual or physical abuse;
- funding a literature and technical review of electronic monitoring systems for abusers;
- improving civil protections for abused women (e.g. restraining orders and enforcement of breaches);
- creating police training and new policies to address the issue of dual charging;
- assisting in the prevention of telephone harassment and threatening by abusers from jail;
- improving communication between criminal and family court; and,
- pilot testing the Ontario Domestic Assault Risk Assessment (ODARA) tool with police, Crowns and others in the justice system.

Ontario Domestic Assault Risk Assessment (ODARA):

The ODARA was developed in response to recommendations from the May/Iles and Hadley inquests and the Joint Committee on Domestic Violence to the Attorney General of Ontario in 1999. Developed by the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) and the Mental Health Centre in Penetanguishene, it assesses how likely a man is to assault his partner again, and how the risk compares to other abusers. The ODARA was created from research on approximately 600 cases from police services in Ontario and its 13 questions were found to be accurate and highly predictive of future violence. The law enforcement format of the ODARA is the ODARA-LE. It allows the ODARA to be scored using only the information available to officers conducting a domestic violence investigation. The ODARA-LE is presently being piloted by three cities in Ontario and its subsequent evaluation is expected late 2005 or early 2006.

In the 1999 GSS, 8% of women and 7% of men reported that they had been the victims of some type of violence by their common-law or marital partner in the five years preceding the survey.¹⁸¹ In 2002, an analysis by Statistics Canada found that females were much more likely than men to be victims of spousal violence (85% compared to 15%).¹⁸² Common assault was the most frequent offence, with a victimisation rate of 64% for females and 60% for males. Major assaults followed, with males showing higher victimisation rates than females (21% versus 12%). One possible reason for this trend was that males were more willing to wait until violence became severe before reporting it. The 1999 GSS found that females were much more likely than males to report offences such as uttering threats (45% compared to 22%) and slapping (51% compared to 21%). The differences in reporting between men and women narrow as the offences become more violent or involve a weapon. Victims were assaulted more frequently by current spouses and were threatened and criminally harassed more frequently by ex-spouses.

¹⁸¹ Kong, R., Johnson, H., Beattie, S. and Cardillo, A. *Sexual Offences in Canada*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 23(6), July 2003.

¹⁸² Brzozowski, J.A. *Spousal Violence*. In **Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile, 2004**. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, July 2004.



For female victims, rates of spousal violence were highest within the age group of 25-34 years (678 victims per 100,000). For male victims, 35-44 year-olds represented the highest group of victims (110 victims per 100,000). As men and women became older, rates dropped substantially, supporting research that suggested that violent marriages were more likely to disintegrate in earlier stages than marriages that lasted several years. According to Statistics Canada, small decreases in spousal assault rates were seen for both women and men in 2001 and 2002, after increases from 1998 to 2000.

Some research, such as the 1993 Canadian National Survey (CNS), has looked at violence in dating relationships.¹⁸³ The CNS analysed survey results from a sample of 1,835 women, and found that when asked about their elementary school years (Grades 1 to 8), 3% of the women reported being threatened physically by a partner to engage in a sexual activity, 4% reported being physically forced to engage in a sexual activity, and 7.2% reported being physically assaulted. In their high school years, 8% reported threats to engage in sexual activity, 14% reported being forced to engage in a sex acts, and 9% reported being assaulted. With regard to college and university years, approximately 35% of the women reported that they had experienced a physical assault by a male dating partner, 28% reported a sexual assault in the 12 months prior to the study, and 45% of the women reported being sexually abused since leaving high school.

The Toronto Police Service receives a large number of calls each year for incidents that are initially reported to be domestics or domestic assaults. According to the Service's I/CAD database, the number of calls for domestics attended by officers in 2004 was 14,536 which represents a decrease of 7.8% from 15,760 in 2003, and a large decrease of 23.0% from 1996 when according to the database there were 18,866 domestic calls.

However, even though the number of domestics attended decreased since 1996, the average time spent by officers at these types of calls increased 78.9%, from 127.5 minutes (2.1 hours) in 1996 to 228.1 minutes (3.8 hours) in 2004. The average time spent on these calls showed less increase between 2003 and 2004, increasing 4.8%, from 217.6 minutes (3.6 hours) in 2003.

Similarly, while the number of calls for domestic assaults attended by officers decreased 41.6% between 1996 and 2004, from 8,046 to 4,699, the average amount of time spent by officers at these calls increased 82.2%, from 189.5 minutes (3.2 hours) in 1996 to 345.3 minutes (5.8 hours) in 2004. The number of domestic assault calls attended also decreased 15.6% between 2003 (5,566) and 2004, while the average time spent at these calls showed less increase, increasing 3.7% from 333.0 minutes (5.6 hours) in 2003.

As reported in the *2004 Environmental Scan*, increases in the amount of officer time spent on calls are the result of a number of factors, including increased responsibilities in the investigation of domestic violence and less experienced officers. Domestic violence investigations take a great deal of time. Officers must ensure medical attention for the victim if required, interview witnesses, gather and secure evidence, etc. The use of video statements is necessary and important to a successful case, but it takes time and requires the victim to attend a police facility. In addition, officers are required to complete a number of mandatory forms important to the investigation including: Record of Arrest and Supplementary reports, General Occurrence and Supplementary, Domestic Violence Supplementary, Special Address System

¹⁸³ **Dating Violence: A Fact Sheet from the Department of Justice Canada**, Department of Justice Canada, June 2003.



Report, Domestic Violence Card, memo book, relevant Property Reports and receipts, Injury/Use of Force Reports, and other documents required for case preparation. Other activities include: transporting the victim, accused, and/or witness, waiting for an interpreter, caring for children while waiting for relatives or Children's Aid to attend, and guarding prisoners at hospital while receiving treatment. The Service's domestic violence procedure, which outlines the responsibility of officers in the investigation of domestics, increased threefold between 1998 and 2001 – from four pages to twelve pages – reflecting the additional responsibilities created by the Provincial Adequacy Standards Regulation and in pursuit of ensuring thorough investigations.

To ensure compliance with the Adequacy Standards Regulation, the Service's domestic violence procedure was revised in 2003, reflecting changes in the definition of Domestic Violence to include expanded relationship criteria. Domestic violence now involves persons in an 'intimate relationship', both current and former relationships, and involving both opposite sex and same sex partners. It includes those legally married, those who were previously married, those who are not married but are living in a family-type relationship, those who are not married but were formerly in a family-type relationship, those who have a child in common regardless of whether they were married or lived together, and those who are or who have been in a dating relationship. With the change in definition during 2003, 2004 represents the first full year that data was available for analysis, forming the baseline for future trend analysis. While in 2004, the procedure was again updated, this change should not further affect data collection. The revision made in 2004 reflected concerns relating to bail conditions and individual family circumstances (e.g. children) in determining the appropriateness of a 'no contact' order when dealing with an accused female.

Not all calls for domestics or domestic assaults attended by police actually involve domestics, and of those that do, not all involve Criminal Code offences. In Toronto in 2004, there were 9,352 domestic violence occurrences involving criminal offences. Charges were laid in 7,523 (80.4%) of these occurrences. Assault Level 1, with 4,086 charges, accounted for the majority (54.3%) of domestic violence charges in 2004. Uttering threats was next with 1,537 charges, followed by Assault with a weapon/causing bodily harm with 1,155 charges. Men represented the majority of those charged (86.8%).

The Service continues to work with the community in promoting initiatives that aim to reduce domestic violence. A recent partnership with Seneca College Graphics Arts Program has produced a relationship violence awareness campaign directed towards young people aged 14-20 years. Eight exceptional campaigns were developed, and in co-operation with the Toronto District School Board and the Speers Society, delivery of the campaigns to the targeted youth is expected in the fall of 2005.

As outlined in the *2004 Environmental Scan*, it is expected that a number of initiatives implemented by the Service over recent years will result in an increasing number of domestics being recorded. Examples of initiatives implemented by the Service include:

- increased quality control and accountability through review of occurrences;
- increased training (including training on understanding the dynamics involved and the cycle of violence, as well as on the importance of early intervention);
- an increase in trained Domestic Violence Investigators in the field;
- an improved information pamphlet for victims to assist with legal information, safety plans, and connections to agencies who speak their language; and,



- improved outreach to communities that may have been reluctant to report such violence to the police.

The early intervention/court diversion program Partner Abuse Response is also believed to have increased the number of charges laid, since charges are now laid as an early intervention that may not have been laid prior to the program's availability.

Elderly – Abuse:

Elder abuse will continue to be a challenge as the senior population of Canada increases. Estimates from the National Center on Elderly Abuse in the US revealed a 150% increase in the reported cases of elderly abuse from 1986-1999.¹⁸⁴ In Canada, the same upward trend exists. An analysis of police-reported data found that between 1998 and 2002, violence rates against seniors increased for females by 42% and for males by 30%.¹⁸⁵

Community-based care has become the preferred method of care over institutional care for seniors. Although seniors have consistently been least likely to be victims of crime, higher risks of victimisation are predicted because as the population ages and family members and friends are tasked with the majority of care-giving duties. Research has shown that providing care for an elderly parent, family member, or friend can cause psychological, emotional, and economic burdens for the caregiver. These stresses on the caregiver could potentially increase the risk of abuse and violence against the elderly. Other research points to an offender's past exposure to domestic violence as a factor.¹⁸⁶

An analysis of police data reported to Statistics Canada in 2002 found that seniors were more likely to be victimised by non-family members than family (70% compared to 30%).¹⁸⁷ Regarding family violence, female seniors were more likely than males to be victimised by a spouse (30% versus 19%) while male seniors were more likely than females to be victimised by an adult child (42% versus 35%). According to Statistics Canada, in 2002, common assault was the most frequent family offence (53%), followed by uttering threats (21%) and major assault (14%). Males were threatened at a higher rate than females who were more likely assaulted.

Although community-based care has become the preferred method of care for seniors, the actual number of seniors living in institutions is expected to rise due to sheer growth in their demographic. Elderly who live in long-term health facilities usually do so because of their ability to take care of themselves has degraded. This leaves them more vulnerable to potential abuse than other seniors. In 1998, the National Clearinghouse on Family Violence conducted a study on abuse of elderly who live in institutions. They found that seniors who resided in institutions were particularly vulnerable to abuse because of lack of institutional resources and difficulties faced by health care workers.¹⁸⁸ A survey of 1,600 nurses in 1993, conducted by the

¹⁸⁴ Coston, C. **Victimizing Vulnerable Groups: Images of Uniquely High-Risk Crime Targets**, Westport, Conn.: Praeger Publishers, 2004.

¹⁸⁵ Brzozowski, J.A. *Family Violence Against Older Adults*. In **Family Violence in Canada: A Statistical Profile, 2004**. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, July 2004.

¹⁸⁶ Ibid.

¹⁸⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.



Ontario College of Nurses, found that 20% reported witnessed abuse of patients in nursing homes, 31% witnessed rough handling, 28% witnessed yelling and swearing at patients, 28% witnessed embarrassing comments directed to patients, and 10% reported staff assaulting patients.¹⁸⁹

In 2004, a senior made national headlines when two of her caregivers secretly videotaped abuse at her retirement home.¹⁹⁰ In November 2004, the Ontario Government proposed to introduce a new *Long-Term Care Homes Act* to consolidate the three existing Acts that deal with the operation of nursing homes. The proposed Act is expected to improve the quality of life and standards of care for residents, strengthen resident rights and safeguards to combat abuse and neglect, and develop strong compliance, inspection, and enforcement programs in Nursing homes.¹⁹¹

Toronto Police Service data show that 2,657 people 65 years or older were victims of assault or sexual assault in the past five years, 2000 to 2004.¹⁹² While current information systems do not reliably capture data on occurrences of elder abuse, occurrences that were entered in the TPS database coded specifically as elder abuse showed a decrease in 2004, compared to 2003 and 1995. In 2004, the most common offence was assault (including assault with weapon or bodily harm), continuing a trend observed in previous years. Following assault, uttering threats/threatening bodily harm or death also occurred relatively frequently each year.

As with other types of abuse within the family, it is believed that elder abuse is under-reported. Many older adults have to contend with various health problems that can limit their physical or mental functioning. Such limitations can leave many of these older people vulnerable to various types of abuse, which they may not report to police due to a number of factors, including embarrassment, fear, guilt, love of and/or dependency on the perpetrator, family pressures, cultural background, distrust of police and the court system, denial of the abuse, or lack of awareness that an offence has taken place.¹⁹³

F. HATE/BIAS CRIME

Motivation to commit crime based on hate or bias places the community in a position of great vulnerability. For a victim of hate/bias crime there is only fear and isolation. For the wider community, stress and social tension may permeate the group and develop a further fear of being targets of these crimes.

In 2002, Statistics Canada conducted an Ethnic Diversity Study (EDS) with people of various ethnic and cultural backgrounds. The study investigated experiences with criminal victimisation in the previous five years and asked specifically if they believed the offence was motivated by hatred. The EDS found that about 9% of Canadians who indicated they had been victimised within the past five years believed that the offence committed against them could be

¹⁸⁹ Ibid.

¹⁹⁰ *Help Me: Elder Abuse in Canada*, CTV website, 2004 (www.ctv.ca).

¹⁹¹ *McGuinity Government Putting Long-Term Care Residents First*, Government of Ontario – News, November 2004, website (ogov.newswire.ca).

¹⁹² This number may, in fact, be smaller, since some people may have been victimised and reported it more than once.

¹⁹³ From presentation by Toronto Police Service's Elder Abuse Co-ordinator, Community Policing Support Unit.



considered a hate crime.¹⁹⁴ More than one-third (39%) of these people believed that the offence was motivated by the offender’s hatred of their ethnicity, race, language, and/or religion. The study also found that individuals who reported having previously experienced any kind of hate crime were about four times more likely to be worried about suffering subsequent hate crime victimisations than those who had not been victimised.

Statistics Canada undertook a hate crime pilot study in 2001 and 2002, collecting data from 12 Canadian police services including Toronto.¹⁹⁵ A total of 928 criminal hate incidents were reported. Mischief, assault, uttering threats, and hate propaganda, in that order, were found to be the most common offences. Crimes motivated by race/ethnicity accounted for 57% of all hate crimes, followed by religion (43%) and sexual orientation (10%). Only 7% of all hate crime incidents involved multiple violations.

As shown in Figure 4.12, in Toronto, according to the Hate Crime Unit of TPS Detective Services, there were a total of 163 hate crimes reported in 2004.¹⁹⁶ This number represented a 46.0% decrease from the 302 hate crimes reported in 1995 and an increase of 9.4% compared to the record low of 149 hate crimes reported in 2003. The communities most targeted in 2004 were the Jewish community (59), the Black community (31), the Gay community (10), and the Muslim community (9).

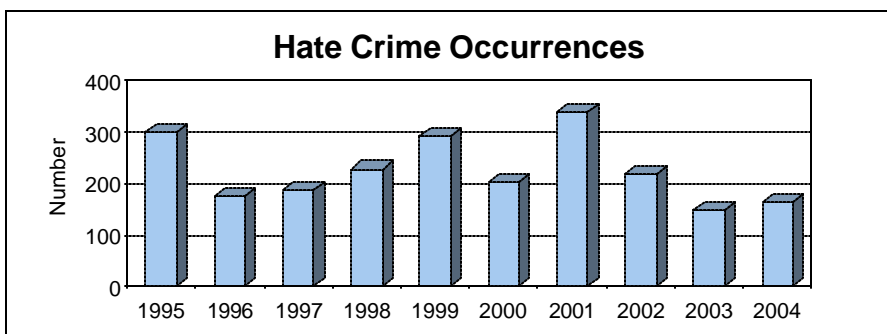


Figure 4.12

Source: TPS Hate Crime Unit

Over most of the years examined, assaults, mischief, threats, and wilful promotion of hatred represented the most common types of hate-motivated offences. Until about 2000, assaults had represented the highest percentage of reported hate crime offences. However, as can be seen from Figure 4.13, the proportion of the total hate offences represented by each of these specific offences has shifted. In particular, mischief has become by far the most commonly reported offence. In 2004, mischief accounted for 96 occurrences compared to 49 in 2003. Reporting of mischief in particular may be affected by other factors. Graffiti, which accounts for the majority of mischief offences, is a crime that may not be noticed or reported for a considerably long time after an offence took place. Community or media focus on hate crime may also affect reporting trends. Assaults in 2004 (26) showed a 13.0% increase from 2003

¹⁹⁴ Silver, W., Mihorean, K., and Taylor-Butts, A. *Hate Crime in Canada*. *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 24(4), May 2004.

¹⁹⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁹⁶ Toronto Police Service. **2004 Annual Hate/Bias Crime Statistical Report**, Hate Crime Unit, Detective Services Intelligence Support.



(23). Threats decreased 23.3% in 2004 (23) from 2003 (30). And, occurrences of wilful promotion of hatred decreased by 61.3%, from 31 in 2003 to 12 in 2004.

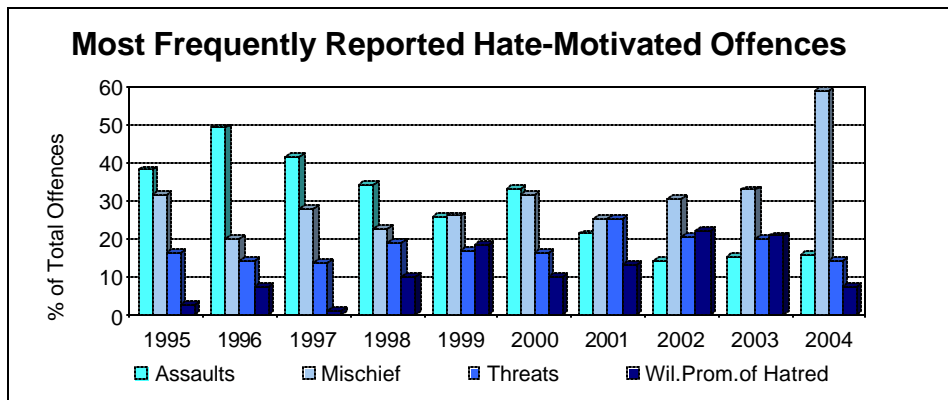


Figure 4.13

Source: TPS Hate Crime Unit

As noted above, according to the TPS Hate Crime Unit, in 2004, mischief offences consisted mainly of graffiti. Apartment buildings, educational facilities, places of worship, and Toronto Transit Commission property were the targets of the majority of mischief. Religion, race, and nationality, in that order, represented the most common targets of hate-motivated mischief in 2004. Similar to past trends, threats and assaults were usually unprovoked and tended to occur in the victim’s environment (e.g. neighbourhood, school, place of employment, etc.).

In each of the past ten years, hate offences have typically focused most frequently on race and religion: of the 2,257 hate offences recorded since 1995, these two categories together were the targets of almost two-thirds (62.7%). Figure 4.14 shows the number of offences targeting race and religion in each of the past ten years.

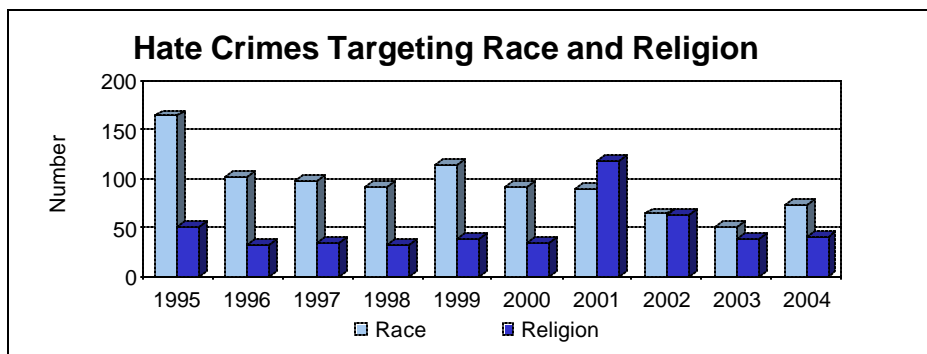


Figure 4.14

Source: TPS Hate Crime Unit

In 2005, Statistics Canada will begin to collect continuous detailed information on hate crimes that come the attention of police through the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR2) Survey. Both victim surveys and the police reported data continue to contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of hate crime.



G. VICTIM RESOURCES

The last nation-wide Victim Services Survey was conducted by Statistics Canada in 2003. Overall, 412 agencies reported serving 359,767 clients from April 2002 to March 2003. In a 'snapshot' of a single day in October 2003, the survey identified 373 victim service agencies in Canada were serving 4,358 clients, 77% were female and 23% were male.¹⁹⁷ Almost half (45%) of clients received emotional support, 39% received general information, 26% received information on the criminal justice structure, 23% received education, and 22% received court information.

In Ontario, 109 agencies reported serving 130,117 clients between April 2002 and March 2003. On the single day 'snapshot' in October 2003, 99 victim service agencies in Ontario reported providing help to 1,218 clients, 84% were female and 16% were male.

Victim Services Program of Toronto:

Victim Services was established in 1990 to assist the Toronto Police Service with victims of crime. In 1996, the Victim Services program became fully incorporated. The program is funded by the Ministry of the Attorney General and operates on a charitable, non-profit basis. The program continues to be affiliated with the Service's Community Programs Unit and is the only mobile victim assistance unit that operates 24 hours a day, every day of the year within the City. Direction is provided for the program by a community-based Board of Directors. Victim Services' full-time paid staff are supported by student placements and volunteers. New volunteers continue to be trained each year. The student placements and volunteers are essential support to the professional staff in delivering service to victims.

The goal of Victim Services is to provide a co-ordinated response to victims of crime and/or circumstances with specific emphasis in the area of domestic violence, to enhance the services provided by the Toronto Police Service to citizens who may be victims of crime, and to facilitate greater access to police services by diverse, ethno-cultural and racial groups. Victim Services provides victims of crime with immediate crisis intervention, support, and referrals to agencies in their community and mediation. Because of the high volume of service requests, the majority of calls are handled over the telephone. If required, Victim Services staff will attempt to provide timely on-site intervention. Victim Services also manages the DVERS program. The Domestic Violence Emergency Response System (DVERS) is a personal alarm for victims who are at a high risk of experiencing violence or death by an estranged partner.¹⁹⁸

As shown in Figure 4.15, requests to Victim Services for support, information, and intervention has shown a steady increase over the years, primarily in the area of telephone follow-ups. In 2004, there were 8,253 calls handled by telephone, representing a 120.0% increase from the 3,751 in 1995 and a 6.0% increase from the 7,788 telephone interventions in 2003. On-scene attendance accounted for 500 (5.7%) of all requests for assistance in 2004. The 500 on-scene calls represented a 6.7% decrease from the 536 on-scene calls in 2003 and a 5.8% decrease from the 531 on-scene calls reported in 1995.

¹⁹⁷ de Léséleuc, S. and Kong, R. **Victim Services in Canada: National, Provincial and Territorial Fact Sheets 2002/03**, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, December 2004.

¹⁹⁸ Victim Services website (www.victimstoronto.ca/aboutus.htm).

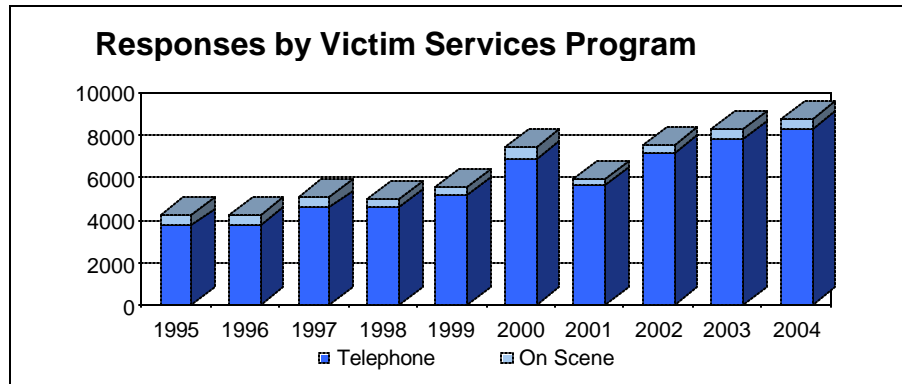


Figure 4.15

Source: Victim Services Program of Toronto, Inc.

According to Victim Services, the steady increase in the number of responses may be due to increased awareness on the benefits of Victim Services by officers and an increased number of referrals from the community. Victim Services actively conducts community outreach programs, which has heightened their visibility in the community and has developed strong relationships with other agencies.

Victim/Witness Assistance Program (VWAP):

The Victim/Witness Assistance Program (VWAP) is operated by the Ontario Victim Services Secretariat (Ministry of Attorney General). This service operates 45 offices in courts throughout Ontario, including 7 court locations in Toronto.

The VWAP mandate is to provide information, assistance, and support to victims and witnesses of crime in order to increase their understanding of, and participation in, the criminal justice process.¹⁹⁹ Their services include crises intervention, needs assessment, referrals to community agencies, emotional support, case specific information (court dates, bail conditions), and court preparation and orientation. These services are made available to adults and children after charges have been laid.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- The Service must ensure that the data available through Service databases is sufficient for and receives in-depth analysis and review to identify the demographic characteristics, risk factors, etc. associated with victimisation of various types (e.g. child abuse, elder abuse, spousal abuse, etc.). This type of information will allow the Service to appropriately target prevention, enforcement, and education projects or programs.
- Training must be current to emerging technology used by the Service and must ensure that officers are aware of the importance of accurately noting type of violence (e.g. child abuse, elder abuse, etc.) on reports, as well as the criteria for making such notation. As is currently

¹⁹⁹ Victim Witness Assistance Program, Ontario Ministry of Attorney General, website (www.attorneygeneral.jus.gov.on.ca/english/about/vw/vwap.asp).



being done for domestic violence, Service analysts working in areas dealing with victimisation of other vulnerable groups should review occurrences to ensure reports are being completed and coded properly, with supervision ensuring accountability.

- With the probable under-reporting of violence, the Service must continue to encourage victims to come forward. Barriers such as language difficulties, cultural and community differences, etc. must be identified and removed, and victims must be provided with education on identifying abuse, as well as appropriate services and support.
- Given current trends relating to victims vulnerable to certain types of crime (due to, for example, gender, age, race, religion, etc.), the Service must continue to work closely with the different communities and agencies within the City, using data and other reliable research findings to develop strategies to respond appropriately to these types of victimisations.
- Given the emergence of cyber stalking, the Service must be aware of cyber crime, and must provide victims with a well-informed resource for protection and prevention. The Service must provide tools for a proactive response to cyber-crime to both victims and their families, in particular to parents who lack the technical knowledge to police the Internet being used by their children.
- As children and youth represent vulnerable groups in society, it is important to understand the far-reaching consequences of child abuse, and to work with community agencies and others to prevent abuse and to provide early intervention.
- Domestic violence and violence towards women may victimise both the person being abused and children who may witness the violence. The Service must continue to recognise the importance of prevention, education, and early intervention programs to address domestic violence.
- Officers and case managers should be encouraged to use victim service agencies for counselling, support, or referrals to other agencies for victims who require such assistance.





V. TRAFFIC

As vehicles travel throughout the City, it is important to understand their influence on public safety and policing. A vision of patterns and trends associated with the movement and volume of traffic will assist in predicting the demand for police resources. Emergency vehicles face many challenges navigating city streets, and, in addition to this safety concern, traffic congestion is frustrating to the public, the police, and other drivers. Traffic collisions, and their association with road design and driver ability, influence the public's perception of safety. Issues surrounding vehicle and pedestrian traffic will continue to be a priority for the larger community.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Ontario has endorsed a national initiative aimed at making Canada's roads the safest roads in the world. In the fall of 2000, the Canadian Council of Motor Transport Administrators adopted the *Road Safety Vision 2010*, with the endorsement of all provincial/territorial Ministers of transportation and highway safety.
- The City of Toronto covers an area of 632 square kilometres and, in 2003, had 1,160,775 motor vehicles registered, in comparison to 943,000 total households. This represented an average of 1.23 vehicles per household in the City.
- Unless the pattern of where people live and how they travel change, Toronto will need 19 more lanes of expressways by the year 2021. According to the results of the 2001 Census, in the Greater Toronto Area (GTA), 1,500,000 people (72%) drive to work everyday, 504,000 people (23%) take public transit, and 102,680 people (5%) walk or bike.
- Transportation System Management (TSM) techniques have received increased attention due to the reality of limited road capacity and the inability to construct new urban infrastructure to deal with it.
- In 2004, there were 56,375 reportable collisions, a 15.5% decrease from the 66,704 reportable collisions in 2003, and a 14.1% increase from the 49,427 reportable collisions in 1995. The number of reportable collisions in 2004 was the lowest number since 1995.
- In 2004, there were a total of 19,321 property damage collision events, a decrease of 13.4% from 2003.
- There were 13,256 personal injury collision events attended in 2004, down 4.9% from the 13,945 personal injury collision events attended in 2003, and down only 0.2% from the 13,282 personal injury collision events attended in 1996.
- In 2004, there were 66 people killed in traffic collisions, a decrease of 10.8 % compared to 74 killed in 2003 and a decrease of 22.4% from the 85 killed in 1995. Pedestrians 65 years of age and older made up the largest portion of the total number of pedestrians killed in traffic collisions in 2004, continuing a trend observed in previous years.



- The number of HTA charges laid has shown a general upward trend since 1995. The trend continued in 2004, with 400,635 charges, an increase of 5.7% compared with 379,181 in 2003 and a large increase of 86.3% compared to 215,067 in 1995.
- The Centre for Addiction and Mental Health in Toronto has conducted a number of studies on aggressive driving. In 2004, they focused on the relationship between the type of vehicles driven by people and their involvement in road rage. Drivers of high-performance vehicles had higher rates of shouting, cursing, and rude gestures. Commission of serious road rage incidents (threats, violence, or damage) was highest among SUV drivers (1.8%) compared to none of the high performance vehicles in the study.
- A US study reported a link between cell phone use and slow reaction time when driving. The study tested people aged 65-74 years against drivers aged 18-25 years. Young drivers were shown to have reaction times similar to 70 year olds when the young people were talking on hands-free phones.
- According to the National Safety Council of America, driving when fatigued slowed reaction time, decreased awareness, and impaired judgement in a similar way as drugs or alcohol. According to US statistics, collision death rates were 2.5 times higher at night than during the day in 2002.
- More than one-third (37%) of drivers surveyed by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration admitted to falling asleep at the wheel at some point in their driving career; 60% admitted falling asleep while driving on a highway with a posted speed of 55mph or higher. The drivers at the highest risk were shift workers, people that drove a substantial number of miles each day, those with unrecognised sleep disorders, or those prescribed medication with sedatives.
- In November 2004, proposed amendments to the Criminal Code of Canada and other Acts were introduced to strengthen the enforcement of drug-impaired driving offences in Canada. Bill C-16 would expand drug enforcement capabilities by giving police the authority to demand physical sobriety tests and bodily fluid samples under the Criminal Code.

A. ROAD SAFETY IN CANADA

Canada's vast geography, population density, and its occasional unforgiving climate combine to make a safe and well-functioning road system a priority for most Canadians. The Federal government, through Transport Canada, conducts national traffic/collision data collection, analysis, research, program development, and evaluation.

The majority of traffic rules are contained within provincial and territorial legislation, which are enforced by the police. Provinces and territories are responsible for driver improvement initiatives, such as demerit point programs, and for the administration of sanctions, such as driver's license suspensions, vehicle impoundment, and ignition interlock programs for drinking and driving infractions.²⁰⁰

²⁰⁰ Road Safety Vision 2010 – Annual Report 2002, Transport Canada, Ministry of Transport, February 2004.



Municipalities continue to be involved in road safety initiatives through traffic engineering, injury prevention, road maintenance and police services.

Road Safety Vision 2010:

As the Police Service looks toward addressing future challenges and trends, it is important to be aware of federal and provincial traffic/driver initiatives. Ontario has endorsed a national initiative aimed at making Canada's roads the safest roads in the world. In the fall of 2000, the Canadian Council of Motor Transport Administrators (CCMTA) adopted the Road Safety Vision 2010, with the endorsement of all provincial/territorial ministers of transportation and highway safety. The Vision sets a target that calls for a 30% reduction in the average numbers of drivers killed or seriously injured during the 2008-2010 period compared to the 1996-2001 period. Focused action and targeted reductions in the areas where the largest numbers of serious events occur support the Vision.²⁰¹ These targets include:

Seat Belt Use

- 95% rate of seat belt use and proper use of child car seats
- 40% decrease in the number of fatal or seriously injured unbelted persons

Drinking and Driving

- 40% decrease in persons killed or injured in collisions involving drinking drivers

High-Risk Drivers

- 20% decrease in the number of persons killed or seriously injured in collisions involving high-risk drivers (those who commit 3 high-risk driving infractions within a 2 year period or 2 infractions if alcohol is involved)

Collisions Involving High-Speed and Intersection-Related Accidents

- 20% decrease in the number of road users killed or seriously injured in speed or intersection-related collisions

Young Drivers

- 20% decrease in the number of young drivers/riders (16 to 19 years old) killed or seriously injured in collisions

Commercial Vehicle Safety

- 20% decrease in the number of road users killed or seriously injured in collisions involving commercial vehicles

Vulnerable Road Users

- 30% decrease in the number of pedestrians, motorcyclists, and bicyclists killed or seriously injured

²⁰¹ Ontario Road Safety Annual Report 2002 – Building Safe Communities, Ontario Ministry of Transportation, April 2004.



Programs such as the graduated licensing system and programs dealing with reducing drinking and driving, general road, and pedestrian safety should continue to be at the forefront of initiatives aimed at reaching those goals.

B. TORONTO – TRANSPORTATION INFRASTRUCTURE OVERVIEW

The City of Toronto covers an area of 632 square kilometres and, in 2003, had 1,160,775 motor vehicles registered, in comparison to 943,000 total households.²⁰² This translates to an average of 1.23 vehicles per household in the City of Toronto. Some general transportation facts are shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.2, below.

Table 5.1
Toronto Roadways

Local Roads	3,500 km
Collectors	700 km
Minor Arterials	400 km
Major Arterials	400 km
Expressways	45 km
Total Road Network	5,345 km

Source: City of Toronto, Transportation Services

Table 5.2
Transportation Network Facts

Bus Routes	6,590 km
Streetcar Routes	306 km
Subway Routes	62 km
No. of Signalised Intersections	1,947
No. of Pedestrian Crossovers	596
No. of Flashing Beacons	390
Audible Pedestrian Signals	65
No. of Red Light Camera Locations	38
No. of Traffic Cameras	53
No. of Traffic Signs	approx. 424,000
Centre Line and Lane Lines	4,265,000 km

Source: City of Toronto, Transportation Services

C. TRAFFIC VOLUME IN TORONTO

Toronto is in a unique position as many people travel from outside the City to work within it. More highway development and less development in transit and other alternatives

²⁰² **Traffic Data Report – Year End Review 2003**, City of Toronto, Transportation Services, Traffic Management Centre, Traffic Data Centre and Safety Bureau, November 2004.



outside the City complicate traffic volume in Toronto. The government is presently planning studies and developing and assessing potential new or improved corridors into Toronto, including:²⁰³

- the widening and extension of Highway 427 to the north;
- the extension of Highway 407 to the east, to link with Highways 35 and 115;
- the widening and extension of Highway 404 to the north;
- updates to and expansion of Highway 401;
- improving Highway 400;
- improving the Queen Elizabeth Way (QEW); and,
- long range studies and corridor protection for a future east/west corridor through the Greater Toronto Area (GTA), north of Highway 407.

According to the City of Toronto website, unless there are changes the pattern of where people live and how they travel, the City will need 19 more lanes of expressways by the year 2021.²⁰⁴ As reported in the *2004 Environmental Scan*, according to the results of the 2001 Census, in the GTA, 1,500,000 people (72%) drive to work everyday, 504,000 people (23%) take public transit, and 102,680 people (5%) walk or bike.²⁰⁵

As captured in the 'Campaign for Next Generation Transportation', which is part of the Toronto Official Plan, the City of Toronto continues in its vision to reduce automobile dependence and improve the competitiveness of public transit. The Campaign focuses on four elements: moving people, moving goods, moving less, and moving minds.²⁰⁶

Moving People:

Globally, urban transportation is evolving and applying new systems, technologies, and business models to meet future challenges. A recent World Bank Study found that the most liveable cities:²⁰⁷

- have the most sophisticated transportation systems;
- are highly transit-oriented with strong regional passenger rail networks;
- have (mixed) compact urban and suburban development with densities that support viable public transit and active transportation;
- have developed highly integrated transportation systems that make efficient use of all modes of transport; and,
- spend the least per capita on transportation.

²⁰³ The Ontario Ministry of Transportation website (www.mto.gov.on.ca/english/pubs).

²⁰⁴ **City of Toronto – The Official Plan for the City of Toronto, Campaign for Next Generation Transportation** (www.toronto.ca/torontoplan/772.htm), 2005.

²⁰⁵ The Greater Toronto Area consists of Toronto, Durham Region, Halton Region, Peel Region, and York Region.

²⁰⁶ **City of Toronto – Toronto Plan Directions Report, Toronto at the Crossroads: Shaping our Future**, 2000 (www.city.toronto.on.ca/torontoplan/crossroads_change.htm).

²⁰⁷ Ibid.



New approaches to commuting focus on making travel more convenient through technology. For example; for a long trip into the City, a person may use a personal car for the sake of convenience, but a smart-card that could provide the convenient ability to transfer seamlessly from local to regional transit to taxi could be a viable option for moving people efficiently. This, in concert with a safe and reliable upgraded transit system, and walking and cycling accessibility, would assist in moving people in and out of the City in a healthy way.

As discussed in greater detail in the chapter on Urban Trends, the City of Toronto has purchased and is upgrading Union Station. The Toronto Transit Commission (TTC) is upgrading the Union Station platforms and GO Transit has a long-term plan that will meet the pressure of additional patrons and future service requirements.²⁰⁸

Moving Goods:

In recent years, there has been a trend in moving goods from rail to road, which is expected to continue. Trucks and service vehicles are using the same roads that are used by commuters during the rush hours. Pro-transit policies that promote fewer cars on the road will benefit the moving of materials, but the benefits may be reduced where road space is designated for transit use only.

Moving Less:

A number of studies have theorised that a good way to handle growth is to direct much of it into higher-density centres and corridors to create a more structured urban environment. This would generate and focus travel demands in a pattern that supports better and more frequent public transit.

Moving Minds:

Congestion cannot be conquered solely through new roads, people need to change their life patterns to accommodate the use of other viable transit options. Information and understanding, and dialogue and partnership with the community combined, with effective marketing, are required to deal with traffic population problems. People are becoming more aware of the health and environmental concerns related to traffic and a lifestyle centred on driving. An acceptance of new mobility and new urbanism is necessary to deal with the future problems of greater traffic volume.

D. CITY OF TORONTO CORDON COUNT

The City's Cordon Count program counts the number of vehicles by type and the number of persons that cross selected counting stations.²⁰⁹ Results from the Cordon Count program assist with infrastructure planning, transportation policies, and monitoring of traffic trends. In

²⁰⁸ Ibid.

²⁰⁹ There are a series of continuous counting stations that are grouped to form a screenline. The screenlines follow natural or man-made boundaries such as a river or a railway corridor. A cordon refers to a geographic area enclosed by a set of screenlines.



the City of Toronto, cordon count data has been collected since 1975, and is conducted on a regular basis. The most recent cordon count data available for analysis originates from 2002.²¹⁰

There are two main areas (cordons) monitored by the program. The first area is the City of Toronto Boundary Cordon that includes three screenlines: the Etobicoke Creek and Highway 427 screenline forms the west boundary with Peel Region, the Steeles Avenue screenline forms the north boundary with York Region, and the Pickering Townline/Rouge River screenline forms the east boundary with Durham Region. Lake Ontario forms the southern boundary of the cordon. The second area is the Central Area Cordon 'Going Downtown' which is defined by the Bathurst Street screenline to the west, the CP Rail North Toronto Subdivision (south of Dupont Street) screenline to the north, and the Bayview Avenue/Don River screenline to the east. Lake Ontario again forms the southern boundary.

The traffic volume based on 2002 Cordon Counts for the City of Toronto was as follows:²¹¹

From the West (vehicles/day) – 37.8% of total traffic volume

- Inbound: 493,000
- Outbound: 468,000

From the North (vehicles/day) – 52.3% of total traffic volume

- Inbound: 652,000
- Outbound: 677,000

From the East (vehicles/day) 9.9 % of total traffic volume

- Inbound: 128,000
- Outbound: 123,000

Total Inbound: 1.273 million vehicles/day

Total Outbound: 1.268 million vehicles/day

These 24-hour counts, as well as peak hour counts, are shown in Figure 5.1.

²¹⁰ A Cordon Count was completed in 2004, but the data was not available at time of writing.

²¹¹ All cordon count data from: **Traffic Data Report – Year End Review 2002**, City of Toronto, Transportation Services, Traffic Management Centre, Traffic Data Centre and Safety Bureau, December 2003 and the **2001 City Of Toronto Cordon Count Program**, City of Toronto, Urban Development Services, City Planning, December 2002.

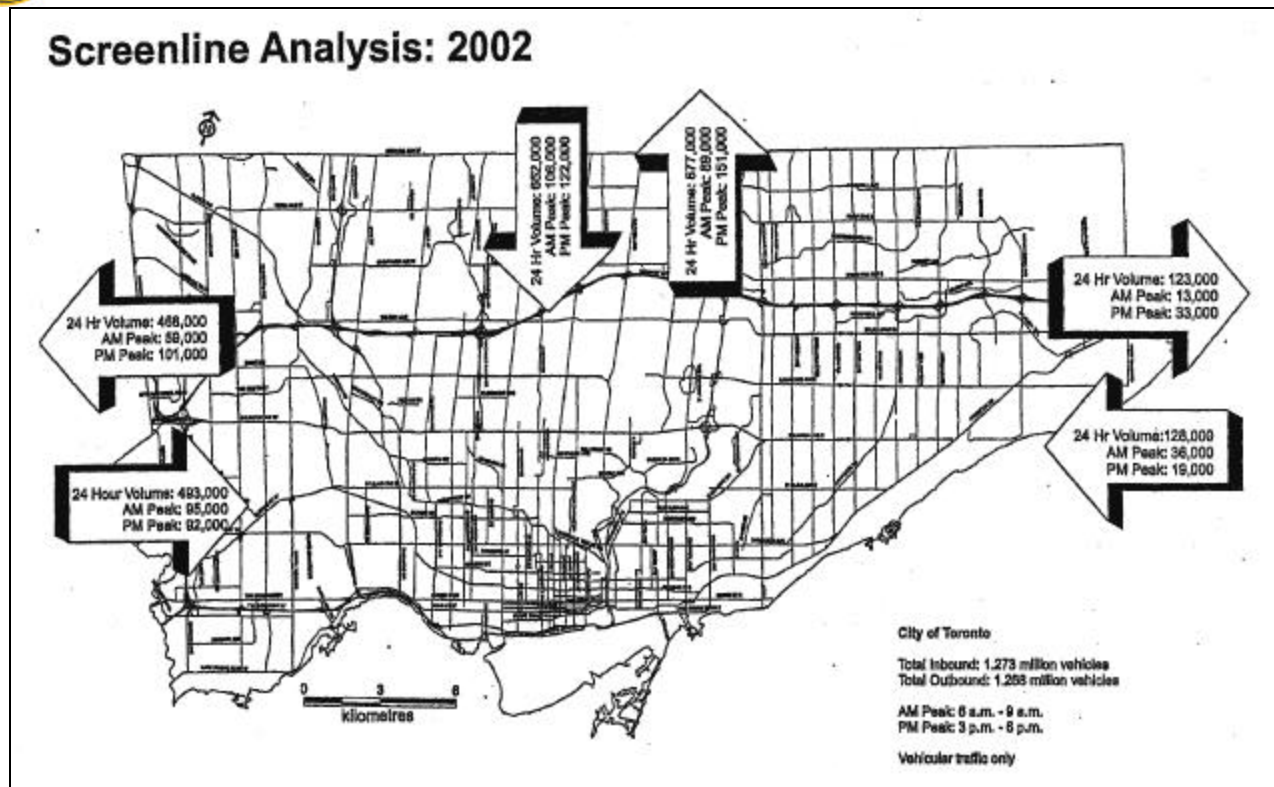


Figure 5.1

Source: City of Toronto, Transportation Services

The data suggests that there were almost as many cars outbound as there were inbound in terms of vehicle trips per day in the City. The highest traffic volume in the morning for inbound and outbound vehicle traffic was between 8:00 and 9:00 a.m. and in the afternoon was between 5:00 and 6:00 p.m.. Between 1981 and 2001, travel across the City boundaries increased considerably: there was a 98% increase in inbound, a.m. peak period vehicles and a corresponding 86% increase in person trips.

Travel across the Central Cordon boundaries, although subject to fluctuation, remained at relatively stable levels. The road system in the Central area operates close to or at capacity during the morning peak period of 7:00 to 10:00 a.m.. Single occupant automobiles did 65% of inbound trips during the a.m. peak periods in 2001 compared to 55% in 1981. Transit accounted for 66% of the trips into the Central Area during the a.m. peak period in 2001.

E. TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT

Techniques in traffic management include the use of signs, co-ordinated traffic signals, and markings to move traffic efficiently. Optimising the safety of a neighbourhood involves factors such as street width, lane width, number of intersecting streets, number of cars per unit time and even/uneven nature of flow, number and ability of pedestrians (age, disabilities, etc.), and many other factors.

One current traffic management system being used by the City is the Road Emergency Services Communications Unit (RESCU) system. The RESCU system is used to detect



disruptions to traffic flow along the Don Valley Parkway, Gardiner Expressway, and Lake Shore Boulevard. When a disruption is detected, RESCU operators notify the appropriate emergency services agency as well as road users of any important information. The system consists of 53 traffic cameras, 635 vehicle sensors, and 5 overhead changeable message signs. Information is provided through fax to subscribers, via a website showing traffic flow and incident information regarding the affected roads, and through a 24-hour voice information system for road construction news.²¹² The Remote Traffic Information System (RTIS) uses sensors buried beneath the Gardiner Expressway, Lake Shore Boulevard, and the Don Valley Parkway to measure the average speed of traffic. The information is extracted and displayed for agency and public information. The system also provides information of active traffic events and is updated regularly as traffic conditions change.

Current and Future Trends:

During peak periods, the City of Toronto's road and transit systems experience severe congestion in many locations. As a result, the challenge to accommodate the increased traffic demand associated with projected population and employment growth becomes even more important. An analysis by the Greater Toronto Services Board predicts that the future holds great challenges in relation to the regional road network outside the City where transit and other options will be more difficult to develop – travel patterns within the City of Toronto are influenced by transportation and land use policies outside the City. The success of GO Transit is encouraging for the future, but this system will be pressured to keep up with demand.

Transportation Systems Management (TSM) refers to a number of techniques used to improve traffic flow and safety. These techniques have received increased attention due to the reality of limited road capacity and the inability to construct new urban infrastructure to deal with it. Some examples as described in the *2004 Scan* are:

- High Occupancy Vehicle lanes (HOV);
- reversible lanes (during a.m. and p.m. peak periods);
- a series of one way streets;
- strategically timed intersection lights to maximise efficient traffic flow;
- extension of rush hour 'no parking' restrictions on major arterials;
- incident management programs, such as traffic control for better traveller information;
- trip chaining (planning and sequencing of travel routes to minimise unnecessary duplication of road trips); and,
- controlling access to expressways with barriers during peak periods to minimise traffic flow interruption.

Transportation Demand Management (TDM) strategies can be established and funded by local government. As outlined in the *2004 Environmental Scan*, some TDM measures include workplace trip reduction programs and flexible strategies to reduce single occupant vehicle trips

²¹² City of Toronto website (www.city.toronto.on.ca), 2005.



to the workplace. These strategies promote sustainable transportation systems. Some examples of TDM strategies are:²¹³

- group commuting (public transit, carpool, van pool);
- schedule changes (telework, flex time);
- active commuting, such as walking and cycling; and,
- charging user fees for vehicles entering the city during business hours.

An emerging trend is the influence of travel on the expanding use of telecommunications and electronic networks. Electronic shopping, banking, and working can, on one hand, reduce the need to travel, however, they may also encourage travel by allowing people to live further away, where transit options other than a vehicle are limited.

Governments are continuing to examine new and emerging technologies, known as Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITS), for solutions to assist in meeting the current and future challenges placed on transportation systems. Intelligent Transportation Systems include the application of advanced information processing (computers), communications, technologies, and management strategies, in an integrated manner, to improve the safety, capacity, and efficiency of the transportation system. ITS applications can generally be divided into eight categories:²¹⁴

1. traveller information services (e.g. advisory systems);
2. traffic management services (e.g. advanced traffic signal systems, highway incident detection, etc.);
3. public transport services (e.g. electronic transit schedule information, GPS tracking of bus movements and location, etc.);
4. commercial vehicle operations (e.g. weigh-in-motion, electronic truck clearance at vehicle inspection stations, etc.);
5. electronic payment services (e.g. transit fare, etc.);
6. emergency management services (e.g. improving emergency vehicle response time by fleet tracking, route guidance, and signal pre-emption, etc.);
7. vehicle safety and control systems (e.g. collision avoidance sensor technologies, etc.); and,
8. information warehousing services (e.g. traffic safety data, archived data management, etc.).

The Integrated Mobility System (IMS) may be the future of urban transportation. It brings the idea of connectivity and convenience to the forefront of public transportation. The IMS project explores the development of multi-modal, multi-application smart cards. Smart card technology is used to enable access and links to a wide variety of urban and inter-city transportation options, as well as tourist and other urban services and applications.²¹⁵

²¹³ Ibid.

²¹⁴ *Intelligent Transportation Systems*, Government of Alberta website (www.tu.gov.ab.ca), 2005.

²¹⁵ *Integrated Mobility Systems: A Multi-Modal Multi-Application Smart Card Initiative for Canada*, Transport Canada (www.its-sti.gc.ca/en/deployment/Ontario/IMSITS.htm), September 2003.



F. TRAFFIC COLLISIONS

An analysis of traffic accidents can be an indicator of traffic conditions and traffic safety in an area. Analysis of the number of collisions and patterns of these occurrences may indicate the need for traffic enforcement, police resources, and investigation.

Both reportable and non-reportable collisions should be included in any comprehensive analysis of traffic collisions in order to present a total picture.²¹⁶ It should be noted, however, that a less detailed analysis is possible when covering both types of collisions, since fewer data are captured for non-reportable collisions. Data from the City of Toronto Transportation Services show only the number of reportable collisions.

As shown in Figure 5.2, there were 56,375 reportable collisions in 2004, a 15.5% decrease from the 66,704 reportable collisions in 2003, and a 14.1% increase from the 49,427 reportable collisions in 1995. The number of reportable collisions in 2004 was the lowest seen since 1995, and marks the first year since 1999 that there has been fewer than 60,000 reportable collisions. A decrease in vehicular collisions may be due to a number of factors, including Toronto Police safety initiatives aimed at educating the public and enforcing traffic laws, less severe winter weather, improved ability of the City to deal with dangerous road conditions created by weather, an increase in vehicle insurance costs which may discourage the reporting of accidents, improved technology in vehicle design, etc.

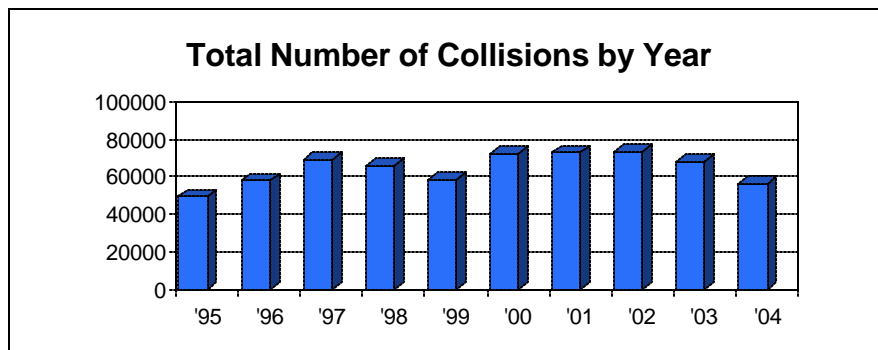


Figure 5.2

Source: City of Toronto Transportation Services

As shown in Figure 5.3, the number of property damage collision events attended by officers increased gradually from 1997 to a peak of 25,726 collisions in 2001, after which it began to decline. Continuing the downward trend, in 2004 there were a total of 19,321 property damage collision events, a decrease of 13.4% from 2003 when there were 22,298 such events, and a decrease of 9.9% from the 21,449 property damage collision events in 1996.

²¹⁶ 'Reportables' are accidents resulting in either property damage of \$1,000 or more, or personal injury, or both. The reporting of such accidents to the police is mandatory under the *Highway Traffic Act*. 'Non-reportables' are accidents resulting in property damage only, where the damage is less than \$1,000. The reporting of such accidents to the police is not mandatory under the *Highway Traffic Act*. Many of these are reported to the police for insurance purposes.

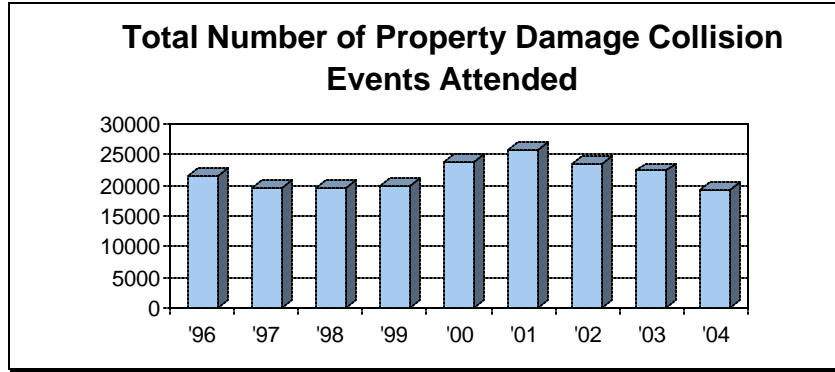


Figure 5.3

Source: TPS I/CAD

As shown in Figure 5.4, the average time spent on property damage collision events attended steadily increased from 64.6 minutes in 1996 to a peak of 114.1 minutes in 2001. In 2004, the average time spent at a property damage collision event was 93.2 minutes. This was a 7.8% decrease from the 101.1 minutes spent in 2003, and a 44.3% increase from the average of 64.6 minutes spent in 1996. The decline in average time spent at property damage collisions may possibly be credited to officers enhanced experience with the investigation of accidents, increased guidance by road supervisors, and the increasing use of technology.

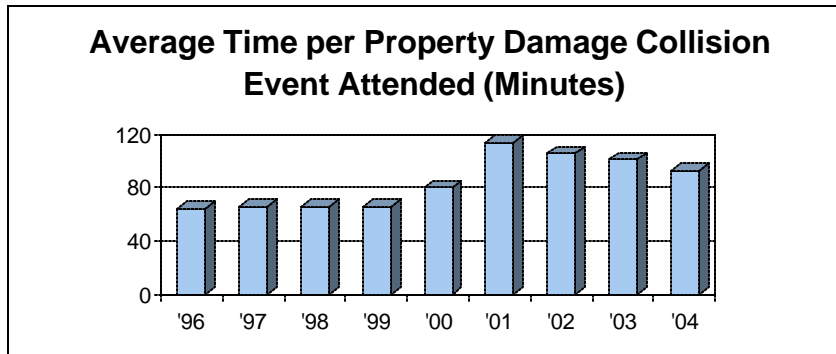


Figure 5.4

Source: TPS I/CAD

Every year there are far fewer collisions that result in personal injury than result in property damage. The number of personal injury collision events attended and average time spent on personal injury collision events attended are shown in Figure 5.5 and Figure 5.6. As seen in Figure 5.5, the total number of personal injury collision events attended has remained fairly stable over the years. There were 13,256 personal injury collision events attended in 2004, down 4.9% from the 13,945 personal injury collision events attended in 2003, and down only 0.2% from the 13,282 personal injury collision events attended in 1996.

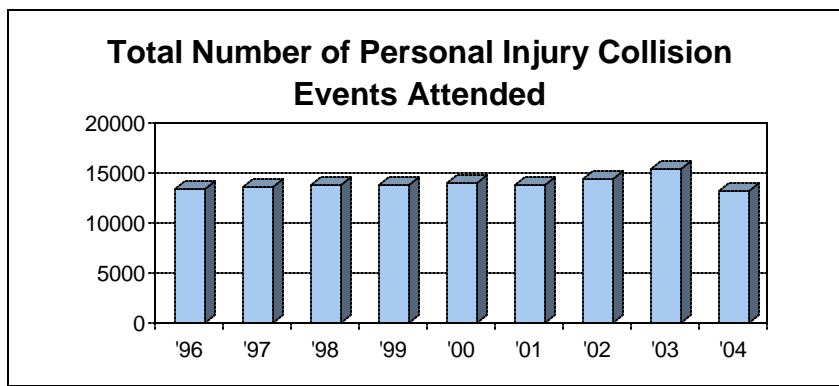


Figure 5.5

Source: TPS I/CAD

As shown in Figure 5.6, the average time spent on personal injury collision events increased notably in 2001 and has remained relatively high. The average time spent by officers on personal injury collision events attended was 232.9 minutes in 2004, a decrease of 1.9% from the 237.5 minutes spent in 2003, but was 31.7% higher than the 176.8 minutes spent in 1996.

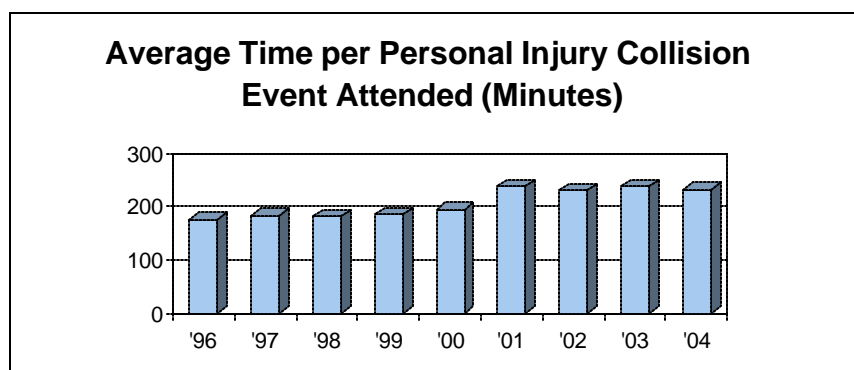


Figure 5.6

Source: TPS I/CAD

The Service would benefit in identifying how efficiently officer time is spent investigating collisions. This could assist in implementing ways to reduce this time while ensuring a high quality investigation is conducted. The use of technology and support personnel must be equally efficient in managing the time spent on accident investigation.

Many factors may be involved when a driver fails to remain at the scene of a collision. Age or cognitive abilities, stress surrounding the accident, or an attempt to evade further criminal or provincial offences (such as impaired driving, possession of a stolen vehicle, lack of insurance, etc.), are just some of the factors to consider. The complexities of Fail-to-Remain collisions remain an area to which the Toronto Police should continue to direct attention. Analysis of Fail-to-Remain events can assist in the evaluation of trends associated with impaired driving, stolen vehicles, and other offences related to drivers.

As shown in Figure 5.7, an upward trend appeared in the number of Fail-to-Remain events around 1999, levelling off around 2002. In 2004, there were 5,463 Fail-to-Remain calls attended, compared to 5,769 in 2003 – a decrease of 5.3%. In comparison to 1996 when there were 4,141 calls, 2004 showed an increase of 31.9%. Increases in the number of Fail-to-



Remains may be due to factors related to both criminal and economic activity. Assuming that many offenders flee to avoid the discovery of further offences, more severe punishment for drinking and driving, the increasing social attitude against drinking and driving, and the increase in insurance rates may be factors contributing to higher numbers.

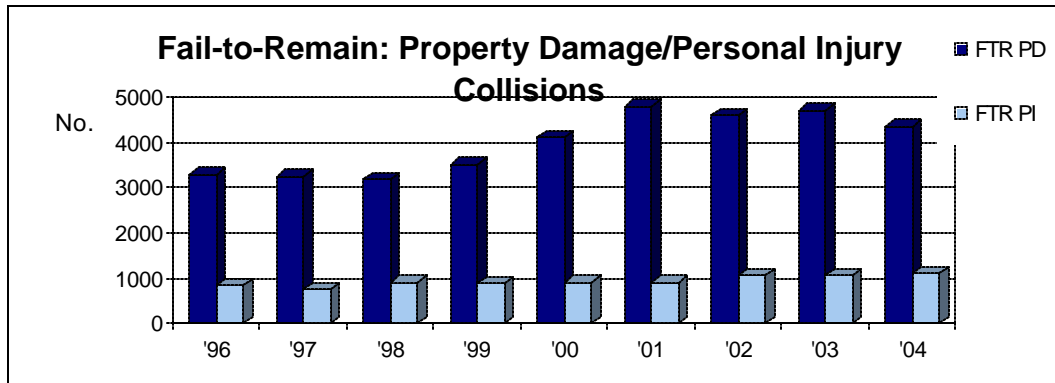


Figure 5.7

Source: TPS I/CAD

As illustrated in Figure 5.8, in 2004, there were 66 people killed in traffic collisions, a decrease of 10.8 % compared to the 74 killed in 2003, and a decrease of 22.4% from the 85 killed in 1995. The lowest number of persons killed in traffic collisions occurred in 2001. Public awareness, campaigns targeted at reducing fatalities, traffic congestion, and improved safety features in automobiles may contribute to a long-term trend of declining traffic fatalities.

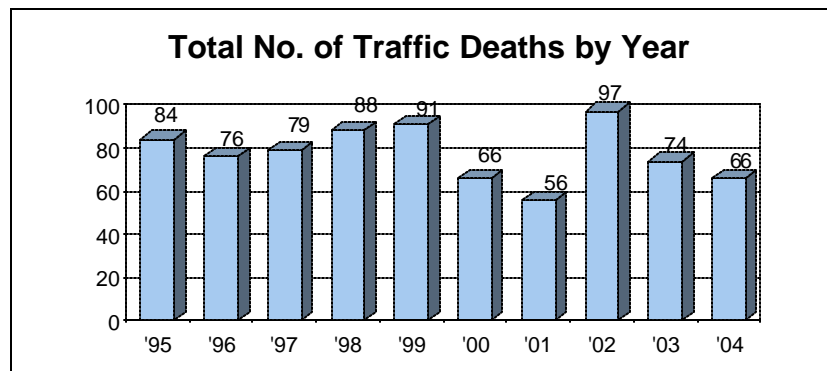


Figure 5.8

Source: TPS Traffic Services

As shown in Figure 5.9, the trend of a higher number of pedestrians killed as compared to drivers, passengers, and cyclists continued in 2004, albeit only marginally. In 2004, 28 pedestrians were killed as a result of traffic collisions, which represented a large 34.9% decrease from the 43 pedestrians killed in 2003 and a 24.3 % decrease from the 37 killed in 1995. There were 23 drivers killed in traffic collisions in 2004, a 4.2 % decrease from 2003, when 24 drivers were killed and a 9.5% increase from the 21 drivers killed in 1995. Thirteen passengers were killed in traffic collisions in 2004, representing a 116.7% increase from the 6 passengers killed in 2003, but a 50.0% decrease from the 26 passengers killed in 1995. There were 2 cyclists killed in 2004, 1 in 2003, and 1 in 1995.

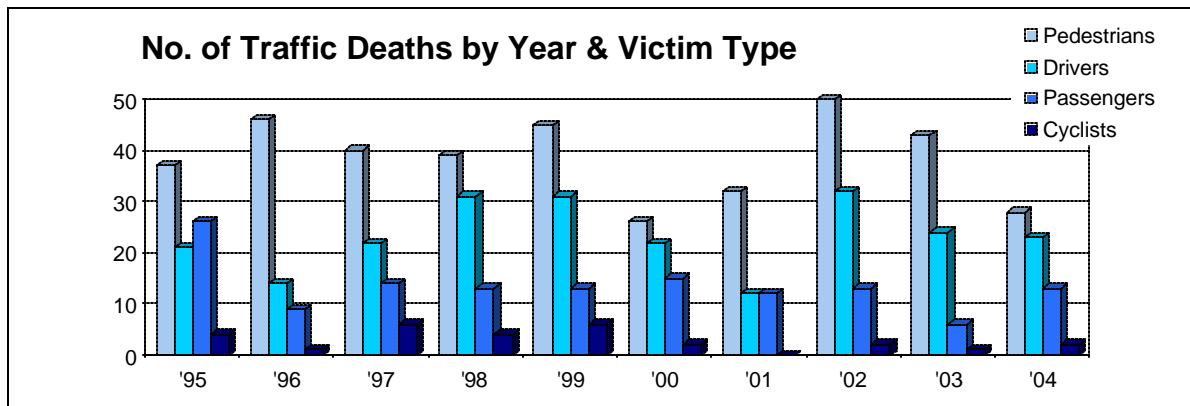


Figure 5.9

Source: TPS Traffic Services

As seen in Figure 5.10, pedestrians 65 years of age and older made up the largest portion of the total number of pedestrians killed in traffic collisions in 2004, continuing a trend observed in previous years. Sixteen pedestrians 65 and older were killed in 2004 – 57.1% of all pedestrians killed in that year. The Toronto Police Service must continue to assist in the education of seniors and to be proactive in traffic safety initiatives relating to our growing elderly population.

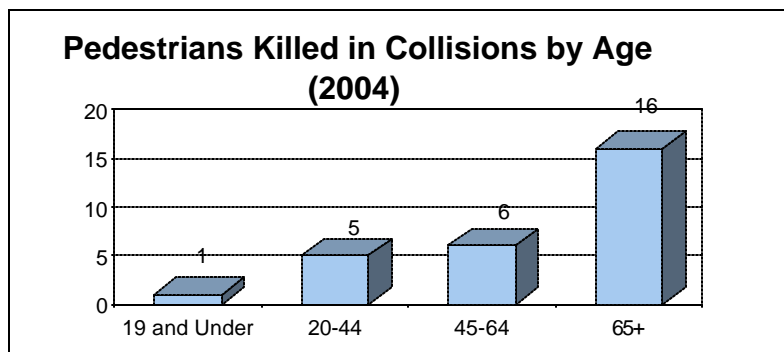


Figure 5.10

Source: TPS Traffic Services

g. Highway Traffic Act

In 2004 and early 2005, two Ontario legislative bills were introduced with the intention of making Ontario roads safer for the wider community. In December 2004, Bill 73, *An act to enhance the safety of children and youth on Ontario's roads*, was passed into law. Bill 73 includes requirements that infants, toddlers, pre-schoolers and primary grade-age children be buckled up in an approved child or booster seat. The Bill also improves school bus safety by allowing vehicle owners to be charged for illegally passing a school bus that is stopped, and improves the graduated licence system by restricting the number of young passengers a G2 driver may have in a car.²¹⁷ In February 2005, the Ontario government introduced *The Transit and Safety Bill*, which targets certain driving offences. This legislation includes: increased

²¹⁷ Ontario Ministry of Transportation website (www.mto.gov.on.ca/english/about/bill73.htm).



penalties at all pedestrian crossings, protection of construction workers by doubling speeding fines in construction zones, allows for faster clean-up and re-opening of highways by police after collisions and spills, encourages car pooling by enforcing high occupancy vehicle lanes, etc.²¹⁸

An analysis of the number of *Highway Traffic Act* (HTA) charges laid provides some indication of road and traffic safety in Toronto. Charges laid under the HTA include careless driving, disobey traffic light and stop sign, speeding, inappropriate turns, defective equipment, improper use of lights, pedestrian cross-over violations, and other such offences.

As can be seen in Figure 5.11, the number of HTA charges has shown a general upward trend since 1995. The trend continued in 2004 with 400,635 charges, an increase of 5.7% compared to 379,181 charges in 2003, and a very large increase of 86.3% compared to 215,067 charges in 1995.

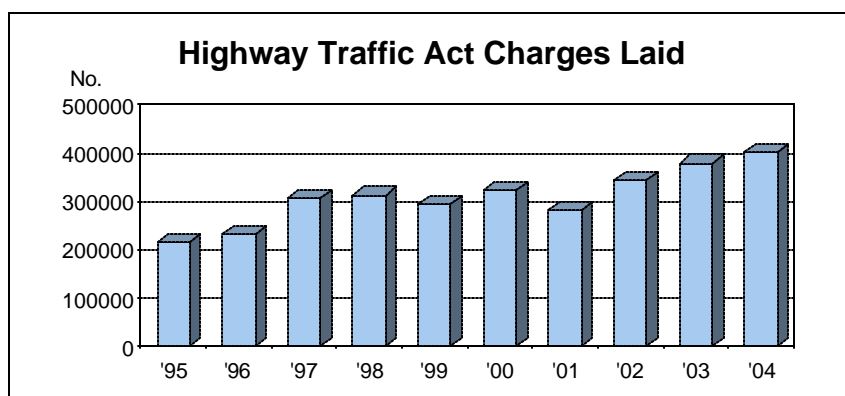


Figure 5.11

Source: TPS Analysis Support

A closer examination of four of the most common HTA charges laid when investigating traffic collisions is shown in Figure 5.12. The data for these charges, which are related to aggressive driving, show that although the total number of HTA charges increased in 2004 from 2003, the number of charges for Follow Too Close, Unsafe Lane Change, Fail to Signal Lane Change, and Careless Driving all decreased in the same time period.

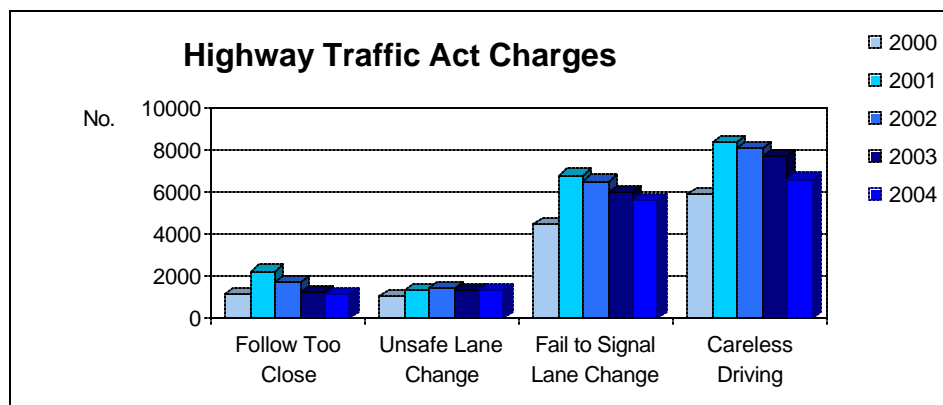


Figure 5.12

Source: TPS Analysis Support

²¹⁸ Government of Ontario website (www.ogov.newswire.ca/ontario/GPOE/2005/02/21/c6422.html).



H. AGGRESSIVE AND DISTRACTED DRIVERS

Drivers who obey traffic laws and are courteous can become targets of aggressive drivers. Aggressive driving is generally defined as operating a vehicle in a way that endangers other people and property. As noted in the previous section, it can encompass speeding, tailgating, making frequent and sudden lane changes, improper passing, weaving in and out of traffic, failure to yield right-of-way, disregarding traffic signs and signals, and so on. According to the National Safety Council of America, these types of behaviours cause over 50% of all crashes.²¹⁹ Aggressive driving can escalate into road rage, which can be defined as extreme anger exhibited by a motorist in response to perceived injustices committed by other drivers.²²⁰ A study in the Canadian Journal of Public Health in July/August 2003 defined road rage as attempts that drivers make to threaten, injure, or even kill other drivers during or after unpleasant driving experiences.²²¹

The Centre for Addiction and Mental Health (CAMH) in Toronto has been a leader in Ontario road rage research in recent years. Their research has focused on the prevalence of road rage as well as underlying reasons behind road rage, including vehicle and driver factors. In 2003 and 2004, research on road rage was published based on samples obtained from telephone surveys of between 1,395 and 2,610 Ontario adults (18 years and older) conducted over three years. With regard to road rage prevalence, researchers found that nearly one-third of respondents (31.7%) admitted to shouting, cursing, or making rude gestures at someone, however only 2.1% threatened to hurt someone or damage their vehicle.

Shouting, cursing, and making rude gestures were far more common for males than females (39.2% vs. 25.4%), and for the youngest age groups (18-34 years) compared to the oldest (55 years and older) (44.4% vs. 17.1%). Shouting, cursing, and rude gestures were also more common among higher income households (\$80,000 plus) than the lowest income households (<\$30,000) (44.5% vs. 19.3%), and among people never married compared to those previously married (47.3% vs. 25.6%). They were less common in those who had not completed high school compared to those with some post secondary education (22.1% vs. 36.9%).

Regarding threats of violence or car damage, the researchers found that there was no difference in rates for males and females. Rates were substantially greater, however, for the age group 18-34 years than for the age group 55 years and older (11.8% vs. 3.6%). Prevalence was much lower in all other regions of the Province than in the City of Toronto. Higher income earners showed a higher prevalence than the lowest earners (11.5% vs. 4.6%). Education and marital status were not significantly related in this area.

Researchers at the CAMH have also found correlations between alcohol consumption and road rage, and psychiatric distress and road rage. Frequency of alcohol was found to be significantly related to both being a victim of shouting, cursing, or making rude gestures and to being the perpetrator of these actions directed at another driver. The number of drinks consumed was also significantly related to shouting, cursing, and rude gestures, and to threatening to hurt someone or damage their vehicle or attempting to, or actually hurting someone or damaging their

²¹⁹ US National Safety Council website (www.nsc.org), May 2005.

²²⁰ *Road Rage Study Finds Toronto Drivers Worst*, Toronto Star, June 25, 2003.

²²¹ Smart, R., Mann, R.E. and Stoduto, G. *The Prevalence of Road Rage: Estimates from Ontario*. **Canadian Journal of Public Health**, 94(4), July/August 2003.



vehicle. Psychiatric distress scores were highest among those with the greatest involvement in road rage incidents.²²²

The most current road rage research by the CAMH focuses on the relationship between the type of vehicles driven by people and their involvement in road rage. The study, released in 2004, found that driving more kilometres per week and more on busy roads was associated with higher commission of road rage. Data also suggested that the amount of road rage was greater for people who resided in large urban centres. Residents of Toronto were more likely to drive high-performance vehicles (sports or muscle cars) and sport utility vehicles (SUVs). Drivers of high-performance vehicles had higher rates of shouting, cursing, and rude gestures, possibly due to the sense of frustration when they were prevented from using the full capabilities of their vehicles on the crowded Toronto streets. Commission of serious road rage incidents (threats, violence, or damage) was highest among SUV drivers (1.8%) compared to none of the high performance vehicles in the study. Any level of aggressive driving is cause for concern for the safety of the community and other drivers.²²³

As the City of Toronto becomes more congested with traffic from outside the GTA and, with development, as more people continue to in the City, road rage can be expected to increase with the increasing frustration of driving on crowded City streets. It is important for the Toronto Police Service to continue to promote programs that target aggressive driving while keeping in mind economic, social, psychological reasons fuelling it.

Since the development of technology, distraction has been a constant concern for people. Technological convenience coupled with busier schedules makes compact devices that are designed for, or are being used for work on the move, appealing, in particular, to drivers. The use of these devices while driving causes a great deal of distraction. The cell phone is the most obvious and widely publicised distraction.

Two recent studies by the University of Utah focused on cell phone use and distraction to motorists. The results were published in the March 2003 Journal of Experimental Psychology, and a portion was published by the US National Safety Council. It found that motorists were slower to react when they talked on cellular phones – even hands-free models – because ‘inattention blindness’ made them less able to process visual information; phone conversations impaired driving performance by withdrawing attention from the visual scene. A previous study by the same researchers had found that there was no impairment of drivers who either conversed with a passenger or who listened to the radio or to books on tape. The findings suggested that only cell phone conversations interfered with reaction time, causing delayed reaction to sudden events. According to the researchers, legislative initiatives to restrict hand-held devices but permit hands-free devices were not likely to eliminate problems associated with cell phones and driving because it is the conversation that formed the majority of the distraction.²²⁴

A second study conducted by the University of Utah, published in 2005, found that drivers who talked on cell phones drove similar to elderly people, with slower reaction times and a tendency to miss what was in front of them. The study tested people aged 65-74 years against

²²² Smart, R., Mann, R.E., Stoduto, G., Adlaf, E., and Ialomiteanu, A. **Alcohol Consumption and Problems among Road Rage Victims and Perpetrators**. Centre for Addiction and Mental Health – Social, Prevention and Health Policy Research Department, October 2003.

²²³ Smart, R., Mann, R.E., Stoduto, G., and Adlaf, E. **Road Rage Experience and Behaviour: Vehicle, Exposure, and Driver Factors**. Centre for Addiction and Mental Health – Social, Prevention and Health Policy Research Department, January 2004.

²²⁴ University of Utah website (www.utah.edu), 2005.



drivers aged 18-25 years, and used only hands-free cell phones. Young drivers were shown to have reaction times similar to 70 year olds when the young people were talking on hands-free phones. Braking time slowed 18% when young or elderly drivers used a cell phone. Talking on the phone also caused a 12% greater following distance, apparently to compensate for paying less attention to the road. The increased distance did not help, as there was a two-fold increase in the number of (simulated) rear-end collisions.²²⁵

The reliability of the Utah and similar cell-phone studies has been challenged with regard to the conclusion of a causal link between cell phone use and traffic collisions. Disagreement is based on the continuing downward trend of accident statistics. Future studies may provide some answers to these types of questions.

Driver fatigue is another area that appears to be gaining increased attention. According to the National Safety Council of America, similar to drugs or alcohol, driving when fatigued slows reaction time, decreases awareness, and impairs judgement. According to US statistics, collision death rates were 2.5 times higher at night than during the day in 2002. More than one-third (37%) of drivers surveyed by the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration admitted to falling asleep at the wheel at some point in their driving career; 60% admitted falling asleep while driving on a highway with a posted speed of 55mph or higher. The drivers at the highest risk were shift workers, people that drove a substantial number of miles each day, those with unrecognised sleep disorders, or those prescribed medication with sedatives.²²⁶

The results from distracted driver research can easily be applied to drivers in the City of Toronto. As the use of technology such as cell-phones, in-car DVD and video game players, etc., rises, so too does the importance of programs and initiatives to combat inattentive driving and improve traffic safety. Many initiatives and programs are currently in place (as detailed further in a later section of this chapter) that aim to curb this trend. Driver fatigue is another area of concern, as Torontonians and commuters try to balance the demands of home and work, longer working hours, and less sleep. While the number of collisions in Toronto has decreased in recent years, many challenges to traffic safety remain.

I. THE RIDE PROGRAM AND IMPAIRED DRIVING

The RIDE Program:

Since 1977, the Toronto Police Service has provided year-round RIDE spot-checks in an effort to deter incidents of impaired driving. In addition to the on-duty component, the Toronto Police Service receives grants from both the Ministry of Safety and Correctional Services and from Mothers Against Drunk Driving (MADD) Canada to enhance the RIDE spot-check program.

In 2004, more vehicles were stopped than in 2003, but there were fewer charges laid related to drinking and driving. In 2004, there were 224,923 vehicles stopped by the RIDE program; of these, 206 drivers were charged with drinking and driving offences. The number of vehicles stopped in 2004 represented a 65.7 % increase compared to 2003 when 135,712 vehicles

²²⁵ Ibid.

²²⁶ US National Safety Council website (www.nsc.org), May 2004.



were stopped. Conversely, the 206 persons charged in 2004 represented a 10.8% decrease from the 231 in 2003.²²⁷ During the 2004 'Festive RIDE' program alone, 1,510 Toronto Police officers stopped 130,188 vehicles, conducted 248 spot checks, and dedicated 4,574.5 hours with the aim of reducing drinking and driving offences on the streets of Toronto. Table 5.3 details the 'Festive Ride' statistics and comparison of 2003 and 2004.²²⁸

Table 5.3
Festive RIDE 2003/04

	Year 2003	Year 2004
Vehicles Stopped	123,858	130,188
Drivers Tested	2,130	2,299
Charged Over 80mg	56	58
Charged Refused	12	9
Charged Impaired	4	12
12-Hour Suspensions	254	301
90-Day Suspensions	68	67
Total Suspensions	322	268
Vehicles Impounded	172	180
Provincial Offences Charges	656	517
Drive While Suspended/Prohibited	24	25
Other Criminal Code Offences	14	14
Total Drinking and Driving Offences Laid	72	79

Source: Toronto Police Service

Impaired Driving:

Federal laws making it an offence to drive while impaired by alcohol have been in the Criminal Code since 1921. In 1969, the impaired driving laws reflected the offence to drive with a Blood Alcohol Content (BAC) over 80 mg. The Criminal Code was again revised in 1985, adding the offence of impaired driving causing bodily harm/death. In 1999, the Government increased the penalties for impaired driving, including a maximum penalty of life in prison for impaired driving causing death. In 2001, Parliament extended to repeat offenders the possibility of driving during the period of prohibition if the vehicle was equipped with an ignition interlock device if the province offers the program.²²⁹ In Ontario, everyone who committed and was convicted of an impaired driving offence on or after December 23rd, 2004, must have an ignition interlock device installed after their license is re-instated if they want to drive.

Impaired driving continues to be a major factor in vehicle crashes, injuries, and death, and a very important road safety issue for Canadians. In May 2004, the Traffic Injury Research Foundation conducted a survey of 1,209 drivers regarding road safety issues and driving patterns. Most (85%) of the respondents believed that drinking and driving was the most

²²⁷ Toronto Police Service 2004 Statistical Report, Corporate Planning Analysis Support.

²²⁸ Toronto Police Service Intranet website (www.chq.mtp.gov/tpsnet/stories/2005/2005.01.05-ride/index.html).

²²⁹ Janhevich, D., Gannon, M. and Morisset, N. *Impaired Driving and Other Traffic Offences – 2002*. Juristat (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, November 2003).



important road safety issue they faced.²³⁰ According to a report published in 2004 by Health Canada, the total number of impaired driving charges reached a peak of 162,048 in 1981 and has generally declined since then. The large reductions in impaired driving in the 1980s was mainly attributed to prevention and awareness programs and policies that were developed during that time. The total number of impaired drivers fell to a low of 69,192 in 2000 – a decrease of 57%. In the most current year for which Canadian data are available (2002), impaired driving in Canada increased to 71,087.²³¹ It should also be noted, however, that the number of charges for impaired driving is influenced by level of enforcement by police. And, although public education and awareness campaigns have shown some success, according to a 2003 Ontario student survey conducted by the Research Group on Drug Use, approximately 30% of Toronto junior high and high school students had, in 2003, been in a car whose driver was under the influence of alcohol.

In 2004, there were a total of 2,211 drinking and driving offences recorded in Toronto. This represented a decrease of 3.2% from the 2,285 offences in 2003 and a 20.8% decrease from the 2,791 offences in 1995. As Figure 5.13 shows, males historically represent the majority of those charged with drinking and driving offences. After considerable reduction in 1997, drinking and driving offences have generally increased, with the recent exceptions being 2002 and 2004 when there were small decreases.

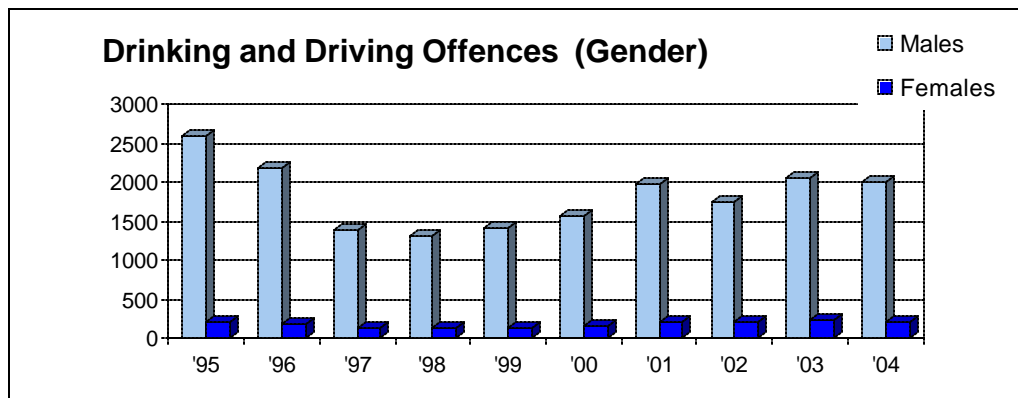


Figure 5.13

Source: TPS Annual Statistical Reports

As seen in Table 5.4, with relation to an analysis of age and its relation to drinking and driving, generally males within the two age groups, 25-34 years and 35-44 years have historically represented the majority of persons charged with drinking and driving. This trend changed somewhat in 2004 with a slight increase in charges laid against older drivers: 35-44 year olds had 30.5% of charges, followed by the 45 years and older group with 26.9% and the 25-34 year olds with 26.8%. While it is an encouraging sign that fewer of those in the 25-34 years age groups were charged, it should be noted that an increasing proportion of charges were laid against those 18-24 years of age.

²³⁰ Beirness, D., Simpson, H., Desmond, K. and Mayhew, D. **The Road Safety Monitor 2004**. Traffic Injury Research Foundation, December 2004.

²³¹ **Best Practices -Treatment and Rehabilitation for Driving While Impaired Offenders**, Health Canada, 2004.



Table 5.4
Charges Laid Against Men – Drinking Driving Offences²³²

	% of Total Charged–1995		% of Total Charged–2003		% of Total Charged–2004
18-24 yrs	11.4%	18-24 yrs	14.4%	18-24 yrs	15.5%
25-34 yrs	37.2%	25-34 yrs	30.2%	25-34 yrs	26.8%
35-44 yrs	31.1%	35-44 yrs	29.8%	35-44 yrs	30.5%
45+ yrs	20.0%	45+ yrs	25.3%	45+ yrs	26.9%

Source: TPS Annual Statistical Reports

Driving under the influence of drugs other than alcohol is also a problem that needs to be addressed. At present, there is no authority or ability to test for drug impairment as there is for alcohol-related offences. According to Statistics Canada, the most commonly used drugs that are likely to interfere with driving cause the following effects:²³³

- Cannabis – Disrupted vision, especially night-vision; increased recovery time after exposure to glare; poor appreciation of distances; poor colour perception; difficulties coming out of a turn; and concentration difficulties.
- Heroin and Morphine – Loss of attention; diminished reflexes, sense of reality, and awareness of dangers and obstacles. In low doses: risk of loss of control of vehicle through drowsiness, cardiac or respiratory pain. In high doses: delirium; hallucinations; and motor excitement.
- Cocaine – Sensation of euphoria with excessive self-confidence and desire to perform; alteration of vision; and increased risk-taking and aggressiveness.
- Ecstasy-type Derivatives – Fatigue; fever; muscular rigidity; and accommodation problems (owing to mydriasis, or dilation of the pupil).

In November 2004, proposed amendments to the Criminal Code of Canada and other Acts were introduced to strengthen the enforcement of drug-impaired driving offences in Canada. Bill C-16 expands drug enforcement capabilities by giving police the authority to demand physical sobriety tests and bodily fluid samples under the Criminal Code. A number of steps are involved, including the evaluation by a Drug Recognition Expert (DRE). Bill C-16 is presently in the House of Commons, being reviewed by committee.²³⁴

As reported in the 2004 Environmental Scan, there is new technology emerging to assist in the detection of alcohol use. Detection devices such as the Passive Alcohol Sensor (PAS III) and the Secure Continuous Remote Alcohol Monitor (SCRAM) are currently being used by a

²³² The table does not include the age groups 12-17 years or those for whom age was unknown.

²³³ Janhevich, Gannon, and Morisset, 2003.

²³⁴ **Library of Parliament** website (www.parl.gc.ca).



number of law enforcement agencies in North America. The PAS III, which looks like a flashlight, samples exhaled air from the front of the face of an individual. The press of a button then activates a sample pump and draws the sample into the electrochemical fuel sensor, alerting the operator to the presence and approximate concentration of alcohol (blood alcohol concentration or BAC). According to the US National Commission Against Drunk Driving, the PAS III sensor is frequently used at sobriety checkpoints in the US and is also ideal to monitor the presence of alcohol over open containers (drinks), enclosed spaces, or for zero tolerance enforcement. As indicated in the 2004 Scan, the PAS III is currently being used at roadside checks in Winnipeg, Canada.

SCRAM is an alcohol monitoring bracelet similar to home arrest systems being employed in the US. Instead of monitoring the wearer's location, it tests sweat every hour via Transdermal Alcohol Testing to determine alcohol use. The tamper and water-resistant bracelet emits a secure radio frequency to a modem in the wearer's home which sends a signal to 'Scramnet', a web-based service accessible to law enforcement agencies. The SCRAM system is currently being used in approximately 20 states in the US.²³⁵

J. RED LIGHT CAMERAS

The pilot program in Toronto for Red Light Cameras began in November 2000. In the initial year, approximately 21,800 violation notices were issued Province-wide for red-light running at red-light camera sites.²³⁶ Approximately 9,300 of the violation notices issued in 2000 were at red-light camera sites in the City of Toronto. According to the Ministry of Transportation, the first two years of the pilot project had reduced collisions resulting in injury and fatalities by about 7%, which is equal to about the prevention of 47 fatal collisions in Ontario.

In August 2004, the Province passed legislation which allowed municipalities to operate cameras indefinitely. Toronto currently operates 10 cameras being rotated among 38 intersections, with plans for more in the future. Statistics indicate that red light cameras provide some safety benefit since collisions and injuries have been reduced at intersections where cameras have been used.²³⁷

As shown in Table 5.5, there were 15,410 red light camera charges in 2004, which was a 16.8% increase from the 13,196 in 2003. The OPSEU strike in 2002 was believed to be a contributing factor to the lower number of charges laid in 2002.

²³⁵ The Associated Press website (www.alcoholmonitoring.com).

²³⁶ Works Committee Staff Report, Works and Emergency Services, City of Toronto, December 31, 2001.

²³⁷ City of Toronto website (www.city.toronto.on.ca), 2005.



Table 5.5
Red Light Camera – Charges Laid, Toronto Sites

Year	# of Charges Laid
2001	8,863
2002	5,627
2003	13,196
2004	15,410

Source: City of Toronto, Transportation Services

K. TRAFFIC SAFETY INITIATIVES

The Toronto Police regularly conduct initiatives to promote safe driving and pedestrian safety in relation to traffic. In 2004, a number of programs were conducted with the goal to deliver effective and efficient traffic policing services aimed at reducing collisions and incidents of poor driving behaviour thereby reducing deaths and injuries, and to ensure the orderly movement of traffic on our city streets. Some of these traffic safety programs operated in conjunction with national and provincial traffic safety programs while others were specific to traffic and community issues within the City of Toronto.²³⁸ A number of programs implemented by the Service in 2004 are listed below.

Operation Target Street:

This program ran from January 12th to 18th, 2004, and allowed each division to select its own target street. The focus was on all traffic laws, especially ‘Stopping, Standing and Parking’ restricted areas, prohibited turns, and gridlock offences. Attention was also paid to pedestrian offences.

Operation Transit Watch:

This program ran from February 9th to 13th, 2004. Safe and orderly flow of transit in Toronto particularly during rush hour was the focus. Officers concentrated on offences relating to the HOV lanes, transit lanes, TTC stops, streetcar lines, and other infractions that impeded transit. The newly enacted Yield to Bus legislation and pedestrian safety in relation to transit were also priorities.

Operation Ped Safe:

This program ran 3 times in 2004: March 15th to 21st, July 5th to 11th, and November 8th to 14th. It was a combined public awareness and enforcement campaign aimed at motorists and cyclists committing offences at pedestrian crossovers, sidewalks/footpaths, and crosswalks, and at pedestrians disobeying traffic signals, failing to yield to traffic, or committing other pedestrian violations. The timing of this program coincided with the Toronto School Board’s March and

²³⁸ Toronto Police Service, Traffic Services.



summer breaks, and was in November – historically the month with the highest number of traffic collisions involving pedestrians.

Provincial Seat Belt Campaign:

The seat belt campaign was supported by the Ontario Association of Chiefs of Police and was also a combined public awareness and enforcement campaign. It was intended to promote seat belt use, saving lives in the process. The program ran from April 17th to 25th, 2004, and focused on drivers who failed to properly secure children.

Canada Road Safety Week:

With the goal of making Canada's roads the safest in the world, this national initiative had officers pay special attention to all traffic laws, including the enforcement of drinking and driving, pedestrian offences, occupant restraint use, intersection safety, driver inattention, and unsafe speeds. It ran from May 17th to 24th, over the first long weekend of the summer 2004.

Cycle Right Campaign:

This initiative ran from June 11th to 24th, 2004, and was aimed at bicycle awareness, education, and enforcement of offences related to cycling. Bicycle rodeos and safety lectures were promoted and officers directed attention to cyclists who operated in a manner that endangered themselves and other users of the roadways and sidewalks.

Mission Possible:

The Canadian Automobile Association of Central Ontario partnered with the Toronto, Durham, Peel, and York Police Services, as well as the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP) and the Ministry of Transportation, to deliver this initiative that ran from August 23rd to 29th, 2004. The goal of the program was to curb youth and speed, promoting awareness through education and enforcement. Special attention was paid to young and inexperienced motorists who endangered the safe use of roadways by speeding and participating in illegal street racing.

Back to School Safety Campaign:

To coincide with the return of children to school in 2004, this initiative was conducted from September 2nd to 12th, 2004. The goal was to ensure the safe movement of all students between home and school, by encouraging motorists, adult cyclists, and pedestrians to set a good example by following the rules of the road. Traffic violations, including bicycle and pedestrian infractions, particularly in school zones and related areas, were the focus of this program.

Operation Impact:

Operation Impact was a national traffic safety and enforcement initiative presented in partnership with the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police, police services across Canada, and Transport



Canada. The campaign ran from October 8th to 11th, 2004, with the goal of raising awareness of issues regarding public safety on roadways. Officers paid special attention to motorists whose driving behaviours fell into four main categories: drinking and driving, failure to use seat belts, speeding, and whose actions resulted in intersection-related collisions.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- As more people commute into the City, the Service should explore the possibility of using information and data from existing city road technologies such as the Road Emergency Services Communications Unit (RESCU) system and the Remote Traffic System (RTIS) with regard to active traffic events, volume, and flow. Analysis of this information could then be used to assist in determining strategies to relieve traffic congestion and resource deployment.
- Support Transportation System Management (TSM), Transportation Demand Management (TDM), and Intelligent Transportation systems by ensuring police representation on committees aimed at dealing with future traffic challenges. Also provide support where possible to public transit and emerging technologies, such as the Intelligence Mobility System (IMS).
- Given that officers are still spending a large amount of time investigating traffic collisions, the Service must promote training and supervision aimed at reducing officer time spent at traffic collisions, and examine other ways, such as the use of technology, to reduce time spent investigating traffic collisions.
- Continue to target education and traffic safety awareness campaigns at the most vulnerable members of our community, especially senior pedestrians who continue to constitute the majority of victims in fatal collisions.
- Given the current research analysing aggressive driving and road rage, the Service should take work with agencies such as the Centre of Addiction and Mental Health to explore initiatives that target the underlying factors contributing to road rage and aggressive driving.
- The Service should continue to support programs that reduce drinking and driving, and drug use and driving, which may emerge as a serious future challenge.



VI. CALLS FOR SERVICE

Knowing what types of calls for service are received and how the Service responds to those calls provide a foundation for decisions relating to the allocation of resources, including personnel, and to service delivery options and priorities to meet the needs of the communities served.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Despite a small decrease (2.8%) between 2003 and 2004, a trend of increase in calls for service was noted over the past eight years, after decreases between 1994 and 1997. A total of 1.9 million calls were received in 2004, 4.4% more than in 2000, but a 2.4% decrease from ten years ago in 1995.
- In 2004, more than half of the calls (52.6%) were received through the emergency line, with the rest (47.4%) received via the non-emergency line. This compared to 42.2% through the emergency line and 57.8% through the non-emergency line in 1995.
- Over the past ten years, between 1995 and 2004, the number of calls received via the emergency line increased 21.7%, while those received via the non-emergency line decreased 20.0%.
- Less than half (45.7%) of the calls received in 2004 were dispatched for police response, which was similar to 2000 (45.9%) and an increase from 1995 (36.7%).
- The number of dispatched calls in 2004 was a 6.2% decrease from 2003, but a 3.9% increase and a 21.5% increase from 2000 and 1995, respectively.
- Response times for both emergency and non-emergency calls have increased in recent years, with a diminished proportion of calls meeting the recommended service standards. The drop in the proportion of non-emergency calls meeting the recommended service standard was particularly large in 2004, compared with previous years.
- The average time required to service a call has increased considerably over past years.

A. CALLS RECEIVED AND METHOD OF RESPONSE

Responding to the public's calls for service in a timely manner is a core function of traditional policing. Most of the emergency and non-emergency calls from the public to the Toronto Police are received via the Communications Centre, but some are made directly to local police stations. Starting in 1998, calls made directly to local police units without going through the Communications Centre have been added to the central records system.

After decreases between 1994 and 1997, the number of calls received for police assistance consistently increased between 1997 and 2003. In 2004, a total of 1,902,767 calls



were received through the Communications Centre. This represented a 2.8% decrease from 2003, but a 4.4% increase over 2000. Over the past ten years, the number of calls received decreased by 2.4%.

Of the total number of calls recorded, 52.6% were received through the emergency line (9-1-1) and 47.4% were received through the non-emergency line. Just over 1 million calls were received via the emergency line in 2004, representing a 4.9% drop from 2003, after continued increases between 1997 and 2003. The number of non-emergency calls in 2004 (0.9 million) remained relatively unchanged from 2003, but was a 6.2% increase over 2000.

Over the 10 year period between 1995 and 2004, calls received through the emergency line increased 21.7%, while the number of calls received through the non-emergency line decreased 20.0%. For this reason, the proportion of calls received via the emergency line increased, while that for calls via the non-emergency line decreased. The proportion of calls received through the emergency line increased from 42.2% in 1995 to 52.6% in 2004, while that for non-emergency calls decreased from 57.8% to 47.4% during the same period of time.

The number of calls received via the emergency and non-emergency lines in each of the past ten years is shown in Figure 6.1.

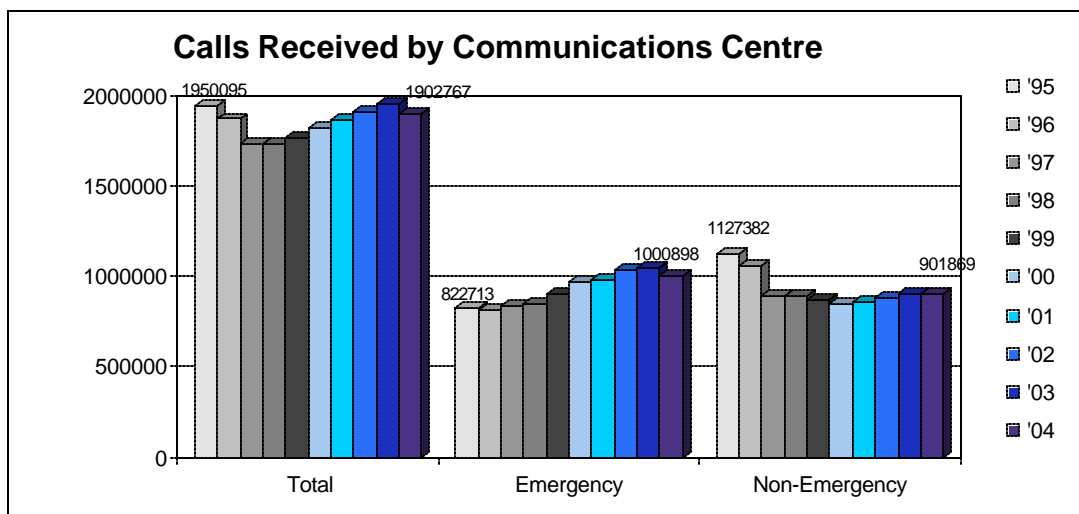


Figure 6.1

Source: TPS Communications Services

Statistics captured by Communications Services indicated that cellular phone calls constituted 45% to 50% of the calls received through the emergency line. It is also the perception of the call-takers at the Communications Centre that more people are calling the police through the emergency line for non-emergency issues.

Not all calls for service require a police response. The call-taker, after confirming the nature of the incident, will determine the appropriate mode of response, which could range from providing the information or advice required, referring the caller to other emergency services such as ambulance and fire, dispatching a police unit to attend the incident, or a combination of these responses.

Calls requiring police intervention are dispatched to a police unit for response. In 2004, there was a total of 869,590 calls involving one or more police units being dispatched, a 6.2%



decrease from 2003, but a 3.9% increase and 21.5% increase over 2000 and 1995, respectively. These dispatched calls constituted 45.7% of the total calls received in 2004, which was similar to that in 2000 (45.9%) and an increase over 1995 (36.7%). Figure 6.2 shows the changes in the proportion of dispatched calls in each of the past ten years. Both the number and proportion of calls dispatched for police intervention have increased over ten years ago, which has an impact on officer workload.

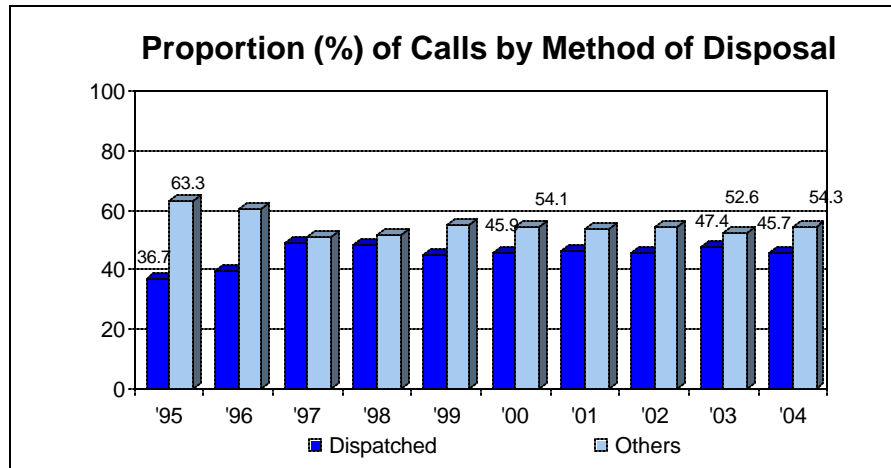


Figure 6.2

Source: TPS Communications Services

B. RESPONSE TIMES

Police performance in responding to the public’s calls for service is usually assessed in terms of (though not necessarily confined to) the timeliness of response, i.e. rapidness of response. Police response time in this respect is defined as the lapse of time between the time the call is sent to the dispatcher (received) and the time police officers arrive at the scene of the incident. With the enhancement of the Computer Aided Dispatch (CAD) system, police arrival time can be captured by the central system when officers acknowledge their arrival time via their mobile workstation (MWS).

Information regarding officer arrival time has been recorded in the CAD data since 1996. Field officers are required to press the ‘at scene’ button of their MWS when arriving at an incident scene, to acknowledge their time of arrival. The overall compliance rate has continued to improve since 1996, but dropped slightly in 2004.²³⁹ Starting at just 14.9% compliance in 1996, it increased to 28.7% in 2000 and to 44.4% in 2003, but dropped to 42.5% in 2004. The compliance rate for Priority 1 calls alone in 2004 was 65.2%, a drop from the record high of 68.9% in 2003, but still high when compared to 46.6% in 2000 and 23.1% in 1996.²⁴⁰ For other emergency calls (Priority 2 and 3), the compliance rate was 61.3% in 2004, compared to 42% in 2000 and 20.3% in 1996. The compliance rate for non-emergency calls (Priority 4 through 6) was much lower at 30.5% in 2004, compared to 19.6% in 2000 and 10.0% in 1996.

²³⁹ Compliance rates are based on statistics from TPS I/CAD Query and Reporting System, Report 24.

²⁴⁰ Priority 1 calls are the highest priority emergency calls, typically involving situations requiring immediate response, including a person at risk or a crime in progress.



Compared with the early years of such data being collected, the 2004 compliance rates were substantial improvements. However, in the interest of more accurate findings on police performance in responding to calls, further improvement in the compliance rate is deemed necessary, particularly for the non-emergency calls.

There are cases for which the officer arrival time was entered by the dispatcher – for example, for police response units not equipped with MWSs and for situations when no arrival acknowledgement was received from the officer and the arrival time was confirmed by the call dispatcher’s enquiry. These calls, because of uncertain accuracy of the data on officer arrival time, are excluded from the following response time analysis.

Analysis of ‘hotshots’ (Priority 1 calls) under emergency calls (Priority 1-3) with a valid officer arrival time, revealed that the average response time for these calls was 11.2 minutes in 2004, an increase from the 10.9 minutes in 2003, 10 minutes in 2000, and 9.7 minutes in 1996.²⁴¹ The median response time for these calls was 7 minutes from 1996 to 1998, with about 52.0% of the calls covered.²⁴² The median response time increased to 8 minutes and remained so for the four years from 1999 to 2002. It then increased to 9 minutes in 2003 and 2004, covering 53.8% of the calls.²⁴³

The I/CAD statistics also indicated that in 2004, Toronto police officers were only able to respond to 32.5% of the Priority 1 calls within 6 minutes, compared to 33.8% in 2003, 38.8% in 2000, and 45.1% in 1996. This performance was well below the service standard recommended by the Restructuring Task Force, which required police to respond within 6 minutes for at least 85% of the emergency calls, and was the lowest proportion since 1996.²⁴⁴

For the remaining emergency calls (Priority 2 and 3), the median response time increased from 13 minutes in 1996 to 14 minutes in 2000, to 15 minutes in both 2002 and 2003, and to 16 minutes in 2004. The proportion of these calls responded to by the police within 6 minutes was only 12.4%, compared to 13.8% in 2000 and 18.1% in 1996. This was again far below the service standard recommended by the Restructuring Task Force, of response within 6 minutes for at least 80% of the cases.

Figures 6.3(a) and 6.3(b) show the cumulative proportion (%) of Priority 1 and other emergency calls (Priority 2 to 3) by response time.²⁴⁵

²⁴¹ Computation based on statistics from I/CAD Report 24, covering only cases with response time from 0 to 60 minutes, i.e. 97.8% of total cases.

²⁴² The median is the middle value of a group of values arranged in ascending or descending order.

²⁴³ Based on statistics from TPS I/CAD Query and Reporting System, Report 24.

²⁴⁴ Metropolitan Toronto Police. **Beyond 2000 Restructuring Task Force: The Final Report.** December 1994, p.85.

²⁴⁵ Includes only Priority 1 to 3 calls having valid officer arrival time (entered via MWS); based on I/CAD Report 24.

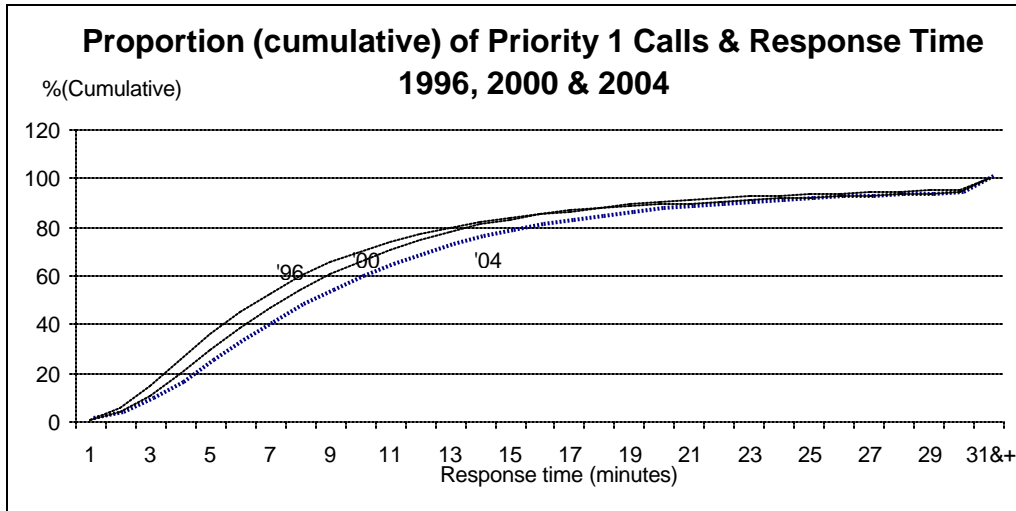


Figure 6.3(a)

Source: TPS I/CAD data

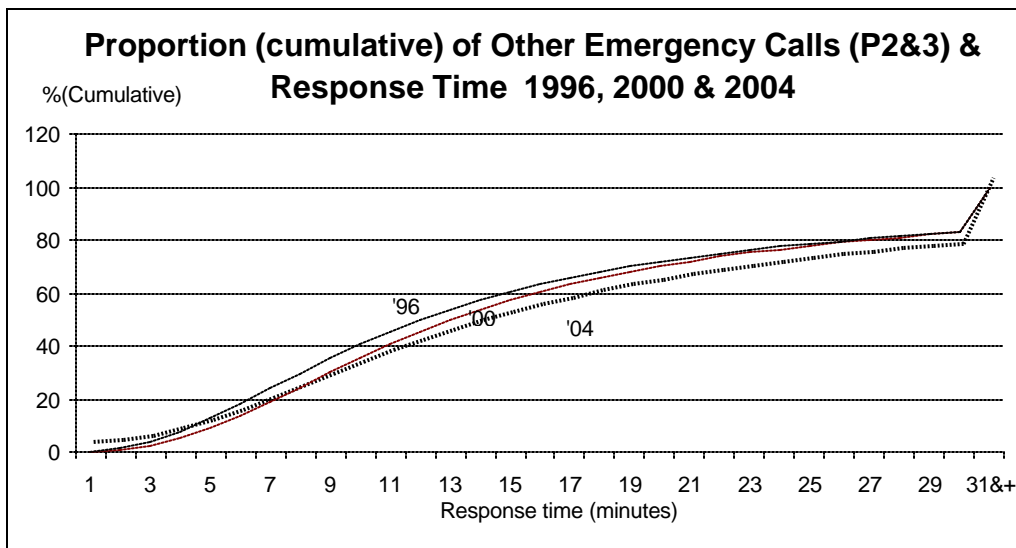


Figure 6.3(b)

Source: TPS I/CAD data

As shown in the two figures above, the lines showing the response time of both Priority 1 and Priority 2-3 calls, all classified as emergency calls, consistently shifted to the right over the past 9 years. This means that response time has declined, as indicated by a decreased proportion of calls being responded to within short durations.

For the non-emergency or low priority calls (Priority 4 through 6), the median response time of those calls having valid MWS-entered arrival time was 33 minutes in 2004, after remaining at 27 minutes for 2002 and 2003, and a period of stability from 1996 to 2000 at about 23 minutes. This median response time in 2004 represented a large increase from past years – 22.2% from 2003 (27 minutes), 43.5% from 2000 (23 minutes), and 37.5% from 1996 (24 minutes). It was also found that 67.9% of Priority 4-6 calls received a police response within 60 minutes, representing a large drop from 2003 (76.0%), 2000 (82.8%), and 1996 (82.2%). This was the fourth year that police response time was below the standard (80%) that was



recommended for this group of calls, and the first time that a relatively large drop in this proportion was seen.²⁴⁶ The large drop in this proportion and the considerable increase in the median response time in 2004 may partly be attributed to the change in business practice as a result of the implementation of Zone Policing in June 2004, when cross-zone dispatch for non-emergency calls ceased.

The above findings revealed that while the number of calls serviced by the police increased in recent years as a result of an increase in demand for service, there was a deterioration in response time and a diminishing proportion of calls that met the recommended service standards for both emergency and non-emergency calls. The deterioration for non-emergency calls in 2004 was particularly significant, as shown by the large increase in median response time and large drop in proportion of calls meeting the recommended service standards. The much improved compliance rate in recording officer arrival time for both emergency and non-emergency calls certainly lends more credibility to the conclusion that there has actually been a decrease in performance related to police response time.

C. SERVICE TIMES²⁴⁷

Service time (or officer time spent on a call) is the time required by police to service a call, from dispatch to clearance of call. Service time per call has a direct impact on police resource requirements for responding to calls from the public. Given the relatively ‘fixed’ police resources assigned to the primary response function, the longer the time required to service calls, the more police resources will be stretched and the longer will be the pending time for calls in general. An analysis of service time for calls revealed that the average service time for calls increased considerably over the past ten years (Figure 6.4).

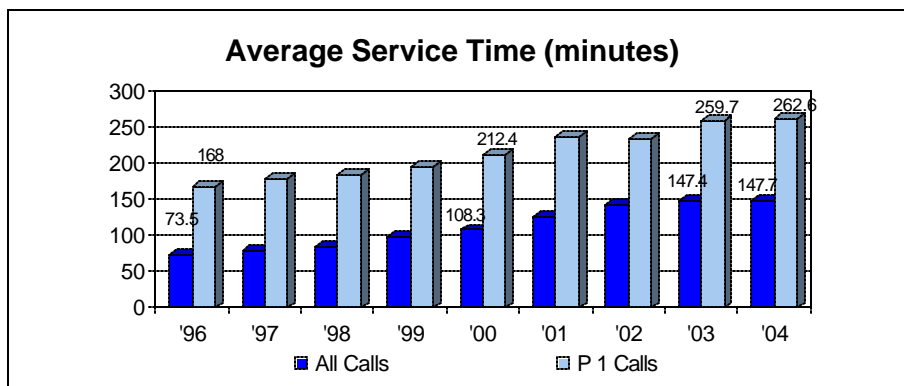


Figure 6.4

Source: TPS I/CAD data

²⁴⁶ The standard recommended for non-emergency ‘police required’ calls is no more than 60 minutes for at least 80% of the calls, Beyond 2000 Final Report, MTP Restructuring Task Force, p.85.

²⁴⁷ Service time refers to officer(s) time on a call, the difference in time between the ‘dispatch time’ of an event and the ‘closure time’ of an event, as defined by the TPS Computer Aided Dispatch Query & Reporting User Reference, pp. 14, 26, 27.



As shown in Figure 6.4, the average time spent by officers in servicing a call doubled between 1996 and 2004, and increased 56.3% for Priority 1 calls. The average number of officers dispatched per event also increased from 1.9 officers in 1996 to 2.1 officers in 2000 and to 2.3 officers in 2004. Between 1996 and 2004, total officer time spent servicing calls increased 33%.

The total number of Priority 1 emergency calls constituted about 13% of all the calls serviced. The average service time for Priority 1 calls, due to their emergency nature and the level of investigation required, is typically much longer than that for calls in general. As shown in Figure 6.4, for Priority 1 calls in 2004, the average service time (per event) was 262.6 minutes. The average number of officers dispatched per event also increased from 3.1 in 1996 to 3.3 in 2000 and to 3.5 in 2004. Priority 1 calls took up 24% of the total service time for calls. Between 1996 and 2004, the total service time for these calls increased 27%.

Table 6.1 shows the average service time of major types of calls (i.e. calls that took up 2% or more of the total service time) attended by the police in 2004 and the change in service time between 1996 and 2004.

**Table 6.1
Major Types of Calls and Average Service Time**

Event Type	Calls/Events Attended by Police – 2004			% Change: 1996-2004	
	# Attended	AverageST Min/E*	Stime%**	# Attended	AverageST Min/E*
Check Address	43080	98.8	5.5	57.3	27.5
Unknown Trouble	14722	246.7	4.8	57.8	56.3
Domestic	14536	228.1	4.2	-23.0	78.9
Pers. Injury Accident	13256	232.9	4.0	-0.2	32.0
Break & Enter	12381	204.6	3.3	-48.9	119.4
Medical Complaint	38673	61.9	3.2	21.5	18.3
Suspicious Event	18071	133.8	3.1	-10.3	70.9
Arrest	10646	221.5	3.0	16.8	54.1
Dispute	21604	103.2	3.0	0.9	43.9
Robbery	4023	558.8	2.9	-13.3	72.0
Advised	10455	189.9	2.5	-16.0	81.1
Wanted Person	6896	268.1	2.4	-29.0	47.8
Property Damaged Accid	19321	93.2	2.4	-9.9	44.3
Emot. Dist. Person***	9433	190.8	2.3	71.1	67.9
Disorderlies	23695	70.4	2.2	2.1	25.0
Threatening	9355	172.5	2.1	-30.3	128.9
Domest Assault	4699	345.3	2.1	-41.6	82.2
Assault	7895	199.5	2.1	-34.8	60.7
Total of above items	282741	149.0	55.1		
Total events/calls²⁴⁸	514205	147.7	100.0	-34.6	101.1

* Average service time per event in minutes.

** Total service time of call type as a proportion (%) of the total service time for all calls.

*** The comparable event type in 1996 is MI (mentally ill person).

Source: I/CAD Report 52

²⁴⁸ The number of calls counted here is based on I/CAD Report 52, and is different from the number of dispatched calls reported in section A due to different counting rules. I/CAD Report 52 only counts events whose response agency is TPS.



As shown in Table 6.1, all the major types of calls showed increases in the average service time between 1996 and 2004. These calls together constituted about 55% of the total number of all calls attended by the police and took up about the same proportion of the total service time. Despite a 34.6% decrease in the total number of calls attended between 1996 and 2004, according to I/CAD Report 52, the total officer time attributed to servicing calls increased 33.2% during the same period of time.

There are many factors that have a possible an impact on the service time for calls, including:

- the nature of call (seriousness and complexity);
- change in enforcement, investigation and/or other working procedures/practices as a result of changes in legislation, etc.;
- the experience of the officer(s) in handling calls; and/or,
- supervision by field supervisors.

It should be noted that managing a significant increase in service time for calls without a commensurate increase in resources is necessarily at the cost of other police programs. The continued increase in service time for calls, if not addressed, will remain a drain on police resources; adequately staffing the primary response function and delivering timely responses to emergencies will remain a serious challenge for the Service.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- Evaluation of program performance is usually centred around the concepts of efficiency and effectiveness. In police response to calls from the public, efficiency indicators include the resources required per call (service time) and the extent to which resources are optimally deployed, i.e. minimum resources used for a given workload under all operational constraints (which is expressed as an optimal match between supply and demand). Effectiveness indicators include the timeliness of response (usually in relation to a service standard) and the quality of the response. While conceptually distinct, efficiency and effectiveness can be inter-related, as, for example, when an efficient deployment system cuts both the service cost and the response time. These two concepts provide a framework for evaluating police performance in responding to calls.
- Service time per call is an efficiency indicator that measures the cost of service. The increase in service time for most calls over recent years also means increase in cost of service. While changes in service time for calls can be due to various legitimate reasons, the lack of service time standards may be among the many factors contributing to the increased service time. The establishment of reasonable service time standards for calls, overall and by major call types, based on actual performance (I/CAD data), would assist field supervisors in monitoring officer performance and thus may help to curb further increases in service time.
- The establishment of recommended service times for various types of calls will also help to address the concern raised about the current 60/40 Staff Deployment Model. This model



uses the actual divisional service time for calls to compute the division's Primary Response staffing requirements. This practice, if applied without consideration for variance in performance, can be criticized as possibly rewarding inefficient and punishing efficient units.

- As an effectiveness indicator, there are indications that police response time for both emergency and non-emergency calls, based on data with valid officer arrival time, has deteriorated over recent years, showing longer response times and a smaller proportion of calls that met a specific time standard. These results seem to indicate that the problem of timely response to calls has worsened and requires some immediate attention. Efforts should be directed toward improving the response time to meet the standard previously recommended by the Restructuring Task Force or a revised standard must be established based on more current data.
- The compliance rate of officers acknowledging their arrival time when responding to calls affects the validity of findings from any performance evaluation using such data. Despite improvements over the past nine years, there was a drop in the rate for both emergency and non-emergency calls in 2004. While emergency calls had a compliance rate of 65.2% in 2004, the rate for non-emergency calls was as low as 30.5%. Effort should be directed to improving the compliance rate of officers responding to calls. The continued improvement in the compliance rate for all types of calls is necessary to enable the accurate evaluation of response time, which is essential both for monitoring Service performance and for staff deployment analysis.
- Staff deployment has implications for police response time. Police response to calls is affected by officer availability (supply) and the pattern of calls for service (demand), that is, the extent to which officers are available when demands emerge. The match between this supply and demand is an efficiency indicator. Analysis of this match under all operational constraints is necessary for the identification of both means and opportunities to enhance the operational efficiency in staff deployment and thus response time.
- Training is another area that should be reviewed in terms of enhancing officers' performance and efficiency in the servicing of calls, thus helping to reduce the service time spent on calls.
- The increased number of calls received through the emergency line and the possible misuse of the emergency line for non-emergency issues may have exerted pressures on the call-taking function. Initiatives to divert non-emergency calls from the emergency line should continue.
- Over the past years, the Toronto Police Service dealt with the issue of increase in emergency calls and servicing time for calls in general by more stringent screening of calls and the divergence of non-emergency calls to alternate modes of response other than an immediate/rapid police response. Initiatives in this direction as well as proactive initiatives by the Service to address the factors leading to calls should continue.





VII. URBAN TRENDS

A dynamic understanding of the creation and transformation of modern communities, in both socio-economic and urban development terms, is essential to understanding the potential of the City. The jurisdiction of the Toronto Police Service encompasses the largest urban area in Canada. With urban, economic, and environmental projections come challenges in determining the nature and frequency of police services that will be required. Adapting to urban growth and socio-economic change involves alliances among the public, private, and voluntary sectors of society. With these partnerships, an assurance can be made to protect public safety while at the same time ensuring the delivery of efficient policing.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Four out of five Canadians currently live within large urban centres and this trend is expected to continue.
- The City of Toronto's Official Plan is designed to guide growth over the next 30 years. The Plan has identified that 75% of the City will mature and evolve, experiencing limited physical change; the remaining 25% of the geographic area will grow and change. This growth will be significant enough that 22 areas will require secondary plans to guide the growth and 230 areas will require site and area specific policies to harness the growth potential.
- According to the City of Toronto Urban Development Services, in May 2004, the largest number of development projects in 2003 occurred within the South Planning District of Toronto, with 40.6% or a total of 131 projects. This District also had the largest number of developments of 6 or more residential units, with a total of 21,812 units.
- In 2004, Toronto City Council adopted a draft master plan for the revitalisation and restoration of Union Station. In concert with upgrades to both TTC and GO Transit, the construction is slated to begin in late 2005 or early 2006 with the expected completion date to be 2014.
- In 2005, Toronto City Council approved a \$1 billion redevelopment of Regent Park. The plan envisions a mixed-community and includes 1,500 rent-geared-to-income homes, 500-700 apartments, and 2,800 condominiums.
- The Toronto Real Estate Board reported that 83,501 single-family dwellings sold during 2004, up 6% from the previous high of 78,898 in 2003.
- Ridership on Toronto Transit Commission (TTC) vehicles (surface and subway) increased 3.1% between 2003 and 2004, and 7.7% from 1995.
- The TTC remains an extremely safe system for its customers. In 2004, the crime rate was 0.63 per 100,000, a decrease of 1.6% from 2003 and a decrease of 22.2% from 1995.



- As of January 2005, in the province of Ontario there were 113 licensed Security agencies, 247 licensed Private Investigation agencies, and 134 agencies classified as dual agencies that provide both functions.
- The bombings of commuter trains in Madrid, Spain in March 2004 and the London Underground in July 2005 remind the democratic world of the threats of terrorism. In April 2004, Deputy Prime Minister and Public Affairs Minister Anne McLellan and Justice Minister Irwin Cotler released a document entitled *Securing an Open Society* that defines threats and security broadly. This report recommended spending \$690 million over five years to improve security in Canada.

A. THE NATIONAL URBAN APPROACH

Canada is one of the world's most urban nations. Four out of five Canadians currently live within large urban centres and this trend is expected to continue. The vision of Canadian cities is one of a blend of distinct communities – centres within centres, villages within cities – with unique economic, social, and cultural characteristics. The urban core is becoming the focal point of interaction and enterprise.²⁴⁹

With a growing urban population, police services are challenged to maintain sufficient support and to provide superior service to ever-changing communities. A large urban area like Toronto must deal with a variety of issues such as poverty, housing, traffic congestion, an ageing population, cultural diversity, and a widening income gap.

The fiscal responsibility for urban areas rests largely on individual municipalities. Canadian cities generally have access only to funds originating from property tax, license fees, development charges, and hotel/motel and fuel taxes.

In 2002, the *Toronto City Summit Alliance*, a coalition of civic leaders in the Toronto region, was formed to address challenges to the future of Toronto. According to their findings in the area of fiscal benefits to municipalities, Canadian federalism is not working for large city regions. Toronto and other cities are fiscally constrained because property taxes are the only mechanism for raising substantial revenues. The provinces and the federal government have significantly more fiscal capacity and a wide range of taxing powers, including sales and income taxes. Traditionally, the governments of Ontario and Canada have provided the core funding for social welfare, social housing, and other programs that involve income redistribution.²⁵⁰ In recent years, many of those social programs have been downloaded to municipalities.

In the short-term, increase in federal and provincial grants could relieve some of the burden placed on municipalities. As of February 1st, 2004, the Federal government provided further relief by allowing municipalities to recover 100% of the GST and federal component of the harmonised sales tax (HST) they pay. The rebate for purchases prior to that date was 57%. At the provincial level, the Ontario government has committed to provide municipalities one cent of the provincial gas tax that began in October 2004, and which will rise to two cents by October 2006.²⁵¹

²⁴⁹ **Canada's Urban Strategy: A Blueprint For Action.** Prime Minister's Caucus Task Force on Urban Issues, November 2002.

²⁵⁰ **Toronto City Summit Alliance** website (www.torontoalliance.ca).

²⁵¹ Ibid.



B. TORONTO'S URBAN DEVELOPMENT

The *Planning Act* sets the ground rules for Land Use Planning in Ontario and defines how land uses may be controlled and who may control them. Local municipalities have authority under the *Act* to make local planning decisions that will determine the future of their communities. Land use planning provides a balance between individual private property owners and the common good of the whole community.²⁵² It provides the basis for management of land and resources, with consideration for social, environmental, and economic concerns. It provides a blueprint to assist in the location and distribution of vital components in communities, such as homes, factories, parks, schools, roads, sewers, and other essential services to be provided.

On November 30th, 2004, the *Strong Communities (Planning Amendment) Act* received Royal Assent. This Act provides transparency to the planning process, allowing more opportunity for public input and scrutiny by increasing priority to environmental and public interest.²⁵³ The *Greenbelt Protection Act, 2004* established a greenbelt study area in the Golden Horseshoe and imposed a temporary moratorium on new urban development on lands within the study area. The *Greenbelt Act, 2005* was passed by the legislature on February 24th, 2005, and protects approximately 1.8 million acres in the Golden Horseshoe.²⁵⁴

For the past 50 years, new development in Canada has typically occurred on greenfield lands at the edge of urban areas, resulting in the loss of farmland and natural areas, a rising car-dependency, and traffic congestion. However, many municipalities' lack the infrastructure needed to support expansion into greenfield areas. Recently, there has been a shift in some Canadian municipalities, primarily Toronto and Vancouver, in the balance between greenfield development and intensification. Residential intensification – encouraging housing development in existing urban areas where infrastructure and transit service are already in place – is increasingly popular, and can include infill development, adaptive re-use, brownfield redevelopment, lot splitting, and secondary suites.²⁵⁵

Well-designed communities provide a healthy living environment and nourish thriving economies by attracting jobs and investment. It has been suggested as part of the Toronto Plan that 1 million more people could be accommodated in Toronto with no disruption to existing neighbourhoods and overall quality of life.²⁵⁶

The City of Toronto's Official Plan was adopted by City Council on November 28th, 2002, and is designed to guide growth over the next 30 years. The Plan states that the vision "is about creating an attractive and safe city that evokes pride, passion and a sense of belonging – a city where everybody cares about quality of life."²⁵⁷ The Plan has identified that 75% of the City will mature and evolve, experiencing limited physical change; the remaining 25% of the geographic area will grow and change. This growth will be significant enough that 22 areas will

²⁵² **Land Use Planning**, Ontario Ministry of Municipal Affairs and Housing website (www.mah.gov.on.ca).

²⁵³ **The Strong Communities (Planning Amendment) Act, 2004 (Bill 26)**, Ontario Ministry of Municipal Affairs and Housing website (www.mah.gov.on.ca).

²⁵⁴ *The Greenbelt Area-Quick Facts; Government Extends Greenbelt Development Freeze; Protection of Key Lands in Golden Horseshoe Now Law*, Ontario Ministry of Municipal Affairs and Housing website (www.mah.gov.on.ca).

²⁵⁵ Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), **Residential Intensification Case Studies: Built Projects, Research Highlights, Socio-Economic Series 04-014**, Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC), (www.cmhc.ca), February 2004.

²⁵⁶ **Toronto Plan, A Land Use Strategy for Toronto**, City of Toronto, No.5, June 2004.

²⁵⁷ **About the Toronto Plan**, City of Toronto website (www.toronto.on.ca).



require secondary plans to guide the growth and 230 areas will require site and area specific policies to harness the growth potential.

C. DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING PROJECTS

The City of Toronto is an environment that is continuously changing and evolving. Meeting the associated challenges to the Service relating to amount of policing and delivery of quality service will be paramount to success.

According to a development portfolio produced by the City of Toronto Urban Development Services in May 2004, the largest number of development projects in 2003 occurred within the South Planning District of Toronto, with 131 projects (40.6% of all projects) (Figure 7.1).²⁵⁸ The rest of the projects were distributed as follows: North District (65 projects, 20.1%), East District (64 projects, 19.8%), and West District (63 projects, 19.5%).²⁵⁹ Development in the South District reflected the strong market for downtown housing that existed throughout 2003.

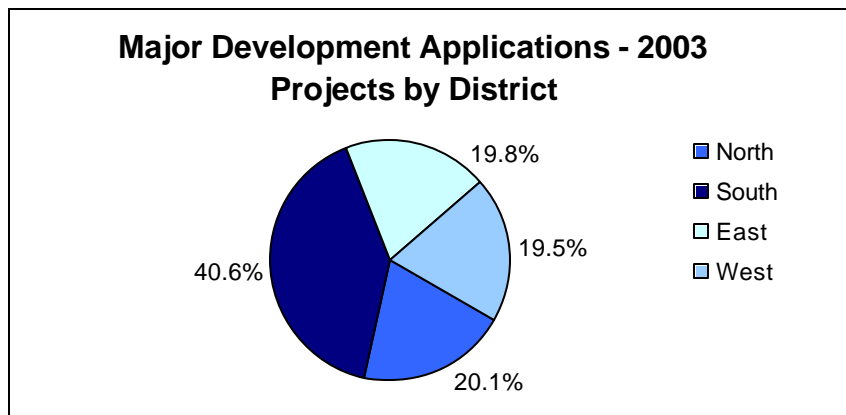


Figure 7.1 Source: City of Toronto Urban Development Services

Commercial office activity remained slow, while there was active interest in retail development. As of the end of 2003, the office vacancy rate for Toronto was 11.2%, up from 10.7% in 2002. According to the City of Toronto Urban Development Services, at the end of 2003 there were only five office buildings currently under construction in the Greater Toronto Area (GTA), with the Transamerica Life building on Yonge Street accounting for about half of the space. The industrial market in the GTA remained flat, with vacancy rates between 1999 and 2003 varying between 4.5% and 5%.

The majority of major planning applications received in 2003 were for residential developments (210 applications for 40,731 total proposed units). There were 41 condominium

²⁵⁸ **Development Portfolio: Major Projects 2003**, Toronto Urban Development Services, May 2004.

²⁵⁹ The Districts are comprised of the following approximate boundaries - **North District:** Hwy400/Jane St, Steeles Ave, Victoria Park Ave, Eglinton Ave. **East District:** Victoria Park Ave, Steeles Ave, Scarborough/Pickering border, Lake Ontario. **South District:** Parkside Drive, Eglinton Ave, Victoria Park Ave, Lake Ontario. **West District:** Hwy427, Steeles Ave, CNR Tracks/Hwy400, Lake Ontario.



applications received in 2003 and much of these were for the registration of projects that were at various points in the application process.²⁶⁰

There were 210 major developments of 6 or more residential units in 2003, representing a total of 40,731 residential units. The Toronto South District Planning area had the greatest concentration of these units. As shown in Figure 7.2, the South District had 21,812 units (54%), the North District had 7,839 units (19%), the West District had 7,041 units (17%), and the East District had 4,039 units (10%).

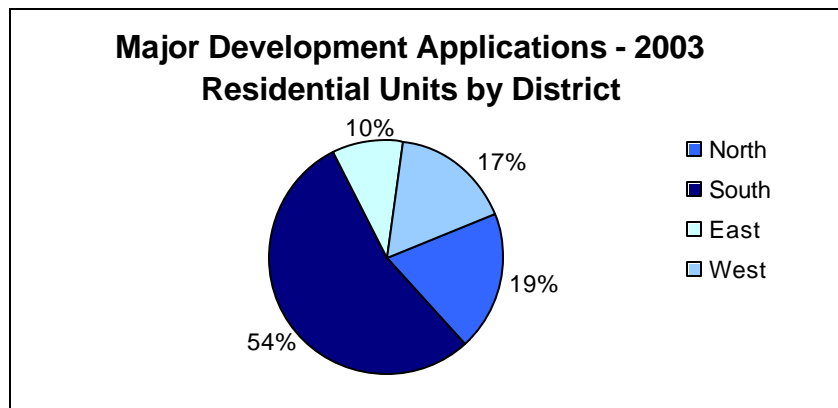


Figure 7.2 Source: City of Toronto Urban Development Services

Last year, 2004, saw the continuation and emergence of a number of development projects and planning studies in the initial stages and under development, which will change the face of Toronto in the near future.

The Toronto Waterfront:

The Toronto Waterfront Revitalisation Corporation (TWRC) was established in the fall of 2001 and was officially operating in February 2002. Their mission is to transform the Toronto waterfront for the use and enjoyment of the people of Toronto, Ontario, and Canada, to foster economic growth, and to re-define how the city, province, and country are perceived by the world.²⁶¹ The City of Toronto and a federal and provincially appointed Board of Directors govern the TWRC.

In 2004, according to the TWRC, plans are in the final stages for new waterfront neighbourhoods – West Don Lands and East Bayfront – and for Commissioners Park. Over the next 5 years, the TWRC’s strategic priorities are focused on developing these areas. The TWRC predicts that people could be living in the West Don Lands and East Bayfront within 5 years.²⁶² The \$61 million project will clean up and service valuable land in the port lands district. Using a blend of remediation, bioremediation, and risk management approaches based on future use, health hazards and ecological risks will be eliminated or contained so that the lands can be

²⁶⁰ **Development Portfolio: Major Projects 2003**, Toronto Urban Development Services, May 2004.

²⁶¹ Toronto Waterfront Revitalisation website (www.towaterfront.ca).

²⁶² Ibid.



developed. Funding agreements are required with the three levels of government for these projects.

Harbourfront Parks and Open Spaces:

At the end of June 2003, Toronto City Council approved a conceptual design for the first phase of the Harbourfront Parks and Open Space System.²⁶³ This phase focuses on Maple Leaf Quay East, Maple Leaf Quay West, and their related slips. The project will essentially connect Harbourfront Centre with the Spadina Quay Wetland and the Music Garden. Prior to a detailed design, additional consultation with the public will occur. Construction on the first phase is slated for completion in 2005.

Fort York Neighbourhood:

The process around the development of the Fort York area has been active since 2002. In May 2004, Toronto City Council endorsed the *Fort York Neighbourhood Public Realm Plan* that outlines the general vision and principles of development.²⁶⁴ The development is to take place in the area extending from the north boundary of Fort York to Lakeshore Boulevard at the south, and from Don Leckie Way (Portland Street) at the east to Strachan Avenue at the west, on a brownfield site.

According to the Public Realm Plan, the Fort York Neighbourhood is planned as a high density, mainly residential community. It will include a number of building types including stacked townhouses and mid-rise buildings along the edges of the street, including slim point towers in specific locations. The area will contain a number of parks and open spaces, including the Link Park (as a central focus for local government activities), Gore Park (as a green space), and the Fort Grounds. The streets are also planned to be open spaces, and pedestrian and cycling connections will support a network between the green spaces and the neighbourhood.

Union Station Restoration and Revitalisation:

Union Station processes more people annually than Pearson Airport.²⁶⁵ It is a designated National Historical Site of Canada and is protected by a Heritage Easement Agreement between Parks Canada and the City of Toronto.

In November and December 2004, Toronto City Council adopted the draft master plan for the revitalisation and restoration of Union Station prepared by an independent peer review team. The draft master plan defines Union Station as an Urban Precinct, it prioritises objectives for the Station, recognises the Station as the centre of an east/west cultural corridor, deals with development over the tracks and creates significant public domains in the proposed Front Street

²⁶³ *Harbourfront Parks and Open Spaces*, City of Toronto website (www.city.toronto.on.ca).

²⁶⁴ **Fort York Neighbourhood – Public Realm Plan**, February 2004.

²⁶⁵ *Union Station: The Way Forward*, Canadian Urban Institute, Union Station Roundtable Session, January 2005.



Plaza and Union Plaza, and proposes a north west pedestrian path connection.²⁶⁶ The vision of Union Station incorporates four significant features: an integrated public realm, a modern station accommodating change, revitalisation of under-used spaces, and maximised porousness through the use of extended pedestrian connections.²⁶⁷

In July 2003, the City of Toronto and a private consortium, the Union Pearson Group, entered into a lease for a 100-year term to restore, revitalise, and operate Union Station. In concert with upgrades to both TTC and GO Transit, construction is slated to begin in late 2005 or early 2006, with expected completion in 2014. Secondary to its transportation initiatives, the plan integrates many aspects of urban design to attract Union Station as a destination rather than a transit port. Among the changes planned are a European-style plaza along Front Street, a new south entrance to Union Station, a glass-covered moat between the station and Front Street, development above the tracks, upgrade to the PATH system westbound, and various retail developments.

The focus will be on transit and pedestrians, since according to City of Toronto Planning, there has only been a 4% difference between 1981 and 2001 in vehicular traffic in relation to Union Station compared to a 167% increase in GO Transit ridership over the same period.²⁶⁸ Ridership on transit is further expected to double in the next 20-30 years.²⁶⁹ The upgrading of transit systems is discussed further in the Transportation section of this chapter.

Regent Park:

Regent Park, which was built in 1949-1950, is Canada's oldest social housing project. Gerrard Street East, Shuter Street, Parliament Street, and River Street in Toronto border the development. Regent Park is presently home to approximately 7,500 low-income residents living in 2,087 rent-geared-to-income units. On February 6th, 2005, Toronto City Council approved a \$1 billion redevelopment of the area. The plan envisions a mixed-community and includes 1,500 rent-geared-to-income units, 500-700 apartments and 2,800 condominiums. The redevelopment plan will take about 10-12 years to complete. The first phase of development, planned for the south-east corner of Regent Park, is scheduled to begin in late 2005.²⁷⁰

D. CRIME PREVENTION THROUGH ENVIRONMENTAL DESIGN (CPTED)

Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) is part of a comprehensive approach to crime prevention. The Toronto Police Service adopted its use in 1993 to assist with reviewing public and private development plans slated for Toronto. CPTED is a process based on the theory that the proper design and effective use of the built environment can lead to a reduction in the incidence and fear of crime and an improvement in the quality of life.

²⁶⁶ *Union Station Restoration and Revitalization; Union Station Questions and Answers*, City of Toronto website (www.city.toronto.on.ca).

²⁶⁷ *Union Station: The Way Forward*, Canadian Urban Institute, Union Station Roundtable Session, January 2005.

²⁶⁸ Ibid.

²⁶⁹ *Union Station Questions and Answers*, City of Toronto website (www.city.toronto.on.ca).

²⁷⁰ *Regent Park overhaul wins council's approval*, The Toronto Star, February 4, 2005.



The main features of CPTED include the promotion of natural surveillance to maximise visibility, natural access control to deter access to a target and to create a perception of risk in offenders, and territorial reinforcement which defines clear borders of controlled space from public to semi-private to private so that users of an area develop a sense of proprietorship over it. Maintenance and target hardening are also features that are employed in CPTED. Adopting CPTED principles in the early stages of development ensures that community safety and the prevention of crime are recognised and considered before building.

CPTED, as part of a comprehensive approach, complements community-based policing and other safe neighbourhood initiatives, and can be used as a tool to promote community safety. Community groups, such as the Community Policing Liaison Committees, can be mobilised to conduct CPTED audits in their neighbourhoods and bring recommendations forward to the stakeholders, enhancing safety in communities.

Police services and government agencies throughout Canada and the US support Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design. The International CPTED Association and CPTED Ontario hold annual conferences and workshops and promote CPTED principles across Ontario and around the world.

E. ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ADVANCE

Economic Stature:

Toronto has one of the most diverse economies of any city in North America. The size of the city and the diversity of its economics create opportunity for enterprise within many sectors.²⁷¹ Diversification is also a buffer against economic downturns and unforeseen shocks in the marketplace. Combined with a highly educated workforce, Toronto's economic motivation and business acumen have made it a centre of discovery in medicine, media, telecommunications and technology.

In 2002 and 2004, KPMG and MMK Consulting prepared a guide for comparing business costs in Toronto to costs in North America, Europe, and Japan. Covering more than 120 cities, approximately 2,000 individual business scenarios were examined through an analysis of in excess of 30,000 items of data. The basis for comparison was the after-tax cost of start-up and operation for 17 specific types of business, over a 10-year period.²⁷² At a national level, the study showed that Canada was the overall cost leader for 2004 with a cost index of 91.0, representing a 9.0% cost advantage over the United States (US=100). In 2004, Canada was followed by Australia (91.5) and the UK (97.6); the US ranked 7th.²⁷³ The reason for Canada's strength was that labour costs are the key element in location-sensitive costs and overall labour costs were lowest in Canada.²⁷⁴

Compared to other large North American cities with population counts above 2 million, Toronto had lower overall business costs than all 18 large US cities studied. Montreal was the

²⁷¹ **An Overview of Toronto's Key Industry Clusters**, City of Toronto website (www.City.toronto.on.ca/economic_profile/clusteroverview.htm), January 2005.

²⁷² **Business Cost Comparison – Toronto vs. North America and Global Cities**, KPMG & MMK Consulting Inc., prepared for Toronto Economic Development, May 2004.

²⁷³ Ibid.

²⁷⁴ Ibid.



only large city in North America to have lower business costs, and its cost advantage over Toronto declined from 2.6% in 2002 to 1.9% in 2004. Toronto, in relation to other continents, had lower overall business costs for every city except Melbourne, Australia.

In 2004, employment within the City of Toronto stood at 1,255,600 working in 71,600 establishments, which represented a growth of 4,300 jobs compared to 2003 when there were 1,251,300 employees working in 71,800 establishments.²⁷⁵ Of the jobs in 2004, 78.7% (988,300) were full-time and 21.3% (267,300) were part-time. The increase in jobs marks the first time in three years that there was no decrease. The office sector (46%) contained the largest share of jobs, followed by the institutional (15%), manufacturing (13%), retail (12%), and service sectors (11%). The downtown and urban centres of Toronto contributed to 37% of all the jobs in the city.²⁷⁶

Social Development:

The health of Toronto in social terms is a good indicator of community cohesiveness. Respect for differences in economic and cultural terms and understanding similarities support a safe and tolerant environment that benefits the Toronto Police Service. As Toronto's population becomes more diverse, the Toronto Police must be prepared and able to accommodate the changes.

During its history, Toronto has been remarkably successful in struggling with issues affecting urban life. Toronto has emerged as an Urban Model for other North American cities. Toronto does face many challenges though. According to a report by the Toronto Community Foundation, and as was discussed in the Demographics chapter, there is a wide gap in the income levels of Toronto's wealthiest and poorest neighbourhoods. Between 1998 and 2002, the median income for families with children in Toronto's poorest neighbourhoods increased 3.6% (from \$32,574 to \$33,750), while in Toronto's richest neighbourhoods it rose by 7.8% (from \$144,868 to \$156,100). In 2002, 33.3% of Toronto's children (184,230) lived in low-income families, compared to 32.2% (163,010) in 1998. In 2001, the poverty rate for visible minority families with children was 37.8%, up from 31.5% in 1991. The 2001 poverty rate for these families was more than double the 16.4% rate among non-visible minority families, a decrease from 17.2% in 1991.²⁷⁷

In 2003, the City of Toronto conducted a survey of Toronto's community-based agencies.²⁷⁸ A total of 316 agencies responded. Key findings included: 56% of community agencies had programs at risk of ending and 44% had ended or eliminated programs; 47% of agencies had difficulty attracting, training, or retaining skilled staff; 82,000 volunteers worked in the 316 agencies; 72% of the funding for the sector came from government; 84% of agencies had access to new funding while 45% of agencies lost funding; and, 71% of agencies had clients who needed service in a language other than English.

²⁷⁵ Establishment refers to any business or firm's location. A business, e.g. major bank, may have more than one establishment at different locations.

²⁷⁶ **Profile Toronto – Toronto Employment Survey 2004**, Toronto Urban Development Services, Policy and Research, City of Toronto, February 2005.

²⁷⁷ **Toronto's Vital Signs, 2004: The City's Annual Check-Up**. Toronto Community Foundation (www.tcf.ca).

²⁷⁸ **Cracks in the Foundation – Community Agency Survey 2003**. City of Toronto Community and Neighbourhood Services, February 2004.



Affordability of housing, homelessness, and the options available to the poor are important areas of study. Police services often deal with criminal activity that finds its origins in stress over lack of money or shelter. Between 1998 and 2003, the number of families on the waiting list for subsidised housing rose from 49,000 to 68,561. In 2003, 32,740 people stayed in Toronto’s emergency shelters.

F. REAL ESTATE IN TORONTO

An analysis of the real estate market in Toronto provides a comprehensive look into the structure of our city in terms of diversity of neighbourhood wealth and the health of our economy. The Toronto Real Estate Board reported that 83,501 single-family dwellings sold during 2004, up 6% from the previous record of 78,898 set in 2003. The median price in 2004 was \$270,000, up 6% from 2003. A month by month comparison of 2003 and 2004 is shown in Figure 7.3.²⁷⁹

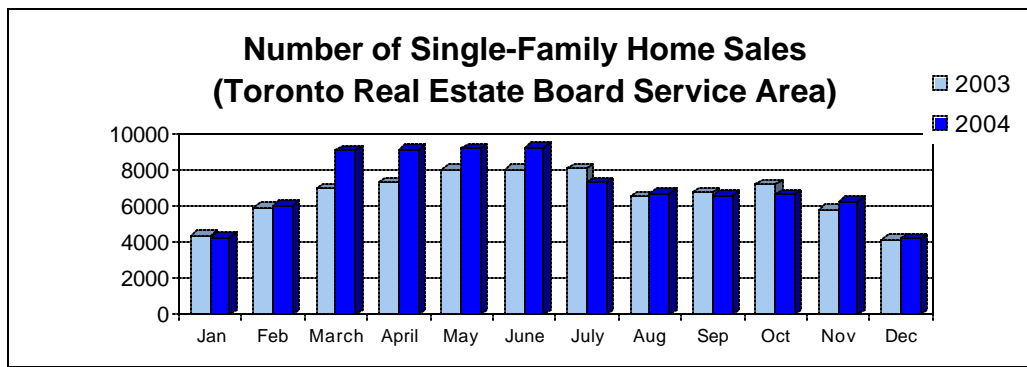


Figure 7.3

Source: Toronto Real Estate Board

According to statistics from the Toronto Real Estate Board, since 1995 there has generally been a trend of steady increase in home sales (Figure 7.4). This trend continued in 2004. The 83,501 homes sold in 2004 represented an increase of 112% over the 39,273 homes sold in 1995.

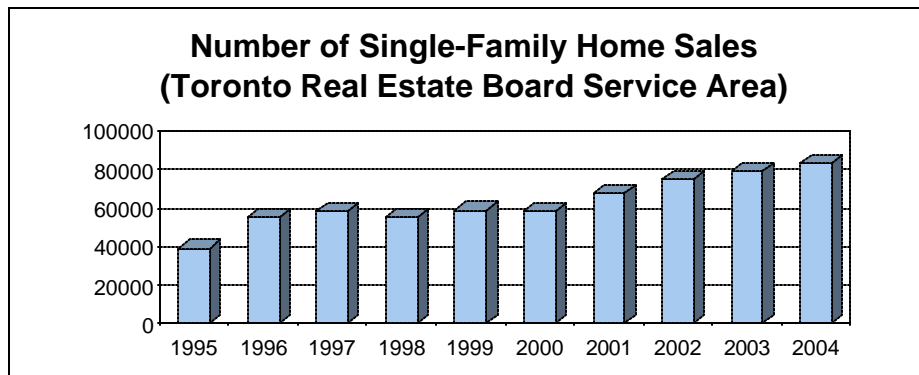


Figure 7.4

Source: Toronto Real Estate Board

²⁷⁹ Market Watch. Toronto Real Estate Board, December 2004.



As Figure 7.5 shows, the average price for a home has also continued an increasing trend. In 2004, the average price for a home rose to \$315,761, representing a 7.7% increase over the \$293,067 in 2003, and a 55% increase over the average price of \$203,028 reported in 1995.

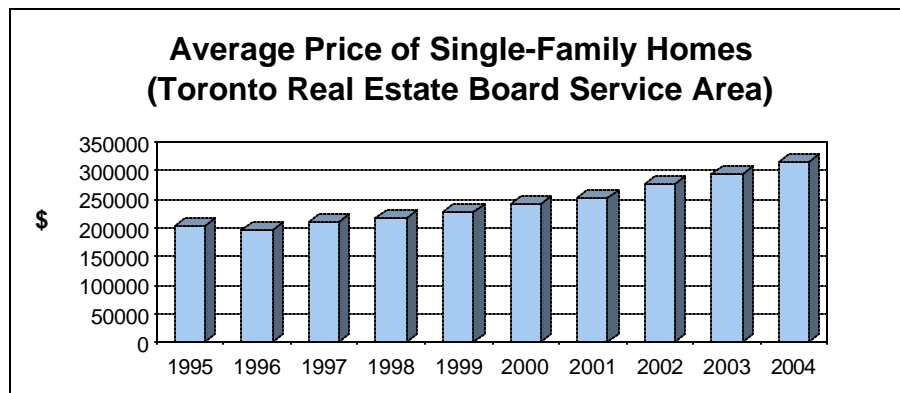


Figure 7.5

Source: Toronto Real Estate Board

According to the Royal LePage Real Estate Service Annual Report, Toronto home prices are expected to increase slightly above the rate of inflation, or 2.5%, to \$323,000 by the end of 2005, a smaller increase than in 2004. Toronto's real estate maturity and the waning allure of low interest rates that drew many first-time buyers into the market early, were some of the reasons for the prediction.²⁸⁰

G. TRANSPORTATION

Toronto Transit Commission:

The Toronto Transit Commission (TTC) has been serving the transportation needs of Torontonians since 1925. The mandate of the TTC is to operate and maintain transit service that provides safe, fast, reliable, convenient, and comfortable travel in a cost-effective way. The TTC's highest priorities are to current passengers, and to maintaining the existing system in a state of good repair.²⁸¹ In 2003, the TTC released its Ridership Growth Strategy, which presents a comprehensive, staged, approach to transit service improvements, fare initiatives, and the construction of new facilities, with the goal of increasing ridership while achieving the objectives of the City of Toronto's Official Plan.²⁸² The TTC Ridership Growth Strategy recommends a number of investments including:

- a 10% increase in peak period service on busy routes, by expanding the bus fleet by 100 vehicles above and beyond the forecasted needs and the advancement of a new bus garage (the target date is 2006);
- increasing off-peak service on major routes;
- continued construction of surface rapid transit;

²⁸⁰ *Toronto house market faces its own cold snap*, The Toronto Star, December 21, 2004.

²⁸¹ Toronto Transit Commission, **TTC Ridership Growth Strategy**, March 2003.

²⁸² Ibid.



- additional commuter parking;
- additional transit signal priority equipment on an ongoing basis;
- proceeding with the Volume Incentive Program (VIP) Green Pass fare discount, along with fare incentives in 2004 and 2005;
- increasing the capacity of the Scarborough RT to accommodate higher ridership demand; and,
- a reduction in fares in 2006 and 2007.

As the TTC subway marked its 50th anniversary in 2004, the Federal, Provincial, and City governments announced a \$1.05 billion funding initiative for transit system. As reported in the *2004 Environmental Scan*, the TTC plans to use the funding for the following:

- \$388 million to modernise the subway system, including the purchase of new subway cars to increase service, environmental assessments for subway expansions, construction to improve subway station access, and subway infrastructure improvements;
- \$391 million on buses, including the purchase of hybrid or other green-powered buses, expanding bus rapid transit on Yonge Street between Finch station and Steeles Avenue, and expanding bus rapid transit between Downsview station and York University on Steeles Avenue West;
- \$132 million on streetcars, including extending the life of streetcars, track repair, and streetcar infrastructure improvements; and,
- \$140 million for fare integration, including the TTC’s portion of an integrated ticketing system for a GTA transit system that would allow travellers to move effortlessly from one transit system to another.

Ridership on TTC vehicles (surface and subway) increased 3.1% between 2003 and 2004, from 405,413,000 riders to 418,099,000 (Figure 7.6). The number of riders in 2004 represented a 7.7% increase over the 388,152,000 riders 10 years ago in 1995. In 2003 and 2004, 59% of the total passengers travelled by surface while 40% travelled by subway. In 1995, 61% travelled by surface and 38% by subway.²⁸³

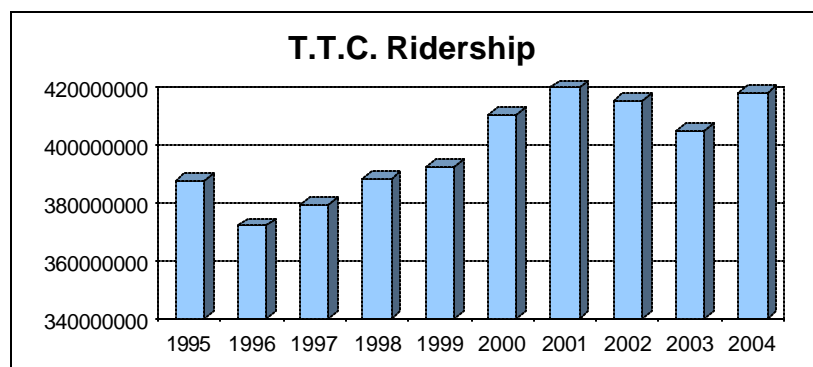


Figure 7.6

Source: Toronto Transit Commission

²⁸³ Toronto Transit Commission, *Annual revenue - passengers by modes*, TTC Finance Branch Report, 2004.



During 2004 and early 2005, a number of long-term construction projects were undertaken by the TTC. Although necessary, at times, construction projects in the City cause neighbourhood concern and conflict, traffic congestion, and complicate the ability of police and other emergency services to provide efficient, timely service. Some of the long-term projects underway or currently being completed include:²⁸⁴

- phase 2 of the Broadview TTC subway station modifications (expected to be complete by the fall of 2005), including access improvements to a new streetcar platform, extension of a new bus platform, resurfacing the bus driveway, and streetcar track upgrades;
- Queen Street East track reconstruction (begun in March 2005 and expected to continue into late summer 2005), focuses on Queen Street East from Lark Street to the Neville Park Loop;
- Bathurst Street track reconstruction (begun in May 2005 and scheduled to continue for most of 2005) affects streetcar tracks from Front Street to the Bathurst TTC Station;
- a joint project by the City of Toronto and the TTC to revitalise St. Clair Avenue West from Yonge Street to Gunns Road (expected to continue into 2006) aims to improve transit by creating a dedicated right-of-way streetcar track and to incorporate urban design features such as public art elements; and,
- beginning in late 2005 or early 2006 (with expected completion in 2014), the TTC is planning to construct another platform in Union Station to complement the Union Station Development.

GO Transit:

Created by the Province in 1967 to relieve traffic on the highways, GO Transit began as single rail line, which travelled along Lake Ontario. It has evolved to become a complex network of seven train lines and numerous bus routes that link towns and cities across the GTA.

GO Transit serves more than 5 million people living in an area of more than 8,000 square kilometres. On an average weekday, in the 2003-2004 fiscal year, GO operated 178 train trips and 1,226 bus trips, carrying about 170,000 passengers. The vast majority of those trips were destined for Toronto. Ridership for 2003/04 reached almost 44.3 million passengers, which represents a 42.4% increase from the 31.1 million riders in 1995 and a slight increase of 0.5% from the 44.1 million passengers recorded in 2002/03.²⁸⁵ Ridership in 2003/04 represented an annual record for the 7th year in a row. During the morning rush hour, GO Transit carries as many people into downtown Toronto as eight major highways (48 lanes of traffic).²⁸⁶

Toronto Taxi Industry

Toronto's taxi industry is vital to the city and provides a form of public transportation that is quick and convenient. According to the Municipal Licensing and Standards Mobile

²⁸⁴ Toronto Transit Commission website (www.toronto.ca/ttc).

²⁸⁵ Greater Toronto Transit Authority (GO Transit). **Go Transit: The Year in Review, 2002-2003** and **Go Transit: The Year in Review, 2003-2004**.

²⁸⁶ Ibid.



Business Licensing Unit, in 2004, there were approximately 14,157 licences issued to taxicab drivers and owners in the city of Toronto.²⁸⁷ This represented a 12.0% increase from 2003 when there were approximately 12,643 licences issued, and a decrease of 11.1% from 15,924 licences issued in 1995.²⁸⁸

Crime Stoppers is currently promoting a taxicab crime tip program called 'Rob a Cab – You will be Nabbed'. Pictures of suspects who were photographed by the taxi security camera committing a crime against a taxi driver are posted on the Crime Stoppers website in order to assist in generating tips that may lead to an arrest. According to the website, this program has aided in the capture of several suspects.²⁸⁹

Lester B. Pearson International Airport:

Although policing at Pearson Airport is provided by Peel Regional Police, the Greater Toronto Airports Authority (GTAA), and Federal emergency and security services, global events such as the September 11th, 2001, disaster have shown that airport security and awareness is important to every community and every agency at all levels of government.

In 2004, the Toronto Pearson Airport handled 28.6 million passengers, which represented a 15.8% increase from 2003. Based on predictions of a 3% annual increase, it is expected that 50 million passengers will travel through the airport by the year 2020.²⁹⁰

In 2002, the Canadian Air Transport Security Authority (CATSA), a crown corporation, was created in conjunction with a \$2.2 billion package (over 5 years) of air security initiatives contained in the 2001 Federal Budget. CATSA was created as the centrepiece of the Federal Government response to September 11th. Its mission is to protect the public by securing critical elements of the air transportation system as assigned by the government.²⁹¹ The responsibilities of CATSA include:²⁹²

- pre-board screening of passengers and their belongings;
- acquisition, operation, deployment, and maintenance of explosive detection systems at airports;
- implementation of a restricted area identification card;
- screening of non-passengers entering airport restricted areas; and,
- a contribution for supplemental airport policing services.

In 2004, CATSA intercepted more than 738,000 (about 61,500 a month) prohibited items at Canadian airports. Items included: knives, pepper spray, scissors, guns, ammunition, replica weapons, etc. The amount seized in 2004 represented a drop of about 20% from 2003.²⁹³

²⁸⁷ **Statistics of Licences** from Municipal Licensing and Standards, Mobile Business Licensing Unit, City of Toronto.

²⁸⁸ Licence numbers include taxicab drivers, standard owners, ambassador owners, and accessible owners, except in 1995 when separate licences were not issued for ambassador or accessible owners.

²⁸⁹ Crime Stoppers website (www.toronto-crimestoppers.com/taxi/).

²⁹⁰ GTAA Annual Report 2004, **Signs for Success**.

²⁹¹ Canadian Air Transport Security Authority, Government of Canada, website (www.catsa-acsta.gc.ca).

²⁹² Ibid.

²⁹³ CATSA Press Release. *CATSA Intercepts*, February 2005 (www.catsa-acsta.gc.ca).



CATSA is presently working with the GTAA in the planning of a new restricted area identification card. The new card will incorporate biometric technology, identifying individuals on the basis of biological traits such as fingerprints and iris scans. CATSA and Transport Canada have initiated a pilot project deploying new document screening equipment to detect explosives at pre-board screening checkpoints. The equipment is designed to detect traces of explosive material on documents such as boarding passes.²⁹⁴ Successful studies and pilot projects may lead to the inclusion of these devices at Toronto Pearson Airport.

The Breeze Ferry Service (Toronto to Rochester):

The first year of the launch of the Breeze Ferry (The Spirit of Ontario) was a tumultuous one. The ferry was built in Australia in 2003 for \$42.5 million (US); the service ran across Lake Ontario in the summer of 2004 for about 80 days before it was shut down due to debt. The ship can travel at about 140 kilometres per hour and carry 774 passengers and 220 cars. During 2004, it carried approximately 130,000 passengers from Toronto to Rochester, New York. Since September 7th, 2004, the ferry has been docked at the Port of Rochester.

In February 2005, the ferry went up for auction and was purchased for \$32 million by the City of Rochester. The ferry has been renamed 'The Cat' and service between Rochester and Toronto is expected to resume in 2005. The service will operate all year round, with two round trips daily from April to October and four round trips weekly for the remainder of the year.²⁹⁵

H. SPECIAL CONSTABLE SERVICES

TTC Special Constables

In June 1997, the Toronto Police Services Board designated employees of the Toronto Transit Commission responsible for law enforcement and security as Special Constables. The designation provided Transit Special Constable's peace officer powers for the purpose of enforcing the Criminal Code of Canada and the *Controlled Drugs and Substances Act*. It also provided police officer enforcement authority for the purpose of selected provincial statutes within specific geographic boundaries.

As of December 31st, 2004, the Toronto Transit Commission employed 76 Transit Special Constables (TSCs). According to the TTC Special Constable Services Annual Report to the Toronto Police Services Board, in 2004, TTC Special Constables made 844 arrests relating to both criminal and provincial act offences, issued 4,865 Form 9 and Provincial Offences Tickets (POTs), and completed 4,747 TPS Form 208s.²⁹⁶ In addition, 823 TPS General Occurrences and 1,106 TPS Record of Arrests were prepared. As shown in Figure 7.7, the TTC remains an extremely safe system for its customers. In 2004, the crime rate was 0.63 per 100,000 riders, a decrease of 1.6% from 2003 and a decrease of 22.2% from 1995.

²⁹⁴ **GTAA Update January/February 2005**, Greater Toronto Airports Authority, Volume 37, February 2005.

²⁹⁵ *Rochester ferry re-launch in May?* The Toronto Star, February 28, 2005 (www.thestar.ca).

²⁹⁶ **2004 TTC Special Constables Annual Report**, Police Services Board Minute P139/05 (Meeting of April 7, 2005).

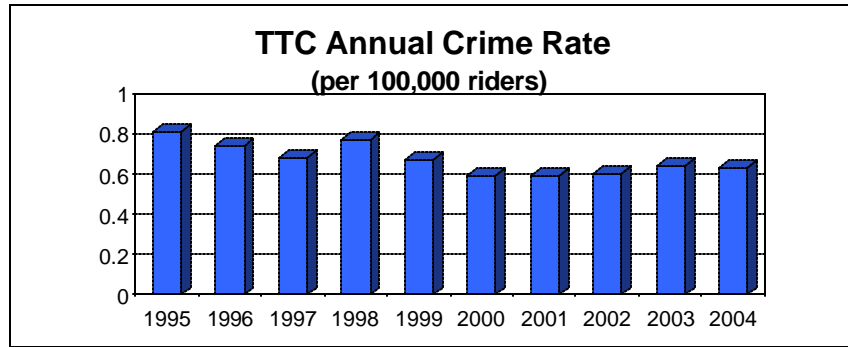


Figure 7.7

Source: TTC Corporate Security

Toronto Community Housing Corporation:

The Toronto Community Housing (TCH) provides housing for 164,000 tenants, in 57,500 units. Tenants include families with and without children, singles, and seniors. Their area of responsibility includes high-rise apartment buildings, low-rise apartment buildings, townhouses, rooming houses, and single houses. As of January 2005, the TCH employed 131 staff who operate out of an in-house Community Safety Unit (CSU).²⁹⁷

The TCH, known legally as the Toronto Community Housing Corporation, entered into an agreement with the Toronto Police Services for Special Constable status in December 2000. Currently, there are 47 CSU staff who are appointed as Special Constables.²⁹⁸

In 2004, TCH Special Constables investigated or assisted in 18,531 investigations on or in relation to TCH property. Of these, 230 were classified as violent crime offences, 264 were classified as property crime offences, 7276 were classified as other offences, and 10,761 were classified as non-offences.²⁹⁹ In 2004, TCH Special Constables made 96 arrests relating to both criminal and provincial act offences, issued 870 Form 9 and POTs, and completed 837 Occurrences.³⁰⁰

University of Toronto Police:

The University of Toronto Police Special Constable Service originated through an agreement signed in 1995 with the Toronto Police Services Board. The Special Constables currently provide service to approximately 70,000 students and more than 10,000 faculty and staff. More than 10,000 students are in residence on the campuses. Each campus Service has a number of responsibilities above and beyond policing, including providing safety and security plans, systems, and services. They also rely heavily on CPTED principles for physical security

²⁹⁷ 2004 Toronto Community Housing Special Constables Annual Report, Police Services Board Minute P138/05 (Meeting of April 7, 2005).

²⁹⁸ Ibid.

²⁹⁹ Ibid.

³⁰⁰ Ibid.



and the office of the Community Safety Co-ordinator for social and community development, safety planning, and co-ordination of crisis services.³⁰¹

In 2004, the University of Toronto St. George Campus Special Constables arrested and investigated 382 persons relating to both criminal and provincial act offences and issued 187 Form 9s and POTs. In 2004, the University of Toronto Scarborough Campus Special Constable Services arrested and investigated 282 persons relating to criminal and provincial act offences and issued 87 Form 9s and POTs.³⁰²

I. PRIVATE SECURITY

The role of private security continues to evolve. Private security is comprised of two main groups: private investigators and security guards. According to the 2001 Canadian census, nationally, there were more people working in private security than there were police officers: there were 10,465 private investigators and 73,535 security guards compared to 62,860 police officers.³⁰³ This was also the case in 1991 when there were a reported 8,215 private investigators and 72,880 security guards compared to 61,280 police officers. The increasing cost of insurance premiums, the increased incidence of 'high tech' computer and technological crime, and rising concerns over information safety, as well as increases in publicly accessible private property (e.g., shopping centres, stadiums, and industrial parks), are a few of the possible factors fuelling this trend.

According to the Ontario Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services, Private Investigation and Security Guard Section, as of January 2005, in the province of Ontario, there were 113 licensed Security agencies, 247 licensed Private Investigation agencies, and 134 agencies classified as dual agencies who provide both functions.³⁰⁴ The number of current licenses active as of January 2005 was 26,771 for security, 2,319 for private investigators, and 1,238 for dual, for a total of 30,328 – a 4.5% increase from the 29,000 reported in 2003 and a 58.5% increase from the 19,125 in 1995 (Figure 7.8).

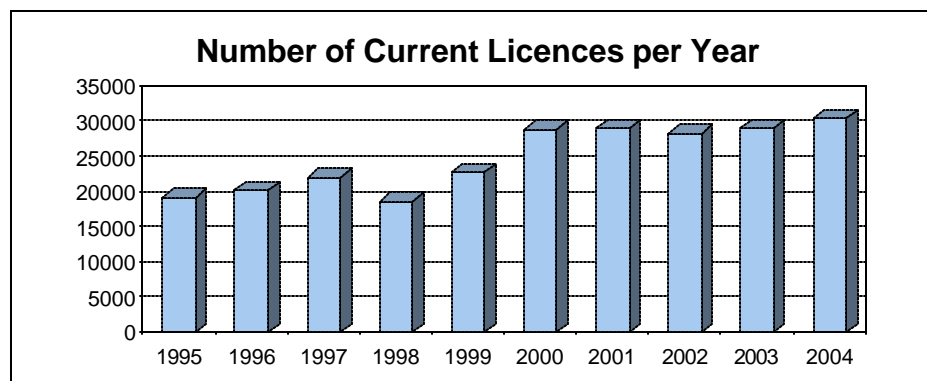


Figure 7.8 Source: Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services

³⁰¹ 2004 University of Toronto Special Constables Annual Report, Police Services Board Minute P140/05 (Meeting of April 7, 2005).

³⁰² Ibid.

³⁰³ Butts, A. *Private Security and Public Policing in Canada – 2001*, *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, August 2004).

³⁰⁴ Information from Private Investigation and Security Guard Section, Ontario Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services, February 2005.



Public police and private security are continuing to enter community-benefiting partnerships. Networks that combine public and private policing efforts are appearing more frequently as the range of activities performed by private security personnel continues to expand. Despite the expanding role of private security, when compared to public policing, private security is characterised by a number of distinct features such as minimal recruitment and training standards, lower wages, higher percentages of part-time work, and less employment security.

The regulation of private security is limited in comparison to public police, but recent legislation is attempting to provide further accountability for private security.³⁰⁵ The Ontario Government has introduced legislation in the hopes of strengthening professional requirements for private security. If passed, the new *Private Security and Investigative Services Act* will address issues including:

- mandatory licensing for all security personnel;
- license portability (allowing the security person to change employment within the industry without having to reapply for another license);
- imposed training standards, implementing additional security checks and conducting more comprehensive background checks of applicants; and,
- standards for uniforms, equipment and vehicles used by security personnel.

The introduction of the Act came less than a year after a Coroner's inquest into the death of Patrick Shand, a Toronto man who died after an altercation with employees of a grocery store and security guards in 1999. The Coroner's jury made 22 recommendations on training, licensing, and standards for security practitioners. The new Act speaks to those recommendations.³⁰⁶

J. TOURISM IN TORONTO

Over the past few years, Canada has faced many barriers to a thriving tourist industry, as has much of the world. Global threats of terrorism, disease, and economic and environmental uncertainty has influenced travel. Travel increased in 2004 following a dismal 2003 that was plagued by a number of domestic and international events, including the war in Iraq, Air Canada's filing for creditor protection, 'mad cow' disease, West Nile virus, SARS, the Ontario blackout, exchange rate shifts, etc.

According to the Canadian Tourism Commission, as of October 2004, 24.2 million passengers passed through the Pearson Airport representing an increase of 14% over 2003 and 10.7% over 2002 for the same period of time. International travel registered the highest increase over 2002 (16.1%) while trans-border registered the lowest increase (2.7%). US travel to Ontario increased by 12.2% in 2004 when compared to the same period in 2003, but was still 8.4% below 2002 for the same period. Canada's stance on the war in Iraq, higher gas prices, exchange rates, and delays at the border relating to increased security over threats of terrorism

³⁰⁵ Ibid.

³⁰⁶ Ontario Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services website (www.mpss.jus.gov.on.ca).



were possible reasons for the slow recovery. It is estimated that the decline in US travellers to Ontario cost the province over \$200 million in potential revenue.³⁰⁷

In 2004, there were approximately 17.8 million visitors to Toronto.³⁰⁸ As shown in Figure 7.9, this represented a 4.7% increase from 17 million in 2003.³⁰⁹ Compared to 1995, 2004 saw a considerable 17.6% decrease, but it should be noted that the majority of other years within the ten-year analysis were much closer to 2004 numbers. In fact, in the past ten years, 2004 had the third highest number of visitors.

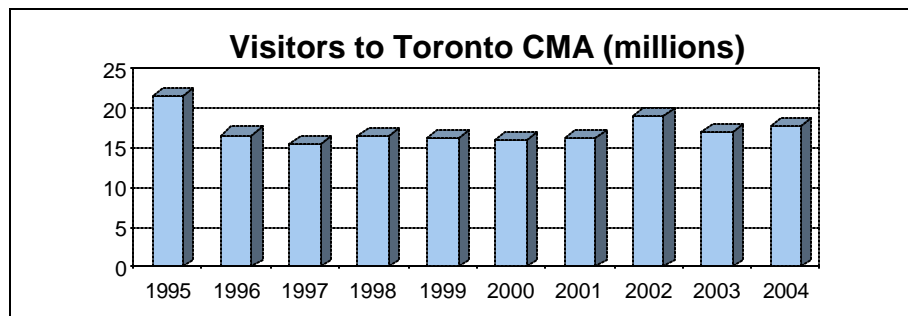


Figure 7.9

Source: Tourism Toronto

According to Tourism Toronto, visitor spending increased 6.3% between 2003 and 2004: \$3.67 billion was spent in 2003 compared to \$3.9 billion in 2004, a difference of \$23 million (Figure 7.10).

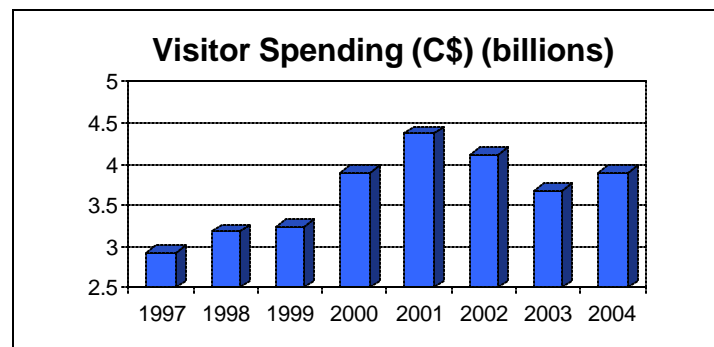


Figure 7.10

Source: Tourism Toronto

K. HAZARDOUS EVENTS

Hazardous events, and how the police deal with them, are important because they represent a potentially far-reaching danger that may often be silent and invisible. Hazards can originate from many areas: household materials such as pool chemicals, materials handled and used in production of products, goods transported by road or rail, etc. There is always the danger

³⁰⁷ Strategic Plan 2005 Overview, Canadian Tourism Commission, 2004.

³⁰⁸ Toronto Tourism estimates numbers for the full year based on data from January to October.

³⁰⁹ Toronto Tourism, 2003 Key Facts, December 2004.



that a traffic accident will cause harmful chemicals to be released into the community. As reported in previous *Scans*, an estimated 1 in 10 of the 15.1 million trucks that crossed the boundaries of Toronto in 1995 were carrying hazardous materials.

Since the 1970s, Canada has partnered with the United States and Mexico in preparing a North-American Emergency Response Guidebook for assisting with accidents involving dangerous goods. The 2004 version of the Emergency Response Guidebook (ERG2004) is a tool for police, fire services, and other emergency services that may assist when required to attend the scene of an accident involving dangerous goods. According to Transport Canada, in 2004, the Canadian Transport Emergency Centre of the Department of Transport (CANUTEC) received 32,183 inquiries and calls regarding hazardous materials throughout Canada. Of the calls, 851 represented an emergency situation. Road transport was involved in 215 calls and rail was involved in 189. More than one-third (293) of the emergency calls to CANUTEC came from Ontario.³¹⁰

In Toronto, after a general trend of increase from about 1995, 2004 saw a decrease in the number of events for natural gas leaks, explosions, and chemical hazards. The Service attended 1049 hazardous events in 2004, which represented the lowest number of events since 1995 when there were 789 events attended. As shown in Figure 7.11, there was a 16.2% decrease in hazardous events attended by police between 2003 and 2004. The number of events in 2004 represented an increase of 33.0% over 1995.

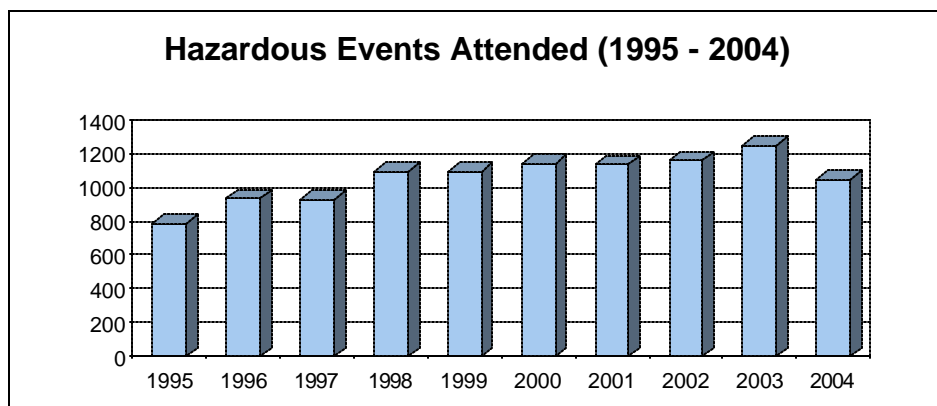


Figure 7.11

Source: TPS I/CAD System

In relation to total number of calls for police service, the number of such events appears quite small, however this data is retrieved from the I/CAD system through an analysis of event types. This type of report captures only the events that were coded as a chemical hazard; it does not capture reports that may have involved a hazardous material, but which were coded differently. An example would be an accident where an employee was injured while involved with a chemical spill and the event is coded as an Industrial Accident instead of a Chemical Hazard. The actual numbers of such occurrences are therefore not known.

³¹⁰ CANUTEC – 2004 Statistics, Transport Canada website (www.tc.gc.ca/canutec/en/stats/year/2004stat.htm).



L. TERRORISM AND NATIONAL DISASTERS

Fear of domestic terrorism has been heightened since the World Trade Centre catastrophe of September 11th, 2001. In April 2004, Deputy Prime Minister/Public Affairs Minister Anne McLellan and Justice Minister Irwin Cotler released a document entitled *Securing an Open Society* that defines threats and security broadly. This report recommended spending \$690 million over five years to improve security in Canada and included:³¹¹

- \$308 million for the collection and analysis of passports, fingerprints, cargo container content lists, signs of public health threats or threats to critical cyber-infrastructure;
- \$137 million for enhanced intelligence efforts;
- \$99.78 million for improving real-time processing at RCMP headquarters of fingerprint information;
- \$14.95 million for a centralised government emergency operations centre; and,
- \$10.31 million to boost the security of Canadian passports by embedding electronic chips containing data on facial features of the bearer. (The smart chip passport is expected to be issued in 2005.)

According to *Securing an Open Society - Canada's National Security Policy*, there are a number of current threats to be aware of, from pandemics to terrorism.³¹² These threats can have a serious effect on the economy, society, and safety of Canadians, and are outlined briefly below.

Terrorism:

Terrorism can be motivated by a number of causes, such as religious extremism, violent secessionist movements, state-sponsored terrorism, and domestic extremism. While Toronto has not been a target of the type of terrorism that the US and many other countries have experienced, the potential does exist and the City should be prepared for it. The bombings of commuter trains in Madrid, Spain in March 2004, and the London Underground in July 2005, remind the democratic world of the threats of terrorism. In a taped message released on November 12th, 2002, Osama bin Laden identified Canada as a target for an attack.³¹³

Proliferation of Weapons of Mass Destruction:

There is evidence that terrorist organisations and states with poor international records have sought and experimented with such weapons – an example being the foiling of a planned attack using the deadly chemical ‘ricin’ in the United Kingdom in 2003.

³¹¹ *Security Beefed Up*, Metro, April 28, 2004.

³¹² **Securing an Open Society - Canada's National Security Policy**, Government of Canada website (www.pco-bcp.gc.ca).

³¹³ Ibid.



Failed and Failing States:

Unstable states can be a haven for terrorism and organised crime groups that prey on a weak or corrupt government to pursue their disreputable activities, which could span a number of countries.

Foreign Espionage:

As a highly advanced industrial economy, Canada is subject to the possibility of foreign espionage that seeks Canadian industrial and technical secrets. Some countries are interested in defence and security plans, particularly in how they relate to the US and other allies.

Natural Disasters:

With the recent tragedy of the tsunami in late 2004, the worry of natural disasters has moved to the forefront for many nations. Canada is not immune to natural disasters as the global climate continues to change.

Critical Infrastructure Vulnerability:

The August 2003 electrical blackout that affected Ontario and eight US states demonstrated how dependent we are on our infrastructure and how vulnerable we are to a deliberate attack on our critical services.

Pandemics:

The SARS epidemic in 2003 showed how a global economy and global travel has increased the risk for threats to the health of Canadians. Threats such as this have wide ranging effects on our economy and society.

Police, government, and community leaders will have to make difficult decisions as to how much of the City's already constrained financial and human resources will be dedicated to efforts directed at preparing for national threats. It is very challenging for emergency services to be trained and prepared for all the types of disasters that could happen in a large urban centre. There are, however, steps that can be taken to help prepare for this type of disaster, to increase the safety of residents, and to reduce property damage.

As outlined in the *2004 Environmental Scan*, the Toronto Police Service has instituted the Incident Management System (IMS) to deal with these emergencies. The IMS deals with emergencies that would produce unusual demands on police resources and equipment at the unit or Service level. These types of emergencies include a declared state of local emergency, which would cause the Toronto Emergency Plan to be activated. Currently, members of the Public Safety unit (PSU) are trained in IMS and update training on an ongoing basis. Each member of the PSU is assigned a pager to ensure a quick response to major emergencies as well as to disorderly crowds or other situations that produce personnel demands that cannot be handled at the unit or field command level.



The Operations Section of the Service's Intelligence Support unit came into existence in October 2002. Members were initially tasked with updating and investigating Joint Intelligence Group (JIG) files from 9/11, which had Toronto and GTA connections relating to terrorism. Specific operational requirements included providing intelligence information relating to the anti-war demonstrations leading up to and continuing through the US war with Iraq. Though not specifically as a result of the terrorist attacks on 9/11, those events played an important role in determining the responsibilities of and response from this unit on many fronts. For example, there was increasing agency liaison within intelligence networks, including those between York, Peel, Durham, INSET, OPP, Canada Customs and Revenue, US Customs, Military Intelligence, and CSIS.

The TPS also seconded a liaison officer to the New York City Police Department to facilitate communication and intelligence sharing between the Service and the US. A representative from the New York City Police Department in Toronto facilitates training and information sessions between TPS and GTA representatives. The information flow has been steadily increasing between each agency. A successful system needs to manage and reduce threats and be able to efficiently respond to existing threats while being prepared to adapt to new ones.

M. DEMONSTRATIONS AND SPECIAL EVENTS

Toronto attracts a number of special events and demonstrations that challenge the Police Service and its resources. A number of large important annual events took place in Toronto in 2004 and are expected to continue in future years. Some examples include: Celebrate Toronto Street Festival, Caribana, Pride Week, the Molson Indy, the Canadian National Exhibition (CNE), the Toronto Jazz Festival, the Toronto Marathon, the Santa Clause Parade, New Years Eve celebrations, various cultural events, etc. Events such as these attract thousands of residents and visitors to Toronto streets. Safe and efficient managing of people and traffic related to large events is paramount to community safety, the success of the event, and the promotion of Toronto.

Demonstrations are an important reality in a democratic society, and although generally peaceful, they do cause a strain on police personnel and resources. The unpredictability of demonstrations can present challenges for police in the areas of crowd management and community safety. Demonstrators' emotions are often high and it is important that the police continue to ensure peace while at the same time protecting the safety and rights of all people.

Special events and demonstrations will continue in Toronto. The Toronto Police must continue to insure that close ties are kept with city officials, community stakeholders, and event planners to ensure that the safety of the police and public is maintained and that policing services are delivered to everyone throughout Toronto in an efficient and timely manner.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- Given our large urban population, the Service must continue to work with the City's communities, understanding the economic, cultural, and social uniqueness of each of them,



presenting the people we serve with an informed knowledge and understanding of their needs.

- Long-term, effective strategies are needed to meet the challenge of increased service demands that will arise from urban development, as envisioned within Toronto's Official Plan.
- As large development projects shape the future face of Toronto, the Service must work with stakeholders and urban developers to ensure policing issues are addressed when development is considered. Guidance can be provided through the continued input provided by police planners and through methods such as Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED).
- As many community agencies struggle to maintain operation, the Service must support and continue working relationships with community-based agencies to provide assistance and service as is possible to the disadvantaged and vulnerable within the community.
- As transit systems improve and are able to support higher ridership, the Service should consider future demands on central urban areas within the downtown core, and the associated strategies or deployment of resources that may be required to deal efficiently with the influx of commuters.
- With continued concern regarding terrorist threats, the Service must continue to work with other agencies in keeping aware of current global developments and in developing strategies focused on the safety and security of the City and nation.



VIII. TECHNOLOGY & POLICING

Computer crime continues to be one of the most publicised aspects of computer use and although computer crime continues to experience exponential growth, the various crimes associated with computers are difficult to evaluate or measure in terms of magnitude or frequency. Computer crime continues to grow, as is evidenced through the multi-dimensional evolution of new concepts, particularly identity theft, lawful access, and child pornography. Hacking by organised crime and criminal extremist groups continues to be a threat as society continues its dependence on globally interconnected networks and the accepted standards for companies to interact with their clients via the Internet.

HIGHLIGHTS

- According to Statistics Canada, approximately 57% of households had someone who accessed on-line banking services, a substantial increase from 44% in 2001.
- Using the Internet as a tool of intimidation, hiding behind the seeming anonymity of the Internet allows ‘Generation Ms’ to say and do things they perhaps wouldn’t say and do face-to-face.
- The pilot project run by the Service’s Child Exploitation Section, ‘Assisting and Preventing Child Victims of Sexual Abuse Through Focused Investigation of Child Pornography Cases’, was considered successful, resulting in a number of victims identified and arrests made.
- The Child Exploitation Tracking System (CETS), a database designed to cross-reference large amounts of evidence in computers seized from suspects, was launched across Canada and in United States at a media conference in Toronto on April 7th, 2004.
- Between 2001 and 2004, the Service’s Child Exploitation Section opened 1,416 cases, arrested 103 persons, and laid 421 charges.
- An increasing number of identity thefts directed at consumers are being perpetrated on-line using phishing and pharming techniques.
- Fake Canadian driving licences are being produced and sold on the Internet. The fake licences and other faked personal identification are convincingly equipped with holograms and magnetic strips.

A. HOUSEHOLD INTERNET USE

According to the 2003 Statistics Canada Household Internet Use Survey, the number of Canadian households surfing the Internet continues to grow – almost two-thirds (64%) of all Canadian households had at least one member who used the Internet regularly, accessing from home, work, school, or other location.³¹⁴ While this was a 5% increase from 2002, it was a

³¹⁴ **Internet Use in Canada**, Statistics Canada website (www.statcan.ca/english/freepub/56F0003XIE/index.htm).



substantially smaller increase than those seen in 2000 and 2001 (19% and 24%, respectively). In particular, the Survey found that Internet use was the highest in the home, with approximately 6.7 million households who had at least one member that regularly used the Internet from home, a gain of 7% from 2002. Table 8.1 below shows Internet use at home categorised by Internet activity.

Table 8.1
Household Internet Use at Home

Internet Activity	% of all Households in Survey					Increase 1999-2003
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	
E-mail	26.3	37.4	46.1	48.9	52.1	98.1%
Electronic banking	8.0	14.7	21.6	26.2	30.8	285.0%
Purchasing goods and services	5.5	9.6	12.7	15.7	18.6	238.2%
Medical or health information	15.6	22.9	30.1	32.8	35.6	128.2%
Formal education/training	9.2	19.0	22.9	24.3	24.9	170.7%
Government information	12.7	18.9	25.6	29.2	32.2	153.5%
General browsing	24.3	36.2	44.3	46.1	48.5	99.6%
Playing games	12.3	18.2	24.4	25.7	27.9	126.8%
Chat groups	7.5	11.0	13.7	14.0	14.4	92.0%
Other Internet services	10.0	17.7	21.1	24.8	23.5	135.0%
Obtain and save music	7.8	17.8	23.3	24.3	20.6	164.1%
Listen to the radio	5.0	9.3	12.3	12.3	13.1	162.0%
Find sports related information	..	17.3	22.1	23.8	24.6	..
Financial information	..	18.5	22.8	23.5	25.0	..
View the news	..	20.4	26.2	27.2	30.2	..
Travel information/arrangements	..	21.9	27.4	30.4	33.6	..
Search for a job	..	12.2	16.2	18.0	19.6	..

Source: Statistics Canada, 2003 Household Internet Use Survey³¹⁵

Those most likely to use the Internet were those households with high income, members active in the labour force, children still living at home, and people with higher levels of education. Lower income households continued to make strides in logging on. Of households with income between \$24,001 and \$43,999, nearly 45% had someone who used the Internet from home in 2003, up 13% from 2002. In contrast, for those households with the lowest income, the proportion of households regularly using the Internet from home remained relatively unchanged.³¹⁶

Of the households with a regular user from home in 2003, almost two-thirds (65%) had a high-speed link through either a cable or telephone modem. This was up 9% from the previous year. Of those households with a high-speed link, 61% connected through cable and 39% had a high-speed telephone connection or Digital Subscriber Line (DSL). In 2003, the number of DSL connections increased nearly 30%, compared with a gain of only 21% for cable. It was

³¹⁵ Statistics Canada, **Household Internet Use Survey**, July 2004 (www.statcan.ca/english/Pgdb/comm09a.htm).

³¹⁶ *Household Internet Use Survey*. **The Daily**, July 8th, 2004, Statistics Canada website (www.statcan.ca).



suggested that this trend may have resulted from more competitive prices for DSL over cable, or from increased access to high-speed infrastructure in neighbourhoods.³¹⁷

Of the households reporting a regular Internet user from home, fewer reported downloading music (38% in 2003, down from a high of 48% in 2001). This may have been the result of the music industry campaign against downloading for free. Further, almost two-thirds (65%) of these households had at least one member accessing medical or health-related information, up from 61% in 2001. And, approximately 57% of households with a regular Internet user from home had someone who accessed on-line banking services, up substantially from 44% in 2001. This increase was the largest proportional gain of any type of use, and may indicate consumer confidence in Internet security.³¹⁸

B. GENERAL TRENDS – THE NEXT GENERATION

Experts have called the Internet the ‘socialising institution of modern society’. Technology has affected almost every aspect of life. The effects of this lifestyle are of increasing concern to many experts in youth culture. The current 16-year olds were age six when the Internet assumed a role in their daily lives. A recent study, *Generation M: Media in the Lives of 8-18 Year-Olds*, found that young people devoted almost the equivalent of a full time work week to media consumption, averaging just under 6½ hours a day.³¹⁹ Two-thirds used instant messaging, 39% had a cell phone, and one-third had created a personal website or web page. Experts see long-term implications for youth hooked on the instant gratification of the Internet world where there are no rules or supervision.³²⁰ Teens are perpetually making and breaking plans with friends, using technology as their first source of communication; they collaborate on homework, research, and writing, a positive side of technology, but also engage in flirting, bullying, and misrepresenting themselves with aliases and different identities. Using the Internet as a tool of intimidation, hiding behind the seeming anonymity of the Internet allows ‘Generation Ms’ to say and do things they perhaps wouldn’t say and do face-to-face.

In response to concerns over use of the Internet for these behaviours, the University of Toronto’s Faculty of Social Work have launched a new cyberabuse research and prevention initiative. The program, in partnership with Bell Canada, will focus on cyberbullying, sexual solicitation, and stalking. A website will also be developed to make research and resources on cyberabuse available to the public.

A psychiatrist at the Toronto Hospital for Sick Children is particularly concerned about the culture of aliases, fearing that this behaviour will encourage some young people to shirk responsibility for their own actions: “There seems to be no consequences in this online environment. Young patients have lost the ability to distinguish reality from the intoxicating fantasy world of the Internet and online gaming.”³²¹ The Internet can be an extremely seductive environment to teens and tweens, representing a freedom that they may not feel elsewhere.

³¹⁷ Ibid.

³¹⁸ Ibid.

³¹⁹ Roberts, D.F., Foehr, U.G., and Rideout, V. **Generation M: Media in the Lives of 8-18 Year Olds**, A Kaiser Family Foundation Study, March 2005.

³²⁰ *Wired, Like Totally*, The Toronto Star, April 1st, 2005.

³²¹ Ibid.



Other experts are concerned with how instant communications are shaping the attitudes and behaviour of youth. One psychologist has suggested that reliance on cell phones and text messaging can undermine the development of self-regulation and critical thinking because kids are checking in with friends constantly and can do anything spur of the moment. They become frustrated and impatient easily, and unwilling to work out problems. The result is that relationships fail – perhaps the single most powerful experience leading to depression.³²²

C. TECHNOLOGY-RELATED CRIMES – GREATER TORONTO AREA

Technology-related crimes continue to evolve and escalate throughout the Greater Toronto Area. In particular, the Peel Regional Police Service has found evidence to suggest a growing trend in debit and credit card skimming, with devices appearing at ATMs, gas stations, and point-of-sales in all retail locations.

Figure 8.1 below highlights information from the Peel Regional Police for occurrences taken by the Technological Crime Unit between 2002 and 2004. The computer crime, child pornography, and death/missing categories continued to be the categories with the largest number of occurrences, and all showed a greater than 50% increase from 2002 to 2004.

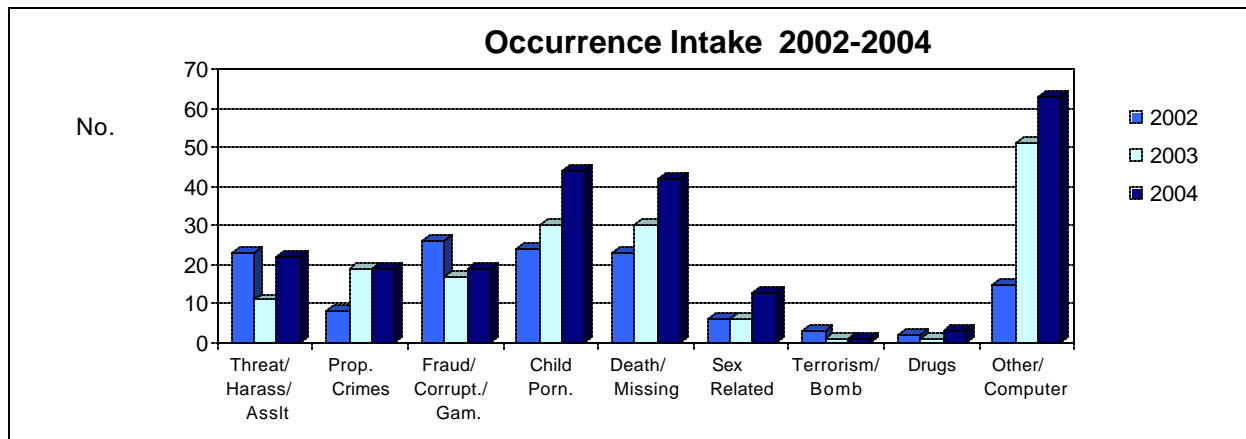


Figure 8.1

Source: Technological Crimes Unit, Peel Regional Police

D. TORONTO POLICE SERVICE – TECHNOLOGICAL CRIME UNIT

In 2002, the Ontario Government funded a \$2 million temporary grant jointly to the Child Exploitation Section of the Sex Crimes Unit and the Technological Crime Unit of Intelligence Support. In early 2003, this grant resulted in the addition of six computer forensic examiners and three child sexual exploitation investigators for child sexual exploitation related initiatives. The Technological Crime Unit provides fundamental support to not only the investigation of child pornography cases, but to many other crimes involving computers as well. The technical support provided includes the examination of computer hard drives, cellular phones, and personal digital assistants (PDAs). A breakdown of items seized and examined by the Technological Crime Unit in 2004 are shown in Table 8.2.

³²² Marano, H.E. *A Nation of Wimps*. **Psychology Today**, November/December 2004.



Table 8.2
TPS Technological Crime Unit Workload
January 1st - December 31st, 2004

Activity Type	Total Number
New Cases	182
Active Cases	228
Computer Seized	138
Laptops Seized	46
Hard Drives Examined	351
Media Examined	2,523

In 2005, the challenges faced by this unit include training, updating computer hardware and software, and funding. For example, the equipment used for forensic acquisitions has surpassed its expected life cycle. Two of the systems were replaced in 2004, however, an additional six lab stations and ten laptops require updating. Along with the necessity to update hardware, speciality software, such as the main forensic software, also requires updating.

The Technological Crime Unit will continue to provide support and expertise in technological crime, however, the challenge of meeting the costs for training and equipment has to be addressed on an ongoing basis. Grant funding for the unit expired at the end of 2004, and discussions for new Provincial funding are underway. In the interim, all costs associated with computer crime investigation are an added cost to the Service.

E. CHILD PORNOGRAPHY

Child pornography continues to present a complex problem for law enforcement agencies and continues to be a threat to children. The explosion in technology and the Internet have made handling the increase in child pornography a difficult task. A number of initiatives have been implemented by the Child Exploitation section of the Toronto Police Service's Sex Crimes Unit in recent years. These initiatives, coupled with stronger child pornography laws, assist law enforcement agencies in protecting children from sexual exploitation, Internet luring, and child pornography.

The partnership created between Microsoft and the Child Exploitation Section in 2003 continued to flourish during 2004. The Child Exploitation Tracking System (CETS), a database designed to cross-reference massive amounts of evidence in computers seized from suspects, was launched across Canada and the United States (US) at a media conference in Toronto on April 7th, 2004. Approximately 25 Canadian police agencies and the US Department of Homeland Security now use the system that has already resulted in Toronto officers making five arrests over the past year. "Over the past two years, Microsoft has spent \$2.5 million on developing the software, committed a staff member to handle the system and offered it up to police services free of charge. They are now committing another \$2 million to make the project global in scope."³²³

Microsoft and the Toronto Police Service developed the software to assist officers in investigating the dissemination of child pornography on the Internet. The software, CETS, was

³²³ *Child Pornography Database Plugged In*, Toronto Police Service Intranet, April 11, 2005.



developed to support more effective, intelligence-based investigations by enabling collaboration and information sharing across law enforcement agencies.

CETS has been designed to house tools to store, search, share, and analyse the high volume of information that can be overwhelming to investigators of child exploitation. The database imports and cross-references information seized from computers, such as e-mail address books and buddy lists. CETS also connects investigations that share links such as:

- associated investigators
- participation levels
- people information
- on-line identities including email addresses and chatroom nicknames
- on-line resources, including web sites and news groups.

The Child Exploitation Section's 2002-2004 Pilot Project, "Assisting and Preventing Child Victims of Sexual Abuse Through Focused Investigation of Child Pornography Cases", was considered a successful project. The main objective was to focus on the identification of child victims of sexual assault, prevent further abuse, and ensure victims received assistance crucial for recovery. In order to meet these objectives, the investigators used a two-pronged approach of traditional and non-traditional methods. The traditional methods used to identify and rescue victims included:

- identification and prosecution of offenders,
- publicising arrests,
- public education, and
- establishment and maintenance of community and criminal justice personnel linkages.

The non-traditional methods used to identify and rescue victims included:

- in each arrest instance, every child in the offender's life was interviewed as a potential victim,
- every child pornography picture and movie was thoroughly examined for background clues that might lead to the identification of the victim or the offender, and
- undercover officers posed and portrayed themselves on-line as children or pedophiles in an effort to proactively pursue the individuals who trade child pornography pictures and movies, and who might also travel to Toronto attempting to engage a child in sexual activity.

Through the use of these methods of investigation, the Child Exploitation Section achieved the following results:

- 33 victims were identified by officers interviewing every child in the life of an offender,
- 25 victims were identified through the examination of background clues in child pornography pictures and movies,



- 8 arrests were made of individuals travelling to Toronto, believing they would be engaging in sexual activity with a child; officers, portraying themselves as children on-line, were able to intervene, thereby preventing children from being victimised, and
- 27 arrests were made or investigations commenced across Canada by officers portraying themselves on-line as like-minded pedophiles.

In December 2003, the US Attorney’s press release credited the Toronto Police Service for using their cutting-edge techniques in identifying and saving the life of a sexually abused, under-age girl, and bringing to justice a 41-year old pedophile.

In the Raleigh-Durham area of North Carolina is a little girl who owes her life – perhaps literally – to seven Toronto police officers. ...They are members of the Child Exploitation branch of the force's Sex Crimes Unit, and...they managed to extract information enough from a collection of searing child-porn images posted on an international police website to identify the six-year-old's school.

By zeroing in on a wristband the child wore in some of the pictures, a badge on her girl scout uniform and a deliberately blurred-out logo on a T-shirt she wore under a school jumper, the Toronto squad was able to narrow the search first to the Raleigh-Durham area, and ultimately by cross-checking with school uniform manufacturers in the area, to direct officers from the local Federal Bureau of Investigation office to the right address.³²⁴

Between 2001 and 2004, the Child Exploitation Section opened 1,416 cases, arrested 103 persons, and laid 421 charges. As shown in Table 8.3, the Child Exploitation section continues to experience increases in arrests, images seized and cases opened.

Table 8.3
TPS Child Exploitation Section Workload

	2001	2002	2003	2004	% change 2001-04	% change 2003-04
Arrests	10	19	37	37	270.0%	0.0%
Images Seized	200,000	> 1 million	> 2 million	unknown	unknown	unknown
Cases Opened	75	279	477	585	680.0%	22.6%

Source: Child Exploitation Section, TPS Sex Crimes Unit

The challenges faced by the Child Exploitation Section continue to grow and develop with the unprecedented growth of technology. The massive volumes of seizures present problems to investigators who are obligated to investigate, examine, and ensure that disclosure is dealt with in a timely manner, pursuant to the Canadian Charter of Rights.

Sexual predators continue to use the latest technology, such as encryption, steganography, evidence eliminator (software used to defeat the forensic retrieval of evidence),

³²⁴ *Canadian Web Sleuths Save U.S. Girl in Porn Case*, Globe and Mail on-line (www.theglobeandmail.com), March 26, 2004.



3G technology (camera phones), disguising child pornography on unsuspecting business servers, and using wireless technology. Bit Torrent is a new file-sharing utility employed by sexual predators to download and trade child pornography. In peer-to-peer (P2P) networking, a torrent is a small text file and contains the location of data files that can be download from the BitTorrent P2P network. "Torrent files can be found on numerous Web sites. These torrents can be loaded into the BitTorrent P2P client to initiate the actual download. When saved on a computer they also serve as bookmarks to available files, for future reference."³²⁵

Under the umbrella of Internet anonymity, pedophiles have greater freedom and sanctuary to exploit children. This labyrinth network of seemingly virtual freedom creates challenges for the investigators who must first gain access, then locate images to trace the source or distributor.

The Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) continue to devise methods to patrol the Internet in a collaborative effort to deter pedophiles, and have launched a program in which on-line officers openly monitor chatrooms. The project, being carried out by the Virtual Global Task Force set up by international police forces in the spring of 2004, is being compared to "shining a flashlight into a dark alley. It will involve 24-hour monitoring by trained officers and a flashing, on-screen icon to alert all participants that police have entered a chatroom".³²⁶ This initiative was announced at the International Police Summit in London which was attended by representatives from Britain, Canada, the United States, Australia, and Interpol.

The high volume of child pornography on the Internet, and the lack of unified enforcement and investigative legislation, continues to challenge investigators.

F. IDENTITY THEFT³²⁷

Identity theft and fraudulent acts continues to rise dramatically in Canada and the US. Identity theft is believed to be the fastest growing crime in North America and the leading form of consumer fraud. In the US, annual losses attributed to thefts of identity exceed \$2 billion and continue to grow. "It is estimated that every 79 seconds, a thief steals someone's identity, opens accounts in the victim's name and goes on a buying spree."³²⁸ Identity theft can go undiscovered for weeks, months, or years until the consumer is alerted when denied a loan or credit card. Identity theft is similarly believed to cost Canadians billions of dollars each year.

Run by the Ontario Provincial Police (OPP), the PhoneBusters National Call Centre (PNCC) is the central source location for the collection, analysis, and dissemination of Canadian identity theft complaint data. As of September 3^d, 2004, PhoneBusters had received 9,053 identity theft complaints with a total reported losses of \$14,839,535.93. At this current rate of reporting, it was projected that the PNCC could have as many as 13,500 identity theft complaints and reported losses of greater than \$22 million by the end of 2004. Identity theft data from the PNCC are shown in Table 8.4.³²⁹

³²⁵ Mitchell, B. *Torrent, Your Guide To Wireless/Networking* (compnetworking.about.com/od/p2ppeertopeer/g/bldef_torrent.htm).

³²⁶ Boswell, R. *RCMP to enter chat rooms to deter pedophiles: Patrolling Cyberspace*, Canada.com News on-line (www.canada.com), June 11th, 2004.

³²⁷ Identity Theft is also discussed in the chapter on Crime Trends.

³²⁸ Andrews, W. *Credit is Hard to Restore (October 5th, 1999)*, CBSNews.com, January 25th, 2001 (www.CBSNews.com).

³²⁹ PhoneBusters website (www.gov.on.ca/opp/antirackets/english/phonebusters.htm).



Table 8.4
PhoneBusters National Call Centre – Canadian Identity Theft Data

	2002	2003	2004 (to Sept.3 rd only*)
No. of Identity Theft Complaints	8,187	13,359	9,053
Total Revenue Losses Reported	\$11,786,843	\$21,564,104	\$14,839,535

* Most current data available at time of writing.

Source: PhoneBusters

G. PHISHING

An increasing number of identity thefts directed at consumers are being perpetrated on-line using phishing techniques. ‘Phishing’ is a technique used by identity thieves to collect personal information from unsuspecting Internet users; it is a general term for the creation and use by criminals of e-mails and websites. Fake websites are designed to mimic the look of legitimate and trusted business sites, financial institutions, and government agencies. These concocted fake websites deceive Internet users into disclosing their bank and financial account information or other personal data such as passwords and usernames. Internet users may not realise that criminals can easily duplicate logos and other unique signage from legitimate websites and place them in phishing e-mails or on false websites.

In most instances, Internet users receive an e-mail from one of their trusted banking or business sites asking for the user to update their current information. Internet users are lured into responding to these e-mails requesting personal information, by the false claim of a problem associated with their password or a denial of a credit card transaction. The e-mails contain a convenient link, and users are invited to click on it, so as to easily transfer them to the faked website. Some phishing schemes have exploited a vulnerability in the Internet Explorer browser that allows phishers to set up a fake website at one place on the Internet while making it appear that the Internet user is accessing a legitimate website at another place on the Internet. In some instances, Internet users are lured into providing personal financial information with the promise of a prize or other special benefit. This deceptive ‘soft approach’ is similar to the old method of defrauding seniors and other unsuspecting individuals through telemarketing phone solicitation.

In the summer of 2004, a mass e-mail circulated advising customers of a leading Canadian financial institution, which had experienced information technology problems, that they needed to enter their client card numbers in order to access their accounts. In fact, this e-mail was not generated and sent by the financial institution in question. This mass e-mailing was used to phish for victims. While many of the people who received this deceptive e-mail did not have any affiliation with the financial institution in question, and were therefore unaffected, many other recipients had an account or customer relationship with the legitimate business. A survey suggested that as many as 200,000 Canadians may have been unwittingly victimised. Visa Canada, which conducted the survey, said.³³⁰

³³⁰ *Thousands of Canadians Victims of ‘Phishing’*, Globe and Mail on-line (www.theglobeandmail.com), November 4th, 2004.



...phishing attacks around the world are growing by the 'alarming' rate of 50 percent each month, and in the United State alone, the problem has cost consumers and companies an estimated \$500-million (U.S.). Despite the growing attacks, only 16 percent of all Canadians are familiar with phishing and 4 per cent of respondents to the study said they have divulged personal information after being contacted by e-mail...Visa declared yesterday 'Anti-phishing day' as part of a public-relations effort to combat the fraud.

Phishing puts individuals at risk in three significant ways:

- phishers use the data to access existing accounts to withdraw money or purchase merchandise or services;
- phishers use the data to open new bank or credit card accounts in the victim's name, but use addresses other than that of the victim; and
- Internet users may not realise that they have become victims of identity theft.

Canada's Department of Public Safety and Emergency Preparedness and the US Department of Justice have recommended that Internet users take the following steps when they realise that e-mails or websites may be part of a phishing scheme:

- Recognise It – Resist the impulse to respond to an unsolicited e-mail that requests personal information by asking the user to click on a link.
- Report It – Contact the bank or credit card company, as well as the police, immediately if personal or financial information was unsuspectingly supplied. The transaction should also be reported to the appropriate government and private-sector organisations so that they may continue to collect and identify trends to assist law enforcement agencies in potential investigations.
- Stop It – Users should be savvy with the practices of their financial institutions and credit card companies. Normally, these companies do not use e-mail as a trusted method of confirming a client's personal information. As a number of these companies have been a target of phishing schemes, there will be contact information for reporting these suspicious e-mails on their corporate websites.

As technological advances in our information-driven society continue to drive forward in society's fast-paced environment, identity theft will continue to soar and challenge the law enforcement agencies. Identity theft is a global problem, requiring strategic collaboration.



H. FAKE CANADIAN DRIVING LICENCES

Related to the issue of identity theft is the production of false identities. Fake Canadian driving licences are being produced and sold, relatively inexpensively, on the Internet. Some of these companies are purportedly fronts for illegitimate businesses that take advantage of the personal information customers provide to them. One company sells fake licences for 7 Canadian provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island), as well as for 34 states in the US, and for 6 Australian states and territories.

Some of these fake licences are convincingly equipped with holograms and magnetic strips. The RCMP's Ottawa-based Major Fraud and Identity-Theft Division has said that "the only action they can take is against those who are using the cards to misrepresent themselves. ...[T]here are several Web sites that sell fake identifications, and although the RCMP is very familiar with them, it cannot take action against them because they are mostly international and because they do not claim to produce legitimate documents".³³¹

The company noted above warns its customers that the fake cards are for novelty use only and misuse may be illegal, but also tells customers the products have been thoroughly tested. The website further boasts that "no laws are being broken in their production".³³²

Ontario's Transportation Minister, Harinder Takhar, promised to have a new security system in place by the end of 2004, making Ontario drivers' licences almost impossible to duplicate. Ontario worked in collaboration with other provinces to ensure sophisticated security features were built into the document to ensure the security of drivers. The Province spent \$50,000 on this new design and, on December 15th, 2004, the Ministry of Transportation announced the additional security features that were added to Ontario driver's licences and health cards.

As a result, driver's licences and health cards produced after December 15th, 2004, have a new appearance. Some of the security enhancements to these cards include:

- holographic overlay, including the Ontario logo, a smaller diagonal design that covers most of the cards and is visible from all angles, and a larger design horizontally aligned over the photo box that is visible from most angles, but will not be visible in the landscape position and therefore will not interfere with photo identification;
- 'Province of Ontario' printed in micro-text in the border of the Ontario logos; and,
- hidden ultraviolet (UV) ink printing that can only be viewed by UV light.

The proliferation and convenient access of fake driver's licences and personal identification sold on the Internet not only undermine the personal and financial security of individuals, but may also present security issues on national levels as well.

³³¹ *RCMP Helpless To Stop Internet Sales of Phoney Canadian Licences*, Canada.com News on-line, June 14th, 2004 (www.canada.com).

³³² *Ibid.*



RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- Combating cyber crime is an uphill battle for the police – law enforcement must remain in step with current technological knowledge, tools, and equipment. Often, it is difficult for police to continually update training and equipment, or to effectively address the problem, due to financial constraints. Improving the Service’s response to crimes that involve computers and advanced technology requires appropriate resource deployment as well as training to enhance the investigation, solving, and prevention of such crimes. The Service should continue to pursue permanent funding for the Technological Crimes unit.
- Aggressive law enforcement strategies should be coupled with active lobbying for harsher sentencing for child pornography.
- The Service should support the call to amend the Criminal Code to create new offences for possession of multiple identities and the sale or use of novelty identification documents capable of being used as a means of personal identity information. New or revision to existing legislation is deemed necessary to ensure both that offences are defined properly to capture all aspects of the crime and that the necessary law enforcement responses are permitted. Until such revisions are made, the Service should attempt to establish an interim, temporary means of tracking ID theft in Toronto.
- Co-ordination and partnerships, with policing agencies, government, and private industry are required at the local, provincial, national, and international levels to address identity theft and the investigation of identity theft.
- The Service should work with the provincial and federal governments to encourage more aggressive prosecution of identity theft cases and develop sentences that are designed to deter identity theft.
- The Service should work with a variety of public and private organisations to increase public education about identity theft – how it can occur, how to prevent it, and what to do if victimised.
- Officers should be made aware of the easy availability of fake personal identification and driver’s licences that may pass for authentic documents. They should also be familiar with the security features of actual identification cards and licences.



IX. POLICE RESOURCES

Changes in the nature and scope of police services needed and police services demanded require constant adjustment by this Service. In addition, the Toronto Police Service continues to strive to reflect the diverse community we serve. These factors affect the composition and organisation of the personnel who deliver police service, how they are managed, and their priorities. Human resources are central to the organisation and all external and internal trends impact, to some degree, on the recruitment, maintenance, and development of these resources.

HIGHLIGHTS

- In 2004, the total strength of Toronto Police Service was 7,130 members, up only 0.5% from 7,098 members in 2003, but up 3.8% from 6,870 members in 1995.
- Between 2003 and 2004, uniform strength remained constant while civilian strength increased 1.8%.³³³ Both uniform and civilian strength were higher in 2004 than in 1995, increasing 4.2% and 2.4%, respectively.
- Over the past decade, the number of police officers per 100,000 population in Toronto decreased 4.7%, from 211.3 officers in 1995 to 201.3 officers in 2004.
- In 2004, there were 237 separations, including 160 retirements, a 60.1% increase from the 148 separations in 2003, and a 10.2% increase from the 215 separations in 1995.
- The median age of uniform officers in December 2004 was 40.1 years, up slightly from 39.8 years in 2003. The proportion of officers over the age of 50 years almost tripled from 6.6% in 1995 to 19.7% in 2004.
- The continued decrease in the proportion of officers under the age of 30 years largely reflected the average age of new recruits, which increased from 25.3 years in 1995 to 29.0 years in 2004.
- In 2004, 37.3% of uniform members had 20 or more years of service; on the other hand, almost one-quarter of uniform members (23.9%) had between 0 and 4 years service. The average uniform length of service was 16.2 years.
- The average age of Primary Response constables was 34.6 years compared to 38.7 years for all constables. In 2004, the average length of service for Primary Response constables was 8.1 years compared to 13.5 years for all constables.

³³³ Uniform strength includes all police officers and 111 cadets-in training. Civilian strength includes all permanent, full-time civilian members with the exception of cadets-in-training and parking enforcement personnel. (As of December 31st, 2003, the Human Resources Directorate reported 359 Parking Enforcement personnel, 417 part-time or temporary personnel, 640 Auxiliary personnel, and 699 school crossing guards; none of these are included in the total civilian strength.)



- During 2003, 49.1 non-traffic Criminal Code offences were reported per constable, a 1.8% decrease from the 50.0 reported in 2003 and a 24.6% decrease from 65.1 reported in 1995.
- The actual number of uniform officers assigned to front-line uniform duties in Policing Operations Command units and specific Operational Support units (e.g. Traffic Services, Marine Unit, etc.), including supervisors, increased 2.2% from 3,313 in 2003 and 2.8% from 3,295 in 1995 to 3,386 in 2004.
- While the Service representation of aboriginal, visible minority and female officers remained well below community representation, the proportion consistently increased each year over the past decade.
- In 2004, the uniform strength was comprised of 1.4% visible minority or Aboriginal women, 12.3% visible minority or Aboriginal men, 14.0% non-minority women, and 72.3% non-minority men.
- Although the representation of female police officers in the Toronto Police Service (15.3%) was below the national (16.5%) and provincial (16.1%) averages, they were better represented at senior and supervisory ranks.
- Of the 2,511 recruits hired over the past ten years, almost two in ten were aboriginal or visible minority men and women, and two in ten were women; only slightly more than six in ten were non-minority males.

A. WORKFORCE DEMOGRAPHICS

Throughout the 1980s and very early 1990s, the total strength of the Service increased each year and peaked at 7,551 members in 1991. It started decreasing, on average about 2% per year, until 1998, when the Service strength began increasing again. In 2004, the total strength of Toronto Police Service was 7,130 members.³³⁴ This was up only 0.5% from the 7,098 members in 2003, but up 3.8% from the 6,870 members ten years ago (Figure 9.1).

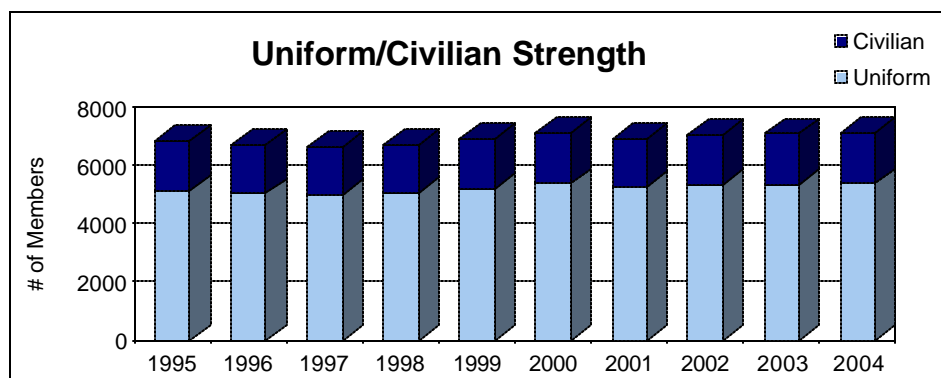


Figure 9.1

Source: TPS Human Resources

³³⁴ Uniform strength includes all police officers and 111 cadets-in-training. Civilian strength includes all permanent, full-time civilian members with the exception of cadets-in-training and parking enforcement personnel.



Between 2003 and 2004, uniform strength remained constant (5,369 in 2003 and 5,370 in 2004), while civilian strength increased 1.8% from 1,729 to 1760. Both uniform and civilian strength were higher in 2004 than in 1995, increasing 4.2% and 2.4%, respectively. The civilian:officer ratio for the Toronto Police Service was about 1:3.1 in both 2003 and 2004, decreasing only slightly from 1:3 in 1995. Nationally, the civilian:officer ratio was 1:2.7 in 2004, relatively unchanged from the 1:2.77 reported in 2003.³³⁵

Officer to Population Ratio:

The number of police officers per 100,000 population may be used as a very general indicator of potential workload and performance efficiency. Over the past decade, the number of police officers per 100,000 population in Toronto decreased 4.7% from 211.3 officers in 1995 to 201.3 officers in 2004.³³⁶ Although the number of officers in Toronto has generally increased over each of the past ten years, the rate of increase has not kept pace with the rate of increase in the population. The national average number of officers per 100,000 population in 2004, 187.5 officers, was almost the same as the 187.7 officers reported in 1995. Over the past year, the number of officers per 100,000 population in Toronto decreased about 1%; the national average decreased only 0.1% (Figure 9.2).

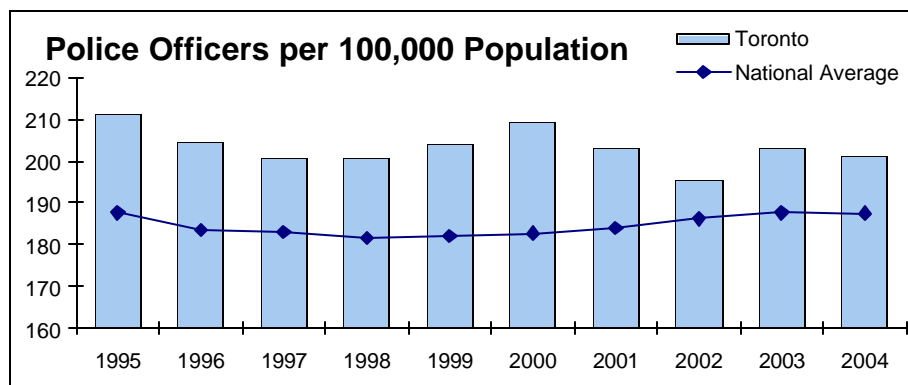


Figure 9.2 Source: TPS Human Resources; Statistics Canada

Toronto compares relatively similarly to other large urban centres such as Montreal (217 officers per 100,000 population), Vancouver (209 officers), and Winnipeg (188 officers), but has considerably more officers per 100,000 population than surrounding GTA regional police services, such as Durham (134 officers), York (114 officers), and Peel (137 officers).³³⁷ It is interesting that when using a conservative estimate of daytime population which includes transient population – about four million – the police per population ratio in Toronto drops to about 134 officers.

³³⁵ Shankarraman, G. **Police Resources in Canada, 2004**. Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada, December 2004.

³³⁶ The officer to population ratio considers only Toronto residents and the uniform strength of the Service. As it does not include transient populations (i.e. tourists, business commuters, visitors, etc.) or levels of crime, its usefulness is limited to trending and general comparison to other police services.

³³⁷ Shankarraman, 2004.



Age and Length of Service of Uniform Members:³³⁸

Clear trends of an ageing Toronto Police Service uniform workforce have been evident throughout the past decade. An ageing population is not unique to the Police Service, but, as noted in the Demographics chapter, is characteristic of the population in general. Changes in the age distribution of uniform members over the past decade reflects the ageing of existing uniform members, the recruitment of generally younger officers, and the separation of generally older officers.

Analysis of uniform age characteristics over the past decade illustrates an increase in the proportion of officers over 40 years of age and a decrease in the proportion of officers less than 30 years of age. The proportion of officers between 30 and 40 years of age has remained relatively constant (Figure 9.3).

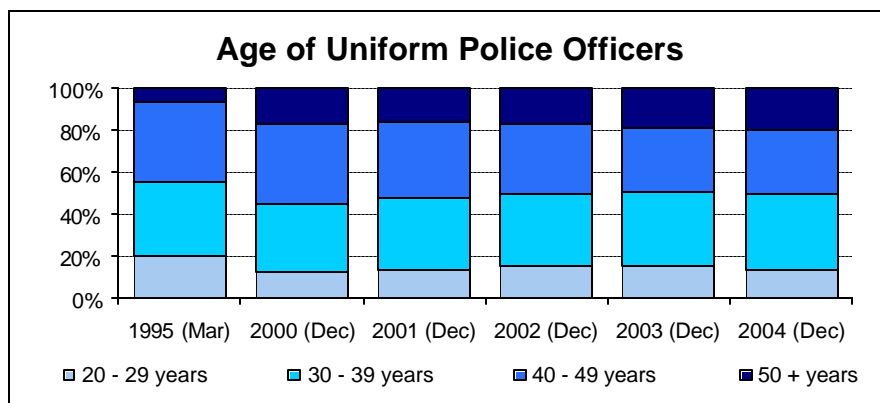


Figure 9.3

Source: TPS Human Resources

In 1995, 44.8% of officers were 40 years of age or older, as compared to 50.3% in 2004. While the proportion of officers between the ages of 40 and 49 decreased from 38.2% in 1995 to 30.6% in 2004, the proportion of officers over the age of 50 years almost tripled from 6.6% in 1995 to 19.7% in 2004. On the other hand, the percentage of officers under the age of 30 decreased from 20.2% in 1995 to 13.9% in 2004. The median age of uniform officers in December 2004 was 40.1 years, up slightly from 39.8 years in 2003.³³⁹

The decrease in the proportion of officers under the age of 30 years does not indicate an absence of new recruits, but rather the age characteristics of new recruits. The average age of recruits increased from 25.3 years in 1995 to 29.0 in 2004 and the portion of recruits hired over the age of 30 increased from 8.5% in 1995 to 39.3% in 2004.³⁴⁰ Prior to 1995, the average age of a recruit was 21.8 years and less than 3% of recruits were over the age of 30 years.

Given the overall ageing of the uniform workforce over the past ten years, it would be expected that the years of service characteristics would indicate an increasingly experienced

³³⁸ Does not include cadets-in-training.

³³⁹ The median is the middle value of a group of values arranged in ascending or descending order.

³⁴⁰ Average age characteristics of those hired in each year is based on the age and hire date of currently serving uniform members; due to internal recruiting and separations, the statistics may not exactly reflect the age of all recruits hired in specified years, but are close approximations.



workforce. While this expectation is, to some extent, realised, the opposite – a less experienced workforce – is also indicated (Figure 9.4).

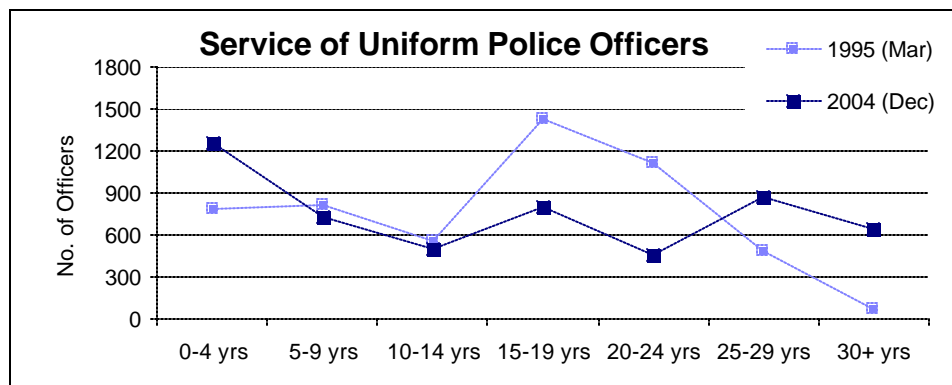


Figure 9.4

Source: TPS CIU Information Centre

In 2004, 37.3% of officers had in excess of twenty years service compared to only 32.6% ten years ago. However, 37.8% of officers had less than ten years service in 2004 as compared to only 30.9% in 1995. Over the past ten years, while the most frequent service level shifted from 15 to 19 years (27.7%) to 0 to 4 years (23.9%), the average length of service increased slightly from 16 years to 16.2 years.

The absence of a larger increase in the average length of service is again, for the most part, due to the inclusion of recently hired officers with little or no service time balanced by a high number of retirements over the past five years.

It is interesting to compare the relative shapes of the length of service distribution over the past ten years. It is possible to pinpoint periods of unusually high levels of recruitment/hiring and trace their impacts over time. For example, the unusually high level of recruiting level in the 1970s was very evident in the 15-19 years service level in 1995, and is still evident to some degree in 2004. Over time, this peak has flattened as members separate, particularly as these officers move toward retirement.

Flattening of peaks at lower service levels generally reflect the resignation of officers. While the Service has traditionally enjoyed a high level of corporate loyalty – members serving a full career in the same organisation – there are some indicators that this may be less likely in the future. General social trends suggests that workers are increasingly less likely to remain in a single organisation and are more likely to seek out multiple careers. This trend is, to some extent, evident both in those joining and separating from the Service. The age characteristics and prior work experience of the Service’s more recent recruits – older with diverse employment backgrounds – would suggest that members have moved on from other careers to enter policing. However, as noted previously, resignations from the Service are more likely to reflect only a change in organisation; a majority of officers who resigned in the past ten years continued to pursue a policing career in other police services. Policing, and the Toronto Police Service, would seem to enjoy a level of corporate loyalty above the average; as was noted earlier, two in three separating officers retire from the Service with an average of almost 30 years service.

Figure 9.5 presents a profile of uniform officers both by age and length of service. It illustrates a somewhat bi-modal distribution – a significant proportion of older more,



experienced officers and a larger proportion of younger, inexperienced officers. It is interesting to note the presence of a generally broad range of ages at each service level.

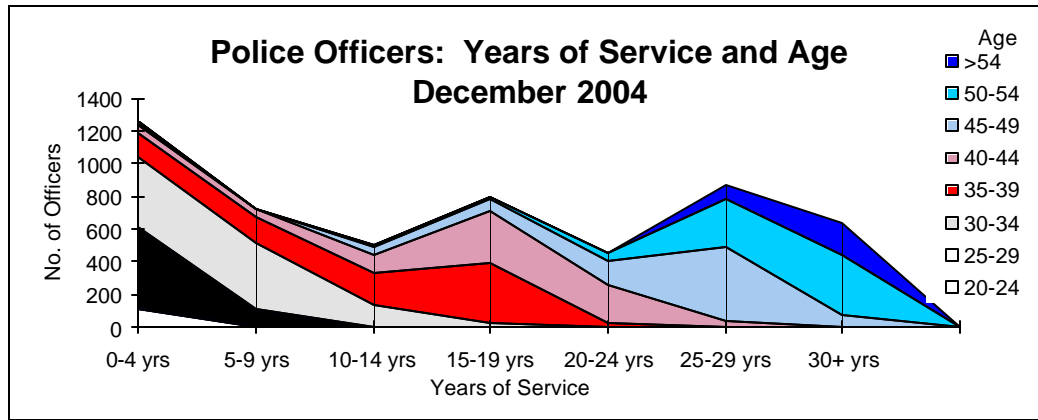


Figure 9.5

Source: TPS Human Resources

The shape of the distribution of the length of service of police officers offers insight into potential concerns. As was noted earlier, by the end of 2005, more than 450 officers will be eligible to retire. While it is unlikely that all eligible officers will actually retire this year, the Service will be faced with the challenge of retaining officers eligible to retire and recruiting and training new recruits.

The organisation is also faced with complex challenges in terms of work satisfaction, promotional opportunities, physical capabilities and the requirements of work, and occupational health and safety. Job content, training and development, lateral and vertical mobility, attrition, and organisational structure are all issues affected by the demographic profile of officers. While these are difficult challenges in themselves, the challenges are further complicated by the fact they apply to the very distinct groups of employees – young, inexperienced recruits, older recruits with diverse prior employment experience, and older, more experienced officers – who often require different, and sometimes conflicting, solutions.

As reported in previous Scans, Primary Response officers continue to be, on average, younger and less experienced than the average constable.³⁴¹ Almost four in ten (39.7%) police constables were assigned to Primary Response in the divisions. The average age of Primary Response constables was 34.6 years compared to 38.7 years for all constables. In 2004, 34.2% of the Primary Response constables were under 30 years as compared to only 18.3% for all constables (Figure 9.6).

³⁴¹ Primary Response includes only constables assigned to Primary Response platoons in the divisions; it does not include constables assigned to other uniform divisional functions such as Traffic and Community Response.

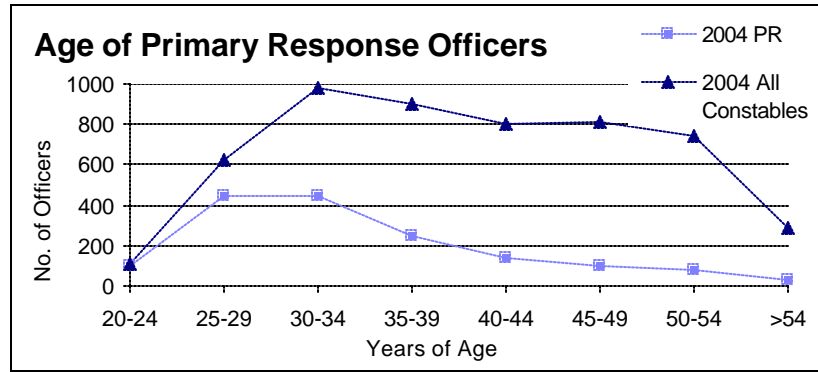


Figure 9.6 Source: TPS Human Resources

Age characteristics of Primary Response officers also varied between divisions. The distribution of age of Primary Response constables in most divisions closely resembled the overall distribution, with average ages around the overall average for Primary Response officers (34.6 years). However, the average age of Primary Response officers in 52 Division was 44.7 years and was only 31.9 years in 42 Division.

As would be expected, the length of service for Primary Response constables was also found to be lower than the Service average for all constables (Figure 9.7).

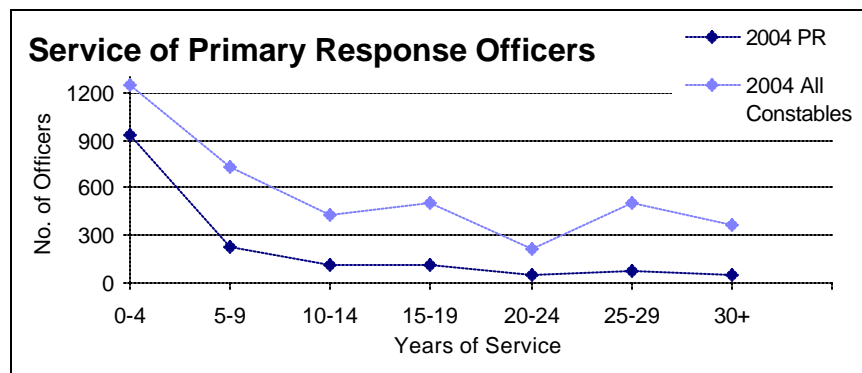


Figure 9.7 Source: TPS Human Resources

The average years of service for Primary Response constables in 2004 was 8.1 years as compared to 13.5 years for all constables; six in ten Primary Response constables had less than four years experience. In 2004, 73.8% of the Primary Response constables had less than 10 years service as compared to 49.7% all constables. In 52 Division, only 11.3% of Primary Response officers had less than 10 years service, while 83.4% of 42 Division Primary Response officers had less than ten years service.

For a number of years, concerns have been raised about the impact of younger, inexperienced Primary Response officers on the efficiency of divisional operations; it was generally supposed that the lack of social maturity and experience of these officers would have a



negative impact on operational efficiency. A statistical analysis of length of service and divisional operational efficiency did not support this supposition.³⁴²

Retirements and Resignations:

The annual number of uniform retirements and resignations from the Toronto Police Service during the past decade has varied greatly. Factors such as the provision of retirement incentives, a reduced retirement factor, the disproportionate number of officers eligible to retire during this period, limited external employment opportunities in the mid-1990s, and aggressive recruiting of Service members by other police services since the late 1990s, have contributed to the widely fluctuating levels of separation.

Over the past ten years, a total of 2,449 officers separated from the Toronto Police Service; annual separation levels have varied substantially, ranging from 92 in 1997 to 473 in 2001. Based on current uniform strength, this level of separation represents a 45.6% turnover in uniform staff over the past ten years. In 2004, there were 237 separations, a 60.1% increase from the 148 separations in 2003, and a 10.2% increase from the 215 separations in 1995.

Separations include both retirements and resignations; it should be noted that over the past ten years, almost two in every three separations were retirements (Figure 9.8).³⁴³

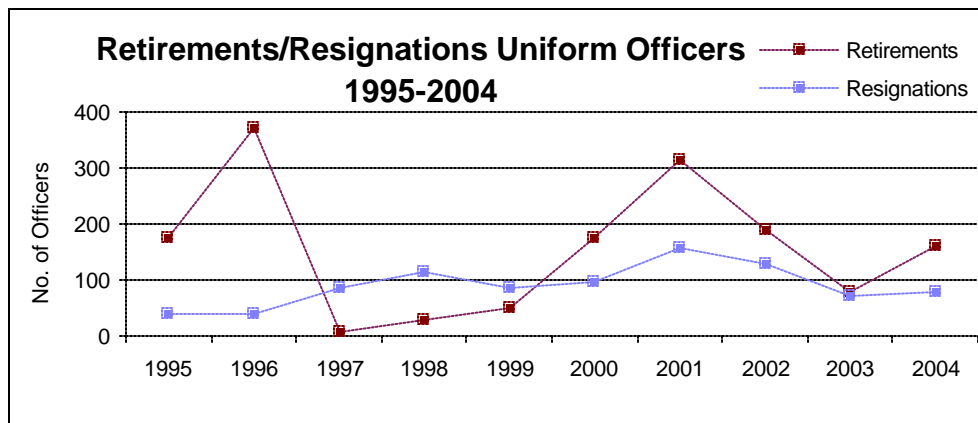


Figure 9.8

Source: TPS Human Resources

Over the past ten years, a total of 1,550 uniform officers retired from the Service. After a record high level of retirements in 1996, followed by a record low level in 1997, retirements consistently increased in each year until 2001, when the level started dropping again. The dramatic variations in the number of retirements from one year to the next are associated with defined periods of aggressive retirement incentives and reduced pension factors; retirements tended to peak at the end of these periods. It should be noted that 2004 was the final year of the Ontario Municipal Employees Retirement System (OMERS) reduced factor program and

³⁴² Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) scores, based on divisional inputs (e.g. number of officers) and outputs (enforcement, crime prevention and emergency response) were used as the standard measure of divisional operational efficiency.

³⁴³ The number of separations since 1996 (as reported in previous *Scans*) have been revised to include cadet-in-training resignations in the uniform separation levels.



the resumption of the 85 Factor for uniform members.³⁴⁴ An unusually large number of uniform officers eligible for retirement during the past decade further contributed to the high volume of separations.

In 2004, the number of uniform retirements more than doubled from 78 in 2003 to 160; the average length of service of retiring members in 2004 was 31.0 years, compared to 29.7 years in 1995.

As of December 31, 2004, a total of 386 officers, 7.3% of the total uniform strength, were eligible to retire immediately and a further 76 officers will become eligible to retire during 2005; the Human Resources Directorate estimates that 200 officers will do so by year-end. Further, of the 90 uniform senior officers, 37 will be eligible to retire by the end of the year – in other words, more than two in five senior officers may retire by year-end.

High levels of separation of experienced officers can, as they have in the past, seriously affect service delivery. A recent study suggests that strategies that encourage or enable experienced workers to defer retirement and remain on the job may have increasing importance to the labour supply. The study indicated that “33% of recent retirees said they would have continued working under different circumstances.”³⁴⁵ More than one in four recent retirees indicated that they would continue to work if they could reduce their work schedules (e.g. shorter weeks, shorter days, more vacation, etc.) without affecting their pension.

As evident in Figure 9.8, resignations have, after record lows in 1995 and 1996 and a record high in 2001, been somewhat more stable than retirement levels. Resignations in 2004 (77) were 10.0% and 82.5% higher than resignations than in 2003 (70) and 1995 (40), respectively. While this may be partly attributable to a recovering economy that has non-policing employment opportunities more readily available, the increase is largely attributable to officers joining other Ontario police services. As shown in Figure 9.9, officers separating from the Service to join other police services account for 496 resignations, almost six in ten resignations over the past ten years.

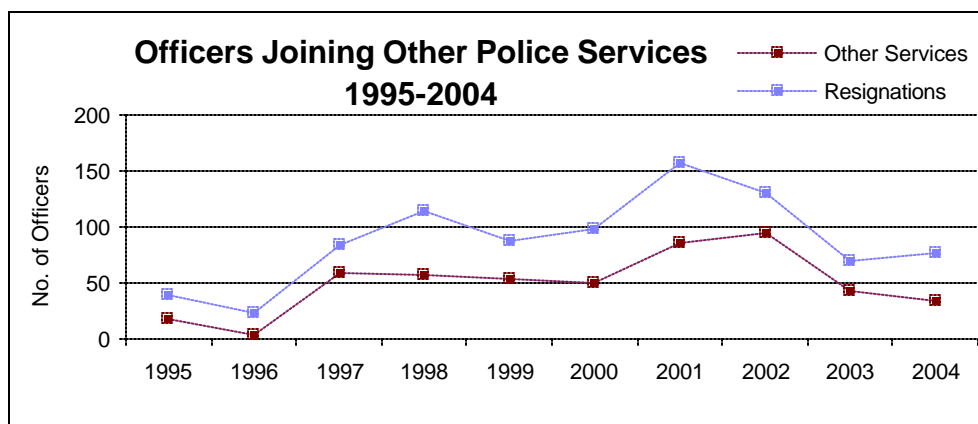


Figure 9.9

Source: TPS Human Resources

³⁴⁴ To determine eligibility for retirement without penalty, the member’s age and length of service, added together, must equal or exceed the eligibility factor. Over the past few years, this factor has been set at 75 for uniform members, but will return to 85 in 2005.

³⁴⁵ Schellenberg, G. and Silver, C. *You can’t always get what you want: Retirement preferences and experiences*, Canadian Social Trends, Statistics Canada, Winter 2004, p. 3.



Traditionally, Ontario police services have not actively recruited members of other services. However, with staffing shortages as a result of retirement incentives and natural attrition, all police services face the challenge of quickly recruiting and training sufficient uniform personnel. Certainly, recruiting trained and experienced personnel from another police services is an effective, economical, and efficient way of meeting this challenge.

Officers who have separated to join other services in the past five years are, on average, 33 years old and have 7.5 years experience – very valuable officers to this Service. Although the Toronto Police Service has hired some officers from other services and some former TPS members have returned, this is only a small portion of the number of TPS officers who have resigned to join other services. Over the past four years, 435 Toronto officers separated to join other services; during this same period, there were 64 lateral hires.

This trend has been particularly costly to the Toronto Police Service in terms of recruiting, hiring, training, and experience. To attract, recruit, and retain its uniform members or, at least, minimise both direct and indirect costs associated with separation continues to be one of the greatest challenges facing the Service. Anecdotal evidence would suggest recent retention measures implemented by the Service – e.g. retention pay – have yielded positive results.

Crime to Strength Ratio:

The number of non-traffic Criminal Code offences reported per constable is an indicator of the demand on police resources.³⁴⁶ During 2004, 49.1 non-traffic Criminal Code offences were reported per constable, a 1.8% decrease from the 50.0 reported in 2003.³⁴⁷ This decrease in the crime to strength ratio reflects a 3.0% decrease in the number of reported non-traffic Criminal Code offences and a 1.2% decrease in the number of constables. The 2004 ratio reflects a 24.6% decrease from the 65.1 reported in 1995 (Figure 9.10).

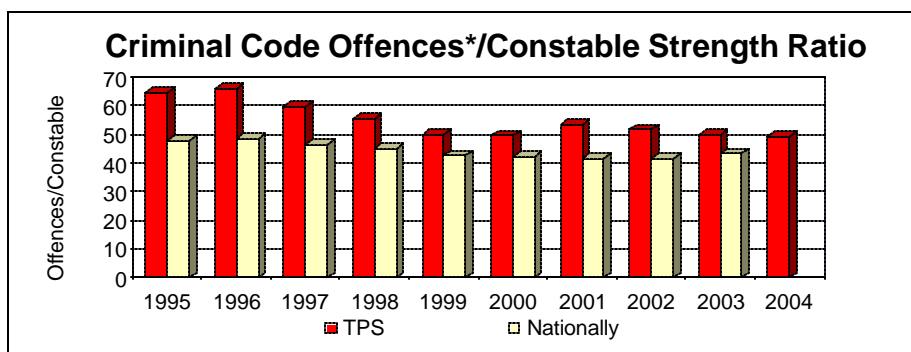


Figure 9.10 Source: TPS Database

Based on non-traffic Criminal Code offences; the national ratio was not available at time of writing.

³⁴⁶ The Criminal Code offence/constable strength ratio is generally accepted as a valid workload indicator; historically, the CCJS estimates indicate that officers spend approximately 20%-25% of their time investigating Criminal Code incidences. It should be noted that due to the changes in Service data systems and extraction procedures, offence data for previous years have been recalculated to allow fair comparison and may differ from data in previous Scans.

³⁴⁷ Includes constable and detective constables, but does not include cadets-in-training.



It should be noted that in addition to investigating Criminal Code offences, police officers spend considerable time training, attending court, and working with the community. Community policing requires police officers to be more involved with the communities they police – problem solving and crime prevention are both time and labour intensive.

Resource Deployment:

In 2004, 80.8% of all uniform members, up from 77.5% in 2003, were assigned to Policing Operations Command divisions and specific Operational Support units, including Traffic Services, Marine Unit, ETF, etc. The number of officers assigned to visible, front-line uniform duties in these units (i.e. not plainclothes, etc.), including supervisors, increased 2.2% from 3,313 in 2003 and 2.8% from 3,295 in 1995 to 3,386 in 2004 (Figure 9.11).

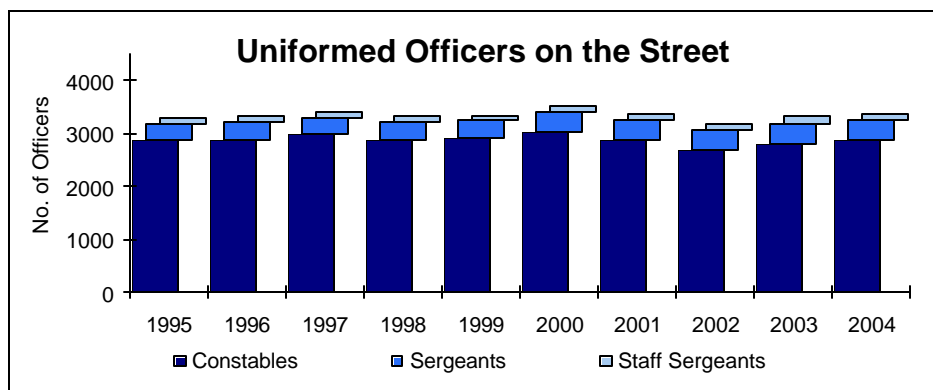


Figure 9.11

Source: TPS Human Resources

It is interesting to note that increase in uniform officers on the street between 1995 and 2004 reflects a 16.2% increase in supervisory officers and only a slight increase in constables. In 2004, there were 7.5 uniform constables for every uniform sergeant assigned to a visible uniform function, a decrease from both the 7.7 officers in 2003 and the 8.9 officers a decade ago.³⁴⁸

It should be noted that officers assigned to uniform functions in divisions and Operational Support units have been further supported by initiatives for improved efficiency, expanded use of technology, alternate response mechanisms, civilianisation, community partnerships, and so on.

B. WORKFORCE DIVERSITY³⁴⁹

As discussed in the Demographics chapter, Toronto has a highly diverse community that is still growing. A recent Toronto Star article, based on a study by Statistics Canada, reported that by 2017, 51% of Greater Toronto will be non-European, and nearly half of the nation's

³⁴⁸ The Constable:Sergeant ratio target range, as recommended in the Beyond 2000 Restructuring Task Force Final Report, based on research and information provided by a cross-section of Canadian and American police agencies, was between 8:1 to 10:1.

³⁴⁹ Uniform officers in this section include cadets-in-training.



visible minorities will live in Toronto.³⁵⁰ Achieving a workforce that reflects the community, and continues to reflect the community, will be a long-term challenge for the Service.

The Equal Opportunity Guideline for Ontario Police Services was published by the Solicitor General in 1995. It built on then-current police service initiatives to promote fair and equitable access, and opportunity for all, but no longer contained a prescribed standard for community representation. The transition from legislated standard to the current guideline has been virtually invisible to the Service. These equal opportunity initiatives closely parallel the policies, practices, and procedures which were required under the 1993 equity legislation, and which have existed within the Service since 1986. Even in the absence of a prescribed standard for community representation, it is the stated intention of the Toronto Police Services Board and the Toronto Police Service that the organisation will continue to strive to reflect the community it serves through the use of equal opportunity employment practices.

While the Service does not currently reflect the community it serves – 42.8% visible minority, 0.5% aboriginal, and 51.8% female – the representation is closer than it has been in the past. Recent gains in the Service's community representation – 14.6% of Service members are visible minorities, 0.8% are aboriginal and 26.5% are female – are largely due to the composition of the civilian component of the Service, recent uniform hiring, and the retirement of a large number of white, male officers (Figure 9.12).³⁵¹

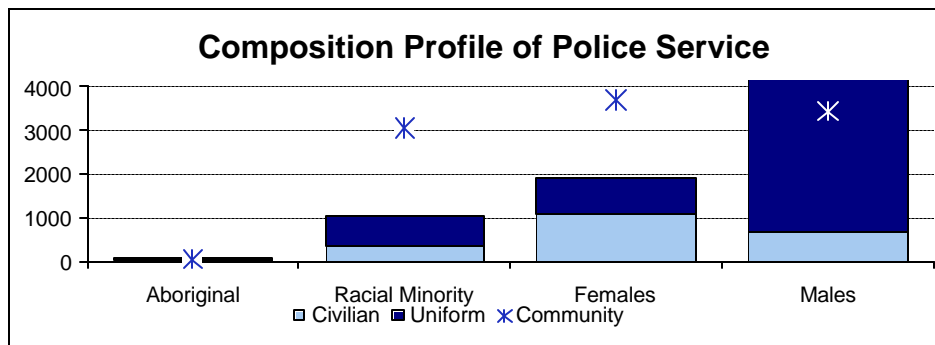


Figure 9.12 Sources: TPS Human Resources, Statistics Canada

Uniform Composition:

Figure 9.13 shows the diversity composition of uniform officers in Toronto in 2004. Almost 1.4% of officers are visible minority or Aboriginal women, 12.3% are visible minority or Aboriginal men, 14.0% are non-minority women, and 72.3% are non-minority men.

³⁵⁰ *The way we'll be*, Toronto Star, March 23, 2005.

³⁵¹ The civilian position category - Parking/Bylaw - is not included in the Service composition profile because it is not included in the determination of Total Service Strength. The overall composition profile for this position category exceeds the overall Service profiles – 0.8% Aboriginal, 30.2% visible minority, and 23.6% female.

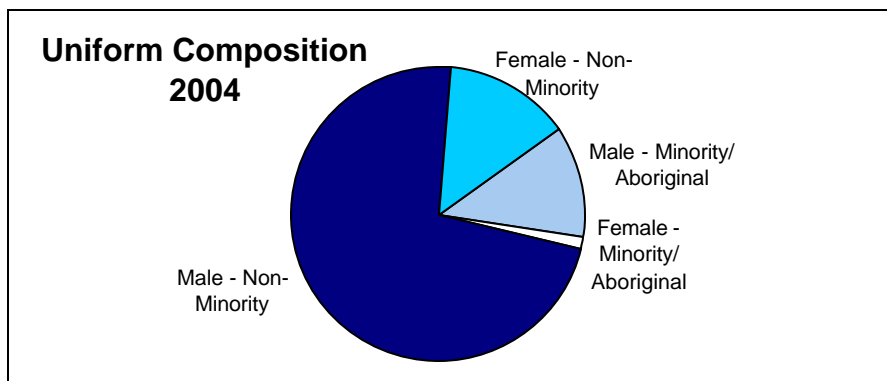


Figure 9.13

Source: TPS Human Resources

While the representation of aboriginal, visible minority, and female officers remains well below community representation, the proportion has consistently increased each year over the past decade. Aboriginal persons account for about 0.5% of the Toronto community, and, in 2004 accounted for 0.8% of all police officers (47 officers), up from 0.6% (26 officers) in 1995.

Ten years ago, visible minority officers comprised only 6.7% of uniform police officers; with consistent recruitment efforts, minority officers as a proportion of all officers almost doubled to 12.8% in 2004, an increase from 11.7% representation in 2003. While this is far below the 43% community representation, it is interesting to note that while the total number of officers increased only 4.2% over the past decade, the number of visible minority officers almost doubled from 347 in 1995 to 689 in 2004.

The number of female police officers gives an indication of gender balance within the Toronto Police Service. Throughout the last decade, there was a steady rise in female officers. In 1995, female officers accounted for 10.2% of the total uniform strength; the proportion increased to 13.2% in 2000 and, by 2004, female officers accounted for 15.3% of police officers.

It is important to the Service that uniform strength represents the community at all ranks and, over time, as overall uniform strength moves closer towards community representation, so should the representation by uniform rank. In 2004, while the representation by uniform rank was more reflective than it had been in the past, the cadet-in-training and constable ranks were more representative of the community than the supervisory or senior officer ranks (Figure 9.14).

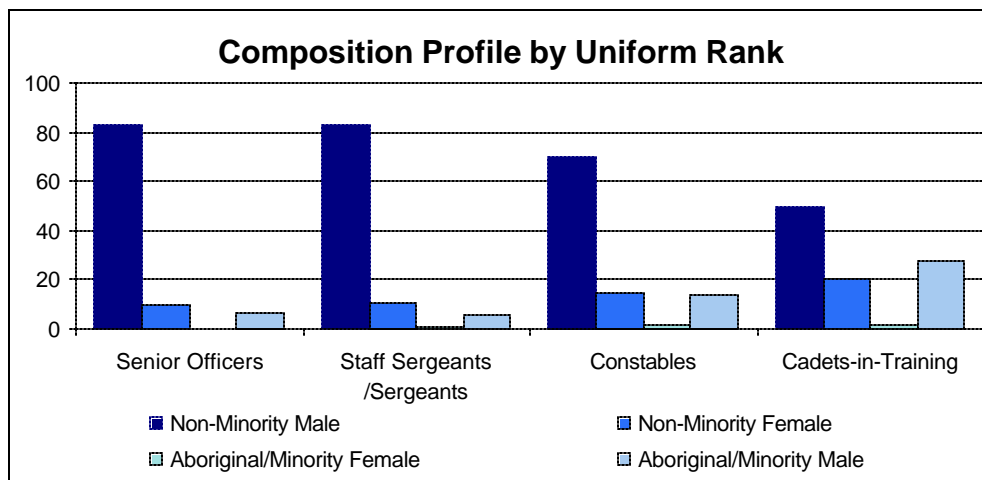


Figure 9.14

Source: Human Resources

The composition of entry-level ranks reflects the achievements of the targeted recruiting strategies of the past decade, whereas supervisory and senior ranks still reflect previous hiring strategies. In each rank, non-minority males accounted for most officers, however, the proportion of non-minority males was significantly less at recruit (49.5%) and constable (69.7%) ranks compared to the senior officer (83.3%) and supervisory officer (82.6%) ranks.

Non-minority females were the second most represented group across ranks, from 20.7% of recruits to 10.0% of senior officers, however, their representation is still well below the 51% community representation. Like females, visible minority and aboriginal officers were better represented at the recruit (27.9%) and constable (13.9%) ranks. Given current Service structure and promotional processes, a more diverse representation in the higher ranks can be accomplished in time, as constables gain the required competencies for promotion.

C. UNIFORM EQUITY HIRING

As was mentioned previously, recruit hiring over the past ten years has noticeably changed the overall community representation of police officers in Toronto. Recruit hiring, resumed in 1995 after a three year moratorium, specifically focused on broadening and diversifying the applicant pool. The Service's diverse recruitment team was tasked with delivering a targeted outreach program in identified communities. The team continues to attend community events and job fairs and partners with a number of colleges and universities offering criminal justice studies and police foundation programs. Most importantly, the team provides targeted information and outreach programs, promoting policing as a career for women and/or members of ethnic communities.

Over the past ten years, with specific attention to community representation, a total of 2,511 recruits were hired. Figure 9.15 illustrates the impact of these recruiting efforts.

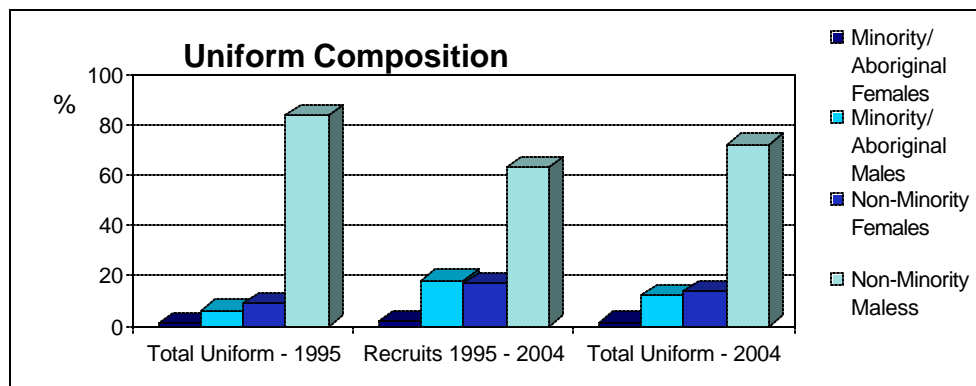


Figure 9.15

Source: TPS Human Resources

Almost two in ten recruits (19.9%) hired over the past ten years were aboriginal or visible minority men and women, almost doubling their representation from 7.3% in 1995 to 13.7% in 2004. Women, including aboriginal and visible minorities, also accounted for almost two in ten recruits (18.9%), increasing the representation of women from 10.2% in 1995 to 15.3% in 2004. On the other hand, the proportion of non-minority males decreased from 84.0% in 1995 to 72.3% in 2004; only 63.1% of recruits were non-minority males.

While men continue to dominate police services, the gender gap has narrowed slightly. The Centre for Justice Statistics reported that, in 2004, women accounted for 16.5% of police officers in Canada, up from 9.8% in 1995; the number of female police officers increased from 5,378 in 1995 to 9,897 in 2004.³⁵² Further, while the number of male police officers, nationally, decreased very slightly over the past year, the number of female police officers increased by 5.8%.

Although the representation of women in the Toronto Police Service (15.3%) is below the national (16.5%) and provincial (16.1%) averages, they are better represented at senior and supervisory ranks. Nationally, in 2004, women accounted for 5.2% of senior officers, 8.9% of supervisory officers, and 19.8% of police constables. Women represent 10.0% of senior officers, 11.5% of supervisory officers, and 16.4% of police constables within the Toronto Police Service.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- With regard to recruiting and retaining personnel, the Service has to compete for workers in a market where many other employers are offering widely flexible plans to accommodate employees' desires to balance home and work life. The provision of accommodation offered by outside organisations, unless matched, could have a notable impact on the Service's ability both to attract new recruits and to retain existing personnel.
- The current overall age and service distribution illustrates the need for a constant annual recruit hiring rate. Due to irregular hiring rates, the current distribution is heavily weighted between older, long-serving officers and younger, inexperienced officers, although there

³⁵² Shankarraman, 2004.



appears to be some flattening of these peaks. The Service must ensure a more consistent intake of recruits over time.

- The co-existence of diverse employee groups – young, inexperienced officers, older recruits with diverse prior employment experience, and older, more experienced officers – creates diverse and often conflicting employee needs. The Service will be required to address job content, training and development, lateral and vertical mobility, attrition, physical, emotional and personal (family accommodation, child care, retirement counselling, etc.) challenges for very different types of employees.
- Staff development will be a serious issue in the next few years. As a large number of senior and supervisory officers become eligible to retire and hundreds of new officers are hired each year, there will be a critical need to quickly develop and promote qualified personnel to fill supervisory and management positions, to ensure that all officers, particularly new officers, are given proper direction and supervision.
- The age and service distributions of Primary Response officers in particular show a large number of officers with little or no experience. The Service needs to ensure that these officers receive the training, direction, and supervision they need to carry out their functions effectively and efficiently.
- The importance of community representation of the Toronto Police Service, as a whole and at all ranks, will continue to increase. Given anticipated demographic changes over the next decade or so, the Toronto Police Service must be prepared to provide policing services appropriate to a changing community.
- Continued communication and partnership with the City's diverse communities will assist the Service with crime prevention and problem solving, and reaching target communities for recruiting purposes.



X. PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS

The police provide a necessary service for the public, and the police, in turn, depend on the public for support. The importance of this interdependence is reflected in ongoing efforts to improve police-community relations. Public perceptions of police performance and personal safety are major indicators of the effectiveness of police services and strategies and of the success of the deployment of Service resources. Trends in these indicators can, therefore, be useful in establishing Police Service priorities.

HIGHLIGHTS

- According to the results of the Service's 2004 community survey, similar to findings in 2003, 92% of residents felt their neighbourhoods were safe. More residents felt Toronto in general was safe, compared to 2003.
- The 2004 survey found that concern with issues related to disorder in their neighbourhoods (e.g. litter, graffiti, drugs, etc.) generally increased.
- Most high school students and school administrators in all years surveyed said they felt safe in and around the school at any time of the day.
- When asked about the level of violence at their school, fewer high school students in 2004 than in previous years said that, generally, their school and school grounds were not violent. In all years, school administrators were more likely than students to say their school and grounds were not violent.
- The Toronto Police Service survey of Toronto residents in December 2004, as in 2003, found that 88% said they were satisfied with the delivery of police service to their neighbourhood. However, fewer residents were satisfied with the Service overall in 2004 compared to previous years.
- The 2004 community survey identified mixed concerns about police and minority/ethnic groups (i.e. an increased proportion felt that relations were excellent or good between police and members of minority communities; an increased proportion thought police did a good job of providing services to ethnic/racial groups in their neighbourhoods; but, an increased proportion believed Toronto police targeted members of minority/ethnic groups for enforcement).
- More than 9 in 10 respondents in the past three years said they agreed with the statement: I believe that Toronto police officers carry out their jobs to the best of their abilities. Similarly, 89% of respondents in both 2004 and 2003 said they believe that Toronto police are trustworthy, compared to 79% in 2002.
- The Service's 2004 community survey found that, for those who'd had contact with police during the previous year, there was a decrease in satisfaction with police during that contact: 74% said they were satisfied in 2004, down from 83% in 2003.



- While fewer high school students in 2004 than in 2003 said they would feel comfortable talking to police about crime or other problems at their school, more students said they felt the relationship between students and police was excellent or good.
- Most high school students and school administrators in all years surveyed said they were satisfied with the delivery of police services to their school.
- While more administrators in 2004 than in 2003 said they were consulted by police when determining what issues should be addressed at the school, the proportion was lower than in 2002 or 2001.
- The total number of public complaints against the police increased 17.2% between 2003 and 2004, from 735 complaints in 2003 to 862 in 2004.
- Of the community survey respondents in 2004 who said they'd had experience with the police complaints process, 5 in 10 were satisfied with the process and only 4 in 10 were satisfied with the outcome.

A. PERCEPTIONS OF SAFETY

Fear of crime and perceptions of safety are important indicators of the way people feel about their cities and neighbourhoods, and can also be indicators of how well they feel their police services are performing. Recognising this, it is important that police address perceptions of fear and safety. Some of the concerns around perceptions of safety and fear of crime are concisely summarised below:

It is widely recognised that the negative consequences of crime are not limited to crime victims. Many in Canadian society who have not themselves been victimised by crime fear the possibility of such an occurrence. In some cases, the fear of crime may cause people to place serious restrictions on their behaviour. Because of a concern for personal safety or the security of their property, they may be unable to take advantage of the social and cultural opportunities which their communities make available to them (Conklin, 1975). Discretionary income may be diverted away from more creative ends and towards the purchase of hardware which is intended to increase feelings of security. Under extreme circumstances, the overall effect may be a reduction in the quality of life and a slow but steady decline in the character of local communities (Skogan, 1990).³⁵³

General Community:

In the final quarter of each year, the Toronto Police Service contracts for a community telephone survey of 1,200 Toronto residents.³⁵⁴ The survey focuses on the respondent's

³⁵³ In: V. Sacco, *Fear and Personal Safety*, *Juristat* (Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada), 15(9) March 1995, p.2.

³⁵⁴ The community survey conducted for the Service is a randomly selected sample of 1,200 adult residents. The results are considered accurate within $\pm 3\%$, 95 times out of 100, of what they would have been had the entire adult resident population of Toronto been surveyed.



perception of crime and personal safety, satisfaction with the delivery of policing services to their neighbourhood and in general, and, where the respondent has had contact with the police in the past year, satisfaction with the service provided.

Most respondents (92%) felt very or reasonably safe in their neighbourhoods in 2004, roughly similar to the levels in recent years, but up from 74% in 2000 (Figure 10.1). More respondents (87%) felt that Toronto in general was very or reasonably safe in 2004, up from 85% in 2003.

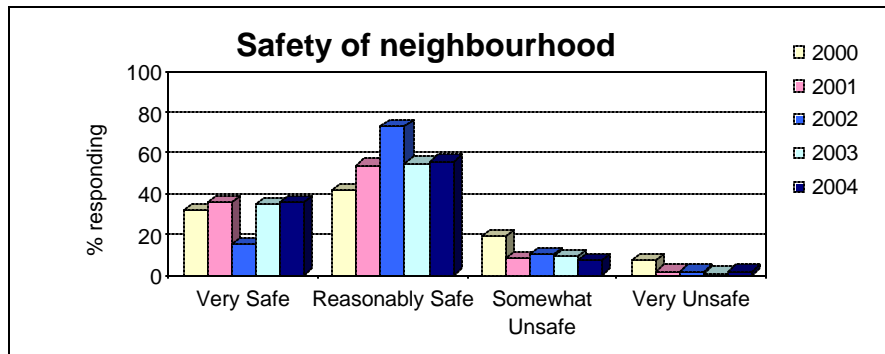


Figure 10.1

Source: TPS survey

In 2004, as in most previous years, the largest proportion of Toronto residents thought their neighbourhood had a low level of crime; in 2002, the largest proportion of Toronto residents thought their neighbourhood had an average level of crime (Figure 10.2). In all five years, most people felt that the level of crime in their neighbourhood had remained about the same over the past year.

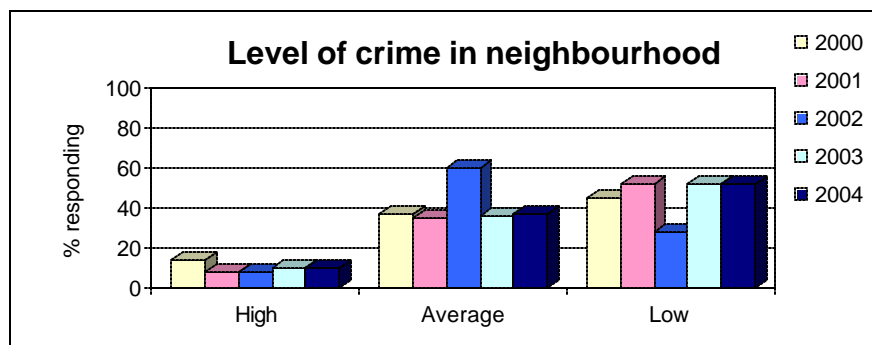


Figure 10.2

Source: TPS survey

In the highest level seen over the past five years, almost three-quarters (73%) of respondents said they walked alone in their neighbourhoods after dark in 2004. This proportion was up from 69% in 2003, 51% in 2002, 71% in 2001, and 60% in 2000. In an Ipsos-Reid poll in September 2003, 78% of residents said they would feel safe walking alone in their own neighbourhood after dark.³⁵⁵

³⁵⁵ Ipsos-Reid, *Toronto: Crime and Safety in the City*, September 9th, 2003 (www.ipsos-reid.com).



Over the past five years, when asked about the **most** serious policing problem in their neighbourhood, responses have been relatively consistent, with people typically naming drugs, break & enter, youth, and traffic/parking.³⁵⁶ These issues – along with the need for youth programs and services, graffiti, police visibility and the need for foot patrols, relations between the police and the community (especially minority communities), the courts/legal system, and community mobilization – were also consistent themes at the townhall meetings held by then Toronto Police Chief Julian Fantino during March and April 2004. It should also be noted, however, that roughly 1 in 5 survey respondents in each year said that there were no serious policing problems in their neighbourhoods.

In contrast, when asked about the **most** serious policing problem in Toronto in general, respondents most frequently named guns, youth, gangs, and drugs. Only 4% said there were no serious policing problems in the City.

Less than two-thirds (61%) of Toronto residents said that they were concerned about crime in their neighbourhoods in 2004, down from 64% in 2003 and 67% in 2002 (Figure 10.3).

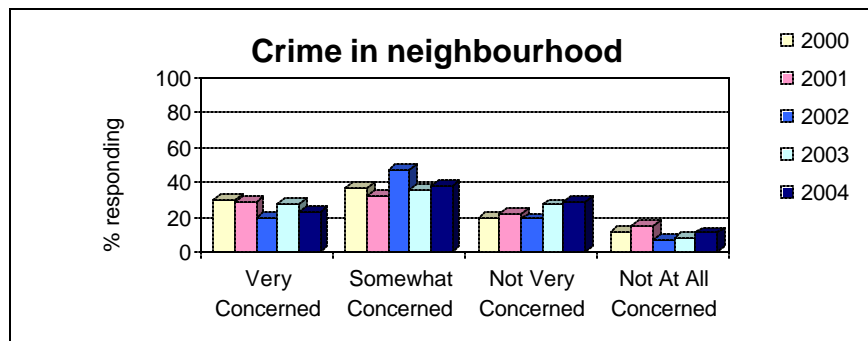


Figure 10.3

Source: TPS survey

Issues related to disorder in their neighbourhoods were of increasing concern to residents. In particular:

- residents were increasingly concerned about the homeless and panhandlers – 43% said they were concerned about homeless people and panhandlers in their neighbourhoods in 2004, up from 41% in 2003 and 27% in 2002;
- residents were increasingly concerned about litter or garbage – 58% said they were concerned about litter or garbage in their neighbourhoods in 2004, up from 56% in 2003 and 31% in 2002;
- residents continued to be concerned about vandalism – in both 2003 and 2004, 57% said they were concerned about vandalism in their neighbourhoods in 2004, up from 34% in 2002;
- residents were increasingly concerned about graffiti – 43% said they were concerned about graffiti in their neighbourhoods in 2004, up from 41% in 2003 and 27% in 2002;

³⁵⁶ In previous years, ‘youth’ as an issue was captured in the category ‘youth/gangs’; in 2004, this category was separated into ‘youth’ and ‘gangs’.



- residents continued to be concerned about drugs in their neighbourhoods – 56% in both 2003 and 2004 were concerned, up from 45% in 2002;
- residents were increasingly concerned about prostitution in their neighbourhoods – 36% in 2004, up from 31% in 2003 and 26% in 2002; and,
- residents were increasingly concerned about harassment on the street – 40% said they were concerned about being harassed on the street in their neighbourhoods in 2004, up from 39% in 2003 and 30% in 2002.

Survey respondents were also asked how likely they felt it was that they would be victimised during the next year. As shown in Figure 10.4, respondents in 2004 generally felt they were less likely to be victimised in the coming year than respondents in previous years.

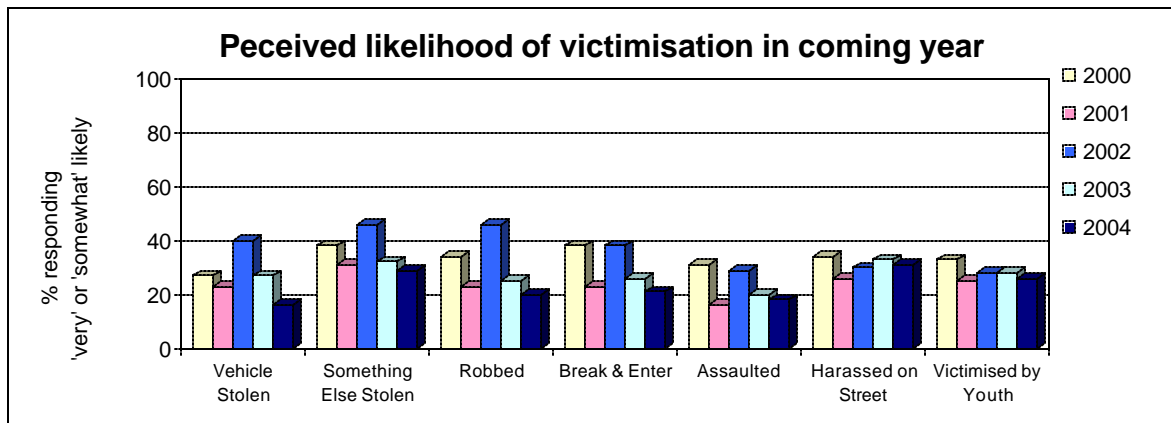


Figure 10.4

Source: TPS survey

As in 2003, almost 9 in 10 residents in 2004 said there was no place in their neighbourhood they would be afraid to go during the day, up from the 8 in 10 who said this in 2000. Similarly, almost 5 in 10 residents in 2004 said there was no place in their neighbourhood they would be afraid to go at night, up from 4 in 10 in previous years.

In keeping with the general increase in perceptions of safety in 2004, less than one-quarter (21%) of respondents in 2004 said that worry about crime kept them from doing things they'd like to do. This was down from 23% in 2003 and 31% in 2002.

High School Students:

At the end of each year, the TPS Corporate Planning unit distributes surveys (about 1,400 in total) for students to all the high schools of the Toronto District and Toronto District Catholic School Boards. In 2004, 40% of the surveys were completed and returned. In 2003, 51% were returned; in 2002, 56% were returned; and, in 2001, 47% were returned.

The proportion of students who felt that crime had remained about the same over the past year in and around the school increased in 2004 (57% in 2004, 50% in 2003, 54% in 2002 and



2001). The proportion of students who felt that crime had increased fell to 27% in 2004, down from 33% in 2003 and 30% in 2002, and similar to the 26% in 2001. As shown in Figure 10.5, most students in all years said they felt very or reasonably safe in and around the school at any time of the day (84% in 2004 and 2003, 83% in 2002, 85% in 2001).

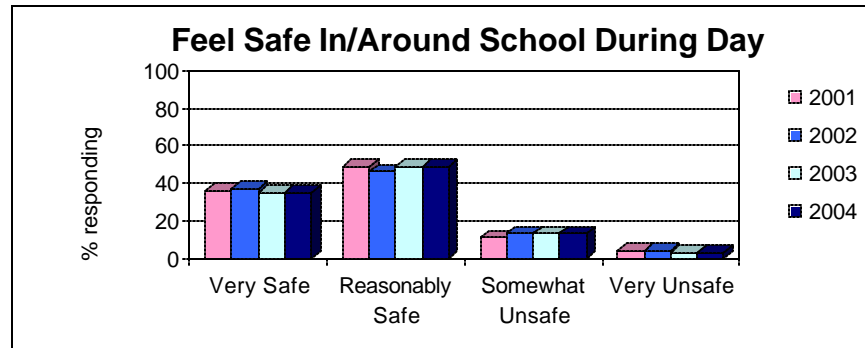


Figure 10.5

Source: TPS survey

When asked about the **most** serious policing problem in and around their school, the most common answers from students were generally the same in all years: assaults/fighting, drugs, and youth/gangs. In 2004, 12% said there were no serious policing problems in or around their school compared to 13% in 2003 and 2002, and 11% in 2001. Most students based their opinion of the most serious policing problem on what they'd personally seen (71% in 2004, 67% in 2003, 66% in 2002, 70% in 2001).

Students were asked to rate how concerned they were about a number of issues in relation to their school, the school grounds, and the area around their school. In 2004, more than half of the students said they were concerned about 8 of the 18 issues, and 11 of the 18 issues showed an increase in the proportion concerned compared to 2003. Fighting (57%), crime in general (54%), and drugs (54%) had the highest levels of concern in 2004, compared to drugs (55%), fighting (53%), and gangs (52%) in 2003.

If they said they were very or somewhat concerned about gangs, students were asked what they were most concerned about. Of the 283 students in 2004 who said they were concerned about gangs, the most frequent concerns, as in previous years, were personal safety (72%) and confrontations/being harassed (54%).

The proportion of students in each year who were very or somewhat concerned about each of the 18 issues is shown in Figure 10.6.

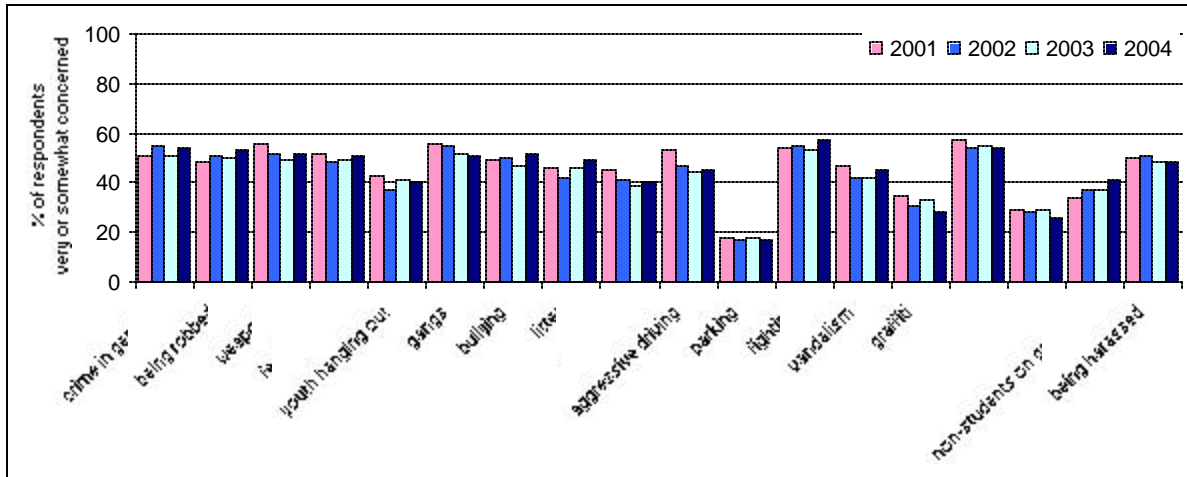


Figure 10.6

Source: TPS survey

When asked about the level of violence, if any, at their school, while the largest proportion of students in all years said that, generally, their school and school grounds weren't violent, this proportion was lower in 2004 than in previous years (59% in 2004, 64% in 2003, 63% in 2002, 67% in 2001). The proportion of students who thought their school was very or somewhat violent increased to 41% in 2004 from 36% in 2003, 37% in 2002, and 33% in 2001 (Figure 10.7).

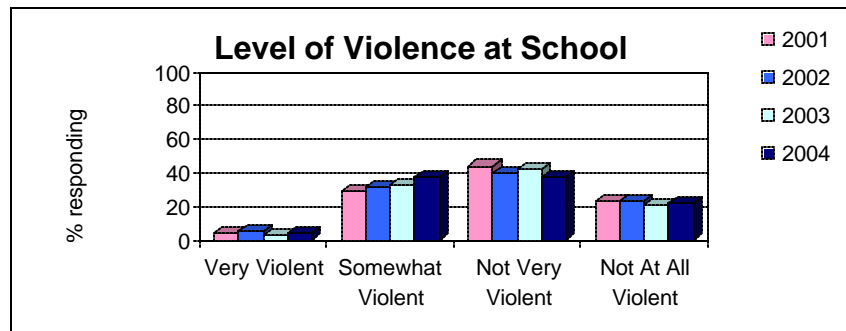


Figure 10.7

Source: TPS survey

Students were also asked about victimisation. In all years, about 1 in 10 students reported that they had been the victim of a crime at school during the past year (11% in 2004, 12% in 2003 and 2002, 11% in 2001). In 2004, the most common crimes were threats and assaults, followed by thefts; in previous years, thefts and threats were the most common crimes, followed by assaults. In 2004, only 12% of those who said they'd been victimised said they'd reported the crime(s) to police, similar to proportions seen in previous years. Almost half (48%) said they'd reported to principals or teachers, up from 39% in 2003, but similar to the 48% in 2002 and 47% in 2001.

Since 2002, students have also been asked, if applicable, why they didn't report their victimisation(s) to the police. The most common answers in all years were that there was no point/the police wouldn't do anything, that they thought it was too minor to report, or that they didn't want any more trouble. In 2004, an increased proportion of students said they didn't report to police because they told a teacher or principal.



As in 2003, in 2004 only 26% of high school students said there was a Student Crime Stoppers program at their school, down from 49% in 2002. Twelve percent (12%) of these students in 2004 said that they had used the program, up from 11% in 2003 and 7% in 2002. In all years, over half of those who said there was no Student Crime Stoppers at their school said they would like to have one (60% in 2004, 55% in 2003, 56% in 2002).

School Administrators:

A total of 425 surveys were also sent to Toronto area school administrators in 2004 – 140 to high schools and 285 to elementary schools; 193 school administrators responded (45%). In 2003, 57% of the surveys sent out were returned, similar to 56% in 2002 and the 58% in 2001.

Overall, while fewer school administrators in 2004 than in previous years believed that crime in and around their schools had remained the same over the past year, there were also fewer administrators who believed that crime had increased (remained the same: 61% in 2004, 64% in 2003, 63% in 2002, 65% in 2001; increased: 19% in 2004, 24% in 2003, 25% in 2002, and 22% in 2001). In 2004, as in 2003 and in 2001, high school administrators were more likely to say that crime had increased than elementary school administrators; in 2002, in contrast, elementary school administrators were more likely to say that crime had increased than high school administrators.

Similar to what was found with students, though at higher levels, most administrators said that they felt very or reasonably safe in and around the school at any time of the day (95% in 2004 and 2003, 93% in 2002, 95% in 2001).

When asked what, in their opinion, was the **most** serious policing problem in their school, administrators most frequently identified traffic/parking, vandalism, bullying, or break & enter/property theft. This varied from previous years when assaults/fighting was frequently mentioned as the most serious problem.

High school administrators most frequently identified assaults/fighting, bullying, drugs, or trespassers as the most serious policing problem, while elementary school administrators most frequently identified traffic/parking, vandalism, or break & enter/property theft. In 2004, 9% of elementary school administrators said there were no serious policing problems, compared to 7% in 2003, 9% in 2002, and 14% in 2001. In both 2004 and 2003, 2% of high school administrators said there were no serious policing problems, down from 4% in 2002, but up from 0% in 2001. Most respondents in all years said they had based their opinion on what they had personally seen.

School administrators were asked to rate how concerned they were about a number of issues in relation to their school, the school grounds, and the area around their school. In 2004, more than half of the administrators said they were concerned about 12 of the 18 issues, however, only 4 of the 18 issues showed an increase in the proportion concerned compared to 2003. Bullying (77%), litter (65%), vandalism (65%), graffiti (64%), and crime in general (62%) had the highest levels of concern in 2004, compared to bullying (78%), crime in general (71%), litter/garbage (67%), vandalism (66%), and graffiti (61%) in 2003.

Figure 10.8 shows the proportion of school administrators in each year who said they were very or somewhat concerned about each of the 18 specific issues.

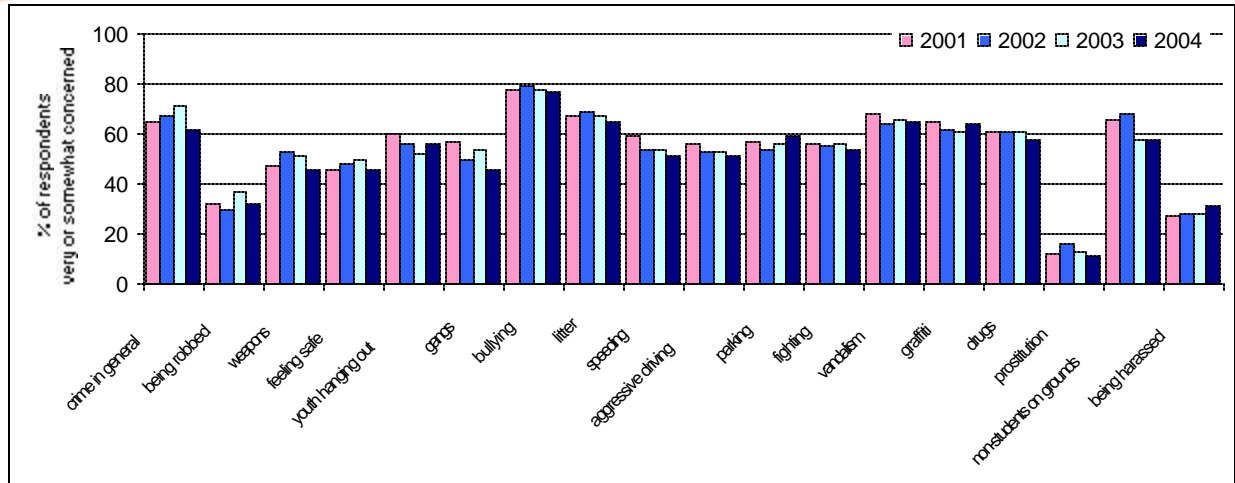


Figure 10.8

Source: TPS survey

Reported concerns differed between elementary and high school administrators. In 2004, high school administrators were most concerned about bullying, drugs, non-students on school grounds, and fighting, while elementary school administrators were most frequently concerned about bullying, parking, and litter.

With regard to the level of violence in and around their schools, administrators were more likely than students to say their school/grounds were not violent. More than 8 in 10 administrators in both 2004 and 2003 said that their school grounds were not very or not at all violent, up from the proportions seen in earlier years (83% in 2004 and 2003, 74% in 2002, 76% in 2001). In 2004, only one school administrator said that their school was very violent, compared to two administrators in both 2003 and 2002, and no school administrators in 2001. In all years, high school administrators were more likely than elementary school administrators to feel their schools were very or somewhat violent.

In 2004, only 16% of school administrators said there was a Student Crime Stoppers program at their school, down from the 22% of school administrators who said there was a Student Crime Stoppers program at their school in 2003. Of those who said they did not have the program, less than one-third (32%) indicated an interest in having the program. Many of those who were not interested in the program felt that it was not appropriate for elementary schools, were not familiar with the program, or had other programs, such as Empowered Student Partnerships (ESP), already in place.

B. PERCEPTIONS OF POLICING

The public's perception of the police and their level of satisfaction with police services are critical indicators of the quality and effectiveness of police in a community – the ability of the Service to perform is, in large part, dependent upon the relations between the police and the public. Public confidence and trust are vital to successful policing, and may ultimately be reflected back in community perceptions of crime and safety.



General Community:

The Toronto Police Service survey of Toronto residents in December 2004 found that, as in 2003, 88% said they were satisfied with the delivery of police service to their neighbourhood; this was down from 90% in 2002, but up from the proportions seen in previous years (Figure 10.9). However, the proportion of residents who said they were satisfied with the Toronto Police Service overall was lower in 2004 than in previous years (85% in 2004, 94% in 2003, and 93% in both 2001 and 2002).³⁵⁷

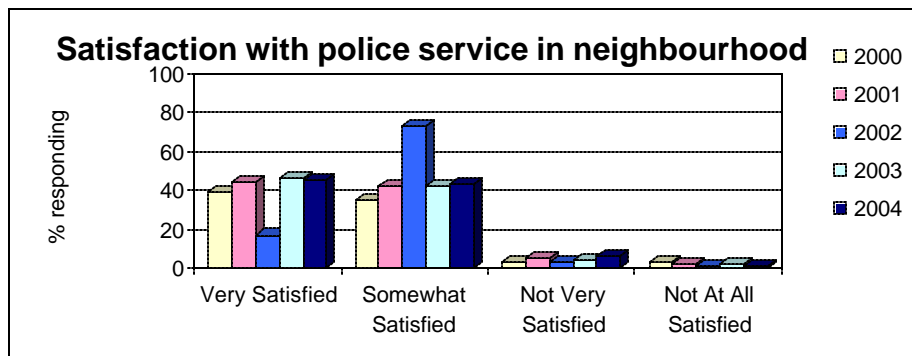


Figure 10.9

Source: TPS survey

In 2004, 73% said they were satisfied with the number of police patrolling their neighbourhood in cars, down from 76% in 2003. In both years, considerably fewer residents were satisfied with the number of officers patrolling their neighbourhood on foot. In 2004, 41% said they were satisfied with the number of foot patrols, down from 51% in 2003. Again, this mirrors concerns raised at townhall meetings held in early 2004.

With regard to specific aspects of policing in their neighbourhoods, perceptions improved over 2003 in only two of the six areas: more people felt the police were doing a good job (rather than average or poor) of being approachable, and of providing services to ethnic/racial groups (Figure 10.10).

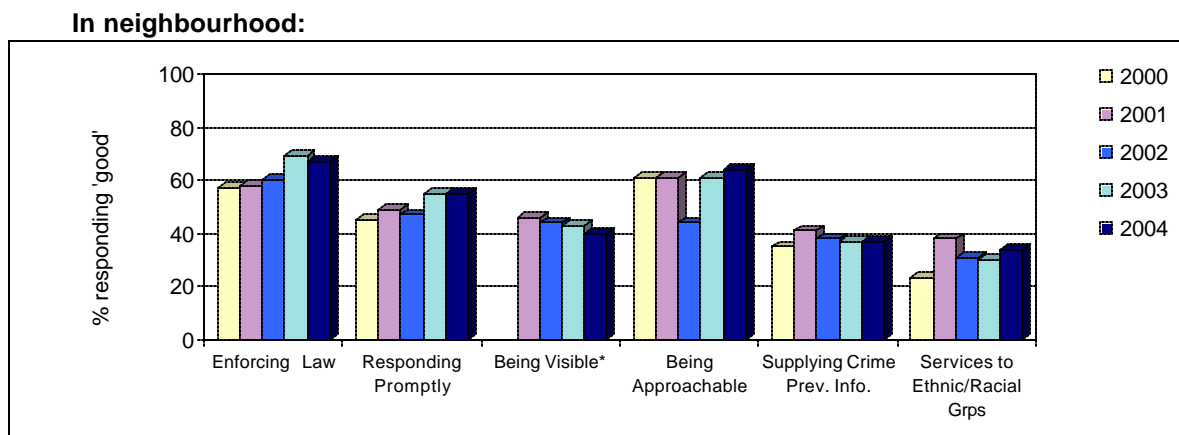


Figure 10.10

Source: TPS survey

*Not asked in 2000.

³⁵⁷ Question was not asked in 2000.



In 2004, as in 2003, it was of interest that respondents were more likely to perceive police as doing a good job of enforcing the law, responding promptly, and being approachable in their neighbourhood than in the City as a whole (Figure 10.11). But, they were more likely to perceive police as doing a good job of being visible, supplying crime prevention, and providing service to ethnic/racial groups in the City as a whole than in their own neighbourhood.

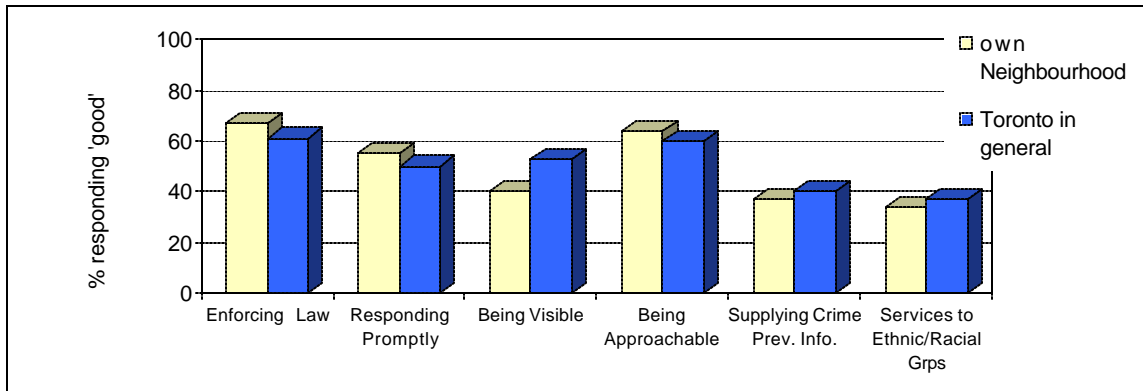


Figure 10.11

Source: TPS survey

Beginning in 2003, survey respondents were asked how well they felt the Police Service did in a variety of policing areas. The responses for both 2003 and 2004 are shown in Table 10.1 below. Those areas that showed an increase in perceived police effectiveness are shaded.

Table 10.1
Perceptions of Police Effectiveness

	Responding 'very' or 'fairly' well	
	2003	2004
Policing major events in the City	93%	91%
Improving public safety and security	79%	78%
Reducing crime and disorder	77%	74%
Dealing with traffic collisions	76%	74%
Enforcing traffic laws	75%	73%
Dealing with speeding	73%	72%
Consulting with the public	66%	66%
Investigating child abuse/exploitation	62%	69%
Dealing with traffic congestion	62%	60%
Dealing with gun crimes	61%	63%
Dealing with youth violence	61%	59%
Enforcing drug laws	61%	64%
Supporting victims and witnesses	59%	60%
Dealing with aggressive/dangerous drivers	59%	57%
Investigating crimes committed against members of minority communities	58%	60%
Dealing with victimisation of youth	56%	56%
Investigating hate crime	54%	64%
Dealing with organised crime	54%	57%
Dealing with gangs (<i>new in 2004</i>)		53%

Source: Toronto Police survey



While respondents in 2004 felt in general that police-community relations were excellent or good, there were some important differences (Figure 10.12). As in 2003, respondents were most positive about the relationship between police and the people in their neighbourhood and least positive about the relationship between police and members of minority communities. It should be noted, however, that while the proportion of those who felt relations were excellent or good between police and people in Toronto in general decreased between 2003 (57%) and 2004 (54%), the proportion of those who felt that relations were excellent or good between police and members of minority communities increased (39% in 2004, 36% in 2003).

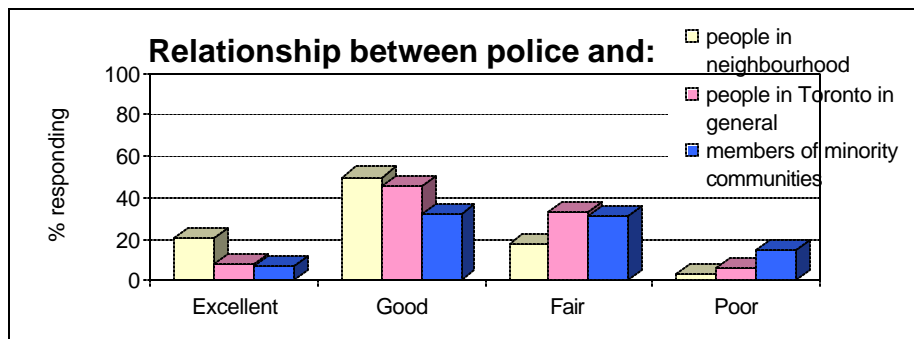


Figure 10.12

Source: TPS survey

In contrast, almost 1 in 3 respondents (31%) in 2004 said that they believed that Toronto police officers targeted members of minority or ethnic groups for enforcement, an increase from 28% in 2003, 23% in both 2001 and 2002, and 26% in 2000. While still a relatively small proportion, this perception, and the relatively low proportion of those who perceive good to excellent police-minority community relations as noted above, are critical for the Service to address.

In general, however, most people see the police in a positive light. Almost all respondents in the past three years (92% in 2004, 93% in both 2003 and 2002) said they agreed with the statement: I believe that Toronto police officers carry out their jobs to the best of their abilities. These proportions were an increase from the 84% in 2000 and 89% in 2001. Similarly, 89% of respondents in both 2004 and 2003 said they believe that Toronto police are trustworthy, compared to 79% in 2002.

Similar to 2003, three-quarters (75%) of respondents in 2004 said they had heard or read media commentary about the Toronto Police Service over the past few months. However, of those who heard or read commentary, 75% in 2004 and 77% in 2003 said their opinion of the Service had not changed.

General Community Respondents who had Contact with Police during Past Year:

While the good opinion and confidence of the general community is vital to the Service, the perceptions of those who had contact with an officer are an even more important indication of police ability to provide a high quality service.



Of those respondents in 2004 who'd had contact with police, 74% said they were satisfied with the police during that contact, down from 83% in 2003 (Figure 10.13).³⁵⁸ The 2004 level was slightly higher than the 71% in 2002, but lower than the 80% in 2001 and the 79% in 2000.

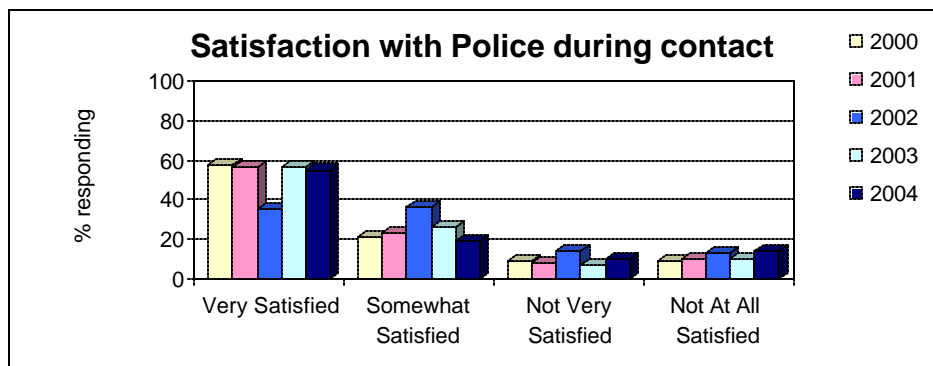


Figure 10.13

Source: TPS survey

About 1 in 5 respondents (21%) in 2003 said that the contact changed their opinion of police, compared to 18% in 2003, 34% in 2002, 17% in 2001, and 27% in 2000. As shown in Figure 10.14, of those whose opinion changed, 65% in 2004 said they had a more positive opinion as a result of the contact, up from proportions seen in previous years.

Contact changed opinion of police:

If contact changed opinion, how:

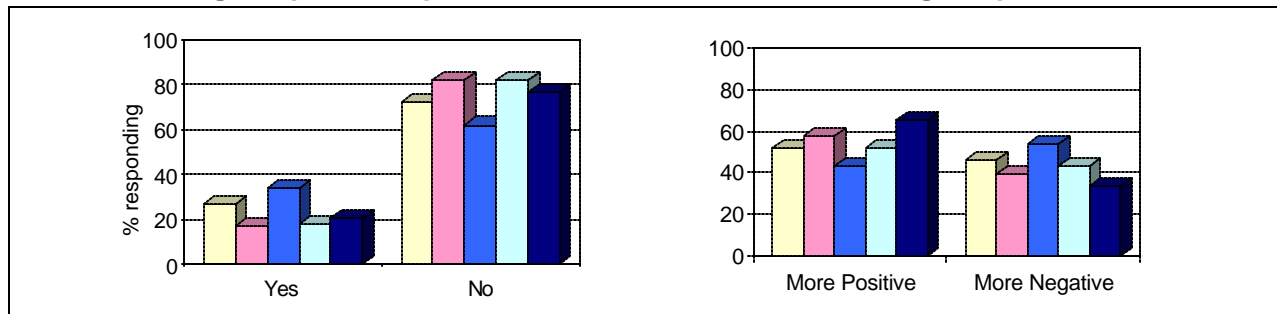


Figure 10.14

Source: TPS survey

Almost 9 in 10 respondents, in all years the question was asked, said they felt that the officers they had contact with treated them with respect (87% in 2004 and 2003, 90% in 2001, 87% in 2000) (Figure 10.15).³⁵⁹

³⁵⁸ 37% of respondents (445 people) in 2004 said they'd had contact with the police in the past year, compared to 32% (387 people) in 2003, 8% (102 people) in 2002, 35% (415 people) in 2001, and 25% of respondents (301 people) in 2000.

³⁵⁹ The question was not asked in 2002.

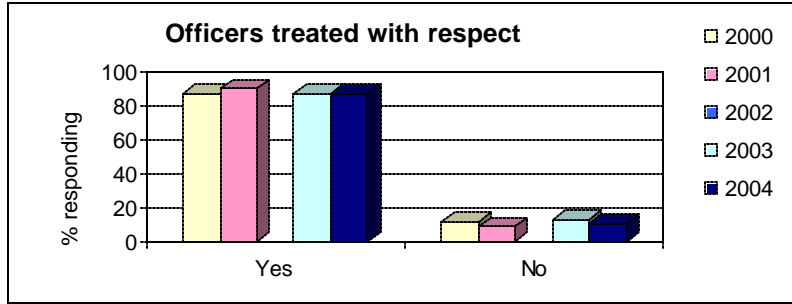


Figure 10.15

Source: TPS survey

With the exception of 2002, about 4 of 5 respondents each year rated the officer's conduct during the contact as good or excellent (82% in 2004 and 2003, 67% in 2002, 82% in 2001, and 79% in 2000) (Figure 10.16).

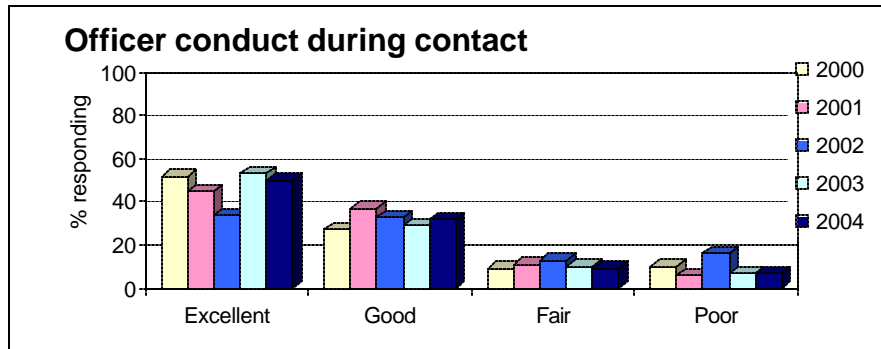


Figure 10.16

Source: TPS survey

Similarly, with the exception of 2002, about 4 of 5 respondents each year rated the officer's professionalism during the contact as good or excellent (82% in 2004, 83% in 2003, 68% in 2002, 82% in 2001, and 83% in 2000) (Figure 10.17). In 2004, the two most common reasons for rating the officer's professionalism as fair or poor were 'bad attitude' and 'didn't seem to care'.

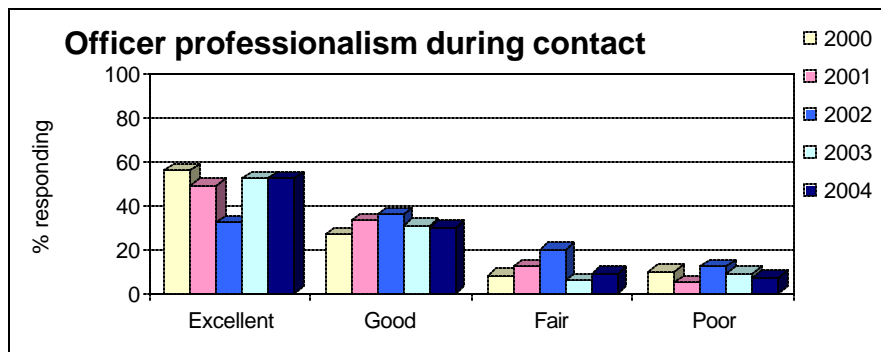


Figure 10.17

Source: TPS survey



Perceptions of those involved in police-initiated contact can be an important indication of the quality of officer-public interaction. Almost one in three (29%) of all those who said they'd had contact with police in 2004 had police-initiated contact. More than three-quarters (78%) of these respondents said they felt the officer(s) treated them fairly, up from 73% in 2003, 58% in 2002, 77% in 2001, and 76% in 2000 (Figure 10.18).

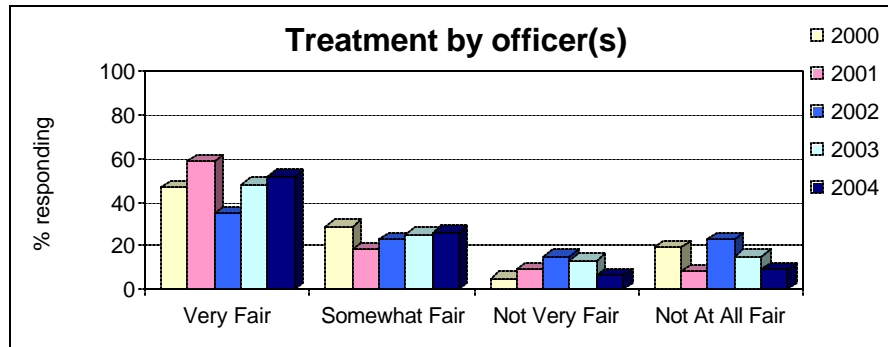


Figure 10.18

Source: TPS survey

High School Students:

When asked in 2004 how many times they saw police officers at their school, almost 1 in 3 high school students (32%) said they saw police more than once a month; 25% said they saw police 6 to 12 times a year, and 27% said they saw police 1 to 4 times a year. The remainder (17%) said they never saw police at their school or they didn't know. The most notable change was the increase in proportion of students who said they saw police more than once a month, up from 26% in 2003.

When asked why the police were usually at their school, the most common answers in all years generally included 'just visiting/patrolling' and 'questioning/talking to people'. In 2004, as in 2002, a common answer was also 'investigating crime/arresting people', while in 2003, a common answer was also 'security at dances'.

The proportion of students who wanted to continue to see police around their school about as often as they were there now decreased to 40% in 2004, down from 45% in 2003, 42% in 2002, and 43% in 2001. The proportion who wanted to see the police around the school less often or not at all increased to 39% in 2004, up from 31% in 2003, 35% in 2002, and 34% in 2001. Only about 20% wanted to see the police around the school more often, down from about 24% in all previous years.

Fewer students in 2004 than in 2003 said they would feel very or somewhat comfortable talking to police about crime or other problems at their school, though the proportion was higher than that seen in 2002 (61% in 2004, 63% in 2003, 59% in 2002, 67% in 2001). As in previous years, the most common reasons for not feeling comfortable talking to police were 'talking to police makes me nervous', 'not my place to talk about what other people do', and 'don't want to tell on people'.

However, more students in 2004 felt that the relationship between police and students in their school was good or excellent (36% in 2004, 31% in 2003, 33% in 2002, 36% in 2001). The largest proportion of students in all years felt the relationship between police and students was fair or poor (64% in 2004, 69% in 2003, 67% in 2002, 64% in 2001).



In general, as in previous years, in 2004, the largest proportion of students felt the police did an average, rather than good or poor, job of enforcing the law (52%), responding promptly to calls (43%), being visible (47%), being approachable (47%), supplying crime prevention information (46%), and providing services to ethnic/racial groups (44%).

Overall, most students in all years were satisfied with the delivery of police services to their school, though the proportion was lower in 2004 than in previous years (78% in 2004, 83% in 2003, 82% in 2001 and 2002) (Figure 10.19).

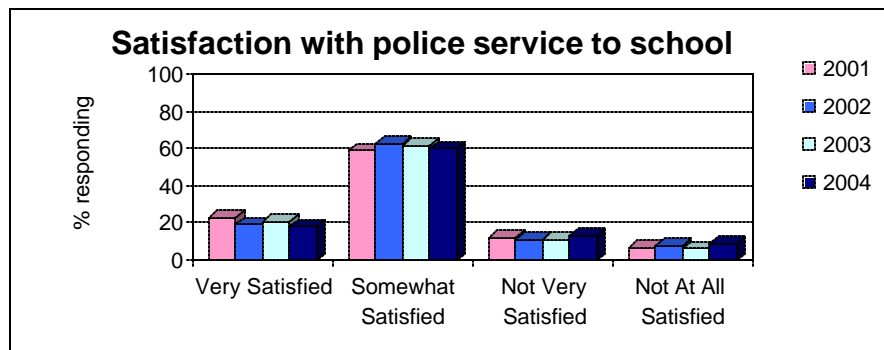


Figure 10.19

Source: TPS survey

School Administrators:

Just fewer than two-thirds of school administrators in 2004 (60%) reported having contact with police on a regular basis, even when there were no immediate problems to address. This was down from 65% in 2003 and 62% in 2001, but up from 56% in 2002. As in previous years, high schools (64%) were more likely than elementary schools (59%) to report regular contact. About one-third of respondents (32%) reported meeting with police at least once a month – 64% of high schools and 16% of elementary schools. In 2003, 38% reported meeting with police at least once a month – 61% of high schools and 27% of elementary schools.

According to all school administrators, issues most frequently dealt with by police in schools in 2004 included safety (52%), bullying (47%), threats to students (42%), trespassing (37%), and crime (36%). These same issues, in the same order and in similar proportions, were identified in 2003. High school administrators most frequently identified threats to students (71%), bullying (71%), and crime (65%), while elementary school administrators, in comparison, most frequently identified safety (56%), traffic/parking (37%), and bullying (36%).

Although a wide range of interventions were noted in 2004, half of all respondents (50%) reported that the identified issues/problems had been dealt with by education programs/lectures by police, and 42% reported meetings with parents. High school administrators most frequently reported increased police visibility (59%), while elementary school administrators most frequently reported education programs delivered by police (56%).

More than half of the school administrators (53%) in 2004 said that they were frequently or occasionally consulted by police in determining which issues should be addressed, up from 49% in 2003, but down from 64% in 2002 and 67% in 2001. However, most in all years reported that they were involved in the final determination of whether a problem should be addressed (97% in 2004, 95% in 2003 and 2002, 99% in 2001).



More administrators in 2004 than in 2003, but fewer than in 2002 or 2001, felt that they were very much or somewhat a part of a problem solving team with police (74% in 2004, 68% in 2003, 78% in 2002, 83% in 2001). Similarly, more administrators in 2004 than in 2003 or 2002, but fewer than in 2001, were satisfied or very satisfied with the level of partnership experienced (86% in 2004, 80% in 2003, 83% in 2002, 88% in 2001). Those administrators who felt very much a part of a problem-solving team were more likely to be satisfied or very satisfied with the level of partnership. Most (92%) of the school administrators in 2004 reported that they were satisfied or very satisfied with police response to issues and concerns raised by the school, up from 87% in 2003 and 90% in 2002, but down from 96% in 2001.

Almost all (98%) of the respondents said that relations between administrators and police were excellent or good in 2004, up from 96% in 2003 and 97% in 2002; 98% also felt this way in 2001. In comparison, in all years, fewer administrators felt that relations between students and police were excellent or good (83% in 2004 and 2003, 85% in 2002, 88% in 2001).

Most administrators said that the police do a good or average job in each of the following six categories – law enforcement, responding to calls promptly, being visible in the community, being approachable, supplying crime prevention information, and providing services to a range of ethnic and racial groups. Figure 10.20 shows the proportion of respondents who thought the police did a good job (rather than average or poor).

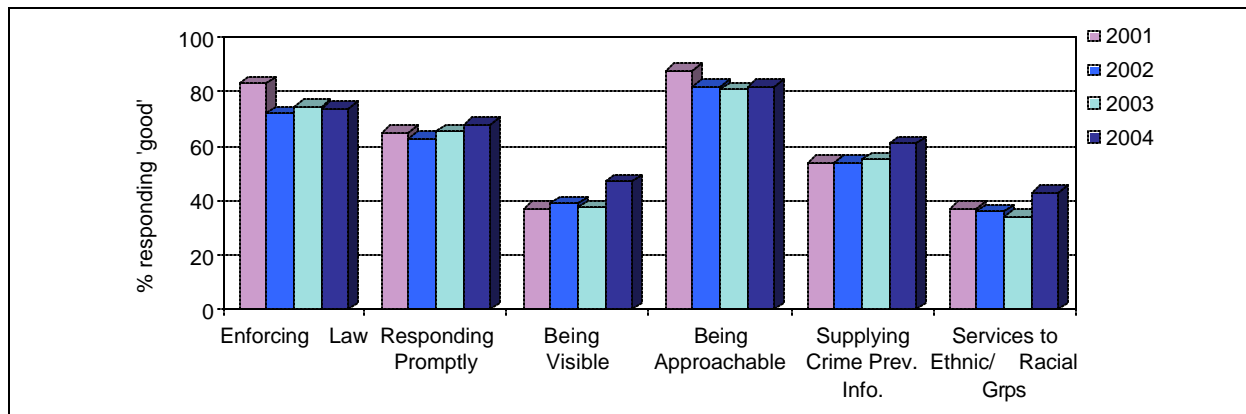


Figure 10.20

Source: TPS survey

Most administrators in all years said that, overall, they were satisfied or very satisfied with the delivery of police services to their schools, though the proportion was lower in recent years than was seen in 2001 (92% in 2004, 91% in 2003 and 2002, 95% in 2001). Two respondents reported being very unsatisfied in 2004, compared to four respondents in 2003, five respondents in 2002, and one respondent in 2001.

C. PUBLIC COMPLAINTS

Public trust and confidence in the police are essential components in the effort to ensure a safe and secure community – police accountability to the community, at all levels, is inherent in the philosophy of community policing. Therefore, both the public’s confidence in the



effectiveness of the complaints process and the number of public complaints may serve as performance indicators for police.

The total number of public complaints against the police increased 17.2% between 2003 and 2004, from 735 complaints in 2003 to 862 in 2004. Of the complaints received, 67.5% (496) were investigated in 2003, while 61.1% (527) were investigated in 2004.³⁶⁰

In both years, the largest proportion of investigated complaints involved allegations of conduct of a less serious nature: 73.6% (365) in 2003 and 74.4% (392) in 2004. The proportion of investigated complaints involving allegations of serious conduct decreased between 2003 and 2004 (23.8% [118] in 2003, 17.8% [94] in 2004), while the proportion of investigated complaints related to service increased (2.4% [12] in 2003, 7.2% [38] in 2004). With regard to the specific type of complaint, the largest proportion of investigated complaints in both years were allegations of discreditable conduct (71.6% [355] in 2003, 57.3% [302] in 2004).

For half (50.8% [252]) of the investigations in 2003, the complaint was found to be unsubstantiated; misconduct was identified in 4.6% (23) of the investigated complaints. In 2004, 38.5% (203) of investigations found the complaint unsubstantiated, while misconduct was identified in 2.1% (11) of investigated complaints. Informal resolution was the outcome of 18.3% (91) of investigated complaints in 2003 and 18.4% (97) of investigated complaints in 2004.

Of the complaints not investigated, in both years, the largest proportion were deemed frivolous (44.4% [106] in 2003, 46.0% [154] in 2004).

As part of the Service’s general community survey each year, respondents are asked about opinions and experience with the public complaints system. Just over two-thirds (69%) of respondents in 2004 said they were confident that the Toronto Police Service could impartially investigate public complaints against officers, continuing the trend of increase seen in recent years (68% in 2003, 67% in 2002, 66% in 2001, and 57% in 2000) (Figure 10.21).

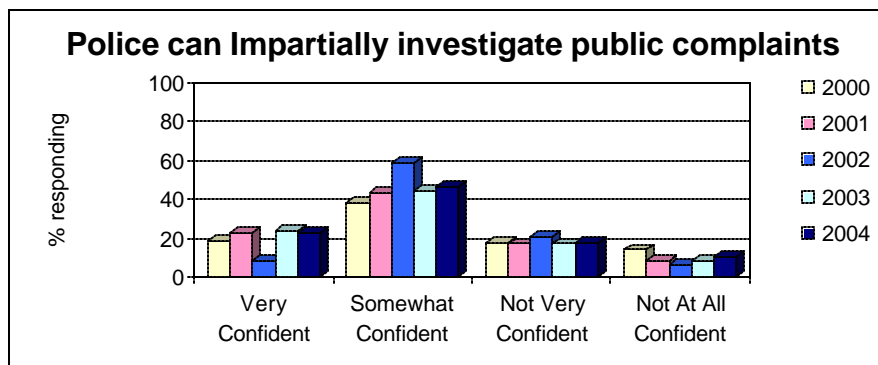


Figure 10.21

Source: TPS survey

Only a small proportion of respondents in each year said that they’d had experience with the police complaints process (8% in 2004 and 2003, 6% in 2002, 12% in 2001, 23% in 2000). Of these, 52% said they were satisfied with the process in 2004, up from the 50% in 2003, but lower

³⁶⁰ TPS Professional Standards has changed the way in which complaints data is categorised. Currently, only data from 2003 have been re-organised according to the data reporting method used for 2004. Future Scan documents will present complaints data from previous years as those years become available.



than the 74% in 2002, 69% in 2001, and 65% in 2000 (Figure 10.22). However, only 42% said they were satisfied with the outcome in 2004, the lowest proportion seen in the past five years (50% in 2003, 70% in 2002, 64% in 2001, 56% in 2000) (Figure 10.23).

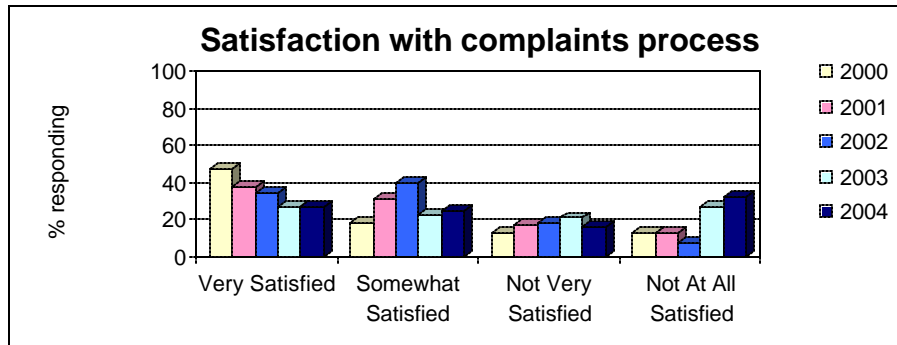


Figure 10.22

Source: TPS survey

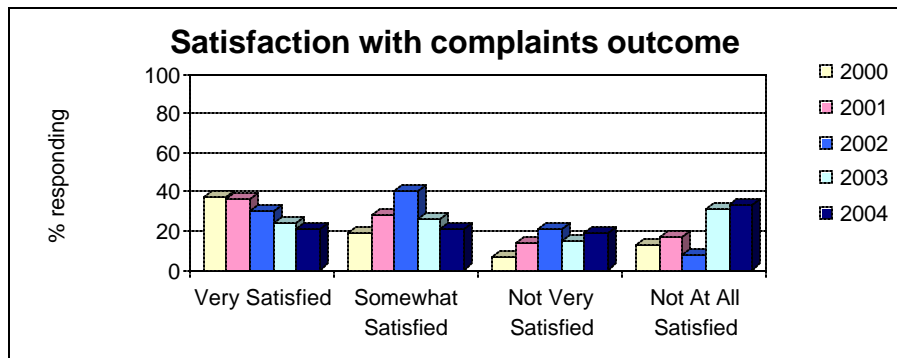


Figure 10.23

Source: TPS survey

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- Getting people involved in their neighbourhoods and public partnerships with police are central aims of community policing. The Service must make every effort to encourage and involve the public in initiatives to prevent crime, solve local problems, and enhance feelings of safety.
- Surveys are an important source of information on a variety of issues and permit contact with people who may not attend public consultations or townhall meetings. They also provide feedback on public satisfaction with police services and information on perceptions of fear and safety. In order to address trends in public perceptions, the Police Service must continue to have access to survey information on a regular basis.
- To enhance perceptions of safety and police service, and to ensure that these perceptions do not vary widely from reality, it is important that the Service communicate with the people of Toronto to increase awareness of crime occurrences, police procedures and authority, what to expect when in contact with police in a variety of situations, and the capabilities and limitations of the Police Service.



- The Service must increase efforts to address the disorder issues that are perceived to have a negative impact on a community's environment and perception of safety. Regular input from, and partnership with, the community on a local level is required for the police to understand, target, and address those offences or problems that are perceived to have a particularly adverse impact on the community's quality of life. It is also important that the Service provide the community with information on the initiatives being used to address problems, as well as the results of those initiatives.
- The Service must increase efforts to develop or be involved in initiatives directed towards enhancing relations between the public, particularly ethnic and minority communities, and the police.
- To continue to improve satisfaction levels for those who have contact with police, the Service must continue efforts to ensure professional, integrity, and high quality service by members in any and all dealings with the public.
- It is essential to be able to identify the factors underlying complaints against the police, particularly those related to the misconduct of police officers. These factors have important implications for the quality of police services provided and police accountability and public confidence.



XI. LEGISLATIVE IMPACTS

Laws set out many of the mandates and parameters by which the Toronto Police Service operates, and by which its members conduct themselves both on and off duty. Therefore, changes to those laws, actual or expected, affect the Police Service, its members, and the community as a whole. Laws also reflect the expectations a community has of its police. Changes to laws can reflect changes in those expectations. It is, therefore, vital that the Toronto Police Service takes legislation and legislative changes into account when planning and providing service, whether the changes come from the Police Services Board, the municipality, the province, or the federal government.

HIGHLIGHTS

- The *Sex Offender Information Registration Act*, legislation respecting the establishment of a national sex offender registry, came into force on December 15th, 2004. The Act provides police with access to vital information on sex offenders for investigative purposes
- Bill C-2, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (protection of children and other vulnerable persons) and the Canada Evidence Act*, proposes amendments intended to help safeguard children and other vulnerable persons from sexual exploitation, abuse and neglect. Further, the Act also proposes to better protect victims and witnesses in criminal justice proceedings.
- Bill C-16, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (impaired driving) and to make consequential amendments to other Acts*, clarifies the reference to impairment by alcohol or a drug to specifically include impairment by a combination of alcohol and a drug. It provides police with the authority to demand physical sobriety tests and bodily fluids for investigation.
- Bill C-13, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code, the DNA Identification Act and the National Defence Act*, broadens the provision in the Criminal Code in relation to taking bodily substances from designated offenders for inclusion in the national DNA data bank.
- Bill C-13, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (capital markets fraud and evidence-gathering)*, came into force on September 15th, 2004, creating two new mechanisms to require non-target persons to produce documents, data, or information.
- In March 2004, the Ontario Court of Appeal clarified Section 489.1 of the Criminal Code, deciding that police officers shall make a Return to a Justice when property is seized, with or without a warrant, in a criminal matter.
- Bill C-17, *An Act to amend the Contraventions Act and the Controlled Drugs and Substances Act and to make consequential amendments to other Acts*, sets out new maximum penalties for certain of the offences in relation to cannabis. The Act also designates offences relating to the possession or production of small amounts of cannabis, as contraventions under the *Contraventions Act*.
- On January 1st, 2005, the use of PowerCase software, as specified in Ontario Regulation 354/04 – Major Case Management – became mandatory for Ontario police services.



- Bill 110, the *Mandatory Gunshot Wounds Reporting Act, 2005*, which comes into force on September 1st, 2005, requires that every facility that treats a person for a gunshot wound disclose to the local municipal or regional police force, or the Ontario Provincial Police, the fact that a person is being treated for a gunshot wound, the person's name, if known, and the name and location of the facility.

A. CRIMINAL CODE

An Act respecting the registration of information relating to sex offenders, to amend the Criminal Code and to make consequential amendments to other Acts:

Bill C-16, the *Sex Offender Information Registration Act*, received Royal Assent on April 1st, 2004, and came into force on December 15th, 2004. Criminal Code Sections 490.011 and 490.012 define a 'designated offence', listing those offences for which an order that a sexual offender must register with the database may be imposed. The Act provides that a court shall, after a sentence is imposed and on application by the prosecutor, make an order requiring a person to comply with the *Sex Offender Information Registration Act*. The Act also applies to all sex offenders who were serving a sentence at the time the law came into effect and those offenders who were registered on the Ontario sex offender database. The duration of the order can vary from 10 years to life, depending on the maximum sentence of the designated offence.

The Bill's purpose is to assist police services in investigating crimes of a sexual nature by requiring sex offenders to register specific information with police. The legislation provides police with access to vital information for investigative purposes, while balancing public safety with the privacy interests of sex offenders in their rehabilitation and reintegration into the community. Access to, use, and disclosure of the information is restricted by the Act.

Unlike the Ontario Sex Offender Registry, this legislation allows for either the prosecutor or the sex offender to appeal a judge's decision on whether or not to compel the offender to enrol in the Sex Offender Registry or to grant or deny early termination of an order. The court is not required to make an order if the offender establishes that, if the order were made, the impact on the offender would be grossly disproportionate to the public interest.

The Act has been criticised for falling short of the scope and effectiveness envisioned by the policing community. The Act does not require a photograph, the registrant data requirement is limited to only the most basic information, search capabilities are severely restricted, and the penalty for non-compliance is believed too low.

The impact of this legislation on the Toronto Police Service, notwithstanding the prior establishment of the Ontario Sex Offender Registry, is expected to be considerable, particularly in the short term. The Service will continue to register sex offenders for designated offences, as defined in the provincial legislation, in the Ontario Sex Offender Registry, to be uploaded into the national registry. Further, because the scope of the national registry's designated offences is broader than the provincial registry, investigators will be required to complete and submit a five-page form to facilitate entry exclusively to the national registry. (An anticipated amendment to provincial legislation to match the national designated offences will eliminate this additional workload in the future.) The Service is also required to serve, by December 15th, 2005, almost 1,300 sex offenders currently registered on the Ontario Sex Offender Registry with a notice



(Form 53) of their obligation to comply with this Act. Training issues and changes to the policies and procedures of the Service are not expected to be substantial.

An Act to amend the Criminal Code (protection of children and other vulnerable persons) and the Canada Evidence Act:

Bill C-2, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (protection of children and other vulnerable persons) and the Canada Evidence Act*, was in Committee in February 2005, after its 1st Reading in October 2004. The Bill proposes amendments to the Criminal Code and the *Canada Evidence Act* that are intended to help safeguard children and other vulnerable persons from sexual exploitation, abuse, and neglect, and to better protect victims and witnesses in criminal justice proceedings. Bill C-2 pursues these objectives through a three-fold approach. First, the Bill will expand the scope of some existing offences, narrow the availability of statutory defences, and/or increase penalties available following conviction. Second, the Bill proposes the creation of new offences relating to ‘voyeurism’. And third, Bill C-12 proposes a variety of procedural reforms intended to facilitate testimony by young persons and broaden the court’s ability to accommodate the needs of children and other vulnerable witnesses in a variety of criminal justice proceedings. Critics of the Bill claim that the proposed definition of child pornography may infringe upon the freedom of expression of artists in Canada and is therefore vulnerable to a challenge under the *Charter of Rights and Freedoms*.

The impact of this legislation on Toronto Police Service policies, procedures, and workload, if passed, is anticipated to be minimal. In general, however, child exploitation investigations are becoming increasingly complex and require specialised training and equipment. The technological aspect of these investigations also continues to advance and thus investigators must continually upgrade their skills.

An Act to amend the Criminal Code (impaired driving) and to make consequential amendments to other Acts:

Bill C-16, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (impaired driving) and to make consequential amendments to other Acts*, was referred to Committee on November 15th after its first reading November 1st, 2004. The Act clarifies the reference to impairment by alcohol or a drug in paragraph 253(1)(a) of the Criminal Code, to specifically include impairment by a combination of alcohol and a drug. Further, the Act provides for specially trained peace officers – Drug Recognition Experts (DRE) - to conduct tests to determine whether a driver is impaired by a drug or a combination of a drug and alcohol. It provides police with the authority to demand physical sobriety tests and bodily fluids for investigation.

The impact of this legislation on Toronto Police Service policies, procedures and workload, will be substantial. The legislation will provide the means to gather evidence of impairment in relation to drugs, a tool that is not currently available. However, implementation of these amendments will be costly to the Service, particularly with regard to training. All patrol officers must attend a four-day training course for certification on Standardized Field Sobriety Testing (SFST). Further, the Service will have to train at least 35 officers to be certified Drug Recognition Officers. The DRE certification requires officers to attend a two-week training



program, with additional field training. Finally, the cost and timeliness of testing bodily fluids for the presence of alcohol and/or a drug are unknown at this time. It is expected that more precise direction to police services, in relation to this legislation, will be provided in the form of a Regulation. Discussions regarding responsibility for training programs, training costs, timelines, and sample testing are ongoing with the provincial and federal governments.

An Act to amend the Criminal Code, the DNA Identification Act and the National Defence Act

Bill C-13, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code, the DNA Identification Act and the National Defence Act*, received Royal Assent on May 19th, 2005. The Act amends the provision in the Criminal Code in relation to taking bodily substances for inclusion in the national DNA data bank. In summary, the Act includes the following amendments:

- adds 28 offences to the list of designated offences;
- reclassifies certain secondary offences, including break & enter, as primary offences;
- allows for a DNA order against a person found not criminally responsible by reason of mental disorder;
- allows for a DNA order against a person who committed one murder and one sexual assault at different times before the legislation came into force;
- requires offenders to appear at a certain time and place to provide a sample; and,
- allows for a DNA data bank order to be made after a sentence has been imposed.

These amendments to the DNA data bank legislation, expected to come into force in the summer of 2005, will greatly enhance the DNA data bank as an investigative tool. However, these enhancements result from an expanded inventory of DNA samples – samples that must be ordered, collected, and submitted by police services. The overall impact of these amendments on the Toronto Police Service is expected to be significant. Based on very preliminary estimates, the Service anticipates an on-going sample collection workload increase of roughly 10%; however, this increase may be mitigated, at least to some extent, by the inclusion of amendments which clarify legislative issues that had caused some concerns in the past.

The major burden of the legislation will result from the expansion of the retroactive provisions, specifically DNA data bank orders against persons convicted of committing one murder and one sexual assault at different times before the legislation came into force. Based on preliminary national estimates, it is anticipated that the Toronto Police Service will be responsible for preparing and processing in excess of 400 data bank orders. The magnitude of this impact is evident from prior experience. In 2001, the retroactive component of the original DNA data bank legislation required that the Service prepare slightly more than 200 such orders; ten officers, dedicated to the function, completed the task in 13 months.

An Act to amend the Criminal Code (capital markets fraud and evidence-gathering)

Bill C-13, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (capital markets fraud and evidence-gathering)*, introduced on February 14th, 2004, came into force on September 15th, 2004. The



Act created new offences related to insider trading and threatening or retaliating against employees for disclosing unlawful activities. Further, it created new mechanisms – Confirmation Orders and Production Orders – to require non-target persons to produce data, documents, or information. A Confirmation Order is essentially a verification of tombstone information, usually in relation to financial records. In effect, this legislates what had traditionally been, under case law, a quick, informal process. A Production Order, similar to a search warrant, may be served on any third party (e.g. hospital, bank, children’s aid, etc.) to produce documents, data, or information. A Production Order requires the same effort to prepare and ‘reasonable grounds’ as a search warrant, but is somewhat more flexible. A Production Order may stipulate a time period during which additional, related information may be requested from the third party without a further order or warrant. On the other hand, however, a Production Order may be disputed on grounds that the third party does not have possession of the documents, client privilege, and/or undue hardship (e.g. the cost and time involved to gather the information).

This legislation, specifically the evidence-gathering provisions, will affect the procedures and workload of the Toronto Police Service. It is expected that Production Orders may alleviate some of the need to produce multiple warrants for specific information. However, the requirement to prepare a Confirmation Order, if this provision negates previous case law, may have a substantial workload impact; it is estimated that between 50 and 100 financial verifications are made every day. A further concern is the potential for third parties to recover, from the police service, their costs incurred to collect specified documents; the impact of this, if any, is not known at this time.

Regina v. Backhouse:

In March 2004, the Ontario Court of Appeal released its decision in *Regina v. Backhouse*. The decision clarified Section 489.1 of the Criminal Code with respect to the requirement of police officers to make a Return to a Justice when property has been seized. A search warrant return is required whenever property is seized, with or without a warrant, in a criminal matter. The impact of the latter case – seizure without warrant – could have a substantial impact on the Service with regard to the admissibility of evidence in the future. The Toronto Police Service is currently conducting a review to determine the manner in which this issue will be addressed.

B. CONTROLLED DRUGS AND SUBSTANCES ACT

Bill C-17, *An Act to amend the Contraventions Act and the Controlled Drugs and Substances Act and to make consequential amendments to other Acts*, received first reading in November 2004 and was referred to Committee. Bill C-17 provides for the ‘decriminalisation’ of the possession of small and intermediate amounts of cannabis, through designating such possession as a contravention under the *Contraventions Act*. The amendments also include a reform of punishment in relation to the offence of producing marijuana.

The purpose of the proposed amendment is to set out new maximum penalties for certain of the offences in relation to cannabis (including both hashish and marijuana) – to offer a range



of penalties that ensures that the punishment available is appropriate to the seriousness of the crime. The graduated punishment provision is intended to address larger issues, such as the increasing problem of large-scale marijuana growing operations and the export of illegal drugs across the Canada-US border.

At this time, there is considerable divergence of opinion within the law enforcement community as to what effect ‘decriminalisation’ will have on the level of enforcement of cannabis laws. Accordingly, identification of procedural or workload impact is not possible at this time.

C. ONTARIO POLICE SERVICES ACT

Effective January 1st, 2005, the mandatory implementation of PowerCase, as specified in Ontario Regulation 354/04 – Major Case Management – came into effect. The PowerCase software provides police services with a business process for the management and investigation of major cases. On a daily basis, PowerCase, networked in police services across the province, performs a search for possible linkages of key words (e.g. names) between cases and jurisdictions. Linkages are reported as electronic alerts every morning and recipient police services are expected to address all alerts.

Although potentially a very powerful investigative tool, the necessary data entry will have a significant impact on Service resources. In the first three months of 2005, more than 300 cases were entered into PowerCase; approximately 20% of these were threshold major cases (e.g. homicides, attempt murders, sexual assaults meeting specific criteria), which must be entered. Non-threshold major cases are entered at the decision of the investigator and may involve less information being entered. Although data entry and coding for non-threshold cases (e.g. criminal harassment, sexual assaults that do not meet criteria) are manageable, the demands for threshold cases could be overwhelming.

D. MANDATORY GUNSHOT WOUNDS REPORTING ACT, 2005

Enacted as Chapter 9 of the Statutes of Ontario, 2005, Bill 110, *An Act to require the disclosure of information to police respecting persons being treated for gunshot wounds*, received Royal Assent on June 13th, 2005. The Act provides that every facility that treats a person for a gunshot wound must disclose to the local municipal or regional police force, or the Ontario Provincial Police, the fact that a person is being treated for a gunshot wound, the person’s name, if known, and the name and location of the facility. The disclosure must be made orally and as soon as reasonably practicable to do so without interfering with the treatment of the patient or disrupting the regular activities of the facility. The mandatory reporting of gunshot wounds will enable police to take immediate steps to prevent further violence, injury, or death. The legislation, which comes into force on September 1st, 2005, is the most comprehensive in Canada; no other province has legislation specifically requiring the reporting of gunshot wounds.



E. CONSUMER REPORTING ACT

Bill 174, *An Act to amend the Consumer Reporting Act*, a Private Member's Bill in the Provincial Legislature, received 1st Reading in March 2005. The Act provides that, among other things, consumer reporting agencies immediately report any unlawful disclosure of consumer information to the affected consumers, and provides guidelines for storage and safekeeping of consumer information for the purpose of minimising identify theft. The Act addresses the argument that consumers, once notified of such a disclosure of information, are then able to take pre-emptive action – closely monitoring bank account and credit card statements for suspicious activity – to avoid identity theft. While it is expected that this legislation could affect the extent of identify theft, it is not expected that this legislation will have a noticeable impact on the policies and workload of the Service.

RECOMMENDATIONS/IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICE SERVICE

- The *Sex Offender Information Registration Act* will affect the workload of the Service's Bail and Parole and Sex Crime Units. Training, procedural issues, and notification to 1,300 offenders currently registered on the Ontario Sex Offender Registry must be addressed in the short-term. An on-going increased workload will result from the expansion of designated offences.
- Access to a computerised national sex offender registry should prove to be a valuable tool for officers to track the movement of sex offenders across provincial lines.
- With the priority given to investigations of child sexual exploitation, the Service must ensure that officers have the required training and skills to deal with these crimes and their victims.
- Bill C-16, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (impaired driving) and to make consequential amendments to other Acts*, will provide police officers with the much needed authority to gather evidence of impairment by a drug. However, the necessary training will have serious cost and deployment implications for the Service.
- It is expected that the expanded inventory of DNA samples in the national DNA data bank, as is intended by *An Act to amend the Criminal, the DNA Identification Act and the National Defence Act*, will provide police services with an even more valuable investigative tool. However, the costs of this expansion, particularly the retroactive component, will be considerable to most police services.
- New evidence-gathering mechanisms introduced by Bill C-13, *An Act to amend the Criminal Code (capital markets fraud and evidence-gathering)*, could formalise what is now an informal process and, in turn, have an effect on workload.
- The Service should be prepared to present to the Federal government any concerns with the *Act to amend the Contraventions Act and the Controlled Drugs and Substances*, if enacted.



- The mandatory use of PowerCase software, while offering a potentially valuable investigative tool, will require a substantial commitment of Service resources to input case data, particularly in relation to criteria cases.