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Practical Approaches to Urban Crime Prevention

Proceeding of the Workshop
held at the 12th UN Congress
on Crime Prevention and
Criminal Justice, Salvador,
Brazil, April 12-19, 2010

Edited by
Margaret Shaw
and Vivien Carli

Montreal 2011



UNODC
United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime



Brasil
2010
120 Congresso das
Nações Unidas sobre
Prevenção ao Crime
e Justiça Criminal

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International Centre for the Prevention of Crime

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)

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Edited by:

Margaret Shaw and Vivien Carli,
International Centre for the Prevention of Crime

In collaboration with:

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United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime



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12^o Congresso das
Nações Unidas sobre
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e Justiça Criminal



Canada

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Foreword

The mission of the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) is to help countries and cities increase the safety and security and quality of life of their citizens and communities. It does this by developing and expanding the international knowledge-base on crime prevention and community safety, through research and analysis, by promoting dialogue and exchange of experience and expertise, and by providing technical assistance. It works with a wide range of national and local governments, cities and public agencies, associations, civil society and non-government organizations, and in developing and developed countries.

The Workshop on practical approaches to urban crime prevention organized at the 12th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice in April 2010 was a very concrete example of the expanding international interest in crime prevention. It demonstrated the increasing range and depth of understanding of the need for strategic prevention, and the effectiveness of specific approaches.

As a member of the Programme Network of Institutes affiliated with the UN Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, ICPC works very closely with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and in support of its work, in particular, the UN guidelines on the prevention of crime. This joint publication is itself a tribute to the strength of that continuing relationship. We are certain that the Proceedings of the workshop will help to underline the value of international exchange on crime prevention, and encourage more countries and cities to invest in planning and building safer communities.

Chantal Bernier

President of the Board of Directors
International Centre for the Prevention of Crime

Acknowledgements

The Workshop on practical approaches to urban crime prevention, which took place on April 14th, 2010 in Salvador, Brazil, was a very successful event, due in great measure to the dedicated and supportive input of many people and institutions. This includes the great professionalism and expertise of the speakers, and the high quality of their presentations which stimulated much informed discussion from the floor. The Proceedings of the Workshop capture these experiences and help to move forward the debates and practice of crime prevention in varying urban contexts across cities in different regions of the world.

The Proceedings have been compiled by Margaret Shaw and Vivien Carli of the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) in collaboration with United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), and with funding from the Government of Canada and UNODC. We would like to thank in particular Slawomir Redo, Estela-Maris Deon and Sandra Valle of UNODC in Vienna, and Nivio Nascimento from UNODC in Brazil. The Workshop itself would not have taken place without the support of the Ministry of Justice in Brazil and the governments of Canada and France. We are especially grateful for their commitment throughout the process.

We would like to give special thanks to the National Secretary of Justice Brazil for the exceptional dedication to the success of the Workshop, and to all of the Workshop presenters and co-authors who gave their time so generously. We would also like to thank the participants in the Expert Group Meeting which took place in Montreal in December 2009, for their guidance and insights on the orientation and structure of the Workshop. Finally, we would like to thank our former Director General and colleague Valerie Sagant for her support and commitment throughout the development of the Workshop.

We hope that the Proceedings will initiate much more discussion of the benefits and advantages of promoting crime prevention policies and practices in cities, and of the opportunities which our growing urban populations present for innovative and inclusive strategic interventions.

Reflections on the Congress and Workshop

Levels of urban crime and violence differ from region to region, country to country, regions within a country and areas within a city. The root causes, drivers, risk and protective factors are locality-specific and influenced by historical, political, cultural and socio-economic factors.

The *Workshop on Practical Approaches to Preventing Urban Crime* during the 12th United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice presented successful crime prevention policies and strategies in mega-cities and high crime-rate cities including Sao Paulo, Brazil, Lagos, Nigeria and Cairo, Egypt. It also discussed responses to social exclusion and migration and tools to support crime prevention. Most important, it presented concrete examples of how collaboration between urban planners, civil society, government officials, and different types of police can help to prevent crime.

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime gratefully acknowledges the contribution of the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, implementer of the workshop on urban crime prevention, to fostering increased knowledge of successful crime prevention approaches, policies, tools and techniques.

Especially the prevention of urban violent crime through training and practical counteraction lends itself to a global sharing of information and experience. This publication is helpful in this regard, as much as it should be for charting the way for the crime prevention specialists to apply those approaches, policies, tools and techniques in practice. That practice should further expand, to include to a greater extent than now the training of new cadres of those specialists.

John Sandage,

Executive Secretary of the Congress and
Officer-in-Charge of the UNODC Division for Treaty Affairs

Introduction:

The 21st Century is the century of the city

Margaret Shaw and **Vivien Carli**

This volume brings together the series of presentations and papers delivered during Workshop C on *Practical approaches to the prevention of urban crime*, one of the five official workshops which took place in the context of the 12th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, in Salvador de Bahia, Brazil in April 2010.

Since the UN Congress only takes place every five years, it provides an important and major opportunity to review progress in the application of international norms and standards in crime prevention and criminal justice, and helps to set the agenda for the following five years. This workshop was no exception, and marks some significant shifts in understanding and awareness of crime prevention policy and practice around the world and how it can impact cities.

The workshop was organized by the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) in collaboration with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), UN-HABITAT, and the National Secretary of Justice, Brazil.¹ It was also guided by an international group of experts who met in Montreal in December 2009.²

Since ICPC was founded in 1994 it has worked to promote the development of effective crime prevention internationally. Throughout the past 16 years ICPC has sought to bring together knowledge, expertise and experience on prevention practices around the world. It collaborated with UNODC in organizing two previous Congress workshops on crime prevention: at the 10th Congress in 2000 in Vienna, and at the 11th Congress in 2005 in Bangkok, Thailand. More recently, it has begun to publish, every two years, an international review of developments in crime prevention and community safety.³

For the 12th UN Congress, the workshop priorities were outlined in the 12th Congress Discussion Paper⁴ and the responses from the Regional Preparatory Meetings. The issues which face governments at all levels in relation to crime prevention in cities around the world were also laid out in the Workshop Background Paper.

International standards

The UN Crime Congresses have worked to promote international standards to guide crime prevention and criminal justice since they began in 1955. In 1977 the 4th Congress called for improved crime prevention planning for economic and social development; the theme of the 6th Congress was 'Crime prevention and the quality of life' recognizing the need to reflect the social, political and economic circumstances of countries; the 7th Congress in 1985 adopted a number of standards and norms under the theme 'Crime prevention for freedom, peace and development'.

Two highpoints in the global development of crime prevention have been the adoption by ECOSOC of clear international norms and standards, with the UN Guidelines relating to technical assistance in urban crime prevention in 1995, and on the prevention of crime in 2002, laying out the principles for effective strategies and practice.⁵

We have come a long way in the ten years since the 10th UN Congress in Vienna in 2000, and can see considerable progress in the past five years since the 11th UN Congress in Bangkok in 2005.⁶ The UN Congress workshops themselves illustrate how crime prevention has shifted to a new level, from discussion of community involvement in prevention at the 10th Congress in 2000, examples of urban strategies and strategies with youth at risk at the 11th Congress in 2005, and now at the 12th Congress, demonstration of some effective urban strategies, greater in-depth analysis of the links between urban governance, urban development and citizen security, and a willingness to question, innovate and adapt strategies across mega cities and regions, or in cities or communities experiencing very high levels of violence.

There continues to be a clear evolution in knowledge and practice about crime prevention. Increasing numbers of countries and cities around the world see safety and security for their citizens as essential for development, and for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. They are embedding prevention strategies into their legislation and administrative structures, and the use of problem-oriented rather than regime policing continues to expand. Methods of working, and of collecting and using relevant information, have changed in ways unheard of ten years ago, and many guides and tools to support the development of crime prevention strategies now exist.

Nevertheless, in spite of the advances made over the last few years, we are still a long way from *balancing* the attention – and the resources – devoted to crime prevention with those given to criminal justice. Urban areas continue to grow and expand very rapidly, with all of the difficulties associated with infrastructure and service delivery. Since 2007, the majority of the world's population is now urban rather than rural, and the number of mega cities and mega regions with over 10 to 20 million inhabitants is growing rapidly, especially in low and middle income countries. Such regions pose particular problems for management and governance with a multitude of overlapping jurisdictions and responsibilities.

The extent of crime also varies considerably across regions and cities, influenced by a range of political, cultural, economic and historical factors. Some countries and cities experience very high levels of violence and crime which may appear to restrict their options for developing effective prevention strategies. There are still significant issues relating to historical policing patterns, with poorly resourced and trained police, and traditions of regime support rather than public protection.⁷ The case study from Lagos shows some of the ways in which change in police-public relations can be initiated.

The exclusion of the marginalized

Large proportions of urban populations are **socially and economically excluded**. They live in poverty, lack affordable housing, meaningful employment, or access to good health and education. This includes increasing populations of women and of children and young people growing up in environments which place their safety and future at great risk, and deprive them of legitimate means to participate in the decision-making affecting their lives. It includes those who are migrants and refugees from very different cultures and ethnic backgrounds from their new urban neighbours. In urban settings, crime and violence, often associated with the trafficking of guns, drugs or human beings, can be seen as the only option for many young people, yet it is one which is of huge cost to them, and to their families and communities.

The pressures of rapid urbanization and modernization on cities have also led to the increasing appearance of 'vertical cities', with the rapid replacement of low-level, crowded and 'horizontal' neighbourhoods with skyscrapers and high-rises, and major elevated road systems. This is the case of many cities in China, for example, such as Shanghai or Hong Kong, where areas of the city may now have up to 30 or more high-rise buildings, some with over 100 floors.⁸ These trends call for consideration of the impact on urban life and a sense of community of such areas and buildings. There are significant impacts from the loss of culture, uniqueness, shared history and patterns of relationships beyond the destruction of streets and buildings themselves.⁹ Further, there are very significant issues about how safety and security can be ensured in vertical cities *without* increasing the exclusion of sectors of the population.

Change in cities takes time and is not likely to be uniform. In post conflict settings expectations that democratization and investments in housing and infrastructure will automatically result in reductions in inequalities and crime are often unrealistic. The experience of South African cities post-Apartheid, for example, saw the abandonment of racial housing boundaries and the rationalization of cities into larger municipalities, giving local governments very complex administrative roles which some have struggled to take on.¹⁰ Failures to improve basic housing and services largely dependent on national government have been blamed on local governments. The initial huge increases in crime and violence have resulted in uneven policing, with intensive policing of business and tourist areas and extensive private security in wealthy areas.¹¹ Urban governance in South African cities has been affected by history and culture as well as business interests:

More typical is the situation where *layered* change affects cities, where structure and form from one era inevitably affect what follows and have an impact on later change....we might more accurately look for *adaptability* and *change by accretion* rather than dramatic shift.¹²

Too often official responses to crime, and to the excluded and marginalized, have been reactive, instituting tougher criminal justice responses and harsher penalties, razing poor housing areas, or destroying areas of informal street trading and dispersing the informal traders. Such approaches are often reinforced by public demand, or inscribed in urban planning principles which aim to modernize or sanitize urban spaces. While such responses may bring short-term relief, they do not provide long-term, sustainable solutions to crime reduction or to the socially and economically excluded. The case studies from Cairo, Sao Paulo and Medellin, presented at the Workshop help to illustrate some of the limitations of such approaches.

Urban Challenges or Urban Opportunities?

It has been a strong tendency for many years to stress the challenges and problems inherent in world urban growth and urban population increase. Rather than see such trends only as *challenges*, it is more constructive to conceptualize them as *opportunities* for national and city governments to craft inclusive approaches which respond to the needs of their multiple groups of inhabitants. UN-HABITAT recently declared that 'the 21st Century is the century of the city', and we need to seize the opportunities which are offered by the rapid growth of urban areas.

Making the UN guidelines on crime prevention work was one of the thematic areas discussed by the 12th UN Congress,¹³ and together with the Workshop reinforced some of the conclusions of the 5th *World Urban Forum* organized by UN-HABITAT in Rio de Janeiro in March 2010.¹⁴ The focus of the World Urban Forum was *The Right to the City: Bridging the Urban Divide*. Both events were concerned with raising awareness of the links between urbanization and inequality, and the need to ensure the well-being of societies. As the Executive Director of UN-HABITAT put it:

"How will the world look in just two generations to come when it is projected that 70% of humanity will be living in towns and cities? What percentage will continue to live in abject poverty? How much dirtier will cities make our planet? As we learned this week, the means to bridge the urban divide are not lacking. We must, however, muster the political will to make cities fit for our children, and the time to act is now!"¹⁵

The 12th Congress Workshop addressed these opportunities by showing some of the very concrete ways in which the UN Guidelines on crime prevention are being applied effectively and internationally. Three presentations focused on the issues facing **mega cities** or **mega regions** with examples from Sao Paulo, Lagos, and Cairo, showing how they are responding to rapid growth, and some of the lessons for future interventions. The role of cities as a protective or risk factor for crime was discussed on the basis of UN crime trends. Presentations from Trinidad and Tobago, Colombia and Brazil illustrated the responses of countries and cities to **very high rates of urban crime** and violence, and how they have been able to develop viable strategies which work strategically with local communities.

The Workshop also looked at specific groups who are particularly vulnerable to social and economic exclusion and crime and victimization, **women, young people** and the increasing phenomenon of **migrant populations** in cities who form a minority at varying levels of risk. Presentations included a four-country project on gender-inclusive cities, in which women are using participatory tools to engage with city authorities to improve their safety in public spaces; and initiatives to reduce gender-based violence in post-conflict settings, including through the recruitment of women police.

Two projects developed in some of the most violent city neighbourhoods in Brazil show how through sports and local initiatives, young people are acquiring strong skills, leadership abilities and alternative life styles. Presentations from Italy and Montreal, Canada illustrate how strategic and practical initiatives are being used in cities to help long-time residents and new migrant communities construct cooperative lives together. All of these presentations show how well-planned and carefully implemented and evaluated programmes, which are adapted to local contexts, can reduce crime and violence and increase community safety and the quality of life of urban residents.

Examples of some of the **new tools** which have emerged in the past five years were also presented in the Workshop. Apart from participatory women's safety audits, these include observatories on crime trends, a UN manual on victimization surveys, an international guidance on safety audits, an index of youth vulnerability, and the crime prevention assessment tool and handbooks on crime prevention developed by UNODC. The latter include the *Handbook on Planning and Action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Region* (2008), and the *Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines: Making them Work* (2010) developed with ICPC.

An international teaching curriculum for crime prevention is also currently being developed by UNODC.¹⁶ Such tools can assist countries, governments and practitioners to develop and sustain strategic and effective crime prevention policies and programmes, ones which respects human rights and the rule of law. Technological changes are occurring very fast and offer many opportunities for advancing technical assistance and learning.

The Workshop objectives, discussion and some key conclusions

Overall the objectives of the Workshop were to:

- promote the UN standards and norms in crime prevention and lessons from experience;
- disseminate the increasing range of practical approaches and tools being used by cities, and national and sub-regional governments;
- foster better training and capacity-building for the range of professionals involved in crime prevention;
- enable Member States to assess their own strategies and encourage further implementation of urban crime prevention; and
- identify the priorities for action for urban crime prevention for the next five years.

The presentations stimulated a number of interventions from Member States during the day.¹⁷

In discussion from the floor, a number of countries stressed the significance of **migration** as a factor for urban crime prevention, particularly rural-urban migration. There was a need to develop a reverse migration movement, to encourage people to return to rural areas, and to stimulate the rural economy and services to encourage others to remain there. Specific services were also needed in cities which were targeted to the needs of immigrant groups, including employment, accommodation and reform of household registration. Collaboration between origin and destination countries was also recommended.

In relation to **urban growth**, improving infrastructure, socio-economic development and social housing programmes was a major way to prevent crime. Legal education, awareness raising, the use of mediation services in urban centres, physical and technical prevention in town planning, and neighbourhood security services were all recommended approaches for cities. Microfinance was considered a valuable way to reduce poverty in urban settings.

Human Trafficking was seen as having both internal and external sources and consequences, and it was important to involve both cities and civil society in reducing opportunities for it to flourish. In relation to increasing the effectiveness of strategic planning in cities, it was important to integrate **policing services** in city planning discussions and plans, and to develop community-based policing which includes their involvement beyond formal policing in social and economic development. This may include police working in schools. This will help them gain the respect and trust of communities and build public confidence in the police. Training police and other staff and increasing their up-to-date skills was similarly important, as were **reintegration programmes** for those leaving prison.

Civil society organizations undertake significant social and economic programmes with marginalized sectors, and need to be encouraged and supported by national and local governments. **Empowering women**, through economic and social projects, was recommended as a key urban strategy to prevent crime and violence. It can bring benefits to those women, their families and their communities. In relation to **young people**, the use of national funds to support multi-sector and evidence-based approaches for gang prevention programmes, and a national youth employment scheme were recommended by some Member States.

There were a number of interventions on the need for **better data and data collection**, and the importance of technical assistance to low income countries in particular. Some countries have invested in the development of tools to assist crime prevention planning, including assessment of risk, safety auditing, and the spatial distribution of crime.

The presentations, discussion and recommendations of the Workshop help to underline some significant observations which mark shifts in the progress being made in crime prevention. They include the following:

- Urbanization is not inherently criminogenic, nor is city size necessarily a key factor. It is the *inequality* that urbanization fosters which is criminogenic.
- Cities should be seen as '*spaces of opportunity*' in which to build equality, inclusion, safety and community.
- There is a need to consider urbanization not just in terms of cities, but in terms of the *management and governance of mega cities and regions* or '*cities of cities*'.
- Safety and security are unequally distributed and strategies can be inclusionary or exclusionary.
- Multi-faceted responses and the proper management of resources (eg. environmental, planning, urban regeneration, policing) are key to the prevention and management of urban crime.
- Lessons from some *high crime cities* show that they too present significant opportunities for developing effective strategies in spite of the difficult context. Reverses in progress do not mean that policies have failed, but that they require continual adaptation and innovation.
- Lessons from *low crime cities* suggest that historical and informal area of cities, with their traditional housing and community surveillance patterns, may be much safer places than modern residential areas or planned urban spaces. Urban regeneration should not neglect the importance of social and cultural norms.

- The exclusion of minority or vulnerable populations often includes the restriction of access to public benefits, and the notion of *social urbanism* as a form of crime prevention provides a useful way of conceptualizing an approach which incorporates both urban regeneration and planning and social and economic initiatives to reduce inequalities.
- Highly innovative ways of working with the highest risk young people – excuses to attract attention - continue to demonstrate their effectiveness, and the opportunities they present for reducing both individual and community risks.
- Given the growth of migrant populations in cities, the issue is less one of their integration, but of *how migrant and host communities* can learn to live well together.
- Making public spaces safer for women, and including them in urban planning decisions, will help to create gender equality, as well as change attitudes towards violence against women in both public and private spheres.
- A number of factors which remain constants for the implementation of effective crime prevention were also reinforced by the presentations and discussion:
- The importance of national support for action at the local level.
- The importance of creating and investing in well trained community-based police who work to gain the respect and trust of all sectors of the community.

It is hoped that the proceedings of the Workshop will help to advance the application of international standards in crime prevention for the future, and in particular over the next five years. The remaining section of this introductory chapter provides a brief outline of the workshop presentations and their conclusions.

Morning Session: The Urban Opportunity

Laying the foundations:

Examining practical strategies in urban areas

The morning session of the Workshop was devoted to examples of the ways in which cities have responded to safety concerns. The Workshop was opened with an address by **Dr. Romeu Tuma Junior**, the Chair of the Plenary and Workshop. In his opening remarks, he stressed the links between the 12th UN Congress Workshop and UN-HABITAT's recently completed 5th World Urban Forum – both events focusing on urbanization and the opportunities it affords. He emphasized that governments are increasingly aware of safety as a key component for development and for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Cities still need the support and leadership of national governments. In the case of Brazil, for example, the Government has responded to urban crime by the implementation of a multi-dimensional public safety programme PRONASCI: *The National Programme for Public Security with Citizenship*.

Margaret Shaw, Director of Analysis and Exchange at ICPC, presented an overview of the issues outlined in the Workshop Background Paper and Regional Preparatory Meetings, the objectives and the structure of the day's Workshop.

The **Background Paper** discusses the progress made in applying the UN guidelines in crime prevention, particularly since the 11th UN Congress, and why the issues of urban growth, crime, violence and urban unrest are all such important ones for countries in all regions. Crime is an evolving phenomenon, and as cities, countries and technologies grow, with each new generation of children, families and young people, the continuing and sustained application of good prevention principles is required.

There has been some stabilization in crime trends across parts of the world in recent years, but the huge inequalities and disparities in income between and within countries and cities and their populations, continues to be a major feature of urban life.¹⁸ This is particularly the case in middle and low income countries where most future urban growth will occur. Some 62% of urban populations in Sub-Saharan Africa, for example, and over 50% in cities such as Mumbai, live in what UN-HABITAT term's 'slum cities'.

Levels of violent crime in some regions of the world pose very significant problems for city governments and governance. Repressive criminal justice responses are costly and often fail to provide justice, while defeatism or cynicism is common. A recent analysis in South Africa estimates that it is financially and practically *not feasible* to respond to crime in this way, and that strategic prevention is essential.

Inequalities and exclusion in cities often overlap in multiple ways. Among the excluded populations of cities, young men, especially those aged 15-25 years, are still those most likely to lose their lives to violent crime. They are both the most victimized and the most likely perpetrators of homicide, usually in association with gang activities and drug or human trafficking. Many urban areas are facing the impacts of migration, and incidents of racial victimization are increasingly reported, while racial profiling by the police or government sectors is similarly a growing concern. Violence against women, now more widely recognized as a legitimate concern for governments, continues to increase, and is frequently associated with other disadvantages such as poverty, lack of secure tenure, and human trafficking or violence in conflict and post-conflict settings.

The development and collection of reliable knowledge and data, the mainstreaming of gender issues across all governments sectors, the engagement of civil society working *with* governments, the use of participatory mechanisms, and using problem-oriented and proactive approaches, are all significant ways in which city governments can work to counter these problems.

The Background Paper concludes with a series of suggested recommendations which stem from analysis of the opportunities facing cities, in line with the UN guidelines for crime prevention and other international conventions and protocols, and for achieving the Millennium Development Goals.

The Workshop included a series of **six panels** - three in the morning on 'the urban opportunity' and three in the afternoon on inclusion and some of the prevention tools now developed. Each panel gave an opportunity for some very innovative and outstanding urban case studies and on-going projects, from all regions of the world, to be presented and discussed.

I Mega cities and regions

Haphazard growth and complex, overlapping or uncoordinated administrative systems are some of the characteristics of mega cities and regions. Three presentations discussed what is being done by mega cities and mega regions to build safer communities, and reduce urban inequalities.

Paula Miraglia, Director General of ICPC, presented the case of Sao Paulo, a mega city of 19 million people with 6.5 million vehicles, which is administered by 39 municipalities. Very marked disparities of income, housing and education are evident across the region, as well as rates of crime and violence which similarly relate to urban patterns. Remarkably, there has been a steady and consistent decline in homicide rates between 2000 and 2007 across the region of Sao Paulo. Part of this decline is due to restrictions on the use of firearms, the cause of 80% of homicides, to changes in policing with the development of community policing using civil police, as well as increases in security and in the reclamation of public space. Nevertheless, safety and security strategies vary, and the use of privatized exclusionary practices in high income, largely white areas, contrast with the urban regeneration strategies now being used in poor suburban areas on the periphery of the city. The latter have begun to create more inclusive spaces and communities. The case study underlines the need for more democratic safety and security strategies in cities.

A presentation by **Fola Arthur-Worrey**, Executive Secretary of the Lagos State Security Trust Fund (LSSTF) in Nigeria (in collaboration with **Innocent Chukwuma**, Executive Director of the CLEEN Foundation) examined recent initiatives in the mega city of Lagos, one of the fastest growing cities in the world, with a population of 17.5 million people, and 20 local government areas. Safety and security has until recently been conceived in terms of regime policing rather than public security, with the two approaches working at cross-purposes. Since 1990 when Lagos ceased to be the capital city, there have been serious resource deficits. The lack of resources for the police was in part responsible for the establishment of the LSSTF in 2007 – a public-private partnership to enhance dialogue with the community and help raise resources to support the police and security services.¹⁹ With the help of funds raised in excess of \$27 million, equipment has improved, and response rates to citizen distress calls, and neighbourhood patrolling by the police have both increased in the city. Multi-faceted strategies include an emergency call system, job creation, improved social services, redeveloping public spaces, mechanisms to resolve community tensions, and building a culture of prevention rather than repression through improved relationships with the State police, have all been set up or initiated.

The results of the 2009 *Lagos Crime and Safety Survey*, conducted by the CLEEN Foundation to help evaluate the State government's strategy, suggest that the perception of safety in the city is quite high and has improved since 2004. Experience of both violent crime and theft has been significantly reduced since 2007, confirming official police reports of reduced homicides and robbery. Multi-faceted strategies and the proper management of resources are seen as key to successful crime prevention in a mega city such as Lagos. These findings can be compared with the more recent results of a national victimization survey across Nigeria, which suggests that levels of crime and insecurity are much lower in Lagos than in the rest of the country, as are concerns about police corruption and extra judicial behaviours.²⁰

The case study of Cairo was presented by **Khaled M. Abdelhalim**, Urban Development Unit, GTZ and Helwan University, Egypt (in collaboration with **Dina Shehayeb**). The mega city and metropolitan region of Cairo has a current population of 20 million, and five (competitive) governments. It has grown from 16 million in 2006. Some 50% of the population lives in informal areas, of which 20% comprise slums or deteriorating housing. While reporting rates are low, levels of crime in Cairo are thought to be among the lowest in the world, probably reflecting socio-cultural norms as well as traditional housing and community surveillance patterns. Crime tends to be area specific, with historical and informal areas often among the safest, contrary to popular expectation, in comparison with planned new housing areas, or under-surveilled peripheral streets where crime is higher.

The city suffers from highly fragmented government and poor quality of services, and trust in the police tends to be low among the poorer populations. Despite the low overall crime rates, traditional patterns of living and the informal settlements in particular are regarded by planners as impeding development, with many settlements targeted for demolition in the proposed *Strategic Plan - Cairo 2050*. The implications of the proposed changes are seen as likely to increase the social divide between populations, reduce the natural surveillance and social controls of the older and informal settlements, encourage social unrest with large-scale population displacement, and increase fear of crime and the actual incidence of crime. Urban planning needs to recognize the pivotal role of social and cultural norms, and explore ways to improve and redevelop areas that do not exclude poorer populations, and community consultation is an essential component of that process.

II High crime cities

Countries which experience very high rates of crime and violence often resort, perhaps not surprisingly, to increasingly repressive measures. They are less likely to invest in crime prevention strategies than other countries. Yet there is considerable evidence that repressive approaches are both very costly, and ineffective, in increasing the safety and security of citizens. There is evidence from a number of high crime cities that they have been able to develop viable and effective strategies to reduce crime levels, often working strategically with local communities. Among other things this requires cities to develop good data systems and information on which to plan their strategies.

Steven Malby, Research Officer at the United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC) in Vienna, Austria, considered the role of urbanization as a protective or a risk factor in crime and violence. Drawing on the results of the United Nations crime surveys, he uses homicide data to show the variations within and between countries in levels of urban violence, as well as protection. In some countries, the largest cities have crime rates well above the national average, in others below. He underlines the importance of basing policy decisions in crime prevention on good knowledge, drawn from police and public health records and crime victimization surveys. Nevertheless, the availability and quality of record keeping varies enormously between regions and sub-regions and countries, and these problems are multiplied at the city level. Good data collection is an important tool for identifying the main issues and needs of a city. Crime victimization surveys offer a base of knowledge for developing and updating urban management strategies, improving security methods, monitoring crime rates over time, and evaluating the efficiency of national policies, as UNODC's recent Manual on victimization surveys highlights.

Gregory Sloane-Seale, Ministry of National Security, Trinidad and Tobago provided an account of the six-year *Citizen Security Programme* (CSP) established in 2006. These small islands have populations of 54,000 (Tobago) and 1.3 million (Trinidad), of which 300,000 live in Port of Spain. They have faced increasing rates of serious violence, especially since 2000. Much of this increase has been driven by external factors associated with the international drug trade. Rates of homicide have increased from 100 in 2000 to over 500 a year by 2008-9, while rates of detection and convictions for serious crimes have dropped.

The CSP aims to prevent and reduce violence and crime in 22 partner communities, using a multi-sector approach. The programme brings together government, civil society, the police, the media and civil society organizations to work on a 7 step programme that identifies the problems, and gradually builds community awareness and capacity to effect social change. These steps aim to nurture vulnerable individuals and cultivate community leaders, while reducing fear and insecurity, sensitizing the police and the media, and helping to eliminate a culture of violence. A major component of the programme involves police capacity-building, providing them with peer and social work supports, involvement in collaborative community projects, specialized training and improved equipment. Programme implementation has not been easy, and crime displacement, the presence of illegal guns on the street, and the need to overcome bureaucracy, are some of the factors which the project is now beginning to tackle.

The city of Medellin in Colombia provides an outstanding case study of how a local government has successfully reduced high levels of violent crime and increased social equality. **Bernardo Perez**, Advisor to UN-HABITAT, Colombia, referred to the process of *social urbanism* as a crime prevention strategy. A relatively small city, Medellin's population of 2.6 million lies within a metropolitan area of 3.6 million. Its recent history since the 1980's is reflected in very high murder rates, with cycles of war against the Medellin drug cartel, urban conflict and paramilitary control of city areas. The government regained control of 'no-go' areas and established a disarmament and reintegration process for the paramilitary groups in 2003-2005. The reduction of violence in turn exposed significant urban inequalities in the city, including informal settlements, lack of community cohesion, anti-poor sentiments and mistrust of the State police.

The mayor of Medellin and his task force instituted a multi-sector strategy which recognized the value of the informal settlements and instituted flexible approaches to raise their standards. This included high quality social investment and physical upgrading of public spaces and services including public transport, on-site relocation of social housing, and working to change social norms in favour of social inclusion of the poor and minority groups, and to reduce opportunities for crime. Social participation and community action were also institutionalized. Some of the most visible signs are the public libraries in the informal areas and the *Metrocable* linking them to the city centre, and the marked reduction in rates of homicide and other crimes. Uncompromising political commitment to social inclusion on the part of the mayor, and very assured management are seen as critical to the success of the strategy, and have in turn helped trigger public participation and confidence in collective action.

III A national response

Two final presentations in the morning session outlined Brazil's national programme of public security, and the *Youth Vulnerability Index*, a tool developed to aid policy implementation in municipalities.

Ronaldo Teixeira, Ministry of Justice in Brazil, presented PRONASCI, Brazil's National Programme for Public Security with Citizenship. The programme was initiated in 2007 with the overall aim of reducing the high rate of homicide in Brazil. It represents a conceptual change for the federal government to focus on prevention not repression, working with local governments, and encouraging community participation. The programme involves structural investment to improve the criminal justice and correctional system, increase access to justice, and strengthen the capacities of the police and other professionals. It also introduces a series of targeted funding programmes at the local level which support interventions to strengthen families, and reduce community conflict and youth violence. The funding programmes encourage municipalities to invest in safety and security which is tailored to their needs, rather than relying on higher levels of government, and requires them to establish integrated management offices. PRONASCI has shown a number of promising results so far in reductions in police corruption, trafficking of humans and arms, violence against women, and increased collaboration between national and local governments.

Reinaldo Gomes, Ministry of Justice in Brazil, presented the *Youth Vulnerability Index*, a major tool created as part of the Youth and Adolescent Prevention of Violence initiative and PRONASCI. It was developed in partnership with civil society organizations including ILANUD Brazil,²¹ and the Brazilian Forum for Public Security. The Index was constructed on the basis of information collected from surveys from municipalities. It includes youth experiences of violence, and perceptions of their risk. The Index enables municipalities to assess their levels of youth vulnerability and locate the most vulnerable youth, to guide the development of socio-educational programmes.

Afternoon Session: Inclusion and Tools for Action

IV Gender inclusion and integrating young people

The experience of women and girls growing up in cities is strongly influenced by cultural and social patterns. They often have fewer tenure rights than men, less earning capacity or job security, and carry the burden of child rearing and family care. They are especially vulnerable to sexual violence. Two presentations focused on projects which aim to increase the integration of women in local services and decision-making, and build their capacities.

Sohail Husain, Project Evaluator (United Kingdom) (in collaboration with Project Consultant **Kalpana Viswanath** (Delhi, India)) outlined the *Gender Inclusive Cities Project*. This 3-year initiative in four countries is being funded by the United Nations Trust Fund. Its focus is on the inclusion of women in urban planning and local decision-making to increasing their safety and security. The project involves partnerships between non-government organizations and local women in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, New Delhi, India, Petrozavodsk, Russia, and Rosario, Argentina, and with Women and Cities International, based in Montreal, Canada.

A combination of tools has been developed to gather information, including participatory women's safety audits, focus groups and street surveys on crime and victimization, and reviews of existing policies, all of them help to map gender exclusion. The model allows for a consistent approach but with local flexibility. The results of the first year show some wide variations between cities in the types of violence and harassment experienced by women. Based on the findings, subsequent phases of the project will involve collaboration between the women and local authority and other service stakeholders, to establish interventions to improve women's safety.

Gender-based violence is a particular concern in conflict and post-conflict situations. A number of prevention strategies have been implemented in collaboration with UN Peacekeeping forces. **Andrew Carpenter**, with UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations, New York, discussed the importance of increasing the number of female police officers in peacekeeping operations as well as national police forces. Of the 13,000 UN police officers currently involved in such operations, only 8% are female. Increasing the representation of women in police services aims to help countries provide women and children with greater protection from violence and abuse, as well as increase community trust in the police. Strategies have included support for gender mainstreaming in host country police, awareness raising, training local police to respond to cases of sexual assault, the adoption of policies protecting women against sexual exploitation, harassment and abuse, and setting up specialized police units for women and children. These have helped change attitudes towards women police, and increase awareness of violence against women. A series of toolkits, training courses and guides on gender and security sector reform have been developed.

Integrating young people

Homicide rates in Brazil are among the highest in the world, and young men have been the primary victims, and perpetrators. Two presentations by Brazilian non-government organizations focused on their innovative work with youth living in high risk neighbourhoods.

Gabriela Pinheiro, from *Luta pela Paz or Fight for Peace*, in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil outlined the work of the organization in preventing child and youth violence and crime. *Fight for Peace* uses sport (boxing) to instil a culture of peace and citizenship among young people in high risk neighbourhoods. *Fight for Peace* began working in Rio de Janeiro in 2000 in areas controlled by three drug trafficking groups, some of the poorest and most violent areas in the city. The organization has developed the 'Five Pillar' system involving boxing and martial arts, education and personal development, access to the labour market, youth support services, and youth leadership. These help build confidence self-respect and abilities, providing alternatives to recruitment into crime and violence. In 2007 the approach was extended and adapted to communities in East London in the U.K., where some of the risk factors for violence are the same. Evaluation of the project in both settings confirms its very positive impacts on young people's lives.

Denis Mizne, Executive Director of the *Instituto Sou da Paz*, in Sao Paulo, Brazil presented the *Peace Squares Project*. The project began in 2003 and aims to promote community cohesion and inclusion, and a culture of peace. It targets young people in their early 20's, usually living on the outskirts of cities where very high levels of violence are concentrated. It uses a participatory approach to start the process and gain some trust in the community - the development of safe public squares - before moving on to work more closely with the

young people, providing them with a range of skills and training so that they themselves become community leaders able to interact with the local authorities. Staff and community members identify physical areas which can be converted for local use; facilitate local meetings and the setting of priorities, and young people in the community are trained to manage the spaces and sustain the activities. A number of squares have now been built in different areas. The project has helped to reduce levels of fear and insecurity, promote citizenship and influence public policy in revitalizing slum areas, and is thus much more than simply a revitalization or environmental upgrading programme.

V Integrating migrant and local communities

The increasing pace of migration both within and between countries and cities raises concerns in many regions. Traditionally, the issue is viewed as a one-sided problem, requiring the newcomers to 'become like' their hosts. In reality what is required is for both existing populations and migrants to learn to adapt and live with each other. Two presentations focused on projects which aim to reconcile the needs of their migrant and existing indigenous populations, and help to integrate the communities.

Fady Dagher, Chief of Division, Community Relations, Research and Corporate Communications Division at the Montreal Police Service (SPVM), and former Commandant of station 30 in the City of Montreal, Canada, presented a police-initiated project in one of the poorest boroughs in Montreal, Saint Michel. Saint Michel has high rates of unemployment and poverty and is an isolated and neglected area. Rates of teen pregnancies, youth street gangs, gang-related prostitution, and violent crime are all above average for the region. The low cost of housing means that it also attracts new immigrants to Canada. Piecemeal initiatives have failed to impact the borough's problems. The police sought to develop a common 'global vision' of prevention as a sustainable and productive way of tackling social problems in the area, including those experienced by immigrants and immigrant youth, by bringing together stakeholders and community members.

Monthly 'working together' meetings are spearheaded by the Saint Michel police with a task force including the mayor, service providers, community groups, youth, and mothers from the community, to identify priority needs in the community. A series of objectives and initiatives have been established with responsibilities clearly identified including outreach programmes, language courses, cultural festivals, and developing more positive media relations. The police actively engage with the community in sports and other events, and have increased their presence in terms of community policing. Between 2004 and 2009 there have been significant reductions in emergency calls, reports of harassment and assault and no evidence of crime displacement.

Fabio Sorgoni, Programme Manager at *On the Road Association*, part of *Nova Consortium* in Italy, discussed the new approach taken to support marginalized and vulnerable groups across the country, many of whom include trafficking victims, immigrants and refugees. In particular, he argues for a policy and conceptual shift from *target groups* (drug addicts, prostitutes, homeless etc.) to *target places*, what he terms 'spatial welfare'. This allows policy and practice to focus on the places where the marginalized live, and their often multiple issues (addicted, trafficked, homeless). While the proportion of migrants in some of the biggest Italian cities may range from 10-15% in some areas of those cities, they constitute up to 30-40% of the population, and tend to be victims rather than offenders. Spatial welfare recognizes that the consequences of social exclusion and isolation are often

to force people into 'non-places', such as traffic junctions. Specific projects have been established to work on trains, at railway stations and ports.

Apart from providing basic welfare services, conflict mediation and intercultural mediation also form a major component of the work. A multi-agency approach (working with town planners, local government, service providers and other organizations) is used to develop projects such as those on anti-trafficking or to sensitize Italian communities to issues facing migrants, and reduce racism and exclusion. One intercultural mediation project in Rome, for example, brought together immigrant Chinese and Italian communities to work together to improve the quality of their neighbourhood. Thus a combination of community building, using a bottom-up approach, combined with town planning, integration policies and spatial welfare, are helping to prevent social tension and crime and victimization, and encourage greater social cohesion.

VI New tools to support the application of crime prevention

In the past five years a number of new tools to aid the development of crime prevention strategies have been completed or become more widely used. They aim to assess, evaluate and promote crime prevention in national and local settings, and are designed to facilitate or increase the amount of information and knowledge, enabling evidence-based decisions to be made. They include 'observatories' or monitoring centres which collect and collate data, information and good practices at regional, national or local government levels; safety audits which are designed to be used by municipalities or neighbourhoods to aid crime prevention planning; assessment tools to help identify the crime prevention needs of a country; handbooks on implementing the UN guidelines on crime prevention, and teaching curricular.

Slawomir Redo of the Division for Operations at the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) in Vienna, Austria, outlined the *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* completed in 2009 by ICPC and UNODC. The Tool is intended to aid UN donor agencies, national governments and civil society in assessing country needs, strengths and weaknesses, to help identify priority technical assistance needs. The Tool is a component of the *Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit*, and intended to be a dynamic tool which can be adapted to local needs. It forms part of UNODC's larger goal to promote self-assessment of crime prevention by Member States. He also discussed the increasing range of academic and e-learning crime prevention courses now becoming available, as well as electronic training and field-level training courses, all of which incorporate the UN norms and standards.

Aida Santos Escobar, President of the *National Council of Public Security* in El Salvador, outlined the *Central American Observatory Project on Violence (OCAVI)*. Initially created in 2006, the regional observatory is located in El Salvador as host country. Its role is to observe and study youth violence, and promote a regional strategy for violence prevention, and the rehabilitation of vulnerable adolescents in conflict with the law. It enables Central American governments to assess and measure violent behaviour, and acts as a mechanism for improving data collection techniques, promoting the exchange of information, and developing appropriate violence prevention programmes. El Salvador has itself now created a national observatory which brings together eleven sectors across government, and a series of 24 municipal observatories, each of which collates data and undertakes local safety audits to assess their needs, and in turn feeds data to the national level.

Sohail Husain, Director of Analytica in Hampshire, England, discussed the *Guidance on Local Safety Audits*, developed by the *European Forum for Urban Safety* for international use with support from the Government of Canada. Safety audits are increasingly being used at the city level as a systematic and effective diagnostic tool for crime prevention. They help to identify issues and needs in the local context, victimized and vulnerable groups, risk factors contributing to problems, and the kinds of initiatives or services which can help to reduce them. Audits have an 'action' component in that in the process of conducting one they help to build partnerships, and a common understanding on what needs to be done. The *Guidance* is intended for use by policy makers, city managers and practitioners and provides practical advice on how to conduct and use audits and data collection, and overcome some of the challenges for transferring knowledge into practice.

The final presentation by **Ricardo Balestreri**, Former National Secretary of Public Security, Ministry of Justice, Brazil, concerned the innovative national programme of *distance learning* and training developed for the police. With some 40,000 homicides a year in Brazil, public security is in an on-going crisis situation. It requires the police to go beyond their formal role and become more pro-active, think strategically, and work more closely with communities. There needs to be transformative understanding on the part of the police. The distance learning programme, which began in 2007 has a core basis of human rights, and involves a national network of 66 universities running 80 graduate courses in public security. It is supported by an annual investment of \$600 million. Courses begin every four months, with 2000 people a month registered for practical courses. Some 3000 are in the specialist graduate programme in public security, and many receive bursaries to take part. So far over 500,000 police have completed some form of training.

Final discussion, conclusions and recommendations of the workshop

Valerie Sagant, the Outgoing Director General of ICPC, Canada, summarized the workshop presentations and discussion by outlining four principle themes which had emerged. The first was that *urbanization* itself does not constitute a criminogenic factor. Rather it is the inequalities within cities, in terms of the living conditions and relationships, which help to generate crime and victimization in the urban setting.

Secondly, she highlighted the importance of *mobilization of the community* and of social inclusion. This includes notions of the 'co-production of security' initially developed by the French Mayor Giles Bonnemaïson, one of the founders of ICPC, and the centrality of developing good relations between the police and all citizens.

Thirdly, she noted the prevalence of the use of *integrated approaches at the local level*, which formed the basis for much of the work presented from Medellin, Lagos, Montreal and in Italian cities for example.

Finally, she underlined the importance of giving *priority* to prevention strategies, both in terms of its short and long term benefits and cost effectiveness.

Workshop

on Practical Approaches to Preventing Urban Crime

Background paper^{*} ^{**}

Summary

The present background paper includes a summary of some key trends in urban growth and crime in cities, and recent crime prevention practices and tools. It outlines the reasons why the international community, Member States and local governments should pay much greater attention to investing in crime prevention in urban areas.

Some of the challenges for urban areas, in particular mega-cities and high crime cities are outlined, such as the exclusion of segments of the urban population, including slum dwellers, minority and migrant groups and women. Some of the recent achievements and developments in integrated crime prevention policy and practice in urban areas are highlighted, such as participatory approaches to integrating excluded population segments, as well as tools and technological advancements in strategic intervention, learning and capacity-building. Examples are given of good practice in applying international standards and norms in crime prevention.

In keeping with relevant United Nations instruments on crime prevention, the United Nations Millennium Declaration and the Bangkok Declaration on Synergies and Responses: Strategic Alliances in Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, the background paper contains a number of suggestions on enhancing crime prevention in urban settings, as well as suggestions aimed at increasing the exchange of information, experiences and technical assistance at the international, regional and local levels.

* A/CONF.213/14.

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I. Introduction

1. At the regional preparatory meetings for the Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (A/CONF.213/RPM.1/1, A/CONF.213/RPM.2/1, A/CONF.213/RPM.3/1 and A/CONF.213/RPM.4/1), a number of recommendations were made for the Workshop on Practical Approaches to Preventing Urban Crime. They emphasized that prevention required comprehensive and multi-sectoral responses not only from the criminal justice sector, but also from the urban planning and development, health and education and employment and social development sectors. There was a focus on the need to look at ways to reduce the impact of urban crime and victimization on those living in slums and disadvantaged areas and on migrant families and workers, ethnic minorities and women in particular, as well as ways to increase prevention initiatives to support children and young people through employment, education and reintegration programmes. The active involvement of citizens and the private sector in national and local government initiatives was strongly encouraged, as well as the use of participatory approaches.
2. Over the past two decades, there has been a marked increase in awareness of the need for crime prevention to be an integral part of sub-regional, national and local government responsibilities. That is well reflected at the international level in the numerous resolutions and recommendations emanating from the sessions of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice and the United Nations congresses on crime prevention and criminal justice since 1990.
3. Crime prevention was an important component at the Eleventh United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, held in Bangkok from 18-25 April 2005, which considered a background paper entitled “Workshop 3: Strategies and Best Practices for Crime Prevention, in particular in relation to Urban Crime and Youth at Risk” (A/CONF.203/11 and Corr.1). In the Bangkok Declaration on Synergies and Responses: Strategic Alliances in Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (General Assembly resolution 60/177, annex), adopted by the Eleventh Congress, Member States stressed the need to consider measures to prevent the expansion of urban crime, including by improving international cooperation and capacity-building for law enforcement and the judiciary in that area, and affirmed their determination to pay particular attention to juvenile justice.

Progress since the holding of the Eleventh United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice

4. Two sets of normative guidelines have been adopted by the United Nations: the guidelines for cooperation and technical assistance in the field of urban crime prevention (Economic and Social Council resolution 1995/9, annex), and the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime (Council resolution 2002/13, annex). In its resolution 2005/22, the Council requested the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) to pay due attention to crime prevention, with a view to achieving a balanced approach between crime prevention and criminal justice responses and to further developing initiatives on crime prevention. The Commission at its sixteenth session considered a report of the Secretary-General (E/CN.15/2007/11) containing a summary of the results

of a questionnaire sent to Member States on the use and application of United Nations standards and norms related primarily to the prevention of crime. In its resolution 2008/24, the Council recalled that the General Assembly, in its resolution 62/175, had drawn attention to urban crime as an emerging policy issue. In the same resolution, the Council encouraged Member States to integrate crime prevention considerations into all relevant social and economic policies and programmes in order to effectively address the conditions in which crime and violence could emerge. Tools to assist in the application of the norms and standards in crime prevention have recently been developed by UNODC.

5. The above-mentioned resolutions reflect the growth of knowledge and expertise among Governments, international donors, practitioners, researchers and civil society organizations in relation to crime prevention. They also reflect the growth of the exchange and technical assistance work being undertaken by the institutes of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme network.
6. Some significant shifts in understanding have also been evident over the past few years in relation to the Millennium Development Goals. It is now widely recognized that without ensuring the safety and security of citizens, the eight development goals will not be achieved, and countries will not be able to gain economic and social prosperity. That has been demonstrated in recent reports by UNODC on the impact of crime on countries in various regions and sub-regions, such as *Crime and Development in Africa*, published in 2005; *Crime and Development in Central America: Caught in the Crossfire*;²² *Crime, Violence and Development: Trends, Costs and Policy Options in the Caribbean*, published in 2007; and *Crime and Its Impact on the Balkans and Affected Countries*, published in 2008.
7. Recognition of the importance of promoting crime prevention is increasingly evident at the international level. The World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank, for example, now incorporate improvements to local safety and security in their objectives and programmes.²³ The World Health Organization (WHO), since the publication of its *World Report on Violence and Health* in 2002, has been working to promote a comprehensive approach to violence prevention that includes the work of development agencies.²⁴
8. In its *World Drug Report 2009*,²⁵ UNODC placed strong emphasis on the seriousness of the impact of drug-related crime on cities and young people and on the importance of developing prevention and treatment responses. It argued that a breakdown of public order in neighbourhoods where drugs were sold underlined the need for greater investment in making communities less vulnerable to drugs and crime, through improving housing, public services, jobs, education and recreation.
9. What seems clear, therefore, is that there has been considerable evolution and progress since 1990 in the application of preventive rather than just repressive approaches to crime and violence and that much has been achieved in the actual reduction of crime in a number of countries. Nevertheless, crime is also an evolving phenomenon, closely linked to, among other things, the nature of the growth of countries and cities, and to each new generation of children and young people and their families. It requires the continuing and sustained application of good prevention principles.

10. The Workshop on Strategies and Best Practices for Crime Prevention, in particular in relation to Urban Crime and Youth at Risk, held within the framework of the Eleventh Congress, and the compendium of promising strategies and programmes on urban crime prevention and youth at risk²⁶, provided valuable examples of innovative and effective practices in countries in all regions, including countries emerging from conflict. The Workshop on Practical Approaches to Preventing Urban Crime, to be held within the framework of the Twelfth Congress, will present on opportunities to examine more closely how prevention can be better applied in mega-cities and high-crime cities to counter social exclusion, as well as to identify some of the tools that can be used in that process. Preventing urban crime is a timely topic in that since 2007, for the first time, the majority of the world's population has been living in cities.
11. Over the past decade, there has been a broad trend towards the stabilization of crime in some regions of the world, but it is unequally distributed, and crime and violence continue to be major concerns in urban areas, especially in large cities in developing countries.²⁷ Urbanization itself is not the significant factor, but the speed of urbanization, the inability of cities to provide sufficient infrastructure and the widening disparities in income and access to services among their populations create conditions that foster crime. They limit access to adequate housing and health services, education, training and employment, all of which support personal, social and economic development. The Workshop on Practical Approaches to Preventing Urban Crime is also an opportunity to benefit from recent advances in prevention and from some of the technological advancements, tools and practical measures that have emerged in the past few years.

II. Challenges for urban areas: mega-cities and high-crime cities

A. The growth of the mega-city and the challenges for developing countries

12. The twenty-first century is the century of the city. The global urban population is currently greater than the entire world population in 1960. Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, North America and Oceania have all become highly urbanized, more than 70 per cent of their total populations living in cities since 2005. By 2030, it is expected that 50 per cent of the populations of Africa and Asia will be living in urban areas. Urban areas in developing countries are expected to be the sites of nearly all future population growth worldwide. Cities are hubs in a web of global communication, transport and economic activity; thus, they are focal points for internal and international migration. Domestic migration from rural areas to urban centres is a feature of developed and developing countries, but especially of developing countries. International migrants, whether legal or illegal, tend to gravitate towards major cities.
13. Not only are most people now living in cities, but there are increasing numbers of mega-cities, with populations of 10 million or more. The number of mega-cities with populations of over 20 million is also growing. Most of the world's biggest cities are in developing countries: this includes 15 of the 20 cities with 10 million or more inhabitants, and the figure is expected to rise to 18 out of 22 such cities by 2015.²⁸ It is now possible to talk of "cities of cities", and of the importance of considering

the impact of city centres on their peripheries, on adjacent cities, and on their regions. Examples of such complex mega-cities include Lagos, Shanghai, São Paulo and Mumbai.²⁹ In some cases, mega-cities are also national capitals or administrative centres, which — apart from being engines for economic growth and employment — facilitate the transfer of information and money, with their advanced telecommunications systems, and act as transportation hubs for the hinterland.

14. Thus, while many mega-cities are engines for economic growth and centres of diversity and change, they also pose formidable challenges for Governments in ensuring the safety and security of their citizens and the quality of those citizens' lives. The anonymity provided by cities can allow organized crime to flourish and provide opportunities for corruption through the intersection of organized crime and the political and economic elite. Law enforcement "no-go" areas in some districts facilitate local and organized crime, and slums and informal settlements place their residents at high risk of exploitation and victimization. It is, therefore, the appropriate time to consider at the international level the specific case of mega-cities and the issues facing them in terms of developing and maintaining strategic crime prevention policies. The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) suggests that good governance involves three basic conditions: effective leadership, efficient financing and effective citizen participation, conditions which are also fundamental to good strategic crime prevention.³⁰

B. Growing social and spatial inequalities

15. High levels of inequality in cities can lead to negative social, economic and political consequences that have a destabilizing impact on societies.³¹ Cities are becoming more unequal in a number of ways. Cities in Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean have some of the highest levels of income inequality in the world, and such inequality is increasing and becoming entrenched. Cities in Asia and North Africa tend to be more equal than those in other regions and sub-regions. However, in East Africa and North Africa, levels of youth unemployment have risen over the past 10 years and are among the highest in the world. Such inequalities of income, combined with unplanned and rapid growth, have led to a number of related inequalities, including inequalities resulting from spatial patterns of land use and tenure and access to public spaces and transport, as well as social and economic inequalities in terms of decision-making and citizenship, access to health and education, and safety and security.
16. Many mega-cities include a significant slum population. Some 62 per cent of urban populations in sub-Saharan Africa, for example, live in slums and what UN-HABITAT refers to as "slum cities". It is often the case that slum communities are overcrowded and their inhabitants have no security of tenure, limited access to water and sanitation, poor structures and little say regarding the decisions that affect their lives. In 2001, the slum population of Greater Mumbai accounted for over half the population of the city, and just under half of the land occupied by the slum population was privately owned.³² The experience of the slum inhabitants who were forcibly evicted and resettled in the outskirts of New Delhi suggests that resettlement does not always occur as promised or planned.³³

17. Urban crime is unevenly distributed and experienced in cities, whether it is violence associated with drug trafficking, trafficking in human beings, youth gangs or public spaces. It affects safety in homes, schools, commercial establishments, public transport, and sports and other public venues. Fear of crime affects people's lives in significant ways and helps increase inequalities. Concern about crime can drive wealthier populations out of city centres into segregated and enclosed private suburbs, creating "fortified enclaves for home, leisure and work".³⁴
18. In all cities, regardless of their size, on the basis of the way it is often publicly reported and discussed, crime is seen as affecting primarily the wealthier residents. In reality, it affects the lives of the most disadvantaged, especially those living in slums and informal settlements, much more than others. Slum dwellers are among the most vulnerable: they are less likely to be able to secure their homes and property and often have poor police oversight or access to services; and because they have few resources, any loss or disruption is more costly to them. In São Paulo, for example, the homicide rate in the densely populated peripheries was over 110 per 100,000 inhabitants in the late 1990s, compared with under 15 per 100,000 in the central districts of the city.³⁵
19. Further, access to safety, security and justice is often unequally distributed in cities. Responses to urban crime have tended to be reactive and repressive, as evidenced by the use of *mano dura* responses to youth violence in some parts of the world. There has also been an increasing tendency in countries in some regions to criminalize behaviour seen as uncivil or antisocial, and to use exclusionary legislation and regulations and other measures to exclude certain segments of the population and privatize public space. The use of "strategies of protection" to preserve the safe and secure character of an area, to privatize space or exclude those who appear to be "outsiders" has become very common in some urban areas. This is in contrast to prevention strategies, which are aimed at increasing safety and security through inclusion and community mobilization, better services and transport and the provision of green and public spaces — not to "keep people out".
20. For mega-cities, examining the distribution of inequalities in the central part of the city and its surrounding area can lead to some interesting conclusions beyond stereotypes of wealth and poverty. Not all slums are equally dangerous places, nor are all residents of slums and poor areas equally victimized. Looking at some of the differences in terms of community capacity and social capital, the provision of services and access to transport, as well as rates of crime in such regions, can help in identifying a range of responses.

C. The experience of high-crime cities and communities

21. Levels of crime in some developing countries pose very significant problems for municipal governments. The seriousness of the crime, and the rate at which it takes place, make particular demands on governments which most developed countries do not face. Rates of homicide in developed countries generally range from 0.5 to 2 or 3 per 100,000 inhabitants and from 20 to over 50 per 100,000 in some developing countries.³⁶ High levels of homicide, violent assault, rape, robbery, hijacking and kidnapping, and gang-related armed violence, as well as the level of public fear that they create and their impact on investment or economic decisions, can all lead to sustained demands for rapid and decisive action. This makes it difficult for governments to invest in and implement strategic prevention policies and can lead to a sense of cynicism about the government and the justice system and fatalism, as people begin to believe that little can be done. The media often plays a major role in exacerbating insecurity by referring constantly to violent events, reinforcing stereotypical views of victims and victimizers and poor and wealthy areas and giving limited attention to any progress made in implementing programmes or to successful project outcomes.
22. As with mega-cities in general, high levels of inequality, together with accelerated privatization of security and public spaces, are often a feature of high crime societies. Gated communities and semi-public spaces, increasing use of technological security such as closed-circuit television, and the proliferation of private security guards are all common reactions and features of high-crime cities.³⁷
23. In Central American countries, the increase in rates of homicide has been associated with geographical vulnerability, as those countries are used as transit areas for illicit drug consignments. In other cases, such an increase has been attributed to or linked with high levels of unemployment (especially among people in the most crime-prone age groups), a history of violent conflict resolution and ineffective criminal justice capacity.³⁸ Impunity becomes a significant issue, for example, when only an estimated 2 per cent of homicides in Guatemala result in conviction, and when prison capacity is saturated. It has been estimated that in South Africa, a country with considerable resources and criminal justice capacity, if all the serious crimes committed were dealt with, the criminal justice system would collapse. The police, prosecution services and court system could not deal with the caseload, and there is already little spare prison capacity.³⁹ Financially and practically, it is not feasible to respond to crime with deterrent and judicial measures alone.

III. Exclusion, urban unrest and minorities

24. A common concern for all governments in urban areas is how to respond to urban unrest. Protests and demonstrations that become violent, or unrest resulting from perceived infractions by the authorities, for example, can lead to strong and authoritarian responses by the government. Inequalities and perceived lack of action in the provision of necessities such as housing, water and sanitation or transport systems, police brutality or racist attitudes are some of the major contributors to urban unrest. Traditional responses have tended to be reactive and repressive. This has been a common response to protests by slum dwellers faced with eviction for city development plans.⁴⁰ Thus many protests in fast-growing urban areas and mega-cities relate to populations excluded from decision-making and meaningful consultation. Corruption and abuse of power and impunity on the part of the police are further factors increasing the sense of exclusion in poorer segments of the population.

A. Excluding young people and migrant communities

25. Still forming a majority of the population in many developing countries and cities, young people continue to face exclusion and discrimination. Relations with the police and security forces are often very poor, with little trust in the police among populations in slums and informal settlements. Young people in disadvantaged areas of cities, street children and persons already in gangs have limited access to schools, legitimate employment and alternative lifestyles. Tough sentences and incarceration increase their exclusion and reduce their chances of being reintegrated as productive members of their societies.

26. Given that much urban population growth results from migration, many persons living in the most vulnerable circumstances are likely to be subject to exclusion and victimization, both as newcomers and as ethnic and cultural minorities. This applies to many legal and illegal migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, and trafficked persons. The growth of minority populations is a significant feature of cities in developed countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States of America and in Western Europe. Migrant minority populations form a significant sector of the slum populations in South African and other African cities. Yet in Southern Africa, international migrants are generally seen as temporary residents and there are no comprehensive policies to facilitate integration.⁴¹

27. Even with the development of anti-discrimination policies, and some policies of integration and inclusion, such minority status can still lead to discrimination, racism and exploitation. A recent European Union survey of discrimination in 27 countries found high levels of racist crime and victimization reported by minority ethnic groups. It was highest among Roma and sub-Saharan Africans (20 per cent and 19 per cent respectively reported victimization) and Muslims from a variety of backgrounds (10 per cent).⁴² Racist victimization (in terms of assault, threats or serious harassment) was widely underreported because of lack of belief that the police could do anything about it, the perception that it was normal or lack of knowledge on how to report such incidents.

28. Another concern in cities in recent years is racial profiling: the tendency among the police in particular to stop and apprehend members of minority groups far more frequently than other members of the population.⁴³

B. Women's safety

29. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women⁴⁴ commits States to undertake measures to end discrimination against women in all its forms. Violence against women is an issue of gender equality and public health with significant social and economic consequences for women and their families and for cities. It includes physical and sexual violence or threats in the home and in public spaces, as a consequence of trafficking for sexual or labour exploitation or because of migrant and minority status. Recent attention has been drawn to the increase in "femicide", including that of migrant and indigenous women, and the failure of cities to take action in relation to the disappearance or deaths of marginalized women (A/61/122/Add.1 and Corr.1).
30. Trafficking in women and girls has received greater attention in recent years, but it continues to grow and is an activity well-suited to cities and anonymous urban settings. An estimated 50 per cent of migrant workers in cities are now women, and violence against women migrant workers has become an issue of international concern (A/64/152). In African cities many migrants are female heads of households who are discriminated against for cultural reasons and are likely to live in poverty in slums without tenure. Such women are especially vulnerable to victimization.⁴⁵
31. Surveys of domestic violence against women in 10 countries report rates of violence between 15 and 71 per cent, but in some countries 50-90 per cent of women see domestic violence as acceptable. In Latin America, the majority of women victims do not seek help.⁴⁶ Thus cultural attitudes towards the treatment of women by both men and women remain a significant issue. Other surveys have shown that 4-31 per cent of women have experienced sexual violence perpetrated by persons who were not their intimate partners.⁴⁷ Women are more likely than men to have higher levels of insecurity in the city, and this restricts their mobility and access to public space.
32. While many countries have ratified international conventions on violence against women, implementation lags behind.⁴⁸ Further, most of it concerns criminal justice responses to domestic violence rather than private and public violence, with very little attention being given to prevention.⁴⁹
33. All of the above-mentioned trends and concerns require cities: to pay much greater attention to the broader social, economic and environmental conditions affecting different areas in their jurisdiction and different populations; to work to increase the safety of women and to reduce the exclusion of young people; and to see the integration of migrant and ethnic groups as part of the proper concern of city governments. A significant conclusion of *State of the World's Cities 2008/2009* is that "inequality is not a natural consequence of economic growth and ... can be controlled or reduced by forward-looking mitigation efforts on the part of governments."

IV. Sustainable and effective crime prevention

A. Applying the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime

34. The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime constitute a set of principles for developing comprehensive and effective crime prevention strategies in urban settings. They emphasize the importance of: government leadership; working in an integrated and multi-sectoral way across sectors such as housing, environment, employment and education, justice and social services; building cooperative partnerships between government, the private sector and civil society, including non-governmental organizations; ensuring the sustainability of prevention strategies by providing adequate funding and resources and clear accountability; using evidence-based knowledge on crime-related problems and interventions; respecting human rights and the rule of law; taking account of the links between local and transnational crime; and taking account of the different needs of men and women and the most vulnerable members of society.
35. The National Programme for Public Safety with Citizenship (PRONASCI), launched by Brazil in 2007, illustrates many of these principles and targets cities in particular. Allocating 6,707 billion real dollars over the period 2007-2011, the programme, carried out by the Ministry of Justice in partnership with other ministries, combines significant changes to the existing criminal justice system with funding for a series of targeted local programmes. The overall goals of the programme are to benefit some 3.5 million public safety professionals directly, as well as young people and their families, and to reduce the homicide rate across the country from 29 per 100,000 people to 12 per 100,000 over a four-year period.
36. The programme includes 94 structural actions designed to modernize the police forces and the penitentiary system and to provide training for public safety professionals. To stimulate action at the local level and target resources to areas of greatest need, 11 high-priority metropolitan areas have been identified. Eligible states and municipalities can apply for funding for local programmes (see figure 1). One requirement is that they establish offices of integrated city management and partnerships between local services, the police and civil society. Brazil is now developing a national strategy on public security following a comprehensive series of participatory discussions with key stakeholders to support the development of the strategy. It held the first national conference on public security in August 2009, with representatives from Government and civil society (www.mj.gov.br/pronasci).

Figure 1: National Programme for Public Safety with Citizenship of Brazil: local programmes

In Brazil, local programmes of the National Programme for Public Safety with Citizenship (PRONASCI) include:

- (a) “Territories for Peace” projects to establish communitarian councils of public safety to increase public knowledge about citizens’ roles and rights; cultural projects by youth at risk; services for women victims of violence; human rights training for judges, prosecutors and public defenders; and projects to establish 10 centres for access to justice and conflict resolution;
- (b) Family and youth integration projects for citizenship, leadership, conflict resolution, sports and cultural activities for youth exposed to urban and domestic violence; a citizen reservist project for young people coming out of compulsory military service, to avoid their being lured into crime; a women of peace project to train women living in areas at high risk (of trafficking in persons and violence) in subjects such as citizenship, human rights and leadership skills; a series of projects to raise the educational level of persons in the justice system and in prisons; a “Painting freedom, painting citizenship” project to enable prisoners to manufacture sports equipment for schools and to provide them with job skills;
- (c) Safety and sociability projects designed to recover public urban spaces in poor communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Cities; intensive education projects in targeted communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Education; and a series of cultural projects in libraries, museums and meeting places for youth in targeted areas of deprivation.

37. Mexico’s national programme entitled “Recover public spaces” similarly provides support for local communities for the redevelopment of public space (www.sedesol.gob.mx).

B. Learning from mega-cities and high-crime cities

38. Recent examples of the successful reduction of crime in mega-cities and in high-crime cities include the metropolitan area of São Paulo, Brazil, cities such as Diadema and Curitiba, and the Colombian cities of Medellin and Bogota. They illustrate the importance of strong leadership, efficient funding and effective civil society participation underlying good governance models and utilize technological innovations.
39. São Paulo, and its metropolitan area, with a population of about 20 million, is the largest Brazilian city. It is a mega-city that has grown very rapidly over the past century. Successful economically, it also displays all the problems of unequal distribution of wealth and services, with wealthy enclaves and disadvantaged suburbs, and (more recently) high levels of violent crime. In the 1980s and 1990s, the homicide rate in São Paulo rose dramatically, as in other cities in Brazil; by 1999, the rate was 43.2 per 100,000 inhabitants.⁵⁰ Primarily this increase was accounted for by the deaths of young men between 15 and 24 years of age. Rates of homicide among the rest of the population remained relatively stable. Since 2000, however, the State and the metropolitan region of São Paulo have experienced a marked reduction in homicides to 22 per 100,000 inhabitants by 2007 — close to a 70 per cent reduction. The city has invested in infrastructure and urban renewal, but also in community mobilization and access and mobility policies (see figure 2).

Figure 2: São Paulo Metropolitan Forum for Public Security ⁵¹

The São Paulo Metropolitan Forum for Public Security was created in 2001 to bring together the 39 mayors of the city of São Paulo and the 38 surrounding cities in the metropolitan area. Their objective was to integrate and coordinate their activities and develop plans to reduce crime and violence in the region. They worked in partnership with the State and Federal Governments which provided a Secretariat, as well as

a non-governmental organization to support the process. The State Government provided information on policies and access to geographical data and maps from the Info Crime system. Meeting on a regular basis, many of the cities created their own integrated local urban security offices, created municipal police forces and enacted legislation on the closure of bars to control alcohol consumption.

40. Parts of Latin America have seen considerable delegation of powers to municipalities, as a result of democratic reform and policies of decentralization.⁵² Investment in the social, cultural and human dimensions of cities is also typical in the sub-region.⁵³ This has facilitated some of the most sustained and successful examples of crime and violence prevention in recent years. Mayors have played a key role, using innovative approaches to urban governance that apply a comprehensive range of prevention policies, including police reform, conflict resolution, urban regeneration and social development. Cities such as Bogota and Medellin in Colombia (see figure 3) have experienced spectacular reductions in their homicide rates through a range of municipal programmes that have helped to break down the geographical and social barriers between sectors and inhabitants of the city.

Figure 3: Reduction of crime and violence in Medellin, Colombia

In 1991, the city of Medellin, Colombia, had the highest homicide rate in the world: 381 per 100,000 people. A central problem for the local authority was the control exerted over many areas of the city by armed drug traffickers, paramilitary groups, guerrilla groups and organized territorial protection. As one mayor put it, “during those years in Medellin there was an absence of the State ... and various criminal groups were able to exert territorial control and violence in the majority of areas.”⁵⁴ Between 2002 and 2007, the homicide rate in the city fell from 174 to 29 per 100,000 inhabitants, as mayors began to institutionalize the notion of collective responsibility and focused attention on areas that had the highest rates of violence and were controlled by armed groups.

Negotiations with area leaders under the Peace and Reconciliation programme, as well as *Proyectos Urbanos Integrales* involving large-scale investment in public services for informal settlements surrounding the city (transport, education, housing and green space), reduced inequality and promoted opportunity for everyone.⁵⁵ This included a cable car improving access to the city and a large library above the informal settlement. Working with local civil society organizations was key, since they had legitimacy in the neighbourhoods.⁵⁶

41. In Bogota, homicide rates have steadily decreased from a peak of 80 per 100,000 inhabitants in 1993 to 19 per 100,000 in 2007. A series of mayors have applied a combination of initiatives, such as civil society mobilization (to develop a culture of civility), police training and family police stations, better transport, recovery of public space, building of libraries and restrictions on alcohol consumption and gun circulation — all designed to include rather than exclude citizens. Sustainability has been ensured with the development of an observatory (see figure 4), long-term funding, a long-term plan and local security contracts.

Figure 4: Observatories for crime and social problems

Many countries, regions and cities have developed crime trend observatories to improve information and understanding about crime and the social and economic problems associated with it. Examples include a security observatory in Madrid; an observatory of the city of Bogota; municipal observatories in El Salvador, Guatemala and Panama; the Regional Observatory on Security Policies in Italy; the Observa-

torio Centroamericano sobre Violencia; and the l'Observatoire national de la délinquance in France. Many observatories (such as the Crime Observatory in Trinidad and Tobago) focus on overall safety issues; others (such as the Canadian Observatory on School Violence Prevention and l'Observatoire français des drogues et toxicomanies in France) are concerned with specific topics.

42. In Trinidad and Tobago, the Citizen Security Programme was initiated by the Ministry of National Security in 2007 to respond to the urgent problems of rising urban violence and homicide. An important component of the programme is that it acknowledges the need for technical assistance programmes to be participatory from their inception, to incorporate local knowledge and to help to build capacity. The six-year programme targets 22 high-risk neighbourhoods. The programme has five main components: institutional strengthening of the Ministry; institutional strengthening of the police; coordination and implementation of community-based prevention strategies; social marketing, public education and media engagement; and programme management, monitoring and evaluation.

C. Inclusion through engaging civil society

43. As shown in the examples above, there have been advancements in the development of urban policies promoting the inclusion of minority groups or of those living in the most disadvantaged areas. These include pro-poor policies and participatory initiatives, such as participatory budgeting, which have been developed by Governments.
44. In a number of regions, networks of national and international groups representing the poorest urban residents have begun to work in what are termed “co-productive” ways with city governments. This is in contrast to autonomous action by civil society groups with little contact with government or those whose main approach has been through protest and demands.⁵⁷ In India, for example, citizen groups are increasingly using “co-production” approaches with city governments to effect change for slum dwellers. Federations of slum dwellers now exist at the national and international levels and are providing support in working productively with city governments.⁵⁸

D. Gender mainstreaming and the safety of women in cities

45. At the international level, there is consensus that gender-based violence should be the focus of initiatives to increase the safety of women in private and public settings. The broader approach of gender-based prevention of violence combines notions of the rights of women to live without violence and the obligations of cities to ensure the safety of all their citizens rather than focusing primarily on women as victims. Strategic plans and programmes at the national, state and local levels need to be

based on reliable data and analysis and include a range of services and initiatives aimed at preventing private and public violence, as well as providing services for victims. In some countries, women's and family police stations have encouraged women to report incidents. Governments need to mainstream gender at all levels of data collection, planning and programme development.

46. The range of approaches that can be used includes increasing women's participation in decision-making, professional sensitization and public awareness campaigns, working to change social norms about the acceptability of violence, school curriculum programmes on gender relations, workplace programmes, providing alternative lifestyles for men and boys, and innovative transport and urban design to make cities safer for women.⁵⁹ Mexico, Norway and Spain have recently passed legislation on the right of women to live free of violence. Better international indicators and surveys on violence against women have been developed. The Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (General Assembly resolution 52/86, annex), adopted in 1997 and reviewed at the Intergovernmental Expert Group Meeting on Violence against Women⁶⁰ held in Bangkok from 23 to 26 March 2009, provide examples of innovative initiatives. The revised and updated model strategies, to be submitted to the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice at its nineteenth session, in 2010, address new issues and reflect the changes and developments that have occurred since 1997. The areas of prevention, implementation, violence against women in conflict and post conflict situations, assistance to and protection of victims have been particularly strengthened.
47. Participatory tools for empowering women include the use of women's safety audits, which help them engage with local governments to increase their safety in urban areas. The United Nations Development Fund for Women regional programme entitled "Cities without violence against women, safe cities for all", used participatory approaches to improve women's safety in cities in Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Peru. Cities and civil society organizations in Argentina, Australia, Canada, India, the Russian Federation and the United Republic of Tanzania, among others, have similarly used women's safety audits to effect change and raise awareness of city governments about women's safety needs. A range of programmes such as "Men as partners" and "Guy to guy", which teach men and boys alternative role models and attitudes to violence, are now being used in countries in many regions.⁶¹

E. Problem-oriented and proactive prevention

48. Building safer cities and working to prevent problems of urban unrest all require the kind of proactive multi-partnership approaches that encourage the participation of all sectors of urban populations. Developing good communication between the police and local neighbourhoods and community leaders appears to have been an important factor in preventing an outbreak of race riots in the city of Bradford in the United Kingdom, for example. In the aftermath of riots on the beaches of Sydney, Australia, careful examination by the city of all the factors that facilitated the riots led to the development and implementation of an effective strategy for the management of beach events for the coming decade.

49. Comprehensive integrated programmes to reduce youth gang involvement are resulting in clear reductions in violence and homicides. Community-based programmes that work with gang members and those at risk often work with a range of partners, such as local government, schools, health workers, religious institutions and former gang members, and carefully tailor their responses to individual communities. They include not only police enforcement targeting the highest risk groups, but also effective street outreach programmes that work with young people in gang situations.⁶² Other approaches with youth at risk, or those incarcerated or returning to the community, combine education and sports, leadership and conflict mediation skills, as well as micro-credit and apprenticeship training, and include participatory and youth-led components.

V. Practical training and tools

50. The range of practical tools and technologies that can assist in the strategic planning of crime prevention and the development of efficient and effective interventions has expanded considerably in the past five years. The ability to be able to collect data and share information about the range of social and economic factors associated with crime and victimization forms the basis for assessing problems and their distribution in urban areas and neighbourhoods. Overall, evidence-based crime prevention requires knowledge about the incidence and prevalence of crime-related problems; about the possible causal factors; about the types of interventions that can be used; and about the impact of interventions.
51. A number of guides, manuals and handbooks have recently been produced. Handbooks on the application of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime provide guidance on some of the tools available; on the development of multi-sector partnerships, strategic plans and their implementation and evaluation; and on working with communities and civil society. The *Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit* similarly provides guidance on assessing country and city crime prevention needs for technical assistance. There is now a manual (published by UNODC and the Economic Commission for Europe) on developing victimization and fear of crime surveys and numerous other guides on self-reporting delinquency surveys, qualitative interviews and focus groups and participatory data collection approaches.
52. Regional or municipal observatories, or monitoring centres, are increasingly being used by cities (see figure 4). These specialized centres involve multidisciplinary and multi-sectoral partnerships, bringing together agencies and data from the public and private sectors, including the police, municipal services, transport, social housing, landlords, businesses and non-governmental organizations. They facilitate the analysis of the incidence and causes of and trends in crime and violence and related problems, enabling resources to be used more efficiently and progress to be monitored with strategic plans over time. A series of methodological guides for the implementation of municipal observatories in Latin America has been developed by the World Bank and the Pan American Health Organization.

53. Geographical information systems (GIS) are one of the major tools being used by governments to map the location of crime-related problems. In Brazil, GIS are a component of the public safety and crime prevention strategic policy of, for example, the city of Diadema, the State of Minas Gerais and the city of Belo Horizonte. GIS are also widely used in cities in Canada⁶³ and the United States. The police use GIS for operational, tactical and strategic purposes, enabling them to plan proactive measures, such as changing the flow of motor vehicle traffic, introducing street lighting or patrolling. Such mapping can be used by crime prevention partnerships for short- and longer-term planning of prevention programmes.
54. Another tool aiding the systematic analysis of local crime problems and the development of detailed plans is a safety audit or safety diagnosis. Many examples now exist, adapted to different country contexts. An international guide has recently been published (www.fesu.org). The guide outlines who should be involved, the kinds of data to collect and how to use it. Like observatories, the safety audit process helps to build commitment and ownership around crime prevention plans among the range of partners involved.
55. The Internet has greatly facilitated the expansion of the range of teaching and training tools on crime prevention. Educational and teaching tools include online courses; graduate programmes; professional training courses and exchanges; and forums such as the Virtual Forum on Cybercrime developed by the Korean Institute of Criminology. The Internet has also facilitated access to resources on indicators and standards in various countries and regions, as well as the coordinated collection of data on programmes and interventions. An increasing number of university and research centres work with governments, including local authorities, to support project development and evaluation. Regional research organizations in Latin America and Europe, for example, offer similar support. Examples of international e-learning include a police training project developed by the University of Cape Town in South Africa and Ruhr University Bochum in Germany (see figure 5).

Figure 5: E-learning crossing borders: policing (all around) the world

An English language e-learning course provides a series of teaching modules on the different ways in which societies are policed and on how police services are structured and trained. It includes presentations from over 12 countries, readings and self-study, and

presentations on special topics such as policing mass events and police and diversity and private and plural policing. Students earn credits and can interact with presenters and other students.

VI. Conclusion

56. The present background paper focuses on the need to pay particular attention to the development of strategies to prevent crime in mega-cities and to consider the specific problems posed in cities with very high crime rates, in particular how those problems can be addressed. Given the increasing rates of population movement and ethnic and cultural diversity within cities, as well as escalating disparities of income, what are the ways in which cities have been able to put in place policies that work to integrate and secure the quality of life of all their citizens? Cities need to consider the integration of young people and minorities, to take into account gender differences and to work to reduce the links between local and transnational crime.
57. In recognition of the Millennium Development Goals and the guidelines for crime prevention and other relevant international conventions and protocols, workshop participants may wish to consider the following:
 - (a) All Member States should be urged to adopt and implement the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime and other international standards and norms concerning the rights of disadvantaged and minority groups;
 - (b) Governments should devolve powers to local governments to facilitate the establishment of integrated management structures that can undertake the diagnosis and development of comprehensive prevention strategies;
 - (c) Mega-cities should be encouraged to develop their metropolitan and regional structures to enable them to work in an integrated way to tackle infrastructure, housing, transport and other social and economic problems that may facilitate crime and violence, including by developing and training municipal police forces that work in a problem-solving way with local communities;
 - (d) Urban administrations should be encouraged to invest in planned and practical approaches to preventing urban unrest, including by developing good communication with communities, stakeholders and leaders, and to initiate inclusive processes after such events, with a view to determining how such unrest might be prevented in the future;
 - (e) All levels of government should be encouraged to place greater emphasis on how the safety of women in private and public settings can be promoted. This requires gender-mainstreaming in all government departments and responsibilities, and in the collection and analysis of data in the provision of services. Cities are encouraged to develop strategic plans to change attitudes towards violence against women in all settings, to encourage the participation of women in decision-making and provide services for victims of such violence;
 - (f) Cities should give greater attention to the redevelopment of public space with a view to creating safe and accessible places for interaction and recreation and to promoting civility, including by allocating a percentage of building costs to the creation of public space in new housing development projects.

- (g) Cities should be encouraged to promote and utilize innovative participatory and inclusive policies and programmes, in order to reduce the exclusion of marginalized groups, including minorities and migrants. Support should also be given to civil society organizations working to promote the greater inclusion of marginalized groups;
- (h) All levels of government should be encouraged to develop and implement effective and gender-sensitive crime prevention strategies, including by utilizing urban or regional observatories for the collection and analysis of data, geographical mapping techniques, victimization surveys, safety audits and guides;
- (i) All levels of government should be urged to support emerging and innovative training and teaching approaches in crime prevention that respond to the needs of the police and new professions and urban responsibilities in the area of prevention. Those approaches include e-learning and professional and technical courses;
- (j) The international community, including donors, should work to facilitate and support local government capacity-building through training and technical assistance and city-to-city exchanges, and in a way that takes into account the recipient countries' unique needs.

Workshop Proceedings

Section I

The Urban Opportunity



Source: Tuca Vieira, Sao Paolo, Brazil

Mega cities

High crime cities

National Response

Mega cities

The Lagos State Crime and Safety Survey, Challenges and Outcome

Fola Arthur-Worrey⁶⁴ and Innocent Chukwuma⁶⁵



Source: Lagos State Government, Lagos, Nigeria

Lagos: A Megacity

Lagos is Nigeria and West Africa's financial, commercial and industrial capital. The State of Lagos has a population of 17.5 million people, which has grown rapidly from 5.5 million in 1991. Of these some 16 million are estimated to live in Metropolitan Lagos. It is one of Africa's largest mega cities, second only to Cairo in Egypt.

As a mega city with dispersed resources and a growing and diversifying population, Lagos faces many management and security challenges. These stem in part from its topography and location, the scarcity of social resources, the concentration of commercial activity and isolation of lower-income populations from services. Much of the population growth stems from migration from rural areas because of economic pressures, and there are many unplanned settlements, with diverse religious, ethnic and cultural backgrounds. While there has been considerable urban restructuring and regeneration, including a new rapid transit system and 'greened areas', the city suffers from weak transport and power infrastructure, and from resource deficits. Much development capital moved away from Lagos to the new

capital of Abuja in 1990, and there is a weak revenue/tax base when compared to internally generated revenues in cities of similar size. There is central control of security agencies and poor funding, and an over reliance of federal agencies on host states.

In relation to public order, the security agencies face issues of violent crime, corruption, human trafficking and organized crime. For citizens, home invasions, bank and supermarkets robberies, carjacking, robberies in rush hour traffic, as well as public disorder have all been concerns. Compared with many mega cities, levels of crime are not very high in Lagos, but it is the weakness of police response to distress calls and the consequent impunity of offenders which has helped to create a climate of fear and insecurity.

Crime management and prevention – the Lagos Approach

In response to these concerns, the government decided to implement a number of crime management and prevention strategies (Figure 1). These included strategies to improve safety and security by establishing the *Lagos State Security Trust Fund* to support under-resourced federal security agencies; and increasing social development, community-government interaction and environmental development. An important long-term objective is to shift policing mentality from regime policing to one of public security.

Figure 1: Crime Management and Prevention Strategies - the Lagos approach

SECURITY AND SAFETY

- Creating and equipping local agencies to fill law enforcement gaps eg, traffic and public order
- Establishment of the Lagos State Security Trust Fund to provide support for under-resourced federal security agencies
- Closer cooperation between the police command and other security agencies and the Lagos State Government
- Developing physical and urban planning policies that take account of policing and security concerns e.g. illumination of crime prone areas, removal of street gates
- Establishment of effective communication and emergency response systems
- Emphasis on policing in a democracy
- Changing the mind-set of security agencies – from an emphasis on *regime* security to *public* security
- Creation of conflict management/dispute resolution and community integration bodies

- Training more people in response and emergency management

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

- Job Creation
- Re-distribution of wealth (income) by more efficient but fair taxation and provision of better social services eg. Health, transportation
- Designing policies to stem rural-urban drift

GOVERNMENT-COMMUNITY DIALOGUE

- Consistent engagement between government and citizens

ENVIRONMENTAL DEVELOPMENT

- Greening the city/recapture of wasteland
- Development of decongestion and relocation policies

The Lagos State Security Trust Fund (LSSTF)

The Lagos State Security Trust Fund (LSSTF) is a public-private partnership established by a law adopted in September 2007 by the Lagos State House of Assembly. Its primary role is to mobilize resources from government, the private sector and private citizens to increase the operational capacity of security agencies in the State. Thus its role is to respond to both resource deficiencies and levels of crime and insecurity, and enable social and economic development. Membership of the Board of LSSTF is primarily from the private sector, providing accountability.

Figure 2: Community interface meetings in session



Source: Lagos State Security Trust Fund (LSSTF)

In less than two years since its creation, LSSTF has succeeded in mobilizing over \$27 million in voluntary donations from corporate bodies, individuals and public institutions, in addition to contributions by the State government. The funds have been used to provide the police and other security agencies with equipment, including over 200 patrol vehicles with communication equipment, patrol boats for water ways, a rapid response motorcycle squad, protective gear such as ballistic helmets and 1500 bullet-proof vests, and 20 armoured personnel carriers. Recently the Lagos State Government acquired and donated through the LSSTF two helicopters for surveillance and search and rescue.

The funds have helped to improve local community patrolling capacities, and the LSSTF has also initiated a series of community assemblies and town hall meetings, to enable greater community interaction and discussion of safety issues.

Figure 3: CLEEN Foundation

The **CLEEN Foundation** is an organization that promotes public safety, security and justice through empirical research, legislative advocacy, demonstration programmes and publications in partnership with government and civil society.

It was established in 1998 with the mandate of engaging and building the capacity of state institutions to foster change of their human rights record from within.

Over the years, the CLEEN foundation has recorded landmark achievements in Law Enforcement reform some of which include the initiation and integration of Community Policing into the work of the Nigerian Police. The organisation has institutionalised a management structure and currently operates under three broad programme areas of Public Safety and Security, Accountability and Justice, and Research and Planning.

For more information see: <http://www.cleen.org/>

Evaluation of LSSTF

In September 2009, the Lagos State Government requested an evaluation of its crime management and prevention strategies. This request led to the establishment of the *Lagos State Crime and Safety Survey* in collaboration with the *CLEEN Foundation*, a non-government organization established in 1998 with a mission to promote public safety, security and justice (see Figure 3).

The purpose of the survey was to undertake an independent evaluation which would assist the LSSTF, the police and other security agencies to identify more effective ways of deploying policing resources. This included

the identification of crime hotspots; assessing the attitudes of young people towards the police and security agencies; and measuring the extent and patterns of crime and insecurity

in the State and public perceptions of the key criminal justice institutions. It is the second survey of its kind; an earlier victimization survey was undertaken in 2004.

The Lagos Crime and Safety Survey

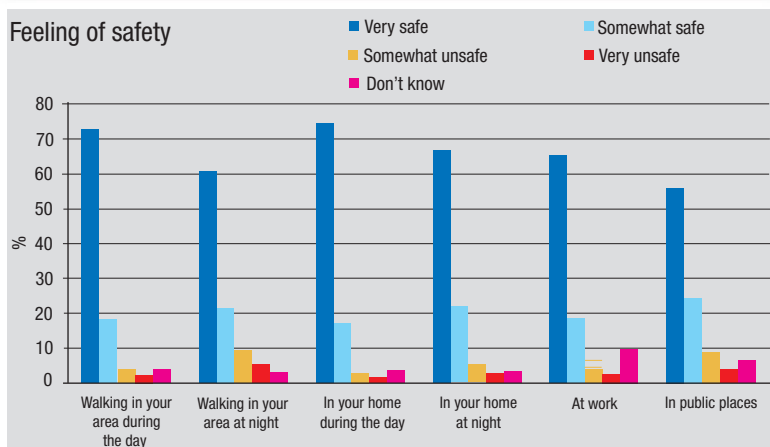
The survey covered 20 Local Government Areas (LGA) and 37 Local Council Development Areas (LCDAs) in Lagos, with a total sample size of 2000. Approximately 100 respondents were interviewed in each area. Representative sampling procedures were used, to reduce any biases that might affect the findings. Respondents included males and females (a ratio of 1:1) aged 18 years and above. The face to face interviews were conducted on all days of the week but with a focus on weekends, to ensure that respondents from all lifestyles were included in the sample. Field interviews spanned one month and were conducted by 20 interviewers who were university graduates from the humanities.⁶⁶ Conducting the survey was not without its challenges; distinctions between residential and commercial areas are not clear in the State. The accessibility of a few remote areas is very restricted, with some only accessible by water. There was a high level of sensitivity among some respondents to the nature of the survey and those in high income areas tended to be unreceptive. Recent gang clashes in a few areas made for a tense situation which led to the substitution of other areas.

The survey findings on public perceptions of crime are overall highly positive, reporting relatively low levels of insecurity or perceptions of crime problems. They are outlined below in terms of feelings of safety, and perceptions of the level and trends in crime in Lagos State, as well as experiences of crime, and reporting of criminal victimization.⁶⁷

Feelings of safety

The general feeling of safety in Lagos State was good. Slightly more than a third (36%) said the level of crime in Lagos State was high, compared with 64% who thought it was average to low. Most respondents (c. 60-75%) reported feeling 'very safe' in their homes, and in their area walking during the day or at night (Figure 4). They also felt safe at work and in public places (55%).

Figure 4: General Feelings of Safety in Lagos State

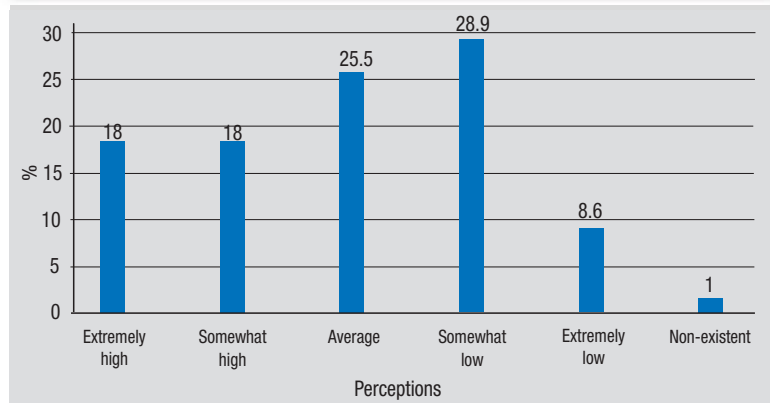


Source: CLEEN Foundation

Perceptions of crime levels

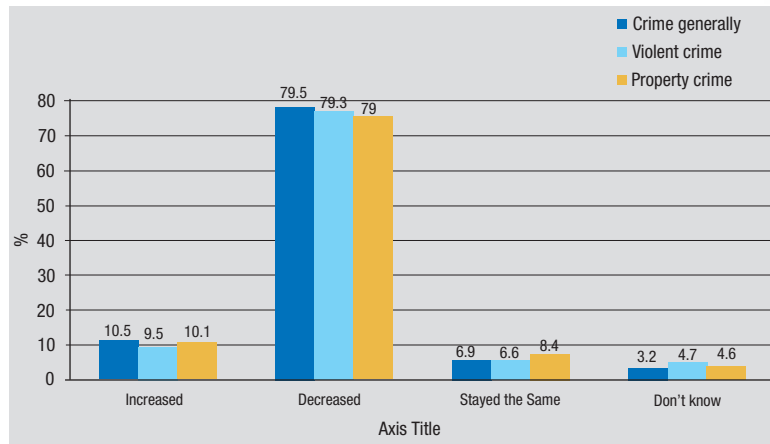
The general perception of levels of crime in the State was also good, with around two thirds rating it as average or below (Figure 5). In relation of any perceived changes in levels of crime over the past 12 months, 79% of survey respondents felt that all crime levels, whether crime in general or violent or property crime, had decreased. Only 10% felt there had been an increase (Figure 6).

Figure 5: General Perception of Crime in Lagos State



Source: CLEEN Foundation

Figure 6: Change in level of crime in the past 12 months (September 2008-9)



Source: CLEEN Foundation

Experiences of Crime

Respondents' experiences of crime were mainly focused on robbery. Over half claimed that robbery was their major fear if they walked alone at night within their neighbourhood. Respondents also identified burglary, theft of mobile phones, domestic violence and disturbances by young people as additional crime and disorder problems in their communities. About 8.4% of households reported experiences of robbery in the last five years, theft of money (5.8%), burglary (5.2%), attempted robbery (3.3%) and physical assault (2.8%). Personal experiences of crime reported during the period were armed robbery (17.7%), theft of money (13.1%), burglary (9.4%), domestic violence (5.5%) and robbery while in traffic (5.1%).

Report of Criminal victimization

The survey found that people report their experience of criminal victimization to different agencies, including non-law enforcement agencies. Nearly half (46%) of respondents reported their victimization to the police, while a fifth (21.3%) preferred to do so with their family members. Nearly a third did not report to anyone.

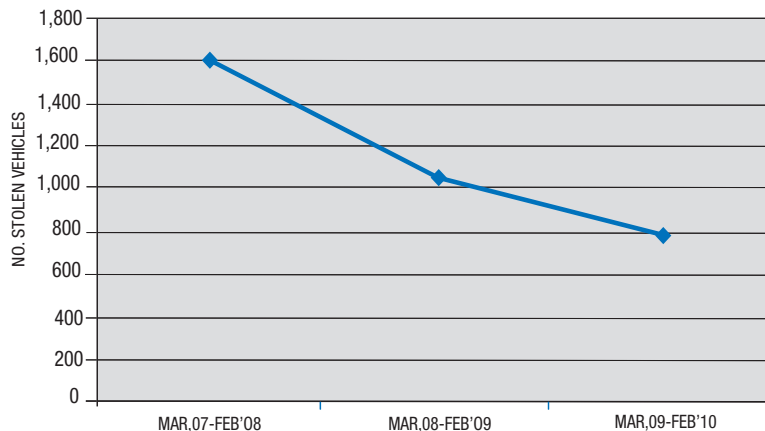
Level and trend of crime in Lagos State

Perceptions of changes in the level of crime were generally positive. More than one-half of the respondents thought that crime generally decreased in Lagos State from September 2008 to September 2009. In addition, nearly four-fifths (79.3%) of the respondents reported that the level of violent and property crimes decreased within the state in 2009 compared to 2008.

Official crime statistics of the Lagos State Police Command

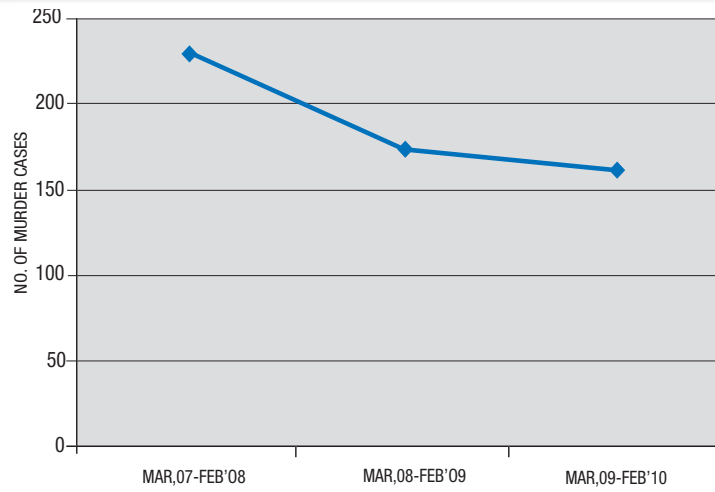
The findings of the victimization survey in terms of perceptions in crime trends correspond with the official crime statistics for the Lagos State Police Command. These also show a decrease in the number of reported crimes between 2007 and the beginning of 2010 including murder, stolen vehicles, armed robbery, and bank robbery (Figures 7-10).

Figure 7: No. of stolen vehicles from March 2007 – February 2010



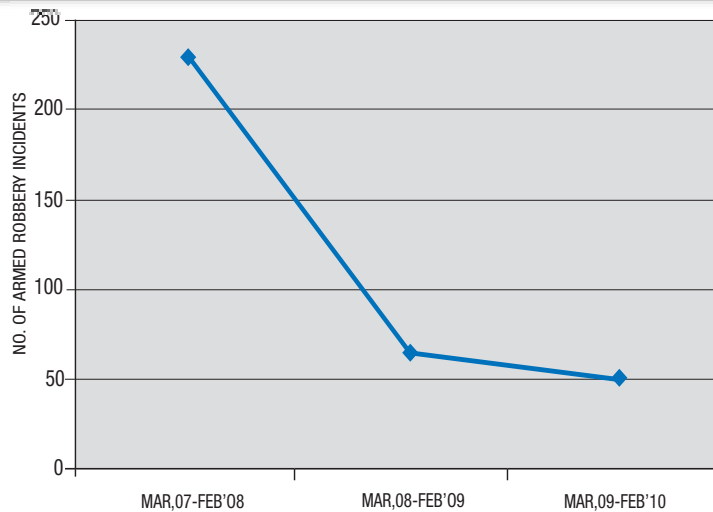
Source: Lagos State Police Command

Figure 8: No. of murder cases recorded from March 2007 – February 2010



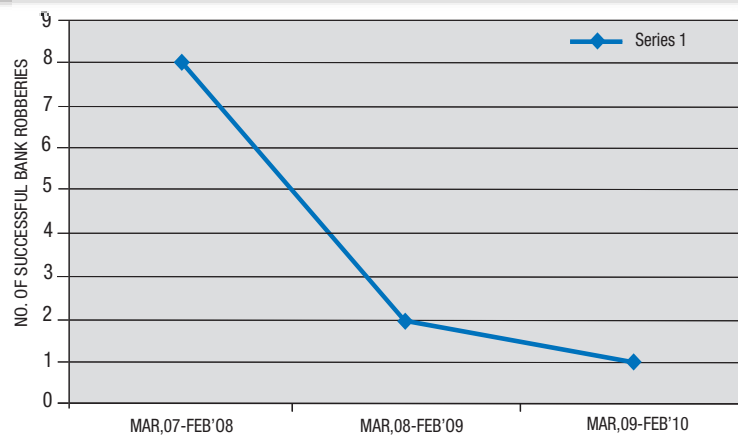
Source: Lagos State Police Command

Figure 9: No. of armed robbery incidents recorded from March 2007 – February 2010



Source: Lagos State Police Command

Figure 10: No. of successful bank robbery incidents recorded from March 2007 – February 2010



Source: Lagos State Police Command

Outcomes / Conclusions

Overall, the Lagos State Security Survey has helped to validate some of the crime prevention strategies put in place by the State government and the work of the LSSTF. It identified areas of strengths and weaknesses in governance, security and resource management. The survey shows that there is a perception of improved security in Lagos over the period 2008 to 2009, with a drop in crime in general since 2007, when the LSSTF and other strategies were initiated. This includes property and violent crimes. The survey also shows relatively low levels of fear in neighbourhoods across the State.

While no clear link between the different impacts of the various strategies including the work of the LSSTF can be established from the survey, the overall picture produced by the survey findings is that there are visible benefits (i.e. improved crime prevention and quality of life) to good governance, better management of resources, a multi-faceted approach that includes community involvement and public-private partnerships, and the promotion of safety and prevention over regime-based policing.

The survey suggests that human and technical resources and their proper management are key to improving security, especially in a mega city. The improved resource base and inter-agency cooperation; physical planning; and environmental and social policies, have all contributed to the downward trend in crime. However, questions of sustainability remain with insufficient federal input and overstretched State resources.

Biographies

Fola Arthur-Worrey is the Executive Secretary/CEO of Lagos State Security Trust Fund for the Government of Nigeria. He is a legal practitioner by profession. From 1996 to 1998, he was the Lagos State Director of Public Prosecutions. From 1998 to 2006, he was the Lagos State Solicitor-General and Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Justice. He was the Hon. Commissioner for Lands (2006-2007) and the Chairman for the State Tenders Board (2006-2007).

Innocent Chukwuma is the Director of the CLEEN Foundation in Lagos, Nigeria, and editor-in-chief of CLEEN's quarterly magazine, Law Enforcement Review. He has written extensively on police-community relations, vigilantism, and law and human rights in Nigeria. Prior to creating CLEEN, he directed the International Lobby Program at the Civil Liberties Organization in Lagos. He has a Masters in International Law and Diplomacy (MILD) from the University of Lagos and an MSc in Criminal Justice from the University of Leicester. Innocent Chukwuma was awarded the Reebok International Human Rights Award in 1996.

Crime Prevention and Urban Development – The Case of Greater Cairo

Khaled M. Abdelhalim⁶⁸ and Dina K. Shehayeb⁶⁹

Cairo as a mega city and metropolitan region

Cairo qualified as a ‘mega-city’ soon after its conception in 669 A.D. as a city planned to host the seat of the Khalif who governed the entire Islamic World at the time. As early as the 1920s Cairo boasted a population of over a million inhabitants (Abu Lughod, 1971). Throughout history, Cairo assumed a pivotal position among cities of the known world; a platform of encounter between Eastern and Western civilizations, the largest city in Africa and the Middle East, a cosmopolitan city attracting different people; a hub of exchange of knowledge, arts and civilizations.

Size and growth

The Greater Cairo Region (GCR) is a mega-city. In 2006, GCR had 16 million inhabitants and will be approaching 20 million by 2020 (GOPP, 2009). The region has been growing due to both rural-urban migration and population growth (CAPMAS, 2008), doubling in size and population between the 1950s and 2000s. The urban growth of the GCR is mainly on agricultural land (informal) of the Nile valley and Delta or on public desert land either through squatting (informal) or in new satellite communities (formal). In 2006, informal areas in GCR covered 160 km² and host some 9.5 million inhabitants – about half of the region’s population (Fischer & Kipper, 2009). The region is expected to continue growing, given the projected formal plans, the lack of control on informal urban growth, and the lack of affordable and appropriate alternatives.

Physical characteristics and demographic composition

Cairo maintains large portions of the urban fabric of its medieval core (969 - 1700s), with many districts within and around the princely city-state that was the first Cairo currently forming what is termed “**Historic Cairo**” despite the fact that its boundaries are constantly negotiated, and the label ‘historic’ quite fluidly used (Daftary, Fernea & Nanji, 2010). Despite the high rate of physical deterioration, these areas enjoy a high sense of livelihood, of community and of tradition. The streets of these districts are bustling with people and commercial activity; their hidden alleys as quiet extensions of home. People living there work and shop and spend leisure time in their neighbourhoods (Shehayeb & Mekawy, 2003). Individual household resources may be humble but social solidarity compensates for that and for the poor quality of public services. The districts in the historic area are often called “popular” districts where traditional lifestyle prevails, working class solidarity and the merchant economy⁷⁰ rules.

The other more recent historic core of Cairo is the **19th century European downtown** which was founded in the second half of the 1800s and kept growing in the form of regulated subdivisions and entirely planned districts until the early 20th century. Two **major suburban extensions** of that time were Heliopolis to the north and Maadi to the south. This

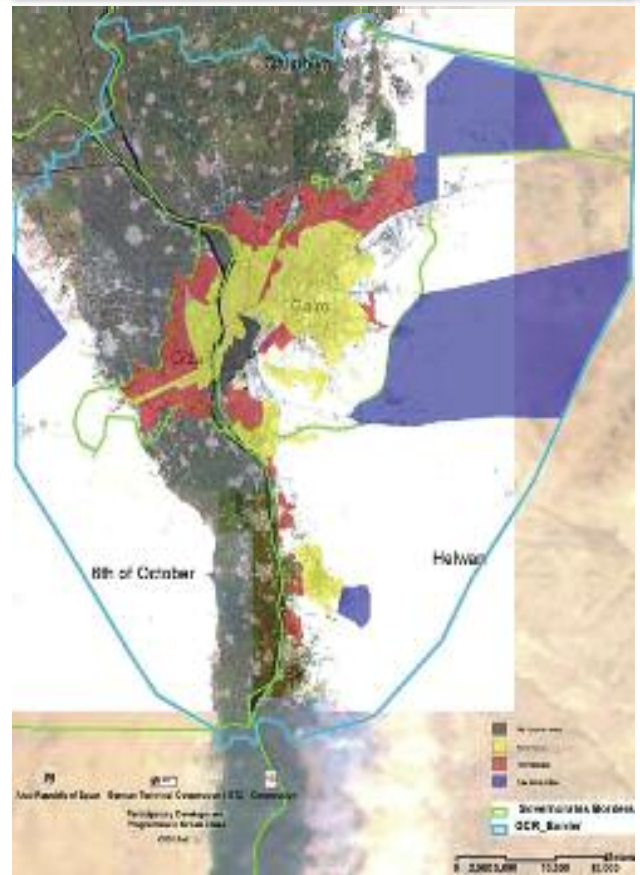
occidental heritage forms the majority of Greater Cairo's formal districts housing a spectrum of citizens of varying cultures and income levels. They were well planned districts with ample road networks, services, public transportation and parks.⁷¹ In the 1940s, rent control was enforced later causing major decline in the physical condition of the heritage buildings in those parts of the city. Many of these western/modern districts have now transformed, housing a low-income population with a less European lifestyle, and more "popular" patterns of activities and use. After independence in 1952, mass housing for low-income workers added entire **district-scale estates** to the city, such as Imbaba, Ein al-Seera and Helwan. Modern planning norms were imported from the West, and two major districts were added to GCR: Awkak City on agricultural land in Giza (later known as Mohandeseen), and Nasr City on desert land in the north of Cairo (Figure 1).

Today these districts have become the new urban centres, and the 19th century downtown largely serves the lower income groups living in the popular districts around it (former European and Medieval districts). Since the 1950s, mass housing and the industrial approach to planning has been implemented in both the modern extensions of the city and the new satellite cities. The latter began in the 1970s and were planned to attract the population away from the burdened GCR.

The failure of the mass housing provision policy and the low liveability of those areas (Shehayeb, 2009), gave rise to the growth of **informal areas**, 80-90% of which are residential multi-storey blocks, very similar to those in formal areas (Figure 2). Various legal and institutional constraints affecting the demographic composition and the physical characteristics of districts within the city, resulted in informal areas attracting internal migration from popular districts, and hence informal areas followed similar, but not identical, patterns of socio-cultural, economic and urban development (Shehayeb et al. 2003). **Slum pockets** (usually originating as squatters on public land), deteriorating village cores (mainly in Giza, engulfed by the 20th Century planned extensions of the city), and the tradition of living in cemeteries (a historical tradition particular to Cairo as far back as the 1500s) mount up to not more than 10-20% of the urban agglomeration. Informal areas of GCR should, therefore, not be seen as one type.

The nineties marked the emergence of a new form of community: **gated communities** to provide an escape for the well-off citizens from traffic pollution, and noise and congestion which are compounded by the poor quality of public amenities and urban governance. Thus for heuristic reasons, areas of GCR can be classified as: **popular vs. western/modern; formal vs. informal; historic; village cores; and new communities with gated and non-gated mass housing projects** (Figure 2). These types spread out over the five governorates that currently constitute GCR; another fact that is an added complication to the administration of the city.

Figure 1: Schematic illustration of typology of urban areas in the GCR



Source: Khaled Abdelhalim and Amr Lashin

Figure 2: Types of formal urban areas in GCR: old (above), new cities (below).



Sources: lower left: Ministry of Housing Annual Book, 1999; lower right: Peter Kellett; upper left: Dina Shehayeb; upper right: Ahmed Zaaza

The status of safety and security in GCR

In comparison to other countries, Egypt has one of the lowest crime rates (UN-Habitat, 2007). GCR is not a high-crime city compared to cities of similar size such as Lagos or Sao Paulo. Many cities with *smaller* populations also have higher crime rates, such as cities in Europe and North America (UN-Habitat, 2007).

It is difficult to estimate crime rates in GCR, primarily because crime statistics are compiled by governorate, and GCR includes only the urban portions of those governorates. For example the governorates of Giza and Qalyoubia include a large rural portion that is not part of the GCR. As in the case of 'Historic Cairo', the boundaries of what constitutes GCR are neither well-established nor well-known. The other challenge of relying on official statistics is the extent of unreported incidents. The reasons for not reporting offences are multi-fold, but can be summarized by two major factors: the lack of community trust in the police and the legal system to effectively apply justice, and their lack of interest in responding to citizens' appeals, in cases less grave than homicide. Corruption and inherited traditions of self-governance all contribute to the phenomenon.⁷²

Looking at homicide rates in Cairo, as shown in Figure 3, and comparing them to population size in the same year, we find a rate of incidents less than 1/100,000 inhabitants, which is quite low. One should not forget that the population of Cairo is a fraction of the population of GCR, and by looking at the table we notice that the other two governorates have even lower homicide rates, despite including populations beyond the boundaries of the GCR.

Figure 3: Reported crime by type of crime and governorate

Governorate	Murder	Beating	Kidnapping	Rape	Robbery on fire	Setting	Bribery official	Forging money documents	Forging police	Fighting	Total
Cairo	51	31	1	33	86	24	26	36	26	7	321
Giza	18	1	2	4	24	2	1	3	-	-	55
Qalyoubia	27	7	1	4	14	6	6	6	1	-	72

Source: Public Security Report, 1996.

Besides the more conventional statistics used, we draw upon research that explores people's actual experience of public spaces, relying more on personal accounts and patterns of habitual behaviour. This helps to avoid the risk of biased assessments and poorly designed evaluations that can easily distort the picture in situations where the community suffers from many other stressful conditions, as is the case of a city like Cairo.

Global statistics show that crime rates in Egypt and the Middle East and North Africa Region are the lowest in the world (UN-Habitat, 2007). The general perception of both Egyptians and foreigners is that Cairo is a safe city. The underlying reason for this is not necessarily associated with good governance or firm policing, but rather with the socio-cultural norms still prevailing in Egyptian society, and especially in areas where community ties are sustained and nurtured. The following section explores the spatial dimension of safety in the city.

Spatial dimension of safety and security

Because crime is not an acute national problem, there is little effort to study its spatial distribution. Within the GCR, areas differ in terms of crime rates and the sense of security perceived within them. Considering the typology of areas explained earlier, **informal areas** are increasingly being portrayed in the media and national newspapers as the breeding places for criminals, and crime ridden areas. Government policy has targeted the upgrading of informal areas since the early 1990s, and has improved living conditions to some extent, although one of the drivers of such policy was the fear of terrorism and violence in those areas.

Underlying this misconception is a set of assumptions imported from the international dialogue on 'slums'. One has been to associate crime with poverty, but this has never been established in Egypt or neighbouring countries in North Africa and the Middle East. The assumption that informal areas are only inhabited by the poor has also been refuted by UN-Habitat (SWCR, 2008/2009). Yet, these misconceptions have recently been extended to taint historic districts and what are known as 'popular' districts⁷³, basically anywhere where physical deterioration of buildings, poorly maintained infrastructure, inadequate garbage collection are visible in the public domain.

Many of these districts are mistakenly referred to by lay people (even sometimes by professionals) as informal, simply because they do not look like new planned cities or

gated communities. Research on the other hand, reveals that **historic and popular districts are among the safest in the city** in terms of both actual crime and perceived safety while the highest crime rates in the nation were recorded in the Tenth of Ramadan City, one of the new formally planned satellite cities (Shehayeb, 2000).

The spatial distribution of safety and security in the public domain can be discussed at three levels:

- the city level – in terms of the differences between areas and districts;
- the area or district level – in terms of the differences between urban patterns within one district or area; and
- the public space level – in terms of the dynamics of activity, users and supporting environment in individual public spaces.

City level area typology

There is a predominant perception, fed by the real estate market, concerning “new communities” or “new cities” such as 6th of October City, New Cairo and similar areas. This is that organized and neatly planned areas with large streets are better in every way, including being safer, than other areas. At the same time, personal experience and research reveal that new cities are more dangerous to live in than anywhere else. The rich hire security personnel and the modest add iron bar doors to their apartment entrances, and restrict the mobility of family members for safety reasons (Shehayeb et al., 2003). People who have experienced living in those new cities have many accounts of crime: burglaries, armed assault in public spaces, and drug abuse. Even residents of informal areas who, initially adopt the first view, end up telling you about friends and relatives in new cities who experience more crime than in their own neighbourhoods, concluding that informal areas are actually safer (Shehayeb, 2008b; Abdelhalim et al. 2010).

Figure 4: Ezbet El Haggana informal area adjacent to Nasr City formal area.



Source: Fawzy el-Gazaerly

Exceptions may include informal areas such as Ezbet al-Haggana, where squatters of nomadic Arab origin from the north eastern governorate of Sharkiya settled in a pocket within military land along the Cairo-Suez regional road (Figure 4). Given its illegal status, deprived from all forms of infrastructure or services, isolated and difficult to access except from a single controlled entrance, this area attracted more groups who seek refuge such as those escaping from criminal charges in Upper Egypt. Although many people from al-Haggana work in the adjacent Nasr city (as security personnel in housing blocks or domestic help), others found the adjacent affluent neighbourhood a ripe ground for robbery. Such areas are rare and most squatters within the city are not a threat to the surrounding areas.

Theoretically, **informal areas** have higher potential for illegal behaviour than formal areas, because of the meagre police presence. All types of informal areas, similar to Historic Cairo, are characterized by having low penetrability and low accessibility for police and vehicles in general. This does not explain the disparity in safety levels among areas with low penetrability. Furthermore, areas that have relatively higher crime rates and a reputation for being less safe are found equally among formally planned districts and new cities. The inaccessibility of the police does not seem to be an influencing factor.

A **more common pattern associated with higher crime rates** is the combination of **low density**, the prevalence of unfrequented **unobserved public space**, and the **strict segregation of land use** (Figure 5). Large suburban expanses of strictly residential land with low population density result in deserted streets at night and higher possibilities for assailants to go unseen. Modernist planning implemented in new communities and new cities also result in underused public spaces and streets, often leading to higher crime rates than inner city districts or informal areas.

Figure 5: Lack of safety in public space: Periphery roads in Boulaq El Dakrou (left), poorly located planned market and therefore deserted (right)



Sources: left: Khaled Abdelhalim and Amr Lashin; right: Dina Shehayeb

The city of Tenth of Ramadan, for example, suffers reverse migration of working class and middle class professionals who moved there for job opportunities, but could not go on living there with their families. Residents suffer from lack of services, commercial and recreational facilities, poor management of public space, high prices and difficulty commuting to their previous central locations within the city. Armed assault and feeling unsafe were among the reasons reported by people who moved back to their former rundown old neighbourhoods (Shehayeb, 2004). In addition, the car-oriented physical environment does not enable or encourage social interaction, slowing down and sometimes totally hindering community building, a factor that greatly influences safety in an area (Shehayeb, 2008a).

Another factor that hinders community building and positive social relations is the forced co-existence of people with *incompatible* lifestyles. A healthy social mix helps form a socially and economically sustainable neighbourhood. Research indicates that such a mix involves different income groups and occupations with one major common factor, 'compatible lifestyles' (Shehayeb, 1989). This pattern is a feature characteristic of all popular/traditional and old districts of GCR. In contrast, **modern spatial planning** in Egypt, as in many other countries, still clusters and **segregates residential populations**

by **social status**, resulting in large concentrations of modest income and poor households in standardized housing, and a recipe site plan irrespective of their lifestyle. Districts such as Imbaba, al-Zawya al-Hamra, Ein al-Seera are all formally planned areas with large amounts of standardized public housing from the 1960s and 1970s. In addition to stigmatization caused by the concentration of the poor in one area, socio-cultural heterogeneity among residents has led to problems arising from incompatible lifestyles and conflicting priorities (Shehayeb, 1989). Neighbours sharing a landing would have different backgrounds, different expenditure priorities, and conflicting habits of use of shared spaces, often leading to hostilities. A weak sense of community prevails and according to some scholars, this anonymity rendered these areas fertile to refuge and the spread of fundamentalism.

Area level urban patterns

Crime or fear of crime (feeling unsafe) is unevenly distributed, not only amongst areas and districts within the city, but also spatially within the same district. Again generalizations that whole districts are “unsafe”, or certain types of urban development “breeds criminals”, are misleading, and serve as justifications for not affording residents their rights.

A study in Boulaq al-Dakroul district (an informal area in Giza - Figure 6) illustrates the versatile nature of safety and security issues associated with different urban patterns (Shehayeb, 2008b). People’s perception of safety in the area is varied: those who moved there recently (less than 5 years) perceive it as unsafe (influenced by the stigmatization associated with informal areas); those living there for longer perceive it as safe. More than half of the respondents perceive the whole district as a safe place for women to walk alone (66.6% of the sample) while 26% thought that it is safe for them in the pedestrian streets

but less so along the main street at the edges. While a few of the narrow residential streets were associated with drug dealing and prostitution, their percentage was minimal compared to the total number of such streets in the district which were appropriated by residents, well maintained and protected (Figure 7). Further investigation revealed that main streets which are less controlled by the community are the places where women felt the most unsafe from traffic, sexual harassment, and more serious crimes at unfrequented hours (Abdelhalim et al., 2010)

Figure 6: Safety and Unsafety in Boulaq el Dakroul Informal Area



Source: Khaled Abdelhalim and Amr Lashin

Figure 7: Safe public spaces: Community controlled residential streets in Boulaq al-Dakrou

Sources: left: Dina Shehayeb; middle and right: Dina Shehayeb

The same urban patterns were found in other informal areas as well as the older popular districts of Historic Cairo. Although apparently different physically, both types of districts consist of a tight urban fabric, with few open spaces along circulation paths. Circulation within the district is mostly on foot, with one or two pedestrian-dominant shopping streets that run through the length of the district. These provide the community with safe access on daily trips (to school, to work, to shop, etc.).

Public transportation and traffic is restricted to a few main streets within the district as well as along the periphery edges. These are the most public of public spaces and where the potential for safety declines because of the presence of outsiders. For example, the popular historic district of Al-Darb Al-Ahmar with its typically traditional urban fabric sustains a high sense of community control, territorial behaviour and appropriation of space. It is hard for a stranger to enter a residential street or cul-de-sac unnoticed and this quality makes it safer for women, girls and children to wonder around at an early age unattended. In this district, people sleep with their windows open and doors unlocked. This is an example of social policing at its best. The population in popular districts ranges from educated professionals to illiterate street vendors. The demographic profile of the popular districts is very similar to that of most informal areas, encompassing both middle income and lower income groups. The physical environment assists in community building over time and with some homogeneity in socio-cultural norms reflected in lifestyle and priorities, the difference in income is overlooked and social ties grow across income groups.

On the other end of the spectrum, the affluent have sought refuge from the city in gated communities that spread along the regional roads around GCR. The surrounding walls of gated communities were not erected for safety purposes. They are not to protect dwellers from other social groups, but rather to guarantee the good management of shared amenities such as street paving, parking, lighting, landscaping and garbage collection (Metwally, 2006). However, they have security personnel who control access and restrict it to dwellers, visitors and the serving staff. There are signs that after living in gated communities for some time and exposed to the negative media about informal areas, these residents are gradually developing fear of other social groups (Moheidin, 2010). There is a generation of youth growing in such exclusive environments who have not experienced public space in the city, or co-existed along other income groups, even for short periods of time.

Public space level - maximizing use value

Different security threats within public spaces such as pick-pocketing, sexual harassment, street fights, unjustified police harassment/interrogation, etc. occur to different degrees across the city. They are often associated with locations with specific characteristics. One determining factor is the degree of “publicness” and the density of uses/users in the public space. Personal accounts of unreported minor crime or acts of violence, and incidents of sexual harassment, reveal that **offences occur more in spaces that are more public**: spaces along the main streets in popular areas, at the bottle-neck entrance of an informal area, or downtown where window shoppers and street vendors block the sidewalks (Figure 8).

Figure 8: Controversial public spaces: commercial arteries in Boulaq El Dakrou. Extreme publicness and low sense of community ownership, where sexual harassment and street fights disrupt the otherwise busy street.



Source: GTZ – Participatory Development Programme in Urban Areas

Sexual harassment against women in public spaces is a significant issue in Egypt and the Middle East in general, and is gaining international attention. Using public means of transportation is a challenge to women and girls’ mobility and harassment of school girls on their way home from school or women shopping at the market are common, affecting their education, employment and leisure opportunities.⁷⁴

Forms of crime such as street fights, pick-pocketing and sexual harassment are common in association with busy transportation hubs, stops and markets in informal areas, where the shortage of space to move or park becomes more acute. Poor planning of public spaces, without accommodating the activities that co-exist naturally is at the root of the problems in many districts.

Deserted locations such as periphery roads, spaces below elevated roads, city edges or large vacant plots offer opportunity for robbery, kidnapping, and other types of violence that take advantage of lack of surveillance. These are common to mass housing estates which form the majority of planned new communities. There, the physical layout of roads and open spaces between buildings result in unsafe paths and unwatched spaces.

In spite of these variations, there would appear to be an overall sense of security within GCR and its different areas. The safest seem to be the older formal areas, whether popular or upper income districts, followed by informal areas, and the least safe as the new communities. As argued earlier, the city has two main advantages that unintentionally contribute to this sense of safety and security:

1. The urban patterns of historic and popular districts that have extended to informal areas, enabling a high level of community surveillance and control over public space. This allows such areas to survive with almost no formal policing, and acceptably low levels of crime.
2. The prevailing socio-cultural norms, based on religious belief systems, play an important role in lessening the opportunity for crime, looking out for the safety of others, and offering support to the vulnerable, not only within the neighbourhood, but in public spaces in general. Although these norms are affected by global trends of individualism, pragmatism and utilitarianism, the ethical base is there, and there are initiatives that revive and nurture it.

If the relationship between crime, safety and urban patterns is accepted, then the discourse on crime prevention should be about 'safer urban spaces'. In other words, it is more efficient to plan crime prevention measures on the neighbourhood and urban space scale, rather than on the city scale.

How Cairo responds to safety issues

The relatively high sense of safety and security in GCR cannot be attributed to policing. Offenders are immediately apprehended by the community and punished *in situ* by ordinary people, passers-by and shop attendants. Although GCR generally enjoys a high degree of visible police force presence compared to other cities, the complaint of insufficient and ineffective police comes from both formal and informal areas within the city. The public holds a negative view of the 'police', with a lack of trust in its actions. This view includes the perception that the police mainly serve the governing regime. Its service orientation and alliances are towards the government rather than citizens.

The effectiveness of police responses – except in cases of murder – depends on the status, power and connections of the applicant, consequently there is low reporting of crime. Harassment is practiced by the police against the vulnerable, poor, less educated, and those in popular and informal areas. It is also believed that the police, particularly the national security agency, apply selective intervention. They concentrate on strategic locations primarily with the objective of protecting foreigners (embassies, hotels and tourist destinations), important public and political figures and subduing potential riot locations (universities, syndicates, Parliament, etc.). Despite this image, there is still a demand for formal policing and crime prevention measures. Residents in Boulaq el Dakrour informal area called for a return of patrolling police cars in the main streets (Abdelhalim et al, 2010). Initiatives to change the negative public image of the police include regaining respect for police officers and reducing repressive measures, rather than improving crime prevention.

GCR has not consciously taken action to enhance safety and security in the city beyond normal policing. Nor have planners given enough attention, so far, to patterns that contribute to safety and security through neighbourhood planning and design, with the exception of gated residential compounds affordable only by the rich.

The future vision and planning of the GCR

The current socio-physical urban patterns outlined above, which afford a high level of safety and crime prevention in informal, old and popular districts of the GCR, are threatened by the future vision and planning of the GCR. The Strategic Plan of GCR – known as *Cairo 2050* – proposes interventions that would entail radical transformation of both the physical fabric and the socio-economic composition of the city (GOPP, 2009). This section discusses the implications of these proposals on crime and safety.

Proposed Strategic Plan of GCR - Cairo 2050

In 2007, the General Organization of Physical Planning (GOPP) at the Ministry of Housing, Utilities and New Urban Development launched the process of preparing a 'Wide-range, Strategic Plan for the Greater Cairo Region,' with the support of UNDP, UN-Habitat and JICA. The plan consists of a vision for the development of the region until 2050, and packages of mega projects for different geographic sectors within the city (GOPP, 2009).

So far, *Cairo 2050* has been promoted based on attractive imagery without much about the feasibility of it all (Figure 9). Although the plan is being promoted as the 'Urban Dream,' the packages of projects include detailed proposals of plans and urban design projects (Abdel Mohsen & Bahy Eldin, 2009). It is claimed that the plan is participatory, yet certain projects have been presented to decision-makers and are politically endorsed without much public or professional debate or consultation with local stakeholders including the five governorates (Figure 10). The 'strategic' plan is also falling back towards the tradition of master planning; demonstrating a blueprint of physical development without reflecting much understanding of the incremental process of community building or the dynamics of the urban economy.

Figure 9: The 'urban dream' of Cairo 2050 (the Strategic Plan of GCR). The existing city as anonymous 'background'



Source: Ministry of Housing, Utilities and Urban Development, "Greater Cairo Region 2050". Presentation at the GTZ-PDP bi-weekly meeting on 25 Feb. 2008 by Dr. Moustafa Madbouly, Chairman of GOPP (General Organization of Physical Planning, Ministry of Housing)

Figure 10: Cairo 2050: Proposals for large-scale displacement of informal areas creating contrasting inequalities



Source: Ministry of Housing, Utilities and Urban Development, "Greater Cairo Region 2050". Presentation at the GTZ-PDP bi-weekly meeting on 25 Feb. 2008 by Dr. Moustafa Madbouly, Chairman of GOPP (General Organization of Physical Planning, Ministry of Housing)

Although GOPP is keen to be aligned with globally agreed upon principles advocated by UN organizations and international development agencies, the plan has a number of underlying conceptions that contradict principles such as social inclusion or the right to the city. The plan reflects the following convictions:

- The private sector is the saviour of the city (neo-liberal market orientation) and real estate investment and tourism are the primary drivers to increasing national income.
- No value is given to the urban and social fabrics of the city (anything can be removed) and the value of the city is reduced to a handful of landmarks.
- Competitiveness is *en vogue* and social equity and social inclusion are not.
- The term "public" does not include the poor and traditional ways of living are seen as obstacles to development.

The way for the implementation of *Cairo 2050* is being paved by legislative and policy reforms. This includes the establishment of the 'Informal Settlements Development Facility' (ISDF) in 2008, as a national funding mechanism to redevelop informal areas, giving priority to "unsafe" areas. This new category of informal areas has four degrees of unsafety: life-threatening locations, structurally unsafe houses and makeshift structures, unhealthy housing conditions, and areas of insecure tenure and social unrest (El Faramawi, 2008; ISDF, 2010).

The approach of ISDF is redevelopment of slums (categories 2-4) through a full cost recovery model based on land value. The new Building and Planning Law of 2008 and further decrees by the Prime Minister facilitate the expropriation of privately-own land in unsafe areas (including the four categories). This conveniently serves ISDF operation and similar initiatives, such as 'Cairo without Slums' launched by the Prime Minister in 2010, in relocating slum dwellers to alternative housing in new cities. This complements Cairo 2050 in the relocation of "undesirable" uses outside GCR.

- Large-scale eviction and relocation has a negative impact on social and economic stability (Serry, 2000; Abdel Moneim, 2006). It causes deprivation of much needed social solidarity and decreases in livelihood opportunities, leading to illegal means of income generation such as drug dealing. More importantly, it perpetuates the further exclusion of already marginalized social groups, and deprives them of “the right to the city” (UN-Habitat, 2010). The outcome of expelling the poor and vulnerable to new communities outside the city will result in a drastic change in the demographic composition of the city. This has implications for social unrest that may emerge out of feelings of social injustice.
- Creating wide boulevards, with a strip of high standard real estate development that cuts through informal areas, juxtaposes social inequalities with incompatible lifestyles. The plan, which goes with the neo-liberal market-driven agenda to privatize public space (Reiker, 2010), does not show collective amenities or shared public spaces that would bring both groups into contact. Without meeting and knowing each other, the fear from the ‘other’ increases. Physical barriers such as walls and gates will certainly be added (Mohiedin, 2010), hence increasing the social divide and the perception of inequality and marginalization. Separating informal areas as undesirable perpetuates the stigma they feel.
- Large-scale expansion of unobserved public spaces and green space is a burden on local authorities. The increase of “no man’s land” is likely to attract negative behaviour. One of the urban management challenges of such large-scale parks is to keep public access, and at the same time maintain safety and security, particularly at night. Their surveillance and control will become a burden for the city’s already malfunctioning urban management (Maruthaveeran, 2010).

The question ‘whose city will it become’ arises when seeing images of affluent people (even foreign tourists) enjoying the public places of the city intended to replace the informal, popular and traditional areas and their inhabitants. The more important question is whether people will accept such changes affecting their lives or attempt to ‘claim back the city’ peacefully or otherwise.

Opportunities for crime prevention

In Egypt, like countries with a similar political situation, the reform of governance is slow and faces huge obstacles such as overcoming corruption, resource allocation for reform, decentralization and democratization. Therefore, it may be more effective in the short term to focus on the role played by urban planning in crime prevention, through the enabling and promotion of community control and participation. Safety and security and community surveillance can be increased and sustained through planning, urban design and participatory development measures.

Crime prevention and the promotion of safety and security are related to informal and popular formal patterns. The recommended strategy for promoting crime prevention in GCR is to maintain the physical and socio-cultural patterns in these areas, to acknowledge their positive aspects, and ensure that their upgrading and development do not spoil these advantages. Another strategic direction is to learn from the old and informal neighbourhoods in the design and planning of new communities. The same principles that apply to upgrading the existing ones can be generalized to guide the new (Shehayeb, 2007a).

Currently, as the consolidated parts of new cities become more populated, signs of popular patterns taking over mass housing sites appear; transforming ground-floor flats into shops and attracting street vendors around unplanned informal transportation stops. These emerging patterns enhance the safety of those areas and, with time, they become accepted and sometimes even regulated rather than prevented. The problem still remains that this flexibility is regarded as 'giving in' to a backward lifestyle, rather than design and planning principles that enhance the liveability of those places. Professionals still continue planning and designing without any consideration to these patterns. Governing by 'informality', a pattern in many Arab countries like Egypt, gives leeway to citizens to erode, encroach (Figure 11), improvise and moderate the negative impacts of formal urban planning that is socially exclusive, either intentionally or unintentionally (Shehayeb & Issa, 2009).

Figure 11: Adapting to and appropriating the ring road and gaining access to an otherwise discriminating urban feature



Sources: left: Ahmed Zaazaa; right: Maha el-Serafi

The two advantages of the urban patterns of popular, historic and informal areas and the socio-cultural norms which underpin them both enable and sustain a high sense of safety and security in local communities. Together they form the main opportunity for crime prevention in GCR. The lessons learnt from the existing 'working' patterns include the following (Shehayeb, 2010):

1. Restricted access to residential streets, whether by being narrow, bending, or cul-de-sacs, discourages through-traffic of both vehicles and pedestrians, while dwellings on the ground floor enable further control of access to strangers. The low vehicle mobility in residential streets encourages community uses such as children's play, women sitting in front of their houses, etc. which adds up to the surveillance effect. Shops in residential streets are usually few, and of a kind that does not attract more than the street residents.
2. Appropriation of residential streets by their residents increases perceived ownership of the shared space and manifests itself in collective acts of maintenance, greening, lighting, garbage collection and seasonal decorations. The result of these actions and the presence of other territorial markers act as environmental cues of safety, nurturing the sense of safety shared by residents.

3. Mixed-use pattern, where shops line certain commercial streets in the area, allows continuous community presence for surveillance on the more public streets. This network of neighbourhood commercial streets includes one or two commercial streets where mass transit passes through, and one or two pedestrian commercial streets along which schools and community services intermingle with everyday commercial needs. This allows women and children to walk safely to their daily destinations.
4. Street vendors locate themselves on pedestrian concentration routes and nodes such as mass transit stops affording convenient shopping on the way to work or on the way back home. Food carts, fruit stands and small accessories are the main items sold by those carts.
5. Proximity to services and availability of all basic needs along continuous pedestrian dominant streets encourages walkability, especially that all streets of the neighbourhood are populated until late at night, either by residents in residential streets, or by wider groups of community members on commercial streets. This self-sufficiency and high walkability speeds up the formation of social relations among residents, and consequently contributes to community building.
6. High densities of people in public spaces helps avoid negative appropriation of open spaces or vacant lots by certain groups excluding other members of the community. Spaces between buildings are sometimes appropriated by young people to play football helping them stay garbage-free, lit and safeguarded. It is essential, nevertheless, that these spaces are seen by other groups such as shops and residents to interfere quickly and prevent any negative behaviour.
7. The need to provide for themselves the services they lack through self-help initiatives makes informal area dwellers more participative in community affairs than others in better tended areas. This activism is reflected in their willingness to engage in crime prevention initiatives and cooperate with the authorities. This motivation is proportionate to the degree of marginalization that the community feels. The more marginalized they are, the more eager they are to be involved in participatory forms of governance.

The recommended strategy for maximizing the utilization of such opportunities for crime prevention is to preserve and improve traditional neighbourhood design evident in old and informal areas, as well as guide municipal service provision to support societal safety measures. This should be implemented by measures encouraging police and other public security officials to improve state-society relations, build trust by effectively engaging citizens in public space safety and crime control efforts. Community policing, problem-oriented policing and situational crime prevention are some of the methods that can be utilized.

Rationalizing formal policing according to urban/behavioural patterns is also proposed. Mini police stations could be placed at potential trouble spots such as outside the high school, or at the mass transit station, or entry points to informal areas. This strategy has been implemented with success in the informal barrios south of Bogotá, Colombia, where the Kai (a one-room, 2 policemen station) are situated in strategic locations to detect and prevent problems (Shehayeb, 2007b). Also re-establishing regular patrolling within residential areas would help create a sense of police availability and complement

community surveillance. Efforts to sensitise and capacitate the local administration and communities through the use of participatory development tools have also been undertaken (Abdelhalim, 2009).

All this requires urban planners, urban managers, and decision-makers to change the way they perceive and judge informal and popular areas. Informal area dwellers should be given “the right to the city” – the core of the World Urban Forum 2010 debate - and something which has been supported by the Cabinet of Ministers since 2005.⁷⁵

Lessons learnt beyond the Cairo case

This paper challenges the correlation between crime and poverty and certain urban characteristics, and the generalization that informal settlements are unsafe or criminogenic, at least for Egypt and the Middle East Region.

The myths about the negative correlation between crime rates and certain physical urban factors such as high residential density, mixed use or adjacency of contrasting socio-economic neighbourhoods should be rejected on the basis of empirical studies. The same applies to equating high crime rates with poverty rather than inequality of opportunity, and stigmatization for racial, religious or cultural reasons.

Crime prevention has to be understood and used to minimize the negative impacts of urbanization, instead of seeking ideal solutions reflecting utopias or global planning dogmas.

Urbanization offers protective factors, yet poses risks. Intervention in urban development has to aim at eliminating safety risks and increasing the potential for safety. Urban planning has to take safety and crime prevention into consideration in terms of particular socio-cultural contexts. Based on international experience, areas with high crime rates should be targeted for physical and social upgrading rather than relocation or repressive policing.

The pivotal role which social and cultural norms play in safety and security is always overlooked and needs to be acknowledged.

Social and cultural norms affect and mediate the perception of safety, crime and fear of crime and the adaptive responses to stressful situations such as poor living conditions, marginalization and social inequality. This also makes crime prevention country and/or region-specific.

There is no one-size-fits-all solution for crime prevention – a common mistake when policy measures are implemented globally.

The promotion of good practices is useful but not necessarily applicable worldwide. Regional differences should be clearly presented in case studies and global policy recommendations.

There is a need for further research on urban planning and crime prevention using integrative approaches, concepts and methods.

There is a need for multi-dimensional research to provide comprehensive indicators and evaluation on what works in urban planning for crime prevention. Research can be used to understand the dynamics between the social and physical environment in relation to safety and security issues.

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High crime cities

Understanding Urban Crime: Cross-national data collection⁷⁶

Steven Malby⁷⁷

Whilst many forms of violence and crime have a significant impact on residents of cities and municipalities, the impact of crime involving armed violence is perhaps the most serious. Recent reports at the international level highlight the significant negative effects of violence on individual lives, property and the economy, and the role of urbanization as a protective and risk factor.⁷⁸ An in-depth understanding of such effects is critical to preventing violence and crime. This can, in part, be achieved through enhanced statistical knowledge that provides information on the *nature* and *extent* of crime involving armed violence.



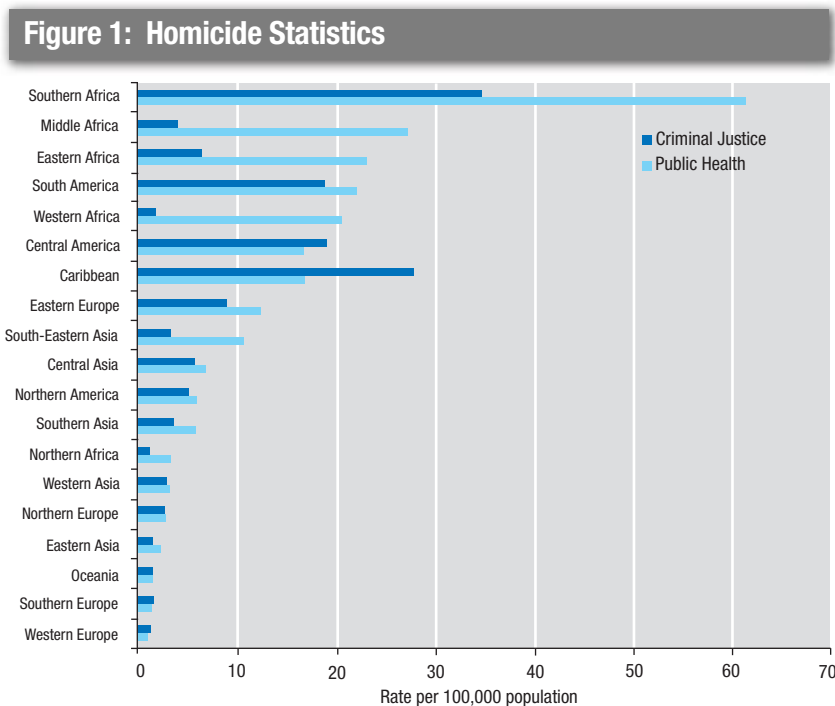
Source: UNODC Homicide Statistics

Crime prevention starts with **knowledge**. Sources of crime 'knowledge' include population-based surveys and administrative data recorded by police, law enforcement, criminal justice, and medical services. Such knowledge must then be translated into policy development, including:

- Identifying areas of and reasons for weak social cohesion and developing projects to strengthen cohesion, including design of community programmes
- Urban management to revitalize or develop areas that feel unsafe or where drug activity is commonly observed
- Improved police professionalism or visibility

- Development of strategies for ongoing monitoring and use of data in response formulation
- Providing a measure of whether institutions or agencies are accomplishing goals and objectives; budget decisions, meeting demands of the public, media, interest groups⁷⁹
- Revealing problems of crime and criminal justice that are of greatest national concern⁸⁰

Crime involving armed violence can take many forms and result in a range of outcomes, from material loss to injury or even death. At the most serious end of this spectrum, data on the crime of intentional homicide can be used as a key indicator for non-conflict related levels of interpersonal violence.⁸¹ In particular, data on intentional homicide tends to be comparatively widely available, due to the fact that it is typically generated by both law enforcement and public health sources. Trend data on intentional homicide in an urban setting may provide insights into patterns of crime, emerging threats and intervening factors, such as urbanization and socio-economic processes. Indeed, data on intentional homicide rates in cities across the world indicates that whilst in some countries city homicide rates are about equal, or sometimes even lower than national rates, in other countries city homicide rates are many times that of the national rate (Figure 1). Such information can help government and local authorities identify the problems at hand and particular areas of need, allowing policy responses to be oriented to improve safety and prevent or reduce criminality and violence.



Source: UNODC Homicide Statistics

In addition to administrative data on crime prevalence, population-based surveys can be useful for providing complementary information to that obtained from criminal justice statistics⁸², as well as additional information on protective and risk factors in the city. Surveys can include questions on residents' perceptions of safety in public and private spaces and on measures taken to protect themselves or their property from crime. Results from cross-national surveys suggest that a greater proportion of respondents in cities in developing countries may feel unsafe on the street after dark than in developed countries. In contrast, a greater proportion of respondents in cities in developed countries often report having installed additional security measures, such as special door locks (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Results from cross-national surveys

	Average Countries	Average Main Cities (Developed)	Average Main Cities (Developing)
Percentage feeling unsafe on the street after dark	27%	32%	61%
Percentage with special door locks	45%	56%	47%

Source: Criminal Victimization in International Perspective. Key findings from the 2004-2005 ICVS and EU ICS

Challenges

Notwithstanding the value of data on crime and criminal justice, there remain a number of challenges in obtaining and collecting such data (Figure 3). Police-recorded data on intentional homicide are available at the national level in around 170 countries, but variations in data collection, availability and quality exist as between sub-regions. Comparatively few countries in Middle, West and Eastern Africa, for example, make criminal justice data on intentional homicide publicly available. Such data as do exist frequently show large differences with available public health data on homicide.⁸³ Significant capacity gaps between developed and developing countries affect the cross-national comparison of police-recorded crime statistics. Capacity differences that affect comparability may relate to the level of completeness of death registration data, lack of standardized collection processes, limitations in the capacity of police and law enforcements agencies to identify and record homicide events, and differences in rates of individual reporting.⁸⁴

Figure 3: Challenges in city data collection:

- Defining relevant population
- Multiple sources (municipal/federal police)
- Distrust and social structures may prevent reporting
- Different levels of efficiency in police recording

National legal thresholds for categorising a death as intentional homicide may also vary. Infanticide, assault leading to death and killings carried out by law enforcement officers (acting legitimately in the line of duty or not) all may or may not be included in police-recorded statistics. Cross-national comparability requires an understanding of the exact content of figures reported by countries as intentional homicide. At the city level, additional challenges exist in terms of defining the relevant population for the calculation of prevalence rates, dealing with multiple data sources (such as municipal/federal police) and addressing distrust and social structures that may prevent reporting.

Finding solutions

The lack of reliable information on crime and violence, particularly in developing countries, and the absence of accord between data sources contribute to challenges in designing effective programmes to combat criminality and armed violence, including in urban areas. In addition to the need to improve administrative police and public health recording systems, increased use of population-based surveys is key to filling this information gap. The United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC) has produced a Manual on Victimization Surveys (Figure 4) to assist in the design of crime victimization surveys and to assist in enabling cross-national comparison of survey results. Victimization surveys may be used by administrators of criminal justice and policy makers to monitor perceptions, concerns and fears about crime and criminal justice, and also can complement police-reported data.⁸⁵ The Manual provides specific crime prevention assistance by offering a tool for building the capacity of national institutions to collect data through population-based surveys, and by offering practical advice for national and municipal authorities.

Figure 4: The crime victimization survey offers information on:



- Prevalence of crime victimization, by type
- Identification of vulnerable population groups at risk of victimization
- Information on weapon ownership and use
- Feelings of fear and insecurity
- Perceptions of authorities and crime prevention initiatives

Source: UNODC-UNECE

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Biography

Steven Malby is a Research Officer at the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) responsible for the collection and analysis of data on the nature and extent of crime and on the criminal justice system response. He is qualified as a lawyer in England and Wales and holds an advanced degree in international human rights law.

Community Driven Violence and Crime Reduction in Trinidad & Tobago Citizen Security Programme (CSP)⁸⁶

Gregory Sloane-Seale⁸⁷

The two islands of Trinidad and Tobago are located in the southern Caribbean region close to the South American mainland. In 1888, Trinidad and Tobago were incorporated into a single colony and it became a republic in 1976. The islands are small in size (Tobago is 26 by 7 miles, Trinidad is 37 by 50 miles) and population; Tobago's total population is 54,000, while Trinidad's is 1,300,000, of whom 300,000 live in the capital Port of Spain.

Recent crises

Over the past decade, Trinidad and Tobago have witnessed dramatic increases in murder and criminal activity (Figures 1 & 2). Following major crackdowns on trafficking in drugs and weapons in South America (notably Colombia and Mexico) during this period, the islands have become alternative transit routes, and the site of drug warfare, gang violence and transnational organized crime. In addition to drug trafficking, organized kidnapping and corruption have also affected the islands. From 1999 to 2005, the homicide rate more than quadrupled, from 7 to 30 per 100,000.⁸⁸ From January to October 2005, 314 murders were committed in Trinidad and Tobago, marking a sharp increase over the 222 murders recorded in the same period in 2004.⁸⁹ In 2008, there was a record high of 550 murders.⁹⁰ Many of the homicides affect young men.

In addition to such dramatic increases in crime and violence since the early 2000s, and increased levels of fear and insecurity, the crime detection rate has also fallen (Figure 3). Threats to witnesses of crime, the police and other criminal justice professionals and their families are common.

Figure 1: Increasing rates in murder and criminal activity



Source: The Guardian

Figure 2: Selected Serious Crimes Report (2000-2009)

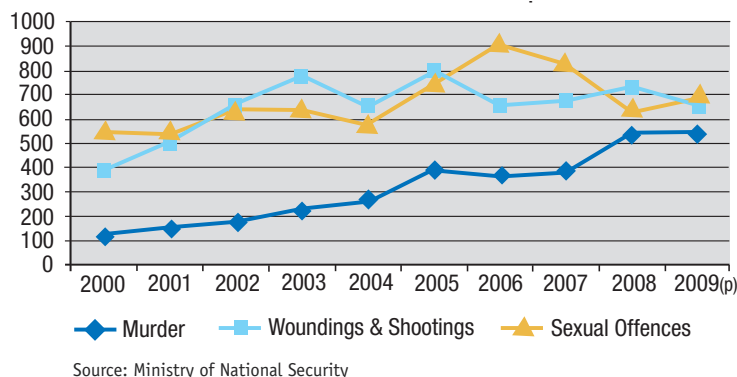
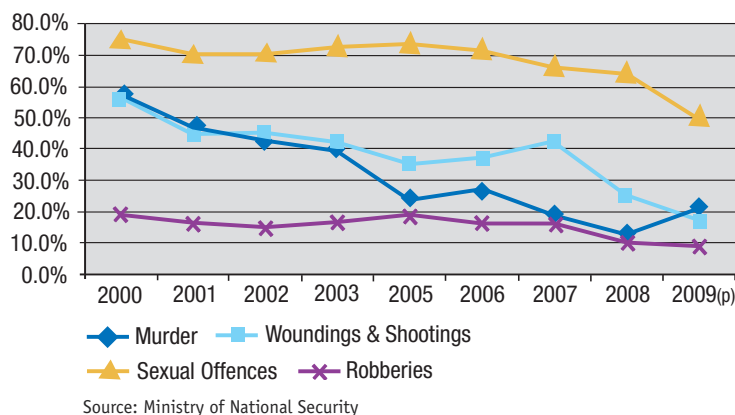


Figure 2: Selected Serious Crimes Report (2000-2009)



In response to the ongoing crisis, the Ministry of National Security initiated the 6-year Citizen Security Programme in May 2008, in collaboration with the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB). This followed the completion of a series of base-line victimization surveys during 2007 to assess levels of insecurity, experience of crime and attitudes towards the police, as well as capacity-building training. The programme is currently in its third year.

The CSP, although modeled on a similar programme first implemented in Jamaica, and a number of other countries in the region including Columbia, Guatemala, and El Salvador has many unique features in addition to a strong monitoring and evaluative component. The success of those programmes in helping to build social cohesion and reduce criminal activity in high crime communities encouraged the Minister of National Security to develop the programme in partnership with IDB in Trinidad and Tobago.

The Objectives of Citizen Security Programme

The overall objective of the CSP is to reduce crime and violence in 22 partner communities across the two islands. This means achieving reductions in levels of homicide, robbery, and wounding; and the reduction of injuries related to child maltreatment, domestic violence, juvenile delinquency and gun related violence. In addition, it aims to increase the perception of safety among citizens, and increase the collective efficacy of those communities to prevent violence. The 22 target communities (19 in Trinidad, 3 in Tobago) were selected because of their high levels of risk of crime and violence but also by their ability to build on existing human and capital assets resident within their communities i.e. faith based organization, sporting groups, schools etc. It provides funding and support for pilot projects and interventions addressing some of the risk factors for violence, and to strengthen non-governmental organizations in the communities.

Components of the CSP

The programme has three main components:

Community-based preventive interventions

Support for the “Policing for People” Initiative

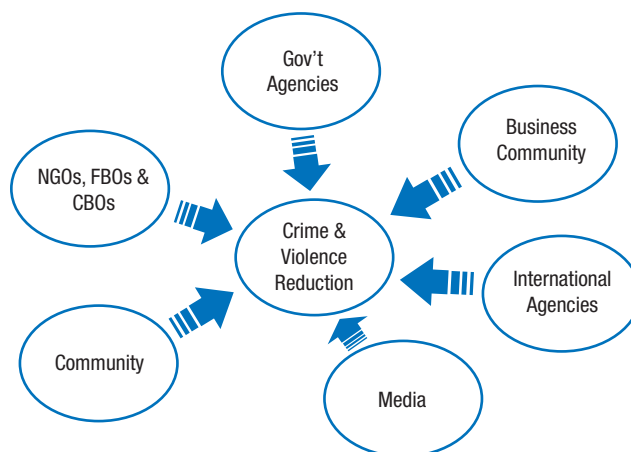
Capacity building for research and policy sectors of the Ministry of National Security.

The community-based component uses a multi-dimensional approach which brings together partners from government and international agencies, community members, the business community, the media and non-government organizations (Figure 5). It works to create dialogue between those partners in local communities, setting up community action councils to explore local problems (and the links to national issues such as the drug trade). These develop into community-led and community-driven initiatives to improve the safety and well-being of the neighbourhoods, and help to prevent and reduce criminality and violence.

Figure 4: CSP's five priority areas

- Youth Firearm Related Violence
- Juvenile Delinquency
- Child Maltreatment
- Domestic Violence
- Crimes Against Visitors (Tobago)

Figure 5: Multi Sectoral Approach



Source: CSP

Community Transformation: 7 Steps to Social Change

As the programme has developed it has incorporated a series of ‘Seven steps to social change’ which help to guide the process of community transformation (Figure 7). These include *knowledge, desire, skills, optimism, facilitation, stimulation* and *reinforcement*. The first step ‘knowledge’ refers to identifying risk factors (Figure 6) associated with crime and violence, and defining existing issues that require attention and support. This is accomplished by conducting a series of community safety assessments, community-based asset mapping and baseline surveys in each community.



Source: CSP

The second step ‘desire’ (“I want to”) includes holding conversations/consultations with community members on their visions for achieving a desirable, healthy, attractive and safe future. At this stage, like-minded persons are brought together and community-building activities can be discussed.

For step 3 (“I can”) the partners are provided with the necessary skills to begin to work together. The CSP team facilitates skill-building workshops to address the themes of community organizing and leadership, proposal and report writing, understanding and addressing issues such as domestic violence, child abuse, mediation, etc.



Source: CSP

realization as partners link up with relevant government and non-governmental agencies to implement the community’s vision. At Step 6 ‘stimulation’ (“I’m joining”) the community and its partners implement rapid impact projects. The final Step 7 ‘reinforcement’ (“that was success”) ensures the sustainability of the initiatives through public messaging, public recognition, positive reinforcement and continued engagement. Several community initiatives are funded by CSP’s ICON Fund (Inspiring Confidence in our Community Fund).

Figure 6: Crime & Violence Risk Factors

- Family history of violence/neglect
- Lack of practiced child friendly parenting
- Long durations of unsupervised time for youth
- Learning disabilities
- Incomplete schooling at primary/secondary level
- Early sexual behaviour/pregnancy
- Early use of psychotropic drugs
- Easy access to firearms
- Lack of Community cohesion
- Poor Maintenance of physical environment
- Stigmatization of communities
- Negative perception of Police Service

Step 4 ‘optimism’ (“it’s worthwhile”) puts in place the foundation for future initiatives and brings together key actors. This step includes identifying and helping to develop progressive leaders, engaging with youth, developing and facilitating community projects, and connecting with government representatives and local councillors.

Step 5 ‘facilitation’ (“it’s do-able”) is the stage of

Figure 7: Community Transformation 7 Steps to social change



Source: CSP

The “Policing for People” Initiative

The second component of the programme provides support to the Trinidad and Tobago Police Service (TTPS) through the ‘Policing for People’ initiative. CSP finances activities to increase public confidence in the police, and enhance police-public interaction. This includes building the capacities of the police to address the crime issues they face, and working to change the mentalities of the police in terms of how they engage with the community and with young people. Some of the activities have included the refurbishment of nine police stations to improve service to citizens; the introduction of *Re-Evaluation Counselling* to the TTPS which provides peer support to police officers; hiring social workers to address some of their needs; providing support for police/community collaborative social projects; setting up a Victim Support Unit that integrates specialized training on counselling support, crisis negotiation and grief counselling for victims and witnesses of crime; and providing computer equipment and software in addition to basic IT training to help them process reports from citizens into a standardized format to compliment more efficient data collection and analysis in police stations.⁹¹

Building Research and Policy Capacity within the Ministry of National Security

The final component of the programme comprises capacity building within the Ministry of National Security, to increase their ability to assess and respond to issues of crime and violence.

One example involves work to reduce illegal gun use, again applying a multi-agency approach that addresses the associated risk factors (Figure 8). The approach requires multiple collaborations between government departments, non-governmental organizations, civil society, the police, international bodies and local government and other actors. This can be challenging when agendas diverge. Collaborative partnerships and responsibilities have been allocated for each of four thematic areas: personal safety, economic sustainability, power/control, and the culture of violence.

Some partners work in a number of thematic areas. Roles, responsibilities and specific social development interventions are defined for each of the four areas. These include public education, skills training, environmental maintenance, gender equality, family support and substance abuse support.

Figure 8: Multi Agency Approach to Addressing the Risk Factors for Illegal Gun Use

Thematic Areas	Intervention	Responsibilit
Personal Safety & Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Increased Police Presence ➤ Maintenance of Physical environment & Utilities ➤ Support Community cohesion & efficacy ➤ Mediation 	TTPS Regional Corp/Local Gov/CBOs, CSP CSP, MSD, MCDC&GA, NGOs MSD, NGOs
Economic sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Special Education ➤ Vocational Training ➤ Non-academic “on the job” training and Placement 	MoE, Servol MoTE, Servol, MCDC&GA Gov programmes, BC NGOs NFS, CSP
Power & Control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Life/social skills training ➤ Family support services ➤ Life/social Skills training ➤ Drug Education/rehabilitation ➤ Gender equity specific education ➤ Family support services ➤ Public Education 	MoE, NGOs NADAPP, NGOs, UWI, NGOs, MCDC&GA NFS, CSP MSD, NGOs CSP, Media MSD, NGOs
Culture of Violence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mediation ➤ Public Education ➤ Promote & reward efforts that advocate non-violence ➤ Mediation 	CSP, Media CSP, NGOs MSD, NGOs

Source: CSP

Challenges and Opportunities

The Citizen Security Programme is a well-planned but complex initiative that incorporates multiple interventions at several levels, and integrates a wide variety of actors. This necessitates good organization, efficiency, commitment and motivation from all parties, in a setting where levels of fear and insecurity and violence are very high. It has already achieved some successes in the creation of stronger communities where violence is less prevalent and reducing.

There are, however, a number of challenges to the success of the programme in achieving its overall goals of reducing crime and violence. Some of the challenges so far experienced in the programme include the failure to reach all the violent perpetrators who are potential risks to community peace; the continued ineffective policing of certain areas; the displacement of crime to neighbouring areas not yet reached by the programme (and the harassment of some of the 'successful communities'); the need for better witness protection; the continued presence of illegal guns on the streets and of high homicide rates; and bureaucratic obstacles which affect the timeliness of implementing rapid intervention and community-led strategies.

The project is now focusing greater attention on each of these challenges, and looking at the opportunities to improve responses (Figure 9). This will include working with a cross-section of intermediary groups, and conducting outreach work with the prison population, to increase the ability to reach violent offenders who one day will return to their communities. The project will continue to build partnerships with the police on prevention strategies (e.g. targeted patrols, higher visibility, police youth clubs and other integrated community activities). To respond to crime displacement problems more focus will be given to situational crime prevention and social control mechanisms. In relation to witness protection, comparative studies and research will be conducted, and laws/policies amended to improve the legal framework. The penalties for possession and use of illegal firearms will also be increased.

In relation to the high homicide rate, the project will partner with the *Chicago Ceasefire* initiative, which has successfully used what are known as 'violence interrupters' to reduce retaliatory violence, as well as develop hospital emergency department outreach programmes. As for bureaucratic obstacles, there is potential to outsource some of the implementation of project activities to institutions using performance-based agreements, and with comprehensive monitoring and evaluation frameworks.

Figure 9: Challenges and opportunities to improve responses

Challenges	Opportunities
Not reaching all the violent perpetrators who are potential risks to community peace	Work with cross section of intermediary groups to expand reach. Conduct outreach work and sensitization with Prison population
Effective Policing of certain areas	Continue to build partnerships with the police in preventative strategies i.e. Targeted patrols, higher visibility, police youth clubs and other integrated community activities.
Crime Displacement	For more focus on aspects of situational crime prevention and social control mechanisms
Witness Protection	To conduct comparative studies and research into this phenomenon and amend laws etc to improve legal framework
Illegal guns on the streets	To amend laws to increase penalties for possession and use of illegal firearms
Reducing the homicides	To partner with Chicago Ceasefire to introduce violence interrupters and hospital ER outreach
Timeliness of implementing Intervention Strategies – Overcoming Bureaucracy	Outsource activities to institutions to implement through performance based agreements with comprehensive monitoring & evaluation frameworks

Source: CSP

Biography

Gregory Sloane-Seale is the National Coordinator of the Citizen Security Programme within the Ministry of National Security in Trinidad & Tobago which is funded through a loan facility with the Inter-American Development Bank. He has facilitated workshops for UNICEF within the Caribbean region on Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health and the XCHANGE Project which focused on youth violence reduction and prevention. In addition, he has attended and/or presented at many regional and international forums on issues relating to youth and community outreach, crime observatories, crime and violence prevention and has actively participated in three ICPC colloquiums to date in Oslo, Norway; Queretaro, Mexico and Montreal, Canada.

Social Urbanism as a Crime Prevention Strategy: The Case of Medellin, Colombia⁹²

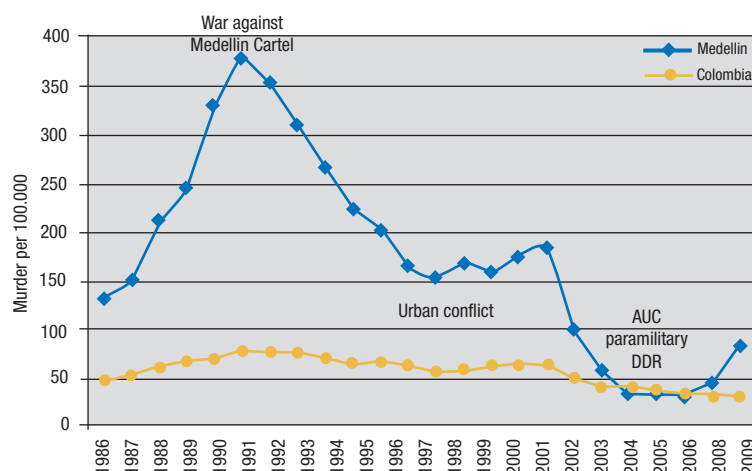
Bernardo Pérez Salazar⁹³

Medellin is a thriving city of 2.6 million inhabitants at the heart of a metropolitan area of 3.5 million in an area of 340 km.⁹⁴ It registered rapid 5% annual population growth during the 1970's and 1980's, most of which was absorbed as informal settlements on surrounding slopes above 1,600 meters elevation. There was scant public investment in infrastructure given that local authorities regard the settlements as illegal. At present Medellin's population grows at an average annual rate of 3%.⁹⁵ In 2008, the gross domestic product (GDP) of the Medellin metropolitan area totaled nearly US \$ 44 billion (Purchasing Power Parity –PPP–), with banking, insurance, real estate and industry as the most dynamic growth sectors.⁹⁶ In 2009, the municipal budget was over US \$2 billion (PPP).⁹⁷

Medellin's reputation as a violent city changed some years ago with a downturn in its murder rate, which halved in 2002-2003.⁹⁸ The descending trend that consolidated during 2004-2007 went in hand with the implementation of an integrated urban intervention approach known as "social urbanism" which was conceived of as a crime prevention strategy within the framework of a vigorous social inclusion policy. More recently, Medellin's murder rate has reemerged as an issue as a result of factional violence over drug trafficking control in the city.

Medellin's violent past

Medellin's reputation as a high crime city is widely held since violence peaked in 1991 during the war against Pablo Escobar and the Medellin Cartel, with murder rates soaring to around 380 per 100,000.⁹⁹ Escobar's death and the disintegration of his Cartel gave way to an urban conflict dominated by rival insurgent and counterinsurgent armed factions, which established "no-go" areas for police and judicial authorities as well as for public facility workers in densely populated, low income zones of Medellin. Strict control of populations and territories became a pre-condition to dominate extortion rackets, drug and firearms trafficking, illegal recruitment of youths for surveillance, miscellaneous errands, sharp shooters, and hit men, as well as to economically control access to public service infrastructure. In Medellin, illegal groups controlled some urban areas in this fashion for more than five years. At its height, urban conflict involved some 650 armed bands, 4 ELN¹⁰⁰ and numerous FARC¹⁰¹ urban insurgent structures, 3 AUC¹⁰² paramilitary counterinsurgent units, and an independent militia known as CAP.¹⁰³

Figure 1: Colombia and Medellin: Murder Rates (1986–2009)

Source: Instituto Nacional de Medicina Legal y Ciencias Forenses

Urban conflict and human trafficking

In the context of the urban conflict, illegal recruitment became a covert form of human trafficking controlled by illegally armed groups. Although in Colombia legislation considers illegal recruitment as an autonomous crime, it shares the basic characteristics of human trafficking. It is carried out with the use of coercion, deception or abuse of a position of power and/or of vulnerability, thus rendering the victim's consent irrelevant. Traffickers profit by offering people incentives to look for better opportunities, leading recruited youth to undertake high risk activities for exploitative purposes, such as becoming hit men or sexual slaves. In this way children and youth are unduly exposed to criminal control, if not to risk their personal integrity and lives. Recruitment avoidance is one of the main reasons behind intra-urban forced displacement of families, another overlooked form of human rights violation in the context of urban conflict in Medellin.

***Operación Orión*: Government gets a grip on a “no go” area.**

In October 2002, the national government ordered a joint operation of police, justice, military and state security forces, known as *Operación Orión*, in the populous Comuna 13 in the slopes of western Medellin. Government regained control of an urban “no go” area held by insurgents after three days of combat, which left a body count of 10 insurgent militias and 4 members of the joint government forces, as well as 40 injured civilians (16 of them underage), 5 missing, and 308 arrested.¹⁰⁴ After *Operación Orión* murder rates dropped by half in Medellin, from 184 per 100,000 in 2002, to 98 in 2003.¹⁰⁵

Figure 2: Medellín: Concentration of ex combatant settlements and murder reduction (2003-4)



Source: Giraldo, J. 2009. "Guerra urbana, crimen organizado y homicidio en Medellín", en *Seguridad pública. Tres aproximaciones*, Medellín: Universidad EAFIT – Centro de Análisis Político, p. 39.

During 2003, the first of numerous disarmament, demobilization and reintegration (DDR) processes was begun by counterinsurgent paramilitary units in the Medellín area. Early in 2004, the municipality established a Peace and Reconciliation Programme (PPR) in order to provide ex-paramilitaries with legal, social and psychological assistance as well as support for income generation. By 2006, nearly 4,000 ex-combatants had settled in Medellín. The main areas where ex-paramilitary settled showed visible reductions in murder during 2003-2004 (Figure 2).

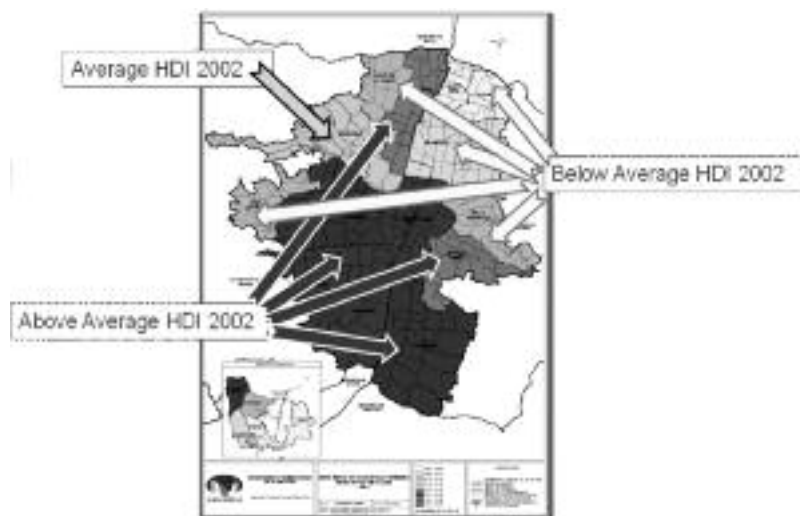
Reduced violence allowed urban social inequalities to surface

By 2005, Medellín had around 100 armed bands, and about 4,000 'street gangs'. The local government regained territorial control of peripheral areas of the city, and reopened schools and health services which had been absent in some areas for as long as 5 or 6 years. Police, teachers, health and public facility workers who reentered former "no go" areas, found generalized fraudulent connections to electric networks causing frequent fire incidents as well as water-logged ground soil, due to permanent leaks in illegal water connections, causing a high risk of landslides.

Surveys found that most densely populated, low income urban zones of Medellín scored at the bottom scale of the Human Development Index (HDI) (Figure 3). Housing deficiencies (structural and functional) were general, household income was commonly below the poverty line (less than US\$2 a day per capita), streams were highly polluted and many turned into sewers and garbage dumps, public spaces were scarce and poor in quality, and pedestrian pathways were poorly lit, unsafe and discontinuous. Not surprisingly, apathy

towards joint initiatives with local government was generalized as was mistrust in neighbours. Municipal public works, frequently unfinished, were common targets of vandalism.

Figure 3: Medellin: Human Development Index Scores by Zones (2002)



Source: Municipality of Medellin: Departamento Administrativo de Planeación – Subdirección de Metroinformación

Keys Aspects of Social Urbanism: Integrating Urban Improvement with Safety and Security Policies

In response, local authorities established a vigorous social inclusion policy as the centerpiece of the municipal development plan for 2004-2007, based on an approach known as “social urbanism”. Its focus is on areas with the lowest quality of life and human development index scores, which simultaneously show favourable physical, urban and social traits. Social urbanism recognizes and values informal urban developments and provides flexible mechanisms to bring these up to quality “normal” urban standards, while keeping permanently in touch with local needs and demands through community consultation mechanisms.

To meet this challenge, the municipality launched a pilot integrated urban intervention which involved both large-scale social investment as well as physical upgrading of housing and public spaces. As indicated, a key attribute of social urbanism in Medellin is its demanding standards for quality urban design and project management efficiency, as well as its ability to respond adequately to specific and complex needs of households affected by social exclusion. Integrated urban interventions developed along these guidelines have proved, in the case of Medellin, to be successful as a crime prevention strategy that effectively contributes to the well-being of socially excluded households, encourages pro-social behaviour, improves trust and community integration in high risk neighbourhoods, and reduces opportunities and incentives for offending.

Figure 4: Social Urbanism in Medellin: Quality design and project management efficiency adequately responding to complex needs of communities affected by social exclusion



Source: Municipality of Medellin: Proyecto Urbano Integral Zona Nororiental

The pilot project in the Zona Nororiental of Medellin, whose HDI was at the bottom of the scale in 2002, illustrates the social urbanism approach. The municipality invested US \$ 325 million in 2004-2007 covering an urban area of approximately 150 hectares served by a Metrocable line. This mass transport system of cable borne shuttles connected to the city's metro system had been recently inaugurated. Of the total investment, 80% was spent on 290 social programmes and projects benefitting a population of over 150,000 with universal health and basic and secondary educational services, integral protection for children and vulnerable households, psycho-social and legal assistance for victims of human rights violations, support for communities receiving ex-combatants as they reintegrate into society, access to recreational, cultural and sport activities for youth, promotion and monitoring of participatory budgeting processes, and improvement of access to administrative and consensual justice, among others.

The remaining 20% of the investment, approximately US\$75 million, was directed to improving and building 125,000 m² of quality public spaces, including a library-park and other community infrastructure, playgrounds, numerous pedestrian bridges and pathways, and the environmental recovery of polluted streams and margins. Some 300 social housing units were also constructed, validating an onsite relocation and redensification pilot project that led to the reclassification of 215 hectares of urban land in Medellin as suitable for social housing development on slope areas of the city.¹⁰⁶

Figure 5: Onsite relocation and re-densification of social housing in slope areas of Medellin



Source: Municipality of Medellin: Proyecto Urbano Integral Zona Nororiental

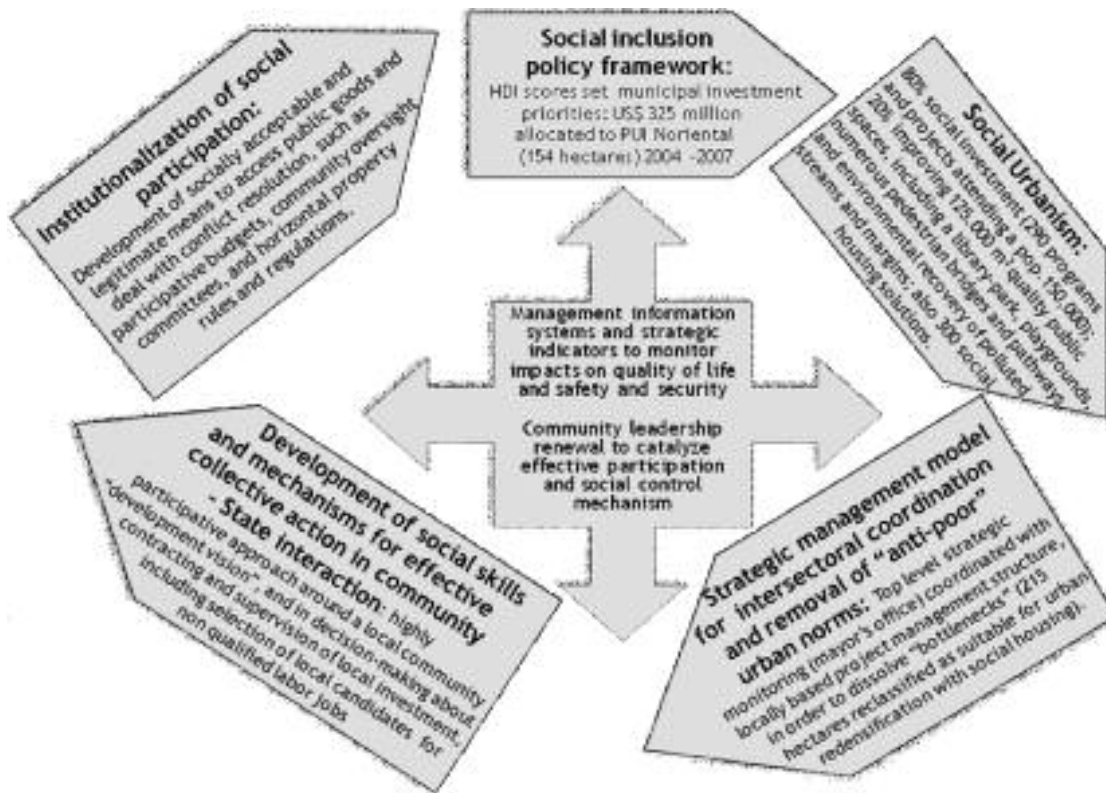
Key to assuring the proper timing and efficient management of the project is a top level strategic monitoring model, operating from the mayor's office, and directly connected to a locally-based project management structure. This facilitates the removal of "anti-poor" urban norms, such as exceedingly restrictive land use and construction norms, awkward title deed issuance proceedings, and unreachable conditions to access social housing subsidies, as well as coordination of inter-sectoral investment. All of these account for frequent administrative "bottlenecks" which hinder project management timetables, but can be promptly overcome under close supervision by the mayor. This strategic management model is fundamental to building trust among local communities involved in joint urban improvement initiatives with government agencies. This is a basic prior condition to guarantee the safety and security of the municipal programme and project personnel responsible for establishing the initial rapport with local households. Previous negative experiences of households dealing with government agencies due to the latter's poor ability to keep their commitments in the context of socially excluded neighborhoods, make this a critical success factor for the integral urban intervention approach.

Equally important is the establishment of mechanisms for effective local collective action and interaction with government officials. As suggested above, another key aspect of integral urban intervention is the development of highly participative community consultation mechanisms to allow programme and project managers to keep permanently in touch with local needs and demands. The proper functioning of these local mechanisms is critical for reinforcing trust in the process, as well as the permanent involvement of households in decision-making about the allocation, contracting, and supervision of local public investment, including the selection of local candidates for non-qualified labour jobs.

Finally, the continuity of a public investment policy committed to social inclusion priorities depends on the institutionalization of social participation mechanisms that are considered trustworthy, socially acceptable, and a legitimate means to access public goods required to meet local needs and demands, as well as local conflict resolution. In Medellin this is the case with participatory budgets, community oversight committees, and horizontal property rules and regulations. It is by these means that popular political support has been harnessed to ensure local government's commitment to a long-term socially inclusive policy that will support consolidation of cohesive communities, capable of resisting penetration by illegal and criminal agents and their undermining effect on local governance.

Two other key elements support each of the above processes. Management information systems, and strategic indicators, supply permanent feedback to local government officials, programme and project managers, community leaders and participatory consultation mechanisms. In this way proper information flows allow for relatively decentralized direction of a complex multi-stakeholder decision-making framework. At the same time, a permanent process of renewal and promotion of multiple community leaders, and the enhancement of their social skills, is critical to catalyze effective participation and permanent involvement of households in the process of local appropriation of integral urban interventions (Figure 6).

Figure 6: Key stages in the management cycle of integrating urban improvement with safety and security policies



Source: Bernardo Pérez

Social urbanism as a crime prevention strategy cannot by itself guarantee that urban crime and violence will not reemerge, as recent events in Medellín have shown. Persistent factors such as drug trafficking, and an overabundant supply of jobless youth misled by criminal role models, will continue to fuel the factional violence which is currently responsible for the increasing murder rate in the city. Yet social urbanism has laid the groundwork to build communities with greater capacity to resist renewed and uncontested subordination to illegal groups and criminal organizations. Community leaders, public programme and project managers, local government officials, together with police and justice authorities, are well aware that allowing the social and physical gains achieved through integral urban interventions to erode, can lead to stagnation and the reversal of the process of social inclusion. Therefore, the present adversity has fostered cohesion among multiple actors who are committed to avoiding apathy and to building trust in neighborhoods affected by social exclusion in the past.

Fresh public funds have recently been allocated to support the opening of new educational and job opportunities for youth coming from low income households, highly exposed to the risk of illegal recruitment, sexual exploitation and human trafficking. Community and social organizations are mobilizing to protect those at risk of being drawn into the spiral of factional violence, and neighbours are increasingly informing police authorities of the whereabouts of factional ringleaders that are fuelling violence in the city. The investment already made in this successful strategy is now supporting local government's resolve to continue investing in the policy of social inclusion.

Preventing Urban Crime in 2015: Fighting social exclusion through integrated urban interventions

Social exclusion is a common phenomenon in cities experiencing rapid growth. It is more than just low income, crime and violence. It is the result of multiple circumstances which add up to deprivation, including long term unemployment and extended periods of economic hardship, deficient housing, domestic violence, sexual abuse and unwanted teenage pregnancies, school desertion and lack of job qualification, early initiation in vandalism, drug abuse, delinquency and alcoholism, exposure to illegal recruitment, sexual exploitation and human trafficking, ill health and physical handicaps, and generalized stigmatization. A combination of some or all of these conditions prevents households from demanding and having access to their rights: i.e. to enjoy safety and security, free circulation, decent jobs and housing, health, education, political participation, and improved quality of public spaces and natural environments.

As Medellín's recent high crime past clearly illustrates, deprived urban areas have real potential to threaten local stability and governance. Negative bias towards public fund allocation to socially excluded urban areas, "anti-poor" land use and construction norms, awkward title deed issuance proceedings, unreachable conditions to access social housing subsidies, are a sample of factors that reproduce social exclusion, and at the same time, undermine local governance in marginal urban areas.

Local governments need to acknowledge and deal with existing local norms and regulations that do not protect the socially excluded households from discrimination and exploitation, but frequently exclude their access to public benefits, and are used to stigmatize them. If local governments are committed to doing so, they will find themselves in a privileged position to modify factors which reproduce social exclusion and lack of local governance by means of policy and administrative innovation, instead of merely increasing police control and coercion.

Integrated urban interventions intentionally designed as crime prevention strategies must be framed as part of social inclusion policy. Public investment priorities should suitably match needs and demands of deprived urban areas with high quality housing solutions, urban design of public spaces, and efficiency standards. To overcome apathy and lack of trust commonly predominant in socially excluded contexts, local governments must commit themselves to developing strategic management models that allow for efficient coordination of inter-sectoral public investment in marginal urban areas, and the removal of “anti-poor” norms. The latter are the main administrative “bottlenecks” which usually account for the poor ability of agencies to keep their commitments with socially excluded households, and which become barriers to their inclusion. Improving trust in the local government’s ability to keep its commitments is more effective than any other dissuasive measure. Initiating urban improvement interventions will, in turn, translate into better living, safety and security conditions for local populations.

Once households perceive local government’s commitment to fight social exclusion, a virtuous cycle is triggered, incentivizing local participation and organization processes based on group decision-making, with the support of multiple community leaders. The institutionalization of mechanisms that feed and support public confidence in collective action as a legitimate way to access the provision of public goods by local government closes the loop. Hence, this mechanism is how continual physical and social transformations are sustained; a critical condition that must be at the core of successful social inclusion processes.

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Biography

Bernardo Pérez Salazar is a UN-HABITAT consultant in Colombia has more than 20 years of professional experience in urban-regional contexts of central and southern Colombia. Numerous national and international universities and study centers have published his academic articles and book chapters on illegal economies, armed conflict, paramilitaries and transnational crime. In recent years, as a policy analyst on urban safety and security issues, he has served as consultant to the National Police of Colombia, as well as to Bogotá’s Government Undersecretary and Surveillance and Security Fund.

National Response

National Programme of Public Security and Citizenship (PRONASCI) and the Youth Vulnerability Index¹⁰⁷

Brazil's Ministry of Justice launched the *National Programme of Public Security and Citizenship* (PRONASCI) in 2007. The programme has the overall aim of reducing the high rates of homicide in the country. It combines public safety measures *with* social development initiatives, overcoming the traditional dichotomy of repressive *versus* social approaches to crime. It thus represents a significant shift in public safety policies and social policies in Brazil and a conceptual change in providing a mechanism for the federal government to work with State and municipal governments, and civil society.

The programme has two main components: a series of structural actions to modernise the criminal justice system, and a series of local programmes which aim to strengthen social and economic development at the local level. For the period 2007-2011, a total of around R\$6,700 billion (\$3,232 billion US) has been invested in PRONASCI. The overall goals of the programme are to benefit around 3.5 million staff who work in the criminal justice system, as well as young people and their families.

Structural actions include training and modernization of the police forces and penitentiary system to valorise staff and increase their professionalism and reduce the level of corruption (including measures relating to trafficking and organized crime), reforming the penal process, building new penitentiaries for young adults, and developing prison programmes to aid the social and economic reintegration of prisoners on release.

Local programmes target the eleven metropolitan areas with the highest crime rates in Brazil, young people aged 15 to 29 in particular, and the most deprived areas in those cities. It is intended to encourage the municipalities to invest in public safety and security. Three funding programmes have been established:

- *Territory of peace* - which helps establish integrated municipal management and partnerships, fund local public safety forums, provide services or financial incentives for young people, human rights training, and centres for access to justice and conflict resolution.
- *Family and youth integration* - which funds projects designed to assist and train young people, a women of peace project which provides training in mediation, human rights etc., and projects to assist young people coming out of military service or prison among others.
- *Safety and sociability* - which funds projects in poor communities to recover urban space, develop intensive education projects and cultural projects etc.

States and municipalities can apply for funding for specific projects, but must establish an integrated management office which ensures the integration of local partners and services. PRONASCI aims to rebuild relations between the police and the communities (especially young people) through human rights workshops that help to build trust, respect for rights and the law, and establish a culture of peace.

Initial results from PRONASCI show some promising changes in levels of police corruption, trafficking in arms and humans, violence against women, and increased collaboration between the national and local governments.

One component of PRONASCI is the **Index of Youth Vulnerability to Violence**, which was developed as a means of measuring and analyzing the level of safety (social vulnerability) of youth in Brazilian cities. The Index is part of a larger project – the *Youth and Adolescent Prevention of Violence* initiative – set up by the Ministry of Justice and partners to assess young people’s exposure and risk to violence in Brazil, and identify areas of need (social and economic assistance). The Index is a major diagnostic tool for public safety policy at the city and national level, and has been used in a number of large cities. It was developed in partnership with the civil society organizations including ILANUD Brazil and the Brazilian Forum for Public Safety.

The Index incorporates four modules:

- surveys of youth and their exposure to violence
- systemization of youth programmes
- organization of seminars and debates with public policy managers and those responsible for running violence and youth programmes
- development of tools and materials based on discussions and good practices in Brazil and other countries.

The youth surveys have been conducted in several municipalities. Regional surveys are being completed. They will record and document youth narratives (personal history and risk of exposure to violence), and assess the connections between life-cycle and exposure to violence.

The Index measures vulnerability on the basis of five indices: youth homicide rates, traffic accidents, school attendance, inequality, and employment rates. Each municipality is categorized on a five part scale in terms of the vulnerability of their youth to violence (low, low-medium, medium, high, or very high).

Further information is available at www.mj.gov.br/pronasci and www.conseg.gov.br

Section II

Inclusion and Tools for Action



Source: Khaled M. Abdelhalim and Dina K. Shehayeb

Including women and youth

Integration of migrant communities

New tools to support the application of crime prevention

GENDER INCLUSIVE CITIES: EMERGING FINDINGS FROM A MULTI-NATIONAL PROJECT TO IMPROVE WOMEN'S SAFETY IN PUBLIC SPACES¹⁰⁸

Kalpana Viswanath¹⁰⁹ and Sohail Husain¹¹⁰



Source: Sohail Husain¹¹¹

This paper presents emerging findings from the Gender Inclusive Cities Project (GICP), an international initiative to improve gender inclusion in cities by reducing sexual violence and harassment of women in public spaces. GICP is one year into a three year work programme, aiming to bring about positive change in participating cities and generate knowledge that can be applied in a wider geographical context.

Violence Against Women and Growing Urbanisation

Violence against women (VAW) is a worldwide problem that transcends geographical, social, ethnic and religious boundaries, and exists in cities at all stages of development. Although difficult to research, the nature and scale of this violence is gradually being established, and the findings are truly disturbing. It is now widely accepted that one in three women will be beaten or abused at some time in their lives. It is also reported that 30 percent of sexual assault is committed upon women under the age of 16.¹¹² The violence occurs in many settings, including the home, workplaces, schools and public spaces. The patriarchal underpinnings of institutions, including the family and the state, play a significant role in the perpetuation of violence in all these spaces.

Over the past two decades, there has been extensive investigation into the problem of violence in the home, especially that involving partners, former partners and children.¹¹³ This is gradually being translated into greater public awareness of the issue and changes in legislation and policy, as well as programmes, projects and improved public services to empower women, reduce the occurrence of violence and deliver better responses when it does occur.

However, much less attention has been given to violence in the public realm. Yet violence and the fear of violence in public spaces have consequences for women's lives that go well beyond the impacts they have on health and peace of mind, serious though these are. It restricts their ability to move freely and to access the immense opportunities that cities offer for living, for education, for employment, for leisure and for personal development. VAW thus acts as a deterrent to women's ability to exercise their 'right to the city'.

In a world which became '50% urban' in 2003 and with cities increasingly being the vehicle of growth, it is imperative to address the issue of inclusion and rights for all sectors of the population, especially vulnerable groups. Gender exclusion needs to be seen within the wider discourse on urbanisation and urban development, not just as a justice or crime problem. Moreover, amongst the many stakeholders that have a role to play, local government and agencies responsible for urban planning and management need to be fully engaged.

The Gender Inclusive Cities Project: An Overview

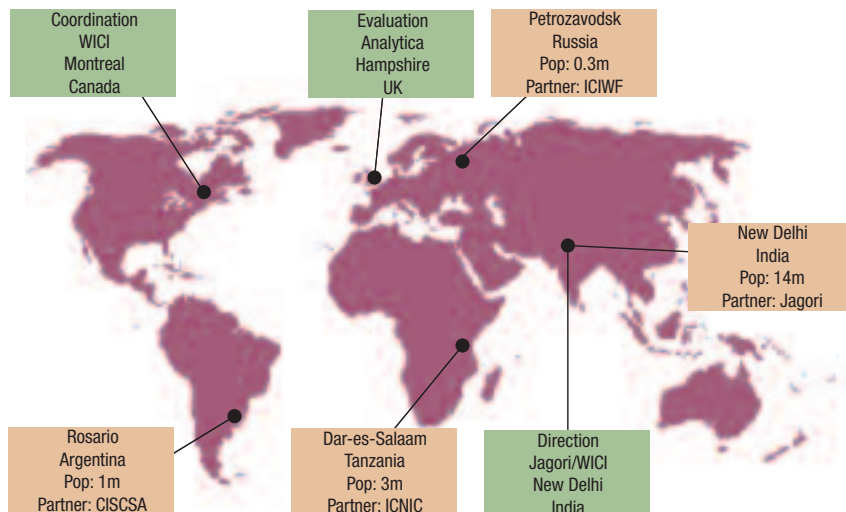
The Gender Inclusive Cities Project (GICP) is intended to expand the global knowledge base on these issues, as well as increase women's safety and inclusion in participating cities. Established in 2009, the Project is focused on sexual violence and sexual harassment rather than all forms of VAW, allowing a more detailed analysis. It has the following objectives:

- To improve gender inclusion in participating cities by increasing the safety of women in public spaces
- To increase knowledge and provide evidence about the dimensions of the problem, its consequences and effective responses
- To develop a range of participatory tools and resources for use during the project and subsequently in other cities
- To promote awareness and advocate action at a global level, especially in countries where there to date has been little progress.

GICP is underpinned by the belief that enhancing women's inclusion and their right to the city requires a multi-faceted approach that includes:

- understanding the violence and harassment faced by women in public spaces;
- recognising how vulnerabilities place certain groups at greater risk, such as ethnicity, social class, age and migrant status;
- empowering women and engaging men to bring about sustainable attitudinal and behavioural change;
- mobilising a range of stakeholders, including government, police and civil society, to plan and implement interventions to deliver benefits in the near future; and
- pursuing more fundamental reform in the way cities are conceived, designed and managed, for strategic longer term improvements.

Figure 1: Participating cities and partners in the Gender Inclusive Cities Programme



Source: Gender Inclusive Cities Programme (GICP)

GICP is a challenging and complex initiative that brings together partners from across the globe. It is funded by the UN Trust Fund to End VAW and managed by Women in Cities International¹¹⁴, a non-governmental organization (NGO) based in Montreal. There are four participating cities (Dar es Salaam, New Delhi, Rosario, Petrozavodsk) spread across four continents with implementation in each driven by a women's organisation¹¹⁵ (Figure 1). To support the project, an international expert advisory group has been set up and each city has established a local group drawn from a wide range of interests and professions.

The first year of GICP was largely devoted to 'mapping' the dimensions of gender exclusion in each city using a combination of participative tools and techniques. Focus groups were used to scope the issues and identify problems, situations and circumstances where women felt particularly vulnerable. Street surveys were conducted in areas selected as possible intervention sites to gather in depth data on perceptions and experiences of violence in public spaces. Women's safety audits were then used to gather more detailed information along transects through the areas about concerns and possible responses, a process that can also contribute significantly to women's empowerment.¹¹⁶ This fieldwork was complemented by desk research to understand the policy and legislative framework in each city. As far as possible, the work has been delivered consistently across all cities to allow comparison of findings. For example, a common survey method and a common set of questions were used in the street survey questionnaire, which was translated from English into Hindi, Russian, Spanish and Swahili.

Year Two of the project will be mainly concerned with the design and implementation of interventions, while in Year Three there will be increasing emphasis on advocacy to promote awareness and action on this issue, as well as dissemination of the learning and resources that GICP has generated.

Project Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) are important components of GICP that have been integrated into the work from the outset. Emphasis is being placed on capturing learning about implementation processes, reviewing the usefulness of tools and how they might be improved, validating the analysis and interpretation of collected data and assessing the effectiveness of interventions. In the first year of the project, M&E activity has been replicated across all cities, facilitating comparison. Data is collected by a research assistant in each location who works to an evaluation plan agreed centrally but with some scope for local customisation. Information collected not only supports project management decisions in participating cities, but also contributes to the wider knowledge base that will be accessible to all cities.

Some Emerging Findings

The findings from the different methods of data collection demonstrate the extent of the problem and commonality across different countries in the world. The lack of safety for women was evident in all cities to varying degrees. Approximately 40% of women in Rosario, Delhi and Dar es Salaam were fearful of sexual harassment while using public spaces, whereas in Petrozavodsk, almost 30% women reported the same. Almost an equal number reported facing incidents of sexual harassment in the past year. It was commonly reported that while women are comfortable in some parts of the city during the daytime, women felt less safe at night. Nevertheless, women also reported facing incidents of harassment in the day. The highest number was in Delhi where almost 80% reported facing harassment in daytime, approximately 50% in Petrozavodsk, 40% in Dar es Salaam and 35% in Rosario.

The data indicates that all women do not have the same experience in accessing the city. Their experience is shaped by factors such as age, economic status, ethnicity, migrant status and other factors. Thus young women face specific vulnerabilities, as do new migrants or women with disabilities, and some groups face discrimination, such as certain ethnic groups. Through the focus group discussions, an attempt was made to hear the voices of the more vulnerable users of public spaces. In two cities, focus groups with transgender people were conducted to understand the specific vulnerabilities that they face.

Sexual harassment can be of various types. While sexual and violent assaults are seen as criminal offences, the seemingly milder forms of harassment such as verbal comments, touching, staring are often not taken seriously. In reality though, these forms of harassment are an everyday experience for women negotiating spaces in cities and affect their ability to work, study, and move around without fear. The data from the four cities shows that verbal forms of harassment were the most common, followed by visual harassment, including staring (Figure 2). In three cities (Delhi, Petrozavodsk and Rosario) a significant proportion of women (40-50%) reported no harassment, but this obviously means that at least half had experienced it and these figures should be treated with caution since women may have been reluctant to speak about such incidents.

Figure 2: Types of sexual harassment faced by survey respondents in the past year (%)

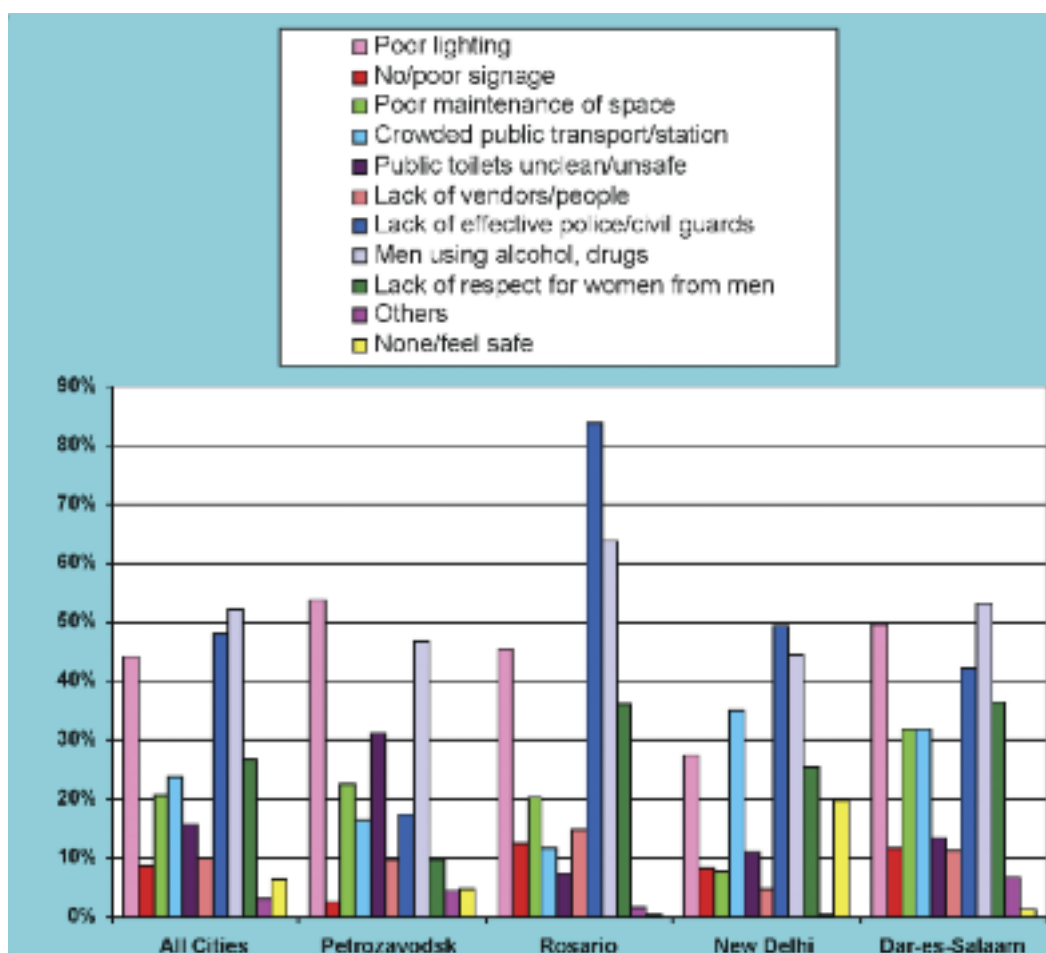
Type of Harassment	Dar es Salaam	Delhi	Petrozavodsk	Rosario
Verbal	51	44	38	36
Physical	14	13	12	8
Visual	36	16	17	24
Flashing	28	2	11	3
Stalking	15	15	3	22
Violent physical attack	13	1	1	7
Others	2	0	1	0
None	25	45	50	42
<i>Total respondents*</i>	<i>503</i>	<i>998</i>	<i>113</i>	<i>718</i>

**Total of percentages exceeds 100 because respondents could select multiple options*

Source: GICP

Several types of public place were seen as insecure for women. The roadside was where most women felt vulnerable to sexual harassment. Other spaces where many women experienced incidents were in public transport or while waiting for public transport. In Delhi and Dar es Salaam, around 20% of women also reported sexual harassment at market places while the corresponding figure for the other two cities was less than 10%. In each city, infrastructure issues had a significant impact on safety and women’s ability to negotiate public spaces with confidence. Poor lighting was a major problem cited (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Factors contributing to women feeling unsafe in cities participating in the Gender Inclusive Cities Programme



Source: Street surveys, 2009

Figure 3 also demonstrates that lack of policing was seen as an important factor contributing to women’s insecurity, with over 80% in Rosario reporting this and approximately 50% in the other cities. Women in all the cities also reported fearing men using or dealing drugs and alcohol. It is interesting to note that lack of respect for women was also important with almost 40% identifying this issue in Rosario and Dar es Salaam.

Besides collecting data on women’s perceptions and experience of violence, their responses to violence and fear were also recorded. Almost 50% of women did not do anything when faced with sexual harassment. Less than 10% reported the incident to the police and very few in all the cities asked for help from bystanders (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Women’s responses to sexual harassment (%)

Nature of response	Dar es Salaam	Delhi	Petrozavodsk	Rosario
Nothing	71	41	47	52
Confronted the perpetrator	11	43	8	16
Reported it to the police	7	2	5	12
Reported to municipal guard or agency	1	0	2	1
Asked bystanders for help	7	5	12	7
Reported it on a helpline/ to another service	1	0	0	1
Told/asked for help from family	7	16	8	15
Told/asked for help from a friend	4	22	22	15
Others	1	0	0	0
<i>Total respondents*</i>	<i>379</i>	<i>551</i>	<i>59</i>	<i>416</i>

*Total of percentages exceeds 100 because respondents could select multiple options

Source: GICP

Girls and women have developed multiple strategies to deal with violence and fear. A large percentage of women restrict their own movement especially after dark, (72% in Dar es Salaam, 42% in Delhi, 82% in Rosario and 53% on Petrozavodsk) by avoiding going out or not going out alone. Many also carry items, such as a pin or chilli spray, to use in self defence.

Lessons Learned: Gender Exclusion

The information gathered in the first year of the GICP has shown that, whilst local differences do exist, there is considerable similarity across all four participating cities in the nature of the concerns that women have, the environmental conditions that make them feel unsafe, the nature of the harassment and violence that they experience and the types of location where it is most likely to occur. It is also apparent that gender exclusion interacts with other factors that cause ‘marginality’, to reinforce or even increase the social exclusion of certain groups.

The everyday harassment they experience and fear of sexual violence structures their lives in many ways, restricting freedom to enjoy the varied opportunities that cities offer for living, learning, working and recreation, especially after dark. Yet many women tolerate or accept sexual harassment, often seeing it as ‘normal’ and part of city life, and responding by restricting their own movement and those of girls in their families to reduce risks.

Gender exclusion is a multi-faceted problem and in every city requires analysis from varied perspectives. Yet this can be a daunting challenge and in most places resources to undertake such analysis will be limited. The tools and methods developed and used in GICP are practical, supported by guidance and economical in their resourcing requirements. It is hoped therefore that making them known and easily accessible will encourage and facilitate action in other cities to define the problems, engage women and other stakeholders, government and civil society.

Conclusion

In its first year GICP has made a considerable contribution to the understanding of gender exclusion in urban public spaces in four cities in four continents. Work is now underway on what will be a more challenging phase, which will involve using the collected information to address problems that have been identified. This requires the careful design of interventions that draw on knowledge gained previously about effective or promising practice. Above all, it requires securing the commitment of public agencies and others with the power and resources to implement plans that will make a difference. Securing that commitment and delivering the interventions will be the priority in each city in 2010.

Biographies

Sohail Husain is the Director of Analytica, a UK-based organisation specialising in research and advocacy related to community safety and justice. He is currently evaluator of the UNTF-funded Gender Inclusive Cities Programme and evaluation adviser to the UNIFEM Global Programme for Safe Cities for Women and Girls. He was a Lecturer in Geography at Southampton University, where he established the Urban Policy Research Unit and first became involved in crime prevention. In 1989, he joined Crime Concern, an NGO dedicated to promoting social crime prevention and implementing practical projects. He was the Deputy CEO of Crime Concern from 2001 to 2005. He set up Analytica in 2005 to increase his international involvement.

Kalpana Viswanath is the Project Director of the Gender Inclusive Cities Project managed by Women in Cities International and funded by the UN Trust Fund. She has been working on issues of women's rights since the early 1990's. She has been involved with Jagori, a women's resource center in Delhi since the mid nineties and has led several action research studies around issues of women workers, migration, urban safety and other related issues. She has undertaken research on urban safety in South Asia for UN HABITAT and has delivered training on women's safety audits.

Female UN Police Officers: Boosting Protection for Women and Children¹¹⁷

Andrew Carpenter¹¹⁸

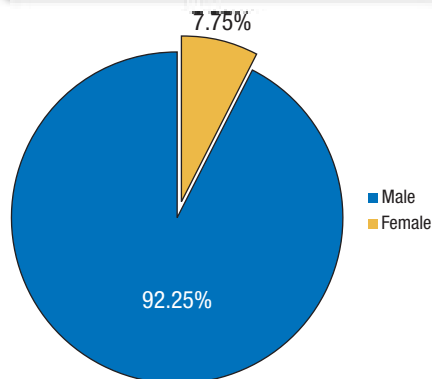
The United Nations Police force (UNPOL)¹¹⁹ was officially set up in 1964 as a civilian police force to support the military by contributing to the maintenance and restoration of law¹²⁰ and order in demilitarized zones, within larger conflict areas. In recent years the number of police deployed in United Nations peace operations and special political missions has grown rapidly, and is the fastest growing component of peacekeeping operations. From January 2006, when over 8,000 police were authorized, to March 2010, the number has risen to over 15,000. Currently 12,645 police from 100 countries are deployed in 17 UN peace operations and missions (Figure 1).

Figure 1: UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) Missions



Source: UN DPKO

Figure 2: UN Police UNPOL Gender (Im)Balance



Source: UNPOL

Despite these developments, there is significant gender imbalance at UNPOL, with females representing only 7.75% of those deployed. Concerted efforts by UNPOL and Member States are needed to improve female representation so that the police better reflect the communities they serve, and help to protect women and children from violence in conflict and post-conflict settings.

Gender (Im)Balance – the obstacles

As peacekeeping operations become more multi-dimensional, greater representation of women is needed to strengthen the UN's ability to carry out its mandates (Figure 2). A top priority of the UN Police is to increase the number of female police officers in peacekeeping operations, and to encourage the recruitment of women in host-state police services. Currently, there are no female UN military commanders; there are only two UN peace operations headed by females (in Liberia and Timor-Leste to help establish stability and promote a culture of democratic governance), only two female UN Police Commissioners (in Burundi and Cyprus) out of 18, and one new female UN Police Advisor. While just under eight percent of UN Police Officers are female, this does represent an increase from four percent in 2006, yet there remains a marked imbalance.

Thus this imbalance is not exclusive to UNPOL and is UN wide. The military faces similar problems, and most Member States have their own gender imbalance. For example, among a range of (high income) Member States female police representation ranges from 7.6% in Denmark to 35% in Norway, on average they have 18% (Figure 3). There are significant differences between countries that share similar ideals in terms of gender equality in society.

There are several **obstacles** which hinder female police recruitment, and dissuade participation at national and international levels. At the national level traditional and cultural factors can impede women's recruitment and promotion in the police service, which often depends on years of service, possibilities for part time service, the nature of specialist training, and an ability to drive and to use firearms. At the international level there are additional impediments to female recruitment apart from country selection processes, including harsh conditions of peacekeeping tours and stations, which are often of long duration, again limiting the ability of women with family commitments to participate, apart from their reception upon completion of duties. Positions often demand previous experience, which creates a 'Catch 22' situation with few opportunities for women to gain such experience.

Figure 3: Percentage of Female Officers

Country	of Police Officers	Female %
Australia (2004)	47,248	21.0
Canada (2007)	65,000	17.3
Denmark (2005)	10,500	7.6
Finland (2004)	7,718	24.0
New Zealand (2006)	7,700	15.8
Norway (2005)	12,000	35.0
South Africa (2008)	137,607	20.8
Sweden (2003)	16,292	19.4
UK (2004)	140,563	20.0
USA (2003)	740,000	12.0

Source: SAPS, South Africa¹²¹

UNPOL field-based activities to combat gender-based sexual violence

UNPOL undertakes a number of activities in the field to help reduce gender-based violence. This includes assisting host-state police services to **increase their recruitment of female police officers** so that they can better reflect the communities they serve. In particular, greater representation of women in police services can help countries recovering from conflict to protect women and children from violence and abuse. During situations of conflict, rape and other forms of sexual violence are often perpetrated by men in uniform, so that when the fighting subsides, women fear turning to uniformed forces for assistance.

Other activities are undertaken to support **gender mainstreaming policies** in host state police services, advocacy with host state authorities, and quick impact projects targeting the recruitment of women e.g. through education. They help to **train and mentor police officers** to change attitudes on violence against women and human trafficking and to help establish professional police services in those countries, and creating trust in uniformed police as they help rebuild, reform and restructure host-state police services. For internally-displaced persons (IDP) camps they help provide and support police patrols and escorts.

They also work to support the **prevention and investigation of gender-based violence** in host countries, through awareness raising, and supporting the development of legislation, community outreach campaigns, establishing specialized police units for women and children, and referral systems for legal, medical and welfare services, improved victims services, and training, mentoring and capacity-building of host-state police on gender-based sexual violence (SGBV) and human trafficking.

Impact in the field

The activities of UNPOL have helped to increase awareness of gender-based sexual violence in conflict and buffer zones, and change attitudes within the police on these issues. More cases are being reported, which may be due to increased confidence in the police. UNPOL has been active in working to improve the justice system and victim protection services, increasing the recruitment and number of women, and building acceptance of the employment of female police officers.

For example, UNPOL has spearheaded the development and the adoption of landmark policies on sexual exploitation, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and gender mainstreaming in the Sierra Leone Police (SLP), the first in a West African police force. Adopted in July 2008, the policies aim to ensure zero tolerance of sexual exploitation, harassment and abuse within the Sierra Leone Police Force. UN Police has also facilitated the setting up of Family Support Units with the SLP. Training modules were developed to help SLP officers respond to cases of sexual assault and domestic violence.

Another example comes from UNPOL's work in Liberia with the deployment of the first all-female Police Unit from India. As role models, they have encouraged many young Liberian women to become police officers. Female police officers now comprise 13 percent of the 3,800 officers in the Liberian National Police (LNP).

Recommendations

Achieving gender balance in police services is a process and requires continued effort and support. Such support includes material and financial resources for specialized police units, such as computers, offices and vehicles, increasing effective dialogue between senior management in Member States and women’s groups in the community, and sensitizing religious leaders and tribal chiefs on gender-based sexual violence.

Policy-related Guidance

While there is a need for more advocacy to increase the recruitment of women to host-state police services and police components of peacekeeping missions, there are now a number of documents and tools that provide guidance on integrating women into United Nations police-based peacekeeping missions and post-conflict societies, and into security sector reforms, including police services (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Police-related Guidance



Next Steps

Future plans to increase the protection of women from gender-based violence in conflict and post-conflict situations include a global effort to increase the number of women in the UN Police to 20 percent by 2014; the development of a standardized Best Practices Toolkit; the implementation of UNPOL's *Gender Guidelines*; developing specialized gender-based violence training; and the creation of a Female Police Peacekeepers Association.

Biography

Andrew Carpenter is the Chief of the Strategic Policy and Development Section, Police Division, Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions, Department of Peacekeeping Operations, at the United Nations in New York, U.S. He and his staff are responsible for the development of concepts, doctrine, policy and planning for UN police-related activities worldwide. He has also been involved as the Executive Officer of the Strategic Police Matters Unit of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) in Vienna, Austria, Counsellor – Legal and Political Affairs of the OSCE Advisory and Monitoring Group, Senior Planning and Training Officer of the Domestic Capacity-Building Division, OSCE Mission in Kosovo and Political Adviser to the Director of the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODHIR).

Youth Inclusion - Luta pela Paz (Fight for Peace)

Gabriela Pinheiro¹²²



Source: Fight for Peace¹²³

According to the World Health Organization's Mortality Database¹²⁴, Brazil accounts for the sixth highest homicide rate among 91 countries. Although not at war, more people (and specifically children) are dying in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil than in many countries in civil conflict.¹²⁵ From 1978 to 2000, it was estimated that 49,913 deaths were caused by firearms in Rio de Janeiro.¹²⁶ In more than 400 favelas (shantytowns), young people are highly vulnerable to violence and to joining or being forced into criminal activities such as drug trafficking. Armed violence is the leading cause of mortality among young people in Rio de Janeiro, with firearm-related mortalities accounting for 59% of all deaths of 14 to 19 year-olds.¹²⁷

Luta pela Paz (Fight for Peace) is a community-based organization that works with children and youth from disadvantaged communities in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, and now in London, England. The organization targets youth-at risk, including those involved in and affected by crime and violence, and those not in school or employment. It offers sports, educational and support services, and a series of personal development classes to provide alternatives to violence, gang membership and drug trafficking, or to help them leave gangs.

For the past ten years, *Luta pela Paz* has gained a great deal of experience working with vulnerable youth, using sport as an entry point, to help them improve their lives and their neighborhoods, and to gain the practical knowledge to become leaders in their communities.

Creation of *Luta pela Paz*

Luta pela Paz (LPP) was established in 2000 by the former amateur boxer Luke Dowdney, as a part of the work of the non-government organization *Viva Rio*. In 2007 it became an independent non-profit organization in its own right. The project was first run in a small gym in the *Complexo da Maré*, a *favela* (shantytown) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, where young people could train, but also attend citizenship classes designed to educate them on personal and community development. Since it began, *Luta pela Paz* has developed a series of practical alternatives to crime and organized armed violence through sports, education, access to the formal labour market, and leadership skills.

Complexo da Maré has one of the highest youth mortality rates in Rio de Janeiro. The local economy is based on small businesses, informal commerce and drug trafficking. It is a low-income community with high levels of unemployment. Like many *favela* communities in Brazil, high levels of poverty, exclusion and a lack of social services have resulted in children and adolescents being employed by drug factions as armed foot-soldiers, lookouts and drug sellers. Many youth carry firearms and patrol the community at night, defending the territory from rival groups and the police.

Methodology

The model and methodology developed by *Luta pela Paz* is multi-faceted. It combines a series of 5 Pillars: (Figure 1) using boxing and martial arts as the basis for attracting the attention and interest of young people, followed by education and personal development, employment access, youth support and leadership training. Its targets young people of both sexes, who live in communities with low social investment and are vulnerable to armed violence and police confrontation. It aims to develop their sense of self-esteem and citizenship in their everyday lives. A central theme is concerned with creating a culture of peace, and youth leadership that is recognized within the community.

Figure 1: LPP's strategy is based on the 'Five Pillars' model

1. Boxing and martial arts;
2. Education and personal development;
3. Access to the labour market;
4. Youth support services;
5. Youth leadership.

Gangs, street crime and the drug trade offer excitement to many children and young people, and boxing and martial arts classes aim to offer an alternative adrenaline rush, sense of belonging and self-worth to that offered by gang membership. Participating in sports such as boxing, capoeira and wrestling, garners respect from peers. At LPP, the adrenaline generated from physical activity is combined with discipline, responsibility, positive behavioral development, teamwork and leadership.

In addition to using sport as a mechanism for building self-identity and self-worth, the project gives young people opportunities to make choices and access alternative activities to joining street gangs or armed groups. It provides a 'non-involved' peer group offering support and companionship within the programme, and a constructive place to spend their free time. The classes serve to channel negative energy and aggression, and transform it into positive energy through teamwork, self-confidence, healthy competition and respect for the law.

The project offers educational and professional training as well as career advice, to prepare young people who are often excluded, for the formal labour market. They may be unemployed, in need of a income to help their family budget, to start their own professional lives, or wanting to leave criminal activities. Following young peoples' demands for formal education classes, LPP set up the *Novos Caminhos* (Pathways Education to Employment) project. Professional training is also offered to help high school students access the job market.

LPP encourages members to help improve the community in which they live, by assuming leadership roles. Those who take on a leadership role within the group are invited to participate in youth leadership workshops. During the workshops, they develop public speaking skills, and are trained in group dynamics, and how to best represent the project

and themselves in seminars, events and meetings. Members are invited to take an active participatory role in overall project co-ordination by joining the LPP Youth Council, composed of 10 to 15 young people. The Council has decision-making power over LPP's projects, which includes hiring personnel, planning events, starting new projects or improving existing ones. Members travel to represent *Luta pela Paz* and Complexo da Maré at national and international forums.

Research

In addition to working directly with young people affected by crime and violence, LPP's development has also been underpinned by qualitative empirical research into the lives of its primary target groups both in Rio de Janeiro and internationally. The involvement of children and young people in Rio de Janeiro's drug factions has been mapped by innovative research carried out by LPP's founder, Luke Dowdney. This includes the first ethnographic study of young people's involvement in Rio de Janeiro's drug trade¹²⁸, and an international study which compared the role of children and youth in armed groups in 10 non-war countries across four continents.¹²⁹

This research was instrumental in helping the organization develop its methodology, and implement the prevention and rehabilitation model. LPP was further able to chart local risk factors associated with young people's vulnerability to joining gangs and participating in offending behavior. This model is now used to locate children and young people in disadvantaged communities who need support services. The second study is being used in a wide range of communities across the world affected by different manifestations of child/youth involvement in gangs, crime and gun violence.

In 2007, *Luta pela Paz* expanded its activities to become a registered charity in England, with the opening of a *Fight for Peace Academy* in North Woolwich (East London), an area which also suffers from high unemployment, lack of leisure facilities and opportunities for children and young people, and has a high level of youth criminality. While there are dramatic differences between Rio de Janeiro and London in terms of violence, there are similarities across certain risk factors. In the UK, there are lower crime rates, but youth violence (mainly knife crime) is problematic. Both the Rio and London academies use the same methodology and continuously learn from one another.

Figure 2: LPP crime prevention and community development strategies aim to

1. Promote social inclusion through sports, assuring fundamental citizenship, diversity and inclusion of children and young people living in disadvantaged communities;
2. Promote and encourage a full education and advocating roles of citizenship and providing professional education training;
3. Promote psychological and social support for children and young people by promoting awareness of/and granting access to their fundamental rights by assisting in the process of identifying, providing referrals, and accessing existing networks of local support services;
4. Provide an educational component that increases qualifications for participants to enter into the formal job market;
5. Promote and guarantee the right of involvement of children and young people in a culture of peace and youth leadership;
6. Integrate youth from different and often rival territories by providing individual mentoring workshops, education and employment workshops, career advice and a homework club.

Evaluation

Two independent assessments of the academies have been conducted, in England by the University of East London and in Brazil by the Latin American Centre for the Study of Violence and Health (CLAVES). They have both confirmed that LPP's projects succeed in reducing participants' social vulnerability and risk factors.¹³⁰ The majority of participants felt they had a higher level of safety and improved self confidence after taking part in the project.

In 2009, 866 young people participated in boxing and martial arts training and personal development sessions (drugs, gender, rights and responsibilities, conflict mediation, democracy), and 98% of participants of the *New Pathways* project remained at school that year, while 14 young people who were out of the formal school system successfully re-enrolled.¹³¹ Since 2009, 70 young people have successfully graduated from the *Pathways Education to Employment* project.

Transferability and up-scaling

LPP is now building on its success in Brazil to begin a process of project replication in other communities around the world that are affected by crime and violence. Before replicating the project, LPP charts local risk factors and influences that make disadvantaged young people more vulnerable to dropping out of school, unemployment, joining gangs and offending behavior. The activities in the Five Pillars model are adapted to reflect the local needs of young people.

The London academy is developing a Training Manual and Curriculum Development Project to guide future work. A Monitoring and Evaluation model and a roll-out plan for the replication of LPP projects with local strategic partners in Brazil, the UK and internationally are also being developed. Training and replication materials are being designed for community-based non-governmental organizations, schools and sports projects that aim to use LPP's methodology as a tool for working with children and young people at high risk of involvement in crime and violence.

Conclusion

For the past ten years *Luta pela Paz* has been working with the community of Complexo da Maré, in Rio and more recently North Woolwich, in London, to find inclusive, practical and effective ways to prevent crime and violence among children and young people. LPP's experience has shown that working with young people in the community is both beneficial and effective, and that there needs to be continued support (e.g. tools, training and services) for youth participation in our adult centric¹³² societies. This is an important means to understand the realities that affect young people's lives in urban settings and their communities.

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Biography

Gabriela Pinheiro is the Institutional Relations Manager of Fight for Peace (FFP), an international non-profit organization which uses boxing and martial arts, combined with education and personal development, to realize the potential of young people in communities that suffer from crime and violence. Gabriela was a fellow of the Open Society Justice Initiative from 2007 to 2009. Prior to her work at FFP, Gabriela worked on the Drug Policy Project at Viva Rio, serving as researcher and focal point for networking with organizations working with Drug Policy around the world. Between 2003 and 2007, Gabriela worked at the Global Health Council and the Pan American Health Organization.

The Peace Squares SulAmerica Project (Praças da Paz SulAmerica) ¹³³

Instituto Sou da Paz, Sao Paulo, Brazil

*Instituto Sou da Paz*¹³⁴ is a non-governmental organization based in Sao Paulo, Brazil, which has been working on the prevention of violence for over ten years to try to influence and change public policies. It undertakes a range of innovative projects on topics concerning policing, local government management of public security, firearms, developing a culture of peace, and young people at risk of violence. In Brazil, violence is very unevenly distributed, with heavy concentrations in the disadvantaged and informal areas such as the favelas, and on the outskirts of large cities. Victims and perpetrators of homicide are primarily young adult men aged 20 to 24 years old, living in the outskirts of cities, and 70% of deaths are associated with firearms.

The *Peace Squares* project which began in 2007 is a collaborative intervention in partnership with the *SulAmerica Insurance Company*. It sets out to revitalize public spaces in neighbourhoods on the outskirts of Sao Paulo, but with intensive community participation, and playing an accompanying role. The project targets areas in the suburban periphery of the city where violence is concentrated, and identifies abandoned or degraded areas within those neighbourhoods. It then invites members of the community including young adults to enter into discussions and debates about the public space, and in this process members of that community become engaged in the conception, implementation and control and management of the space. The public spaces become safe spaces in which community activities can take place, but also help to strengthen community solidarity. They provide the residents, and especially young people, with alternative outlooks and goals, and help build leadership skills.

Phases of the project

Many of the areas targeted have histories of control by gangs and drug traffickers, and high levels of fear and insecurity. With few facilities or amenities, poor housing, educational and job opportunities, they offer few legitimate opportunities for young people growing up. The first phase of the project includes the identification of an area that is abandoned or used by drug lords and is essentially a space of fear and neglect. Educators from Sou Da Paz engage with community members to gain information on the level of desire and willingness to transform the space. The initiative is highly collaborative and inclusive at all stages. Informal discussions are held where community members can share ideas about the change of space. The organization brings architects and other partners to take part in more formal discussions with the community at a general assembly, where a voting process is used to decide on the development of the space and its use (e.g. sports, cultural activities, leisure, etc.). To help generate concrete ideas, some community members visit other spaces in the city that have been transformed.

The construction of the space marks the second phase of the project. Young people in the community are selected and trained on a range of issues relating to the management and maintenance of the space. This includes training in accessing resources, building

relationships with public authorities and services, and conflict resolution and peace building. The project aims to inculcate democratic and inclusive values including gender inclusion and a culture of peace, and respect for other groups in the community, and build a sense of pride among the community. Citizenship and peaceful relations become the values and basis for community interaction, rather than power and violence.

The final phase of the project is the sustainability phase. At this stage, the group of young leaders have completed training and gained experience in managing the space, developing good community relations and relationships with public and local authorities. The organization gradually moves out of the community, but remains available to support and watch over the project and community from a distance.

Transformed spaces

The transformed space is not only a physical area, but aims to break a cycle of fear and isolation in disadvantaged communities that experience high levels of violence and crime. It further acts as a medium for young people to actively participate and become leaders in developments to improve the quality of their lives, and the community. The project helps empower the community to be inclusive, and proactive.

So far several peace square projects have been developed. The project has helped to reduce levels of fear and insecurity in the communities in which it has worked, train cohorts of young adults in leadership skills, mobilize communities, promote citizenship and influence public policy, and is much more than just an urban revitalization project.

One of Sou da Paz's main objectives is to develop good and effective practices which will help to influence city, State and national government policies. The methodology of the Peace Squares project is now to be applied to public spaces in the City of Sao Paulo by the Ministry of Housing. Groups of government technical staff have been trained by Sou da Paz in the methodology of the project, and the organization will accompany them in the implementation of the approach. This is a clear demonstration of the success of Sou da Paz's model.

Integration of migrant communities

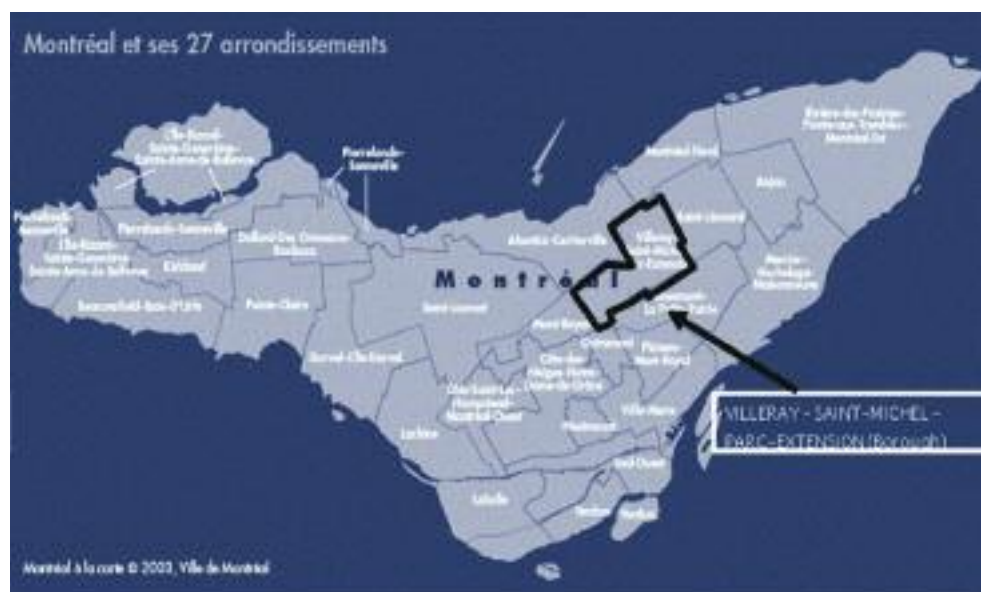
Saint-Michel, Montreal: From Urban Decay to Social Opportunities¹³⁵

Fady Dagher¹³⁶

An overview of Saint-Michel

The Borough of Villeray - Saint Michel - Parc Extension is in one of 27 boroughs which make up the City of Montreal, Canada. Saint Michel itself is one of the poorest neighbourhoods in the country, with a population of 60,000. It has an unemployment rate of 38% in comparison with 8% for the City of Montreal. It experiences social exclusion in terms of its levels of insecurity and poverty, environmental problems stemming from urban decay and abandoned properties, and is further isolated from the rest of the city because of its geographical location. The educational level of residents is significantly lower than the average for Montreal. According to the Public Health Agency of Canada, Saint Michel has one of the highest rates of teenage pregnancy (among girls 14-17 years old), double the average for Montreal, as well as poor health levels.

Figure 1: Map of Boroughs of Montreal



Recent immigration is very evident in the Borough related in part to the low cost of accommodation, and the existing presence of members of migrant communities. It tends to be concentrated in particular residential sectors of the Borough, and with a high proportion of visible minorities. With few employment opportunities, social exclusion and the lack of effective integration policies, young immigrants are at high risk of engaging in criminal and violent activities. Working with young immigrants to improve the quality of life is one of the main challenges for the local authority, civil society and the police in Saint Michel.

Crises from early 2000

Since the early 2000's a number of criminal events in Saint Michel associated with street gangs have made headlines in the media. There have been regular press reports on the extent of street gang-related prostitution and drug dealing in the area. Intensive policing of street gangs at the request of some residents led to charges of racial profiling against the police by others, and relations between the police and part of the community have been poor. All of this has had a negative effect on the community's perception of security and projected an unfavourable image of Saint Michel.

Countless prevention-based projects have been initiated by community groups, institutions, the police, and local authorities over the years. However, these have usually been developed in isolation from each other, and not in a collaborative and integrated manner. Because of this lack of coordination between the different stakeholders and sectors, these initiatives have ultimately failed to institute a 'culture of peace' in Saint Michel, or impact levels of crime or feelings of insecurity.

The emergence of a collaborative plan

In 2004 the Saint Michel Police decided to develop an approach which went beyond the normal 'silos' of intervention. Different services in the entire Borough come under a variety of jurisdictions, ranging from federal (eg. immigration, employment creation, health and justice), provincial (eg. health and social services, education, immigration, public security) and municipal governments (eg. policing, public works, fire services, urban development, culture and sports), as well as private foundations and community organizations providing a range of services and supports. Each has tended to work in isolation.

The approach entailed a 'global vision,' with the police working with a range of partners to establish a common vision and plan for prevention and the social inclusion of new immigrants, especially youth. This "working together" approach involved collaboration between multiple stakeholders, and the sharing of responsibilities, resources, accountability and decisions, in order to implement effective and comprehensive strategies and practices. The welfare of the citizens of the Borough was seen as a shared concern.

This required work to be undertaken on multiple and seemingly unrelated dimensions, beyond the mandates of individual players. The particular role of the police, to help build mutual trust, respect and openness between the police and the diverse stakeholders in the community was a central one. The capacity and willingness to share power and control and to accept responsibility were also essential elements in the success of the initiative. The presence of a group representing diverse organizations which was able to remain in

place for a long time, and with the talent and necessary motivation to act, was another indispensable ingredient.

Further, the approach required considerable courage, confidence and patience, and bold management on the ground to work past zones of comfort and habitual practice. Among other things, it is only when we leave behind conformity and comfort zones that we are able to see our surroundings with different eyes. But the reverse is also true: people in our environment look at us differently when we do so, and this is the real moment when dialogue can start.

«There is no limit to what can be accomplished if we don't worry about who gets the credit»

John Richardson, Partner

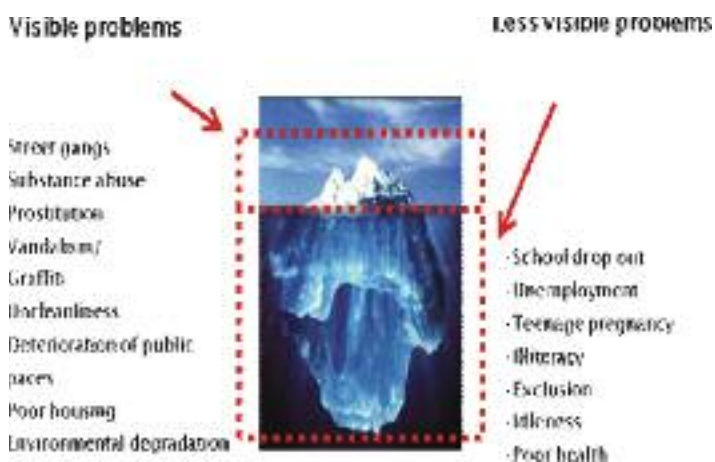
«If we, as partners, manage to successfully establish a familial environment for a young person, we have created a doubt in him/her to join his/her 'criminal family'. At this moment, we have created in him/her a choice»

Charles Dubois, Police Officer

Collaborative Intervention and Shared Responsibility

There are multiple dimensions to the problems which confront collaborative action, some relatively easy to understand and see (street gangs, prostitution, vandalism, the poor environment) others less visible or recognizable (school dropout, illiteracy, early pregnancy, unemployment etc.). They can be illustrated by the analogy of the iceberg shown in Figure 2. The strategy adopted was to combine concerted action to remove or improve the visible signs, with preventive action for the less visible manifestations of the problems in Saint Michel.

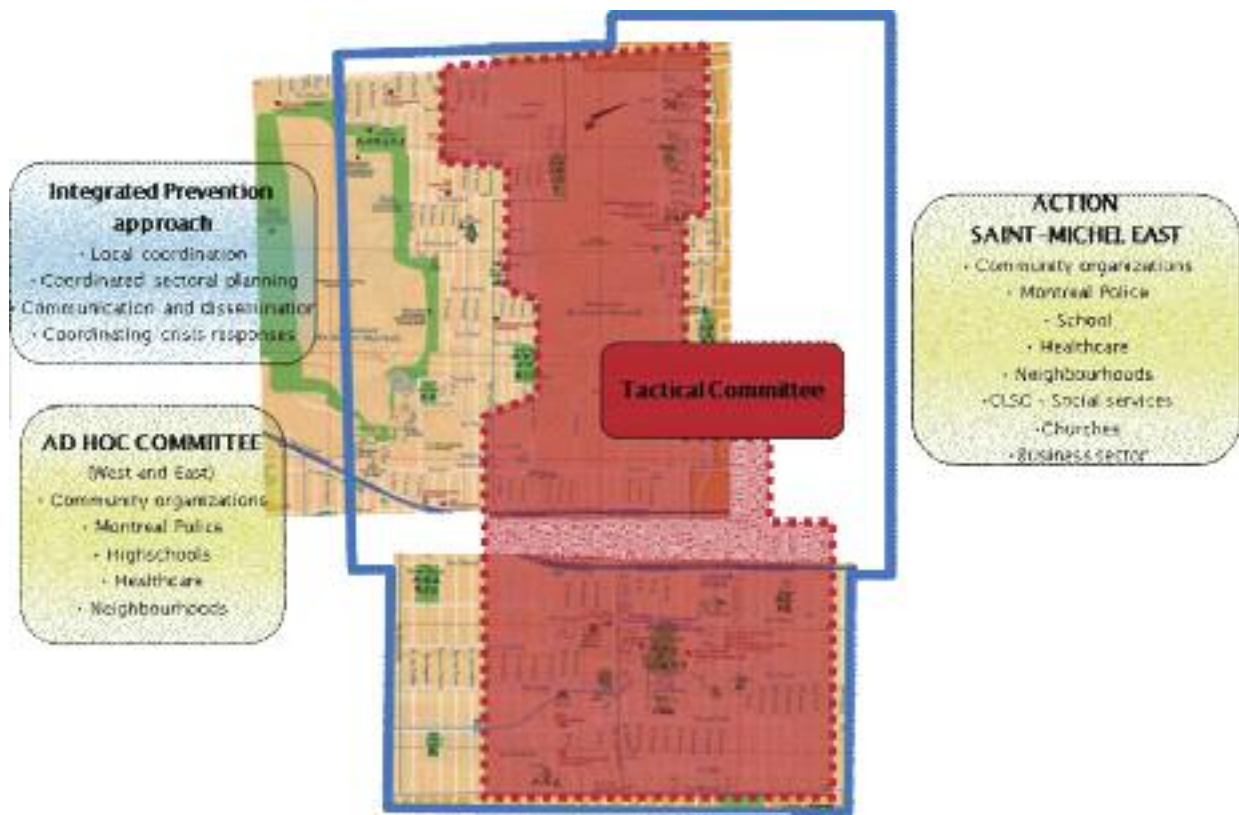
Figure 2: Iceberg analogy



Source: Fady Dagher

A series of committees was established, one to oversee the **Integrated Prevention Strategy** with sub-committees on local coordination, inter-sectoral planning, communications, and crisis management. Each included a range of provincial, municipal and community stakeholders. An ad hoc committee was established to work in two sectors of Saint Michel bringing together community organizations, the Montreal Police Service, secondary schools, housing and the borough administration. A third committee focused on Saint Michel East with a similar group of members, but including all schools, local community health services, churches and the business sector. A tactical committee was also established, and a number of sub-committees targeting specific issues such as prostitution (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Integrated Prevention Strategy



Source: SPVM

Five main fields of intervention were agreed, each with a set of objectives (Figure 4 & 5) and allocating specific responsibilities among the stakeholders. These included sensibilization and education; community solidarity and 'living together'; safety and security and perceptions of safety; responsibility for activities and dissemination of information; and encouraging community involvement.

Figure 4 : Action Plan Saint Michel North 2004 Main Interventions and Objectives

Field of Intervention	Objectives
Sensibilization and education	Increasing knowledge of the environment and issues related to problems experienced by families and youth. Improved awareness of available resources for families.
Community solidarity and 'living together'	To develop intergenerational and intercultural links between residents with the collaboration of community organizations. Building a sense of community among residents.
Safety and security and perceptions of safety	Develop new methods to enhance safety of residents
Responsibility for activities and dissemination of information	Provide better access and better information flow. Increasing mutual understanding and foster links between the key players. Provide outreach activities and dissemination of the results obtained
Getting involved	Encourage the engagement of the community in searching for solutions. Encourage and support the mobilization of tenants.

Source: SPVM

Figure 5: Action Plan Saint Michel East 2004 – Responsible Organizations

Axes d'intervention	Organismes	
Sensibilisation et éducation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Centre de loisirs René-Goupil •CLSC St-Michel •Comm. Chrétienne St-René Goupil •Écoles du voisinage •eco-quartier •Au Relais Jeunes-mères •Maison d'Haïti 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Maison des jeunes •Mon Resto •Omhm •SPVM •Ville de Montréal, Loisirs et développement communautaire
Convivialité et solidarité	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Centre de loisirs René-Goupil •Maison des jeunes •Mon Resto •Omhm 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CLSC St-Michel •Comm. Chrétienne •Écoles du voisinage •La petite maison par la Grand'porte
Sécurité et sentiment de sécurité	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Centre de loisirs René-Goupil •Comité de sécurité et qualité de vie •Maison des jeunes •Mon Resto •Tandem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Écoles du voisinage •Omhm •Spvm •Ville de Montréal, Loisirs et développement communautaire
Appropriation des actions et diffusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Maison des jeunes •Mon Resto •Omhm •Ville de Montréal, Loisirs et développement communautaire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •CLSC St-Michel •Comité de sécurité et qualité de vie •Écoles du voisinage •La petite maison par la Grand'porte
Prise en charge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Mon Resto •Omhm •Ville de Montréal, Loisirs et développement communautaire 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Animatrice de milieu •CLSC St-Michel •Écoles du voisinage •groupes du voisinage
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PROVINCIAL MUNICIPAL COMMUNAUTAIRE 	

Source: SPVM

In 2006 a new policing approach '**From zero tolerance to tolerance**' was introduced with the objective of improving relations with the community and confidence in the police. This included the creation of bicycle patrols to increase visibility and contact with citizens, the allocation of police officers to work with all schools in the area on a regular basis to get to know and work with staff and pupils, and ensuring a presence in all the 'hot spot' areas to get to know the areas better and develop individual relations with the population in those areas. All of this enabled the police to increase their daily contacts with residents, neighbours and community organizations, leading to greater communication and exchange of information. They also took part in community events on a voluntary basis or hosted sporting and cultural events. Monthly meetings were also held between the Police Commandant and the Mayor of the Borough, and similarly with the Borough manager.

The Integrated Strategy also focused on building a communication network and better relations with the media. This included organizing conferences to highlight the positive work being undertaken in Saint Michel. A policy of non-disclosure of photographs of suspects arrested and weapons seized was also instituted to limit recriminations between ethnic or cultural communities.

Thus some of the main kinds of initiatives which have been undertaken as part of the Integrated Strategy and the new policing approach include:

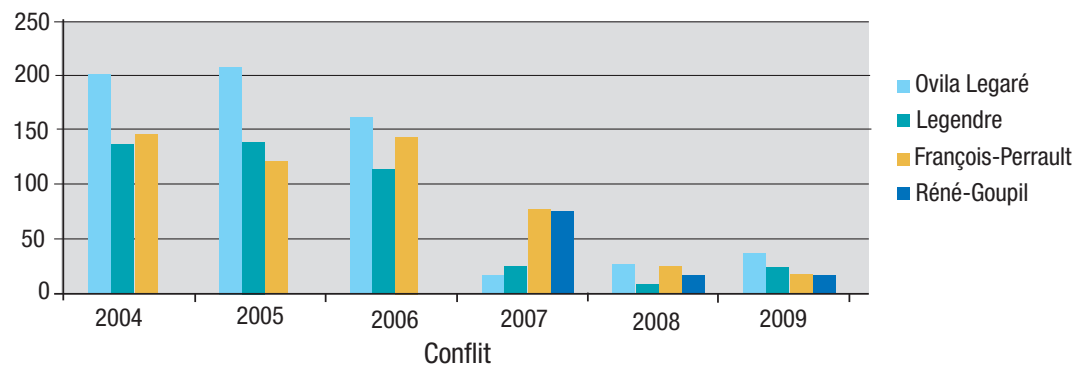
- Infrastructure improvement projects (eg. basketball and soccer facilities, gymnasium, ice rinks, parks).
- The adaptation of services to meet specific interests and needs of the community (eg. boxing, soccer and basketball projects).
- Outreach programmes (eg. for 18-25 year-olds, street animators for younger children).
- Creating links between cultures and generations (eg. hosting and supporting Italian/Haitian community events and a Festival of Nations; offering French language courses).
- Management of the social and urban environment (eg. improved visible policing, including in crime hot spots, and regular police school interaction; establishing a security committee; creating a citizens patrol 'security angels' – mothers who patrolled schools).
- Development of a management plan to respond to crises and conflict situations (eg. the Plan Robert which has been used in response to a variety of incidents).

These amounted to a large number of specific interventions and events. In relation to children and youth, for example, 10 organizations took part in organizing or running 25 physical projects and activities with 329 groups of young people, and 6,358 participants.

Some results

Over the period 2004 to 2009 since the initiative began, there have been a number of changes, and an improvement in the sense of security in Saint Michel. This can be seen in relation to an analysis of calls to the Montreal Police Service (SPVM). These show marked reductions in reports of conflict (Figure 6) and in breach of the peace, fighting, menace, intimidation and harassment, damage, or mischief, in four high profile sectors of Saint Michel. Nor was there any evidence of displacement to the surrounding areas over that period. There has also been a reduction in emergency calls (911 for fire, ambulance or police services) between 2006 and 2009 for Saint Michel (Figure 7).

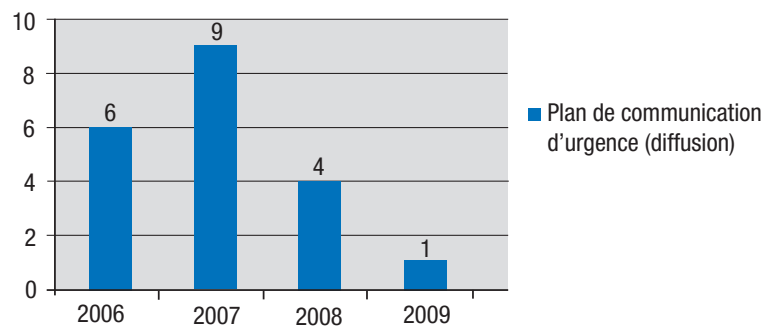
Figure 6: Calls to the police re conflict – four sectors of Saint Michel (2004-2009)



Source: SPVM

Figure 7: Saint Michel - Emergency calls 2006-2009

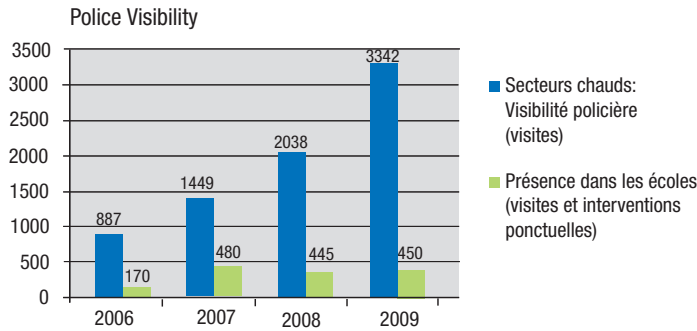
Action Plan: Urgent calls



Source: SPVM

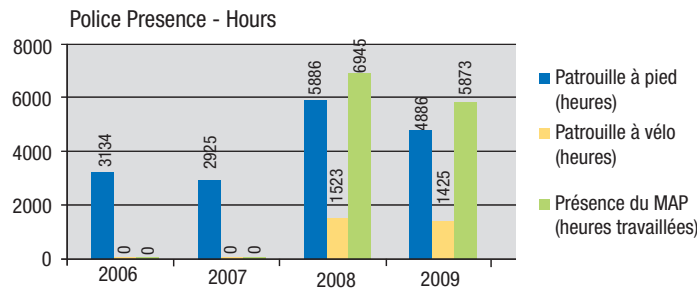
From 2006, the increase in police visibility in hot spots and schools is evident (Figure 8) as well as the hours of police presence on the ground (Figure 9).

Figure 8: Police visibility Saint Michel



Source: SPVM

Figure 9: Police presence Saint Michel



Source: SPVM

The success of the Integrated Strategy and the new policing approach has been largely due to improved relations between the police and the community, the willingness of partners to experiment and to share information, resources and control, as well as to the diversity of skills and expertise and the high level of motivation.

New immigrant youth in Saint-Michel encounter many obstacles to social inclusion due to a variety of social, economic and cultural factors including racism. Public policy needs to embrace a strategy of inclusion and integration so that the diversity of cultures and individuals in a neighbourhood can become a positive and enriching experience.

Challenges to come

While there are positive signs of the success of the initiative in Saint Michel, many challenges which have had to be confronted continue. They include the **ambiguity in the roles** of the major players – federal, provincial, municipal and private - and their different orientations, policies, priorities and objectives. It is not easy to reconcile their varying knowledge, mandates and resources, or the conditions under which they are able to enter into collaborative partnerships. There are varying concordances and contradictions between community groups, between jurisdictions and between managers. **Instability of resources** is a particular problem, with frequent changes in programme funding and requirements, as well as implementation and reporting requirements. Programme funding is often of short duration, and militates against long-term planning and evaluation.

Unstable funding in itself contributes to the **unnecessary mobility of human resources** and the lack of experts and grounded knowledge. In reality much collaboration depends on individuals, their interest, commitment, engagement and capacity to adapt. If there is too much mobility this puts into question partnership collaboration and engagement with public services, institutions and community organizations.

For the future, therefore, it is important to retain strategic human resources with their well established approaches, values and authority. It is also important to facilitate the further cohabitation of new young immigrants with existing residents, as well as work to reduce tensions between generations and diverse communities. There is a need to continue to work to understand the needs of the population and remain alert to changes or emerging crises, by continuing to work pro-actively and provide better service. Similarly, working with the media to show some of the positive events and progress already made in Saint Michel must continue.

Given the continual arrival of new young immigrants, work to promote their inclusion, regardless of their origin, their appearance or their status, is an initiative which must not cease. Obstacles will be encountered, and sometimes situations will go in reverse, but the work has to continue. Scientific knowledge, the mixture of cultures, the interconnection between societies is becoming more global, and this applies to the inclusion of all citizens in Montreal.

Biography

Fady Dagher was recently promoted to Chief of Division, Community Relations, Research and Corporate Communications Division at the Montreal Police Service (SPVM). He previously held the position of Commander, District Chief of Police Station 30 in Montreal. Mr. Dagher has worked as an investigator in the organized crime division, supervisor in various district stations and adviser. He serves on various committees and is part of the steering committee on racial profiling. He has given many presentations including at events organized by the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime.

Outreach Work and Spatial Welfare Practices - Social inclusion and integration of immigrant communities – Preventing urban crime in Italy¹³⁷

Fabio Sorgoni¹³⁸

Immigrants in Italy are among the principal victims of crime and violence (through exploitation, trafficking, smuggling, racism) and are increasingly represented in the criminal justice system. One out of three prisoners (24,966 out of a total of 68,258: 36.5%) is an immigrant (Ministry of Justice, 2010).¹³⁹

There is currently no comprehensive and efficient integration policy in Italy and therefore, immigrants are often excluded from social policies and access to services. Without large-scale support services and integration strategies, problems are mounting for first and second generation immigrants.

On the Road Association and the *Nova Consortium*¹⁴⁰ in Italy have developed a series of programmes and outreach work that promote the establishment of inclusive and community-building spaces, in order to help immigrants integrate into Italian communities, and ultimately prevent criminality, discrimination and racism. These programmes incorporate a holistic approach which entails collaborative social interventions between social workers, the government, private sector, local authorities, non-governmental organizations and communities.

Immigration in Italy

There have been major changes in the percentage and make-up of immigrants in Italy. Presently, the majority are first generation immigrants who are seeking employment and an improved quality of life. Most new migrants live in larger cities, such as Rome, Milan, Turin, Naples, Bologna and Genoa, and represent 10 to 14 percent of the total population of those cities.¹⁴¹ The percentage of migrants in schools is also growing, and one out of three children attending primary school in these larger cities is of immigrant status. In the 1990s, immigrants represented 1.4% of the population. By 2000, they represented 2.9 percent. Currently, there are 4.4 million immigrants accounted for, representing 7.1 percent of the entire population of Italy. These numbers surpass the European Union average (6.2%). The immigrant population is currently made up of Romanians (20%), Albanians (11%), Moroccans (10%), Chinese (5%) and Ukrainians (4%). Furthermore, it is estimated that there are thousands of migrants from Africa (Nigerians in particular) without a permission to stay (Visa), the majority of whom are women and minors that are often trafficked for prostitution.

On the Road

Since 1990, the On the Road association has been operating interventions related to prostitution and trafficking of human beings (sexual exploitation), with a particular focus on the street prostitution of migrant women and minors. They are often victims of trafficking run and managed by criminal organizations. On the Road intervenes in cases of distress and/or risk stemming from prostitution. It addresses issues faced by Italian prostitutes (including drug addiction) and Italian and foreign transvestites and transsexuals. The organization has also widened its field of action to other issues such as trafficking other than for the purpose of sexual exploitation, and to marginalization and poverty. They develop activities and services directly addressed to individuals affected by such types of exclusion, using an approach based on the promotion and protection of individual rights. From a local, national and trans-national perspective, On the Road contributes to the promotion of policies, the development of models of intervention, and professional profiles and training curricula. It undertakes action research projects and produces a variety of publications.

NOVA Consortium

NOVA Consortium is a national organization that was founded in 1998 by a group of leading community and non-governmental organizations. It is currently active in 9 regions of Italy, and includes among its members important social cooperatives, voluntary associations, and non-profit regional and local consortia. Thanks to the experience (over 30 years) of its members, NOVA is one of the main sources of social innovation in the prevention of urban problems such as drug addiction, prostitution and human trafficking. NOVA is also active in the area of youth-related issues, immigration and ethnic minorities. Between them, NOVA's members manage approximately 40 facilities: shelters, day and night community centers, and reception centers.



On the Road

- Anti-Trafficking
- Outreach Work
- Prostitution
- Migrants
- Refugees
- National-Transnational network

Nova Consortium

- 9 Regions
- Consortium of NGOs
- Social Innovation
- Prevention & Fight Urban Deviances

Source: NOVA Consortium

Spatial Welfare - Changes in Phenomena and Places of Social Distress and Urban Deviance

On the Road applies the concept of “Spatial Welfare” in the development and implementation of its programmes and outreach work which targets vulnerable and at-risk immigrants located throughout Italy. The concept can be understood within the context of interventions and policies, and essentially refers to a **paradigm shift** from interventions and policies which are centered on target groups (drug addicts, prostitutes, homeless persons) to policies and practices centered on spaces, areas, and territories. This shift requires a change in dealing with social issues: the space or place is the target for intervention, and this helps to avoid the stigmatization or labeling of an individual. The shift has been applied in four ways, mirrored in the work of On the Road:

1. **Town planning policies** (or the absence of) have contributed considerably to the genesis of *urban deviance and distress* and the social exclusion of certain groups in society: urban areas which have been created without adequate services and public spaces and fail to develop a sense of social identity or cohesiveness (eg. isolated areas); urban areas where speculative interests have become dominant and where organized crime often controls both illegal and legal economic activities; urban areas where, due to multiple factors, there is a concentration of deviant activities and social problems and they become “urban ghettos”. Thus, in order to prevent further exclusion and to understand the roots of the issues, it is important to look at the spaces *we live in* and how they generate exclusion, and to think about what these spaces will look like in the future.
2. **Changes in target composition** (changes in the immigrant population in Italy). As mentioned earlier, there have been significant changes in the proportion and make-up of immigrants. There is a clear rise in the number of immigrants entering Italy since the early 1990s, and an increase in the presence of people from Africa, Eastern Europe and East Asia. These changes necessitate government support and policies that advocate the social inclusion of these populations.
3. **Changes in target naming.** Social inclusion requires a move away from labeling, and a category-related approach (interventions targeting drug addicts, prostitutes or the homeless) towards a **multi-phenomena** approach. Issues are not static, but multi-dimensional and require complex interventions. For example, victims of trafficking who are forced into prostitution may also have addiction and health problems.
4. **Changes associated with places and spaces** where urban deviance and exclusion processes take place. Urban social problems are no longer concentrated in the main public spaces in cities such as squares and parks, but have shifted to ‘hidden’ places to avoid visibility and consequent social control. These spaces have been referred to as *non-places* by Marc Augè.¹⁴² *Non-places* reveal the growing phenomenon of the **decentralization and fragmentation** of social exclusion in urban areas.

Non-places include sites such as **traffic junctions**, harbours and railway stations. The spaces around these traffic hubs are characterized by the aggregation of the social marginalized, living, transiting and stopping. The more urban social control and repression policies are enforced in cities, the more these spaces will be inhabited by the excluded.

Initiatives targeting spaces and *non-places*

Social workers can be instrumental in managing episodes of crisis and helping to avoid the need for police intervention. They act as independent agents who work closely with the community over time to understand the issues and needs, and build trust with vulnerable people. On the Road's staff direct their attention specifically to such non-places in order to make contact with and work with at-risk immigrants.

Welfare Projects in Railway Stations

A number of railway station initiatives to support trafficked persons and prostitutes involve collaboration with the private sector. Since 2001, the Italian railway company, Ferrovie dello Stato, has implemented 'welfare' projects in several railway stations in Italy. As part of this initiative, the company donated 350 buildings located next to the stations for local authorities and community associations to set up HELP Centre Projects: drop-in centers, information booths, asylum seeker registration, etc.

One of the Ferrovie dello Stato 'welfare' projects is the National Observatory of Social Distress. The Observatory, managed by Europe Consulting Social Cooperative, is used as an interactive social laboratory to co-ordinate social interventions in or around railway stations. It also maintains an online database that provides information on this activity, and can provide updated information on trends and changes in social problems in these areas. The Observatory's main operational tool is a website¹⁴³ where all HELP Centers can communicate and share practices. HELP Centers connected to the Observatory are based in Rome, Milan, Florence, Geneva, Naples and Catania. On the Road itself runs a HELP Center based in Pescara.

On the Road and Nova Consortium also developed the *Train de Vie* project in the Pescara Railway Station (in the Abruzzo Region) from 2005-2008. As part of the project, social workers ("Train Units") travel in trains to meet and make contact with people in need in order to provide information. Clientele passengers include Nigerian prostitutes who travel from their home to various places for work. Another service is "Social Check Points" which provide a space in the station for counseling and information on other services available in the region for individuals, such as housing and health care. The Train de Vie project is currently being re-launched in partnership with ENEL Cuore (a corporate foundation) and IKEA, which will provide furniture for the main HELP Centers.

Experimental Welfare Projects in Ports and Harbours

Ports and harbours are commonly used by the prostitution market, especially young East European women. As part of an Anti-trafficking project funded by the European Union, On the Road in association with other organizations has opened Social Check Points in the ports of Ancona and Venice. They are in the process of building a partnership with the *Gente di Mare (Sea People) Committee* in Ancona, to set up a social check point there. The Committee includes port authorities, law enforcements agencies, the municipality of Ancona, the provincial government of Ancona, and local trade unions.

Thus, targeted social interventions in ports and railway stations aim to help people in need, especially immigrants (legal and illegal), by providing them with access to necessary social services (e.g. housing, food, legal advice, protection from traffickers, and information and guidance on citizenship and work). The overall aim is to prevent their further exploitation and engagement in illegal and criminal activities, and to reduce possible conflicts with authorities and local populations, and their further exclusion.

Outreach work with anti-trafficking projects

Anti-trafficking interventions in Italy are mainly funded under two pieces of legislation: Article 13 of Law no. 228/2003 “Measures against trafficking in persons” and Article 18 of Legislative Decree 286/98 (Immigration Law). The federal government financially supports from 70% to 80% of project costs relating to anti-trafficking, and local governments fund the remaining 20% to 30%. The Inter-Ministerial Commission, which includes the Ministry of Social Affairs, Ministry of Interior, Equal Opportunities Ministry, with regional representatives and associations focusing on trafficking in human beings, analyzes project evaluations and results annually, and selects funding recipients for the following year. Article 18 provides for the funding of anti-trafficking organizations and supports (i.e. protection programmes, and permission to stay for humanitarian reasons) for victims of trafficking. If the individual completes the protection programme, he/she can obtain permission to stay in Italy for work-related reasons.

Between 2000 and 2009, anti-trafficking projects funded under Article 18 were highly successful: 50,000 victims (and potential victims) of trafficking were contacted, 13,000 persons entered into protection programmes (700 were minors), 6,500 obtained permission to stay and work in Italy, and 8,000 traffickers are currently under investigation or prosecution or have been convicted. Victims of trafficking also receive services such as access to shelters, labour reinsertion programmes, Street Units (social workers and intercultural mediators) and drop-in centers, and there is a toll-free phone number operating 24 hours per day.

On the Road engages in outreach work using social interventions, in areas where there is a high presence of prostitution (street prostitution and prostitution in apartments, nightclubs, etc.). Women, transsexuals and young men are often victims of exploitation and human trafficking. This includes activities that are implemented by Street Units. Together with 25 organizations, On the Road has recently established a National Coordination system for Street Units.

Outreach work with Prostitutes

- Contacting prostitutes where they work and live, i.e. travel with a van to offer them condoms and information materials on sexual transmitted diseases, and to encourage them to enter protection programmes.
- Accompany prostitutes to hospitals and social services, with intercultural mediators.
- Networking with other relevant stakeholders to promote a multiagency approach
- Conflict mediation with the local population.
- Experimental Client Phone Counseling Service.

In certain areas of Italy, **Zoning Policies** have been implemented in a process of negotiation between prostitutes, the population and local governments to find alternative areas for outdoor prostitution. On the Road follows a **multi-agency approach** at the local level, and collaborates with local governments through roundtable discussions. In an area where prostitution is highly present (e.g. Teramo Province), assisting victims of trafficking has been made possible through a **collaborative protocol** between On the Road and the Court of Teramo. This innovative tool sets out procedures for the identification of victims that law enforcement agencies are obliged to respect. Procedures include using an appropriate setting for first law enforcement interviews with the potential victim, intercultural mediation, and the provision of appropriate psychological, social and legal assistance. The implementation of this protocol is monitored by a multi-agency working group, established for this purpose.

Intercultural Mediation in the Esquilino District

Intercultural mediation aims to promote exchange and to ease tensions between Italian communities and immigrants. Activities are set up to stimulate engagement between the groups, and help to prevent racism.

An ‘Intercultural Mediation’ project has been set up by the *Parsec Association*¹⁴⁴, a member of Nova Consortium, together with the Municipality of Rome, Esquilino District Public Officers and other organizations. It is being implemented in the central district of Rome, where 40% of the population is composed of immigrants, principally from China. This work was part of a comprehensive 3-year programme “*Mediazione Sociale*” (social mediation), which aimed to unite the Italian and immigrant communities to improve the quality of life in the district.¹⁴⁵ The areas of intervention include:

1. Mapping conflicts.
2. Providing services to the community.
3. Roundtable discussions on social issues - school integration and the integration of second generation immigrants. These discussions engaged representatives of all the district communities, the schools and health services among others.
4. Activities have been organized to bring together the communities. These include cleaning-up of the district and its public spaces with the help of 50 associations and 116 shops, sport events, bike-rides, photo exhibitions, re-cycling workshops, and a Chinese Film Festival.

Collaboration with city officials in the programme has been highly effective. The municipality and public officers have provided essential resources and mobilization, and engaged in high-level meetings on the permanent integration of the migrants.

Conclusion

There are many challenges in implementing effective social interventions in an increasingly globalized world. One strategy that has shown success is to target spaces and promote outreach work in *non-places*, such as in traffic hubs, with the aim of reaching vulnerable people where they are. The aim is to improve their quality of life and work conditions, and to increase awareness of the need to pay attention to and provide services to populations inhabiting such spaces.

Outreach work requires a multi-agency approach (collaboration with the government, municipalities, the community, private sector, etc.), diverse task forces, and joint training (eg. social workers and the police) to coordinate methods and roles, and bridge the gap in understanding the issues. Outreach work cannot be a short-term intervention nor become an instrument of social control and repression.

Community building and integration policies are important tools in social mediation, and are capable of bridging the divide between Italian communities and immigrants, which can in turn prevent criminality, discrimination and racism. A bottom-up approach is required, in which community consultations can help to identify needs, improve town planning and prevent social exclusion and urban deviance. Further, targeting spaces (traffic junctions) and not individuals can transform these *non-places* using *Spatial Welfare* into community-building spaces. Thus, community building is a significant way to prevent crime and discrimination.

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Biography

Fabio Sorgoni is the Programme Manager at On the Road Association, a non-profit organization under the network of NOVA Consortium, in Italy. He is also responsible for the Observatory on Prostitution of the National Street Units Co-ordination initiative. Between 1995 and 2005, Mr. Sorgoni worked as a social worker with International Cooperation, a volunteer in Bosnia, Northern Ireland, Brazil and Mexico, and as Project Manager in Refugee Camps in Pakistan and Afghanistan. Since 1998, he has worked with On the Road Association and Nova Consortium on projects relating to Anti-Trafficking, Outreach Work and Spatial Welfare, and in different roles: street unit coordinator, researcher, trainer, project manager. He has presented at various national and international workshops and published several articles on outreach work and prostitution.

New tools to support the application of crime prevention

Assessing Crime Prevention Progress and Making Crime Prevention Assessments from the United Nations Perspective (2005-2010) ¹⁴⁶

Sławomir Redo¹⁴⁷

At the Eleventh United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (Bangkok, Thailand, 2005) the need for more crime prevention was noted only in one operative paragraph of its final declaration. It stated briefly “we stress the need to consider measures to prevent the expansion of urban crime, including by improving international cooperation and capacity-building for law enforcement and the judiciary in that area and by promoting the involvement of local authorities and civil society”. By contrast the declaration of the Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (Salvador de Bahia, Brazil, 2010) mentions “urban crime” three times and makes dozens of references to “crime prevention”.¹⁴⁸

Taking this measure as the departure point for this short article, it discusses what has taken place in the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme¹⁴⁹ as far as urban crime prevention is concerned, both in terms of assessing crime prevention and suggesting how crime prevention may progress further internationally and domestically through the Programme.

Assessing crime prevention progress: From human to urban security

The five years which have passed between the Eleventh and Twelfth Congress’s bear witness to the remarkable progress in United Nations crime prevention developments. The International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC), a member of the Programme Network of Institutes, has consolidated its role as a leading international institutional authority on crime prevention, documented by many projects and publications, including its two global crime prevention reports in 2008 and 2010.¹⁵⁰ Together, respectively, with UN-HABITAT and ICPC, UNODC has published two crime prevention reports of its own: the *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* (2009) and the *Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines: Making them Work* (2010), both of which follow on from its pioneering *Handbook on Planning and Action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions* (2008).

This considerable output by UNODC and ICPC illustrates that the question of urban crime prevention¹⁵¹ has emerged as a major and common objective. This may be seen against the overall trend in the United Nations in general, namely that of shifting the programmatic emphasis from the rather fuzzy concept of “human security”¹⁵² which has not really addressed urban security threats, into a clearer concept of “urban security”.¹⁵³

This latter concept is also less politicized, more compact, measurable, practical and constructive. It emerged in the second half of the 1990s. Initial estimates at that time showed that a considerable portion of mankind (2.6 billion) lived on US\$2 a day, and 1.2 billion on US\$1 a day. More precise and recent UNDP estimates showed that this was respectively, 40% and 18% of the entire world population. Of the half billion poorest, 75% of them lived in the countryside, and 25% (ca. 250-300 million) in urban slums.¹⁵⁴

That proportion received further attention when econometric research by the World Bank found that between 1993 and 2002 there was a process of urbanization of poverty, with an increase in the number of city residents living on US\$1 a day.¹⁵⁵ That process was 30% faster than among those living in rural areas. Cities act as a magnet for poor village people. In cities the percentage of poor rose from 18% to 24 %, compared with from 38% to 42% in rural areas. However, the number of rural poor declined by about 150 million, while in the cities they increased by about 50 million. The fastest increase was observed in urban slums.¹⁵⁶

These findings help to explain why there is a growing feeling of urban insecurity, chiefly attributed to the influx of rural immigrants seeking new life chances, whether legitimate or not. This influx leads to increasing intra-city inequality, manifested in stark residential segregation, and multiplying violence which impacts disproportionately on women and the poor themselves.¹⁵⁷

It is within this context that UN-HABITAT’s recent focus on urban safety and security may best be understood, namely that between 2001-2006 on average about 60% of urban residents in Africa, and 70% of urban residents in South America, became victims of crime.¹⁵⁸

Urban security and crime have other measureable features. There is evidence that (a) large cities everywhere tend to have more crime and victimization than small cities;¹⁵⁹ that (b) “any jurisdiction more urban than its national environment will have a homicide rate higher than its national average”;¹⁶⁰ that (c) in every country homicide rates grow with the relative size of its cities;¹⁶¹ that (d) the rapid pace of urbanization and the resulting growth in city size and density is associated with increased street crime and violence, but more so in developing than in developed countries;¹⁶² and that (e) violent and other street crime tends to concentrate in certain parts of the city (“hot spots”) and in neighbourhoods that are known to the police and citizens.¹⁶³

The above data and information show that urban security is indeed a measurable and practical concept which helps in the assessment of crime and its prevention. Obviously, this evidence on the relationship between the pace of urbanization and crime must be read in the context of confounding factors such as culture, socio-economic development, governance and the strength of civil society, etc. In other words, the effectiveness and efficiency of certain crime prevention measures may be quantitatively measured, but there are several factors which must additionally be taken into account in doing so.¹⁶⁴

All such findings and others have helped to give power to the concept of urban security within the United Nations, and convinced experts and officials that “crime prevention works”, and that a sizeable percentage of urban crime can be effectively and efficiently reduced through combined multi-sectoral planning and action. The relevant publications of ICPC and UNODC share this conviction and provide technical advice to national and urban decision-makers to that effect.

Within the United Nations, no other areas of crime prevention work (eg. in relation to drugs, terrorism or corruption) have gone so far as to claim such confident and comprehensive reductions. This is partly due to the different approaches pursued by the UNODC to countering those different forms of crime.

Making crime prevention assessments

The concept of urban security proves not only to be measurable, but practical and constructive. As already noted, in 2009 the UNODC published its *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool*,¹⁶⁵ convinced that it “is an essential step towards more sustainable and integrated approaches to crime prevention and also an important advance in inter-agency collaboration at the country level”.¹⁶⁶

The tool was prepared with four objectives in mind: (a) to assist the process of undertaking an assessment of crime prevention needs; (b) to identify areas of technical assistance; (c) to assist agencies to design interventions that incorporate the United Nations standards and norms on crime prevention; and (d) to assist in training on these issues.

The *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* is not intended to provide an in-depth assessment of country (or city) needs, but an initial assessment based on a set of questions concerning such aspects as existing socio-economic and crime concerns, sources of data, problems and capacities.

When drafting that tool, UNODC had hoped that an in-depth assessment of country (city) needs could also be undertaken by requesting Member States to inform the United Nations Secretariat periodically about their crime prevention needs. Such a method of assessment, using a special questionnaire, has been periodically implemented in the sister-part of the UNODC programme on the prevention of drug abuse (drug demand reduction). There, every second year, the UNODC distributes the so called “Biennial Reporting Questionnaires” (BRQs) and on the basis of Member States’ answers assesses their drug prevention needs, and develops technical assistance projects accordingly.

In relation to crime prevention, that complimentary idea has never attracted the attention of Member States. At the United Nations Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice which has the authority to mandate such an initiative, Member States have complained of “questionnaire fatigue”.¹⁶⁷ This would likely grow further if yet another reporting obligation of the kind envisioned by UNODC were to be agreed.

Crime prevention self-assessment tool

Consequently, while the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme, and, in particular the UNODC, has made considerable progress in the operationalization of crime prevention, through developing a number of technical guides and projects, globally assessing the prerequisites which would facilitate effective crime prevention at a country-level cannot be undertaken in the way originally intended.

Alternatives must be found. One of them is the development of a *self-assessment tool* for in-depth country (city) needs. UNODC plans to develop such a tool through a special technical assistance project. This idea has been prompted by UNODC's interest in developing a self-assessment anti-corruption tool on the Implementation of the United Nations Convention Against Corruption.¹⁶⁸ However, unlike in the case of the United Nations anti-corruption work, in the absence of more objective urban crime prevention assessment criteria and outcomes (self-assessments encourage informing about vested interests rather than about an overall view), this is the second best choice.

Crime prevention training

Shortly after the Eleventh UN Congress in 2005, ICPC published a report on *Community Safety Workers: An Exploratory Study of Some Emerging Crime Prevention Occupations*.¹⁶⁹ That paper underscores what the 2002 *United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime*¹⁷⁰ had foreseen globally in the recommendations to: (a) provide professional development for senior officials in relevant agencies; (b) encourage universities, colleges and other relevant educational agencies to offer basic and advanced courses, including in collaboration with practitioners; (c) work with the educational and professional sectors to develop certification and professional qualifications; (d) promote the capacity of communities to develop and respond to their needs.

In relation to these four general United Nations objectives, four specific features of this report should be mentioned here. Namely, it highlighted that:

- (a) a range of 'new' community safety professions have been created to address fear and insecurity about crime, often in disadvantaged and crime-prone communities, or in high-use public spaces. The examples reviewed involved partnerships between the police, various levels of government, and community organizations and businesses. They variously aim to prevent crime and promote safety, act as a link between institutions and the community, reduce disputes, strengthen communities, and increase people's trust in the police;
- (b) these occupations range from providing additional patrols or extra security in public spaces, to mediating conflict and improving social cohesion. Assessments of changes in social controls and guardianship, combined with culture and tradition, are significant factors determining how occupations are conceptualized [within countries] and the kinds of emphasis placed on their roles. Local implementation is seen as key to the success of an initiative, since adaptation to a community is crucial for the acceptance of community safety workers by residents of a neighbourhood;

- (c) the training given to community safety workers varies, but often includes prior sessions on their powers and role, conflict management techniques, knowledge of the legal and justice system, issues affecting victims of crime, and the role of other types of workers within their jurisdiction. Training may be made more pertinent by monitoring and adjustment based on feedback on the obstacles encountered on the job;
- (d) professionalization of such positions may bring about uniformity in training, duties, wages, structure and references. Such standardization may also help to establish a permanent status for these occupations, the development of a technical language and values, contribute to their greater legitimacy, and assist evaluation of their effectiveness.

ICPC's 2010 *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives*¹⁷¹ launched during the Twelfth United Nations Congress, further notes the gradual creation of a "professional culture of prevention", which includes the development of university-level courses based on the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime. In addition to such face-to-face teaching, e-learning courses on the prevention of various forms of crime are becoming more widely available. *Crime Prevention* is moving into the role it fully deserves, but a more systematized and coordinated development of teaching and training curricula is needed internationally.

Conclusion

At the workshop on *International criminal justice education for the rule of law*, the Twelfth United Nations Congress started to address the need for professionalization and standardization of various criminal justice occupations incorporating United Nations standards and norms. Among these, crime prevention specialist education appears to be the most advanced in terms of its United Nations content-relevancy. ICPC alone has already made inroads into crime prevention expert training beyond that so far achieved in the United Nations professionalization process for other "justice" occupations.

The time has come for the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme to add additional value to that overall process, so that the UNODC slogan *Making the World Safer from Drugs, Crime and Terrorism* will gain a new, very useful and practical dimension. Assessing crime prevention progress across the world will then probably show that training and teaching will have made a qualitative improvement in local governance, including more crime reduction and the humane treatment of victims and offenders.

Biography

Sławomir Redo is a Habilitated Doctor in Law and Criminology (Poland, 2009). He was the Coordinator of the workshops at the Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. He has worked in the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, at the United Nations Office in Vienna, Austria since 1981. He was principally responsible for United Nations surveys of crime trends and operations of criminal justice systems and for projects involving the computerization of criminal justice administration and firearms regulation. From 1999 to 2002, he served as a United Nations Senior Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Expert in the Regional Office on Drugs and Crime for Central Asia (Tashkent, Uzbekistan). He currently works with the Academic Council on the United Nations System (ACUNS) on the development of the United Nations Criminal Justice Studies, and recently co-edited with Kauko Aromaa the book *For the Rule of Law: Criminal Justice Teaching and Training Across the World*.

The Central American Observatory on Violence OCAVI & El Salvador Observatories¹⁷²

The **Central American Observatory on Violence (OCAVI)**¹⁷³ is located in El Salvador. It is the outcome of a series of events in the Region including the *Plan Centroamerica Segura* agreed in Guatemala in July 2004, a regional forum on the social prevention of violence and youth reintegration held in El Salvador in 2005, and the *Declaration SICA sobre Seguridad* reached in Honduras in October 2006, which recommended the creation of a regional observatory on violence to provide institutional support and collect and exchange information.

The Observatory covers the countries of Belize, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Panama, and is guided by the National Security Council (CNSP), and a Coordination and Advisory Council. It compiles information on issues relating to crime and violence, with the overall aim of helping to improve techniques of data collection in the countries in the Region, and to enable the development of better public policies on safety and security. OCAVI itself received technical assistance from the Centre for International Studies and Cooperation (CECI) and the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC), both based in Montreal, Canada.

The Observatory maintains a web-site, a directory of contacts, publishes a news bulletin three times a year, and an annual comparative review. The web-site provides information on indicators of violence using the World Health Organization's definition of violence, based on regional, national, and local information, and information on country public policies and relevant legislation, research studies, model projects etc.

Prevention rather than repression

OCAVI promotes the prevention of crime and violence, and has helped to shift Regional strategy towards a prevention-based approach. In recent years only Costa Rica and Nicaragua had taken a prevention stance in their public security policy, while El Salvador and Guatemala had used a repressive model. The Observatory has a particular focus on delinquency and the rehabilitation of vulnerable youth and children in conflict with the law which is a significant problem in the Region. El Salvador, for example, is regarded as one of the most violent countries in the world, with some 75,000 at risk youth, while youth gangs are a salient feature in the country.

Several studies conducted at OCAVI have shown that prevention strategies are more successful in reducing crime and violence than repressive *mano duro* approaches. Case studies of Nicaragua and Costa Rica have demonstrated the positive long-term effects of implementing prevention policies within law enforcement institutions, such as the police. These findings have helped certain Central American governments, in particular El Salvador, to adapt and improve national-level strategies.

National Observatory and Municipal Observatories in El Salvador

The new government in El Salvador itself has now established its own *National Observatory on Violence and Delinquency* (OBNAVID) and has included prevention in its justice and public security and safety policies, as one of the pillars of the government's national strategy. The National Observatory has been able to provide practical tools for assessing and measuring the extent and types of violence and delinquency, monitoring crime trends, and support the implementation of public policies, plans and projects to increase public protection and reduce violence and crime (Figure 1). It brings together the CNSP, Ministries of Justice, the alliance of municipalities, thirty municipal mayors, international cooperation agencies and key local information services.

Figure 1: Objectives of the National Observatory

- Develop a municipal security diagnosis in each of the selected municipalities
- Mapping to identify areas with risk factors and protection within each of the municipalities of the network
- Promoting inter-agency work in the implementation of the National Observatory Network for the Prevention of Violence and Crime
- Strengthen the technical capacity of municipalities and the different actors involved

A network of municipal observatories has now also been established in 24 municipalities, to work at the local level developing their own capacities to collect information and diagnose problems, and initiate strategies. Figures 2 to 4 below outline the key actors, specific objectives and working phases of the Observatory. Figure 5 indicates the location of municipal observatories. They also provide information to the National Observatory, thus aiding the development of State policy, and the evaluation of violence prevention initiatives.

Figure 2: Key Actors involved in the National Observatory



Source: Central American Observatory on Violence (OCAVI)

Figure 3: Specific objectives of the National Observatory

Source: Central American Observatory on Violence (OCAVI)

Figure 4: Phases of work

1. Identification of primary sources:

- Inform different institutional actors about the initiative.
- Elaboration of inter-agency agreements to promote collection of information
- Validation and signing of inter-agency agreements.
- Definition of indicators to manage a single mechanism to facilitate analysis and generation of strategies for reducing the incidence of crime.

2. Collection and analysis of information:

- Validation of the data, conducted by a technical committee.
- Data processing, realized by operational staff of the Observatory.
- Analysis of the information, involving the participation of decision makers at national institutions.

3. Disclosure of information:

- Online publications
- Forums
- Bulletins
- Discussions

Source: Central American Observatory on Violence (OCAVI)

Figure 5: Map of the location of municipal observatories in El Salvador



Source: Central American Observatory on Violence (OCAVI)

Guidance on Local Safety Audits: A Compendium of International Practice¹⁷⁴

Sohail Husain¹⁷⁵

The *Guidance on Local Safety Audits: A Compendium of International Practice* was developed by the European Forum for Urban Security, based in Paris, with funding support from the National Crime Prevention Centre of Public Safety Canada. Initially published in 2007, it has been translated into a number of languages, including most recently Portuguese.

What is a safety audit

A **local safety audit** can be defined as *a systematic analysis to gain understanding of local crime and victimization-related issues* (Figure 1). It is a tool to identify, define, analyse and explain problems in a way that informs decisions about prioritisation and the selection of responses. Additionally, by creating a statement about the situation at a particular point in time, a safety audit can be used in the monitoring of change and the evaluation of interventions.

Figure 1: Safety audit: a definition

A systematic analysis to gain the understanding of local crime and victimisation-related issues needed to:

- select appropriate priorities
- develop an effective prevention strategy
- monitor progress
- evaluate achievement

A strategic approach

A safety audit should be an essential element in the strategic development and delivery of a crime prevention plan at the city level, emphasising what is needed in the local context. This should begin with mobilization of key actors drawn from a range of agencies and organisations. They need to own and oversee the audit; the subsequent development of an action plan that includes roles, responsibilities and a timeline; and its implementation. Evaluation and monitoring should in turn lead back to reformulating and reassessing the issues and outcomes. Inclusion of voices in the process, both in terms of the community and minority sectors, and on the participation of different sectors, should be a priority, if the findings are truly to reflect local concerns and wishes (Figure 2).

Figure 2: A Strategic Approach

Source: Sohail Husain

The scope of safety audits

Safety audits provide much more than a description of a situation or a series of problems, they help to provide understanding and insight into the complex linkages between crime, offending and socio-economic problems, among others. The safety audit also aims to help *build partnerships* within the community and encourage integrated action. It takes account of both existing services and initiatives, and looks at the *strengths and assets* of the neighbourhood or city being audited, and thus the potential for building on those strengths and services (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Scope of safety audits

Source: Sohail Husain

Some of the benefits include the *provision of a sound knowledge base* which:

- Reveals social, economic and other linkages
- Engages stakeholders in relevant services
- Builds consensus about where to focus resources
- Informs goal setting and choice of response
- Promotes integrated action by relevant partners
- Sets a baseline against which to measure progress
- Facilitates analysis and development of policy at the city level
- Helps city managers and practitioners identify problems and ensure safer public spaces.

About the Compendium

The content of this **Compendium** draws on the expertise and experience of a range of international experts working on aspects of crime prevention in different regions and countries round the world. Its aim is to act as a resource that can allow for adaptation to different social and economic contexts. Thus safety audits can be developed and adapted in very different environments, and the Compendium aims to be **enabling, not prescriptive**, for adaptation to diverse environments.

While safety audits can be undertaken on both large and smaller neighbourhood levels, the *Guidance* offers advice on their application primarily at the **city level**. It is organized in **three parts**. Part A reviews the audit process, and is directed to high-level city management and policy makers. Part B focuses on specific and serious urban crime issues including children and youth, interpersonal violence, the reintegration of offenders, trafficking in persons, substance use and abuse, businesses and crime, and high crime neighbourhoods. Part C discusses some of the sources, techniques and tools which can be used to undertake data collection and analysis. Both Parts B and C are directed primarily to practitioners and those responsible for overseeing the audit process itself.

Future developments

The *Guidance* is not seen as a definitive and ‘final’ version, but one which can be responsive to growing experience in the use of safety audits in different contexts, thus a work in progress (Figure 4).

The next steps involved in advancing the practicality of the Local Safety Audit are identifying various pilot or demonstration sites, initiating training, technical assistance and coaching on developing a safety audit for practitioners, governments and local authorities, identifying regional or state-specific adaptations, and setting up a forum for practitioners to exchange experiences with the use of safety audits. It is also expected that translation into additional languages will facilitate its use in different countries and contexts.

Figure 4: Guidance on Local Safety Audits. A Compendium of International Practice



Source: European Forum for Urban Safety

Biography

Sohail Husain is the Director of Analytica, a UK-based organisation specialising in research and advocacy related to community safety and justice. He is currently evaluator of the UNTF-funded Gender Inclusive Cities Programme and evaluation adviser to the UNIFEM Global Programme for Safe Cities for Women and Girls. He was a Lecturer in Geography at Southampton University, where he established the Urban Policy Research Unit and first became involved in crime prevention. In 1989, he joined Crime Concern, an NGO dedicated to promoting social crime prevention and implementing practical projects. He was the Deputy CEO of Crime Concern from 2001 to 2005. He set up Analytica in 2005 to increase his international involvement.

Distance Learning and the Police

Ricardo Balestreri¹⁷⁶

Public safety in Brazil has been in a state of on-going crisis since the early 1980's, when rates of violence began to increase. Levels of violence are still high, with more than 40,000 homicides per year. In response to this crisis, the Government of Brazil has initiated a range of strategic reforms with the National Programme of Public Security and Citizenship (PRONASCI). One of these aims to increase the education and training levels of the police, and the Department of Public Security has developed a large-scale *distance learning* training and education system for police officers.

The issues facing public security in Brazil can be characterized on three levels: *micro crime*, which forms part of everyday lives; *meso-criminality*, which includes criminal organizations who control local territories in, for example, the slums of Rio de Janeiro, and *organized crime*. The latter includes criminal activity that is well entrenched in the upper echelons of society and a cross-section of public and private institutions, and international organized crime. Organized crime is one of the most serious threats to democracy. It is centralized, personalized and very agile. The prevention of organized crime requires good intelligence and collaboration between police forces and communities.

Intelligence and knowledge systems are not only about police investigation, but about strategic thinking and being close to communities and information. The police have a more strategic role than solely as enforcers of the law, and are one of the few entities that have the potential to promote democracy and change society. Few other institutions have such an impact. The police need to extend beyond their formal and reactive functions, not only by respecting human rights, but by promoting human rights and becoming much more proactive. Police officers can be educators and can help to lead society and communities. This requires the building of human capital and moral and intellectual knowledge through training and education, to bring about transformative understanding.

Distance learning

In previous years, the Government of Brazil invested 35% of policing resources in purchasing vehicles and equipment, and only 3 percent in training. Currently, the government is investing more than 60% of its funds (600\$ million a year) in distance learning training programmes for managers and operators of public security, especially the police, at the undergraduate and graduate level. The programme aims to break down the dichotomy between knowledge on the streets and academic knowledge, so that practical and intellectual knowledge become self-reinforcing. Out of 680,000 police officers in Brazil, 500,000 have so far taken part in distance learning courses.

The government has set up a network for public security studies, and 66 universities in Brazil now run 80 graduate courses on public security. The courses are offered every 4 months, and 200,000 police officers, firemen and women, and prison workers have participated since the programme began three years ago, of whom 75,000 have received bursaries (300\$ per month) to register for the courses. The goal is to have 3,000 police officers registered every year in graduate courses.

Distance learning courses include both practical technical training (eg. use of technology, techniques of investigation, ballistics, law, medical issues, and command of incidents) and human rights education. Police officers learn about issues of gender equality, the rights of different age groups (youth and the elderly), racial equality, and combating homophobia. The courses are of very high quality and 95% of participants say that they like them.

Conclusion

The introduction of distance learning for law enforcement authorities forms part of a major paradigm shift in public security at federal, state and municipal levels in Brazil towards the promotion of human rights and knowledge, collaboration with the community, and prevention over repression. The police have an important role in embodying and advancing this shift by taking on their new role as educators and facilitators of democracy and a culture of peace in society.

Biography

Ricardo Balestreri is the Former National Secretary of Public Security at the Ministry of Justice in Brazil. He was the former President of the Brazilian Section of Amnesty International, and is currently a member of the National Committee for Human Rights Education and the National Committee for the Combat and Prevention of Torture of the Secretary for Human Rights of the Presidency in Brazil.

Appendices

Workshop Agenda

Expert meeting participant list

Appendix I – Workshop Agenda

Practical Approaches to Urban Crime Prevention

Wednesday, April 14th 2010 - 10:00-18:00

10.00-13.00 Morning Session: The Urban Opportunity

10.00-10.30

- Opening:** Chair of the Plenary Dr Romeu TUMA JUNIOR - Brazil
- Ministerial Welcome:** Romeu TUMA JUNIOR
- Workshop issues:** Margaret SHAW, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime - Canada
- Moderator:** Valerie SAGANT, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime - Canada

10.30-11.30 - PANEL I Mega Cities and Regions

- Paula MIRAGLIA,
Violence and Safety, Diversity and Inequality – the case of São Paulo - Brazil
- Fola ARTHUR-WORREY,
Lagos State Crime & Safety Survey, Challenges & Outcomes - Nigeria
- Khaled ABDELHALIM,
Crime Prevention & Urban Development: The case of Greater Cairo - Egypt
- Discussion from the floor

11.30-12.30 - PANEL II High Crime Cities

- Steven MALBY,
Understanding Urban Crime: Cross-national data collection - UNODC
- Gregory SLOANE-SEALE,
The Citizen Security Programme – Trinidad & Tobago
- Bernardo PEREZ SALAZAR,
Social Urbanism as a Crime Prevention Strategy: The case of Medellin - Colombia
- Discussion from the floor

12.30 – 13.00 - PANEL III National Response

- Ronaldo TEIXEIRA,
PRONASCI: The National Program for Public Security with Citizenship - Brazil
- Reinaldo Gomes,
Index of Juvenile Vulnerability to Violence - Brazil

15.00-18.00 Afternoon Session: Inclusion And Tools For Action

Moderator: Paula MIRAGLIA, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime - Canada

15.00-16.00 - PANEL IV Including Women and Youth

Sohail HUSAIN,
Gender Inclusive Cities: findings from a multi-national project to improve women's safety in public spaces - UK

Andrew CARPENTER,
Female UN Police Officers Boost Protection for Women and Children – UN

Gabriela PINHEIRO,
Youth inclusion Fight for Peace - Brazil

Denis MIZNE,
The Peace Squares Project - Brazil

16.00-16.55 - PANEL V Integration of migrant communities

Fady DAGHER,
Integrating migrant youth and communities in Montreal - Canada

Fabio SORGONI,
Outreach work and spatial welfare practices to prevent and fight urban crime in Italy - Italy

Discussion from the floor (Panels IV & V)

16.55-17.30 - PANEL VI New tools to support the application of crime prevention

Slawomir REDO,
Crime Prevention Assessment Tool / Crime Prevention Curriculum - UNODC

Aida SANTOS ESCOBAR,
The Regional Observatory OCAVI – El Salvador

Sohail HUSAIN,
The Local Safety Audit Compendium - UK

Ricardo BALESTRERI,
Distance Learning and the Police – Brazil

17.30-18.00 Final discussion, conclusions and recommendations of the workshop

Moderator: Valerie SAGANT,
International Centre for the Prevention of Crime - Canada

Conclusions and closure: Romeu TUMA JUNIOR - Brazil

Appendix II –

Expert meeting participant list

Expert Group Meeting On 12th Un Congress Workshop 3

Participant List

Date: Thursday and Friday December 10th, 11th 2009

Time: 2:00pm-6:00pm

Location: ICPC offices, 465 St Jean, Montréal, Québec. Suite 803

Institution/Country	Participant
UNODC	Slawomir Redo, Secretariat
UNODC	Nivio Nascimento – UNODC Regional Office, Brazil
UN-HABITAT	Elkin Velasquez, Coordinator, Safer Cities Programme
UNDP	Monique RAKOTOARISON, PNUD Madagascar, RANDRIAMANDRAT
Latin America	
Brazil	Romeu Tuma Junior, Secretary of Justice, Ministry of Justice
	Regina Miki, Executive Secretary of the National Council for Public Security
	Sonja Valle, Coordinator of the XII Crime Congress
	Renato Porciuncula, General Coordinator of the XII Crime Congress
	Simone de Campos, Advisor
	Paula Miraglia, Executive Director, ILANUD
El Salvador	Aida Santos Escobar, President of the National Council of Public Safety
Mexico	Veronica Martinez-Solares
Caribbean	
Trinidad & Tobago	Gregory Sloane Seale, Ministry of National Security



Institution/Country	Participant
Africa	
Nigeria	Innocent Chukwuma Executive Director, CLEEN Foundation
South Africa	Barbara Holtmann, Safety and Security, DPSS, CSIR
North America	
Canada	Mary Anne Kirvan, Senior Counsel, National Crime Prevention Centre
U.S. A.	Winnie Reed , National Institute of Justice
Asia Pacific	
Australia	Peter Homel, Australian Institute of Criminology, and Ministry of the Attorney General
India	Ajay Mehra, Shaheed Bhagat Singh College, University of Delhi
China	Dawei Wang, Professor of Criminology and Director of the Division of Postgraduate in Chinese People's Public Security University
Europe	
Germany	Erick Marks, German Crime Congress, Hanover, Germany
ICPC	Margaret Shaw, Director of Analysis & Exchange
	Vivien Carli, Analyst and Project Officer
	Valerie Sagant, Director General

Footnotes

1. The workshop was made possible by the support of ICPC Member Governments, and the Government of Brazil.
2. See Annex II for list of participants.
3. *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives 2008 and 2010*. Montreal: ICPC.
4. A/CONF.213/PM.1 All documentation relating to the 12th Congress can be download from www.UNODC.org
5. Adopted by ECOSOC in resolutions 1995/9 and 2002/13.
6. See Shaw, M & Travers, K. (Ed.) (2007). *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention in particular in relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*. Proceedings of the 11th UN Congress workshop. Montreal: ICPC.
7. *Criminal Force. Torture, Abuse and Extrajudicial Killings by the Nigeria Police Force*. (2010). New York: Open Society Justice Initiative.
8. www.skyscraper.org
9. See for example, Dina Shehayeb (2008). 'Safety and Security in Public Space.' In ICPC (2008) *International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety*. Montreal.
10. Freund, B. (2010). 'Is there such a thing as a post-Apartheid city?' *Working Paper No. 2010/48*, United Nations University - World Institute for Economics Research (UNU-WIDER).
11. See also Berg, J. (2010). 'Seeing like private security: evolving mentalities of public space protection in South Africa.' *Criminology & Criminal Justice* 10(3). Pp 287-301.
12. Freund, B. (2010) op. cit. p.5.
13. Item 5 of the provisional agenda, A/Conf.213/6.
14. See the Declaration of the 5th World Urban Forum 19-26th March, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil www.unhabitat.org.
15. Anna Tabajuka, Executive Director UN-HABITAT at the closing session.
16. The European Beccaria project on crime prevention teaching was presented at the 12th Congress Workshop 1 on international criminal justice education for the rule of law. See also ICPC's second *International Report on Crime Prevention & Community Safety* (2010), and UNODC's e-lecture on *Sports and Crime Prevention* aired on November 10th 2010.
17. See also the Draft report on Workshop3 in A/CONF.213/L.2/Add.2
18. See discussion in ICPC (2010) *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives*. Montreal.
19. See *Criminal Force. Torture, Abuse and Extrajudicial Killings by the Nigeria Police Force*. (2010) op. cit. for a discussion of the underfunding of the police.
20. *National Crime and Survey: 2010 Summary Report*. Lagos: CLEEN Foundation; and *Criminal Force* (2010) op. cit.

21. United Nations Latin America Institute for the Prevention of Crime & the Treatment of Offenders.
22. United Nations publication, Sales No. B.07.IV.5.
23. See, for example, Mayra Buvini, Erik Alda and Jorge Lamas, *Emphasizing Prevention in Citizen Security: The Inter-American Development Bank's Contribution to Reducing Violence in Latin America and the Caribbean*, Sustainable Development Department Best Practices Series SOC-141 (Washington D.C., Inter-American Development Bank, 2005).
24. Etienne G. Krug and others, eds., *World Report on Violence and Health* (Geneva, World Health Organization, 2002); and World Health Organization, *Preventing Violence and Reducing its Impact: How Development Agencies Can Help* (Geneva, 2008).
25. United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.XI.12.
26. International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, *Urban Crime Prevention and Youth at Risk: Compendium of Promising Strategies and Programmes from Around the World* (Montreal, 2005).
27. See United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Global Report on Human Settlements 2007* (London, Earthscan, 2007); International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives* (Montreal, 2008); and "World crime trends and responses; integration and coordination of efforts by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and by Member States in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice: note by the Secretariat" (E/CN.15/2007/2).
28. United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *State of the World's Cities 2008/2009: Harmonious Cities* (London, Earthscan, 2008), p. x.
29. See *South American Cities: Securing an Urban Future*, Urban Age project (London School of Economics and Political Science and Alfred Herrhausen Society, 2008), available from www.urban-age.net; and Ricky Burdett and Deyan Sudjic, eds., *The Endless City* (London, Phaidon, 2008).
30. *State of the World's Cities 2008/2009*.
31. *Ibid.*, p. xiii.
32. Indian census 2001, available at www.censusindia.in/Census_Data_2001.
33. Kalyani Menon-Sen and Gautam Bhan, *Swept off the Map: Surviving Eviction and Resettlement in Delhi* (New Delhi, Yoda Press, 2008).
34. Teresa Caldeira, "Worlds set apart", in *South American Cities*, pp. 54-55.
35. *Ibid.*
36. *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety* (see footnote 6); and *Handbook on Planning and Action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.IV.1).
37. Patricia Arias, *Seguridad Privada en América Latina: el Lucro y los Dilemas de una Regulación Deficitaria* (Santiago, Facultad Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, 2009).
38. *Crime and Development in Central America*.

39. Barbara Holtmann, "Breaking the cycle of violence: essential steps to a safe South Africa", 22 October 2008. Available from www.safesouthafrica.org.za; and Robyn Pharoah, *The Dynamics of Crime: Comparing the Results from the 1998, 2003 and 2007 National Crime and Victimization Surveys*, Occasional Paper 177 (Pretoria, Institute of Security Studies, December 2008). Available from www.issafrica.org.
40. David Satterthwaite, "The social and political basis for citizen action on urban poverty reduction", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 20, No. 2 (2008), pp. 307-318.
41. United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *The State of African Cities 2008: A Framework for Addressing Urban Challenges in Africa* (Nairobi, 2008), p. 16.
42. European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, *EU-MIDIS European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey: Main Results Report* (Vienna, 2009).
43. Open Society Institute, *Ethnic Profiling in the Moscow Metro* (New York, 2006); and Open Society Institute, *Profiling Minorities: A Study of Stop-and-Search Practices in Paris* (New York, 2009).
44. United Nations, *Treaty Series*, vol. 1249, No. 20378.
45. *State of the World's Cities 2008/2009* (see footnote 7).
46. Claudia García-Moreno and others, *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women: Initial Results on Prevalence, Health Outcomes and Women's Responses* (Geneva, World Health Organization, 2005).
47. "An international overview of violence against women: trends, perspectives and lessons for Latin America and the Caribbean", draft paper prepared for the Inter-American Development Bank, 2009.
48. Holly Johnson, Natalia Ollus and Sami Nevala, *Violence against Women: An International Perspective* (New York, Springer, 2008).
49. Yvon Dandurand, "Women's safety: international technical assistance and the use of best practices", statement presented to the ICPC 8th Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention, Querétaro, Mexico, November 2008. Available from www.crime-prevention-intl.org.
50. United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, *Eliminating Violence against Women: Forms, Strategies and Tools* (Turin, Italy, 2008).
51. International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, *Urban Crime Prevention and Youth at Risk: Compendium of Promising Strategies and Programmes from Around the World* (Montreal, 2005).
52. Paula Miraglia, "Safe spaces in São Paulo", in *South American Cities*, pp. 56-58.
53. David Satterthwaite, "What role for mayors in good city governance?", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 21, No. 1 (2009), pp. 3-17.
54. David Satterthwaite, "What role for mayors in good city governance?", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 21, No. 1 (2009), pp. 3-17.
55. United Nations Human Settlements Programme and Universidad Alberto Hurtado, Chile, *Guía para la Prevención Local: Hacia Políticas de Cohesión Social y Seguridad Ciudadana* (2009).
56. Julio Dávila, "Being a mayor: the view from four Colombian cities", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 21, No. 1 (2009), pp. 37-56.
57. David Satterthwaite, "The social and political basis for citizen action on urban poverty reduction", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 20, No. 2 (2008), pp. 307-318.

58. Jockin Arputham, "Developing new approaches for people-centred development", *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 20, No. 2 (2008), pp. 319-337.
59. "An international overview of violence against women: trends, perspectives and lessons for Latin America and the Caribbean", draft paper prepared for the Inter-American Development Bank, 2009.
60. See, for example, Women in Cities International, *Women's Safety Audits: What Works When and Where?* (Nairobi, United Nations Human Settlements Programme, Safer Cities Programme, 2008).
61. Gary Barker, Christine Ricardo and Marcos Nascimento, *Engaging Men and Boys in Changing Gender-Based Inequity in Health: Evidence from Programme Interventions* (Geneva, World Health Organization, 2007).
62. National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Developing a Successful Street Outreach Program: Recommendations and Lessons Learned* (Oakland, California, 2009); and Washington Office on Latin America, *Daring to Care: Community-Based Responses to Youth Gang Violence in Central America and Central American Immigrant Communities in the United States* (Washington, D.C., 2008).
63. Josée Savoie, *Analysis of the Spatial Distribution of Crime in Canada: Summary of Major Trends*, Canada, Statistics Canada, Crime and Justice Research Paper Series, No. 15 (Ottawa, 2008).
64. Executive Secretary, Lagos State Security Trust Fund, Nigeria
65. Director General, CLEEN Foundation, Nigeria
66. For more information on the methodology and research design, please see the CLEEN Foundation website. <http://www.cleen.org/>
67. For other findings from the survey see the web-sites of LSSTF and CLEEN.
68. Leader Urban Development Unit GTZ and Helwan University, Cairo
69. Professor, Housing and Building national Research Center / Principal, Shehayeb Consult, Cairo, Egypt
70. Small scale manufacturing of traditional products is prevalent following the processes of medieval times in production as well as doing the business. Strings of small workshops work in complementation to produce one end product; money, tools and materials change hands without a scrap of paper, solely by word of honour; cultural norms inherited from medieval guild systems are more observed than modern laws (Shehayeb, 2004).
71. Until recently, people residing in Heliopolis, for example, had little reason to move out of their district; they grew up going to school there, to university, to clubs, to mosques and churches and even worked there.
72. A recent investigation (Abdelhalim et al, 2010) confirms that even in informal areas where police presence and service is at its minimum, murder or homicide does not go unnoticed; in other words, the police always respond when a murder case is reported.
73. Popular districts are districts where traditional lifestyle prevails. Patterns of social structure along with urban patterns of physical morphology and distribution of uses lead to a district characterized by: (a) a high sense of community in terms of social solidarity and social control, (b) a high sense of collective territoriality where public space is appropriated to accommodate many dwelling activities extending out of the private domain; (c) pedestrian dominant urban fabric with a distribution of non-residential uses in patterns that do not disrupt the privacy and safety levels required for each type of public space (Shehayeb et al, 2003).

74. This is the subject for an upcoming research project funded by UNIFEM and implemented by the Social Research Centre of the American University in Cairo (Morsy, 2010).
75. Social Contract Centre, Information and Decision Support Centre of the Cabinet of Ministers. The Centre aims to reformulate government policies and programmes based on principles of good governance, restoring trust between the state and citizens, and empowering society to establish a dialogue with the state and participate in national priority development issues. <http://www.socialcontract.gov.eg>.
76. All images are provided by Steven Malby
77. Research Officer, Policy Analysis & Research Branch, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), Vienna, Austria
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80. *Ibid*
81. *International Statistics on Crime and Justice*, Harrendorf, S., Heiskanen, M., Malby, S. (2010). HEUNI: Helsinki. Chapter 1, Homicide.
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85. United Nations. *Manual for the Development of System of Criminal Justice Statistics*. 2003 UN Doc F No. 89. http://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/SeriesF/SeriesF_89E.pdf
86. All images are provided by Gregory Sloane-Seale and CSP.
87. Programme Coordinator, CSP, Ministry of National Security, Government of Trinidad and Tobago
88. <http://www.nationalsecurity.gov.tt/>
89. Freedom House, 2006
90. *Ibid*.
91. <http://csp.gov.tt/Home.aspx>
92. This article is based on a piece written by the author, titled "Lecciones de gobernabilidad desde el urbanismo social de montaña: Estudio de caso de la intervención en la quebrada Juan Bobo y el surgimiento del sector Nuevo Sol de Oriente en Medellín, Colombia", forthcoming. All images are provided by Bernardo Pérez Salazar.
93. UN-HABITAT Colombia consultant. bperezsalazar@yahoo.com
94. Area Metropolitana del Valle de Aburrá. 2007. "Plan de Desarrollo Metropolitano METROPOLI 2006 – 2020", Medellín: Area Metropolitana del Valle de Aburrá, pp 29-30.

95. Municipio de Medellín. 2006. "Medellín y su población. Documento Técnico de Soporte POT (Acuerdo 46 de 2006)", Medellín: Departamento Administrativo de Planeación, p. 85.
96. Cámara de Comercio de Medellín:
<http://www.camaramed.org.co:8080/cluster/home.jsp>
97. Municipio de Medellín. 2008. "Decreto 1988 de 2008 por medio del cual se liquida el presupuesto general del municipio de Medellín para la vigencia fiscal 2009", *Gaceta Oficial 3371*, p. 2.
98. Giraldo, J. 2009. "Guerra urbana, crimen organizado y homicidio en Medellín", en *Seguridad pública. Tres aproximaciones*, Medellín: Universidad EAFIT – Centro de Análisis Político.
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100. The National Liberation Army (ELN)
101. The Revolutionary Armed Force of Colombia
102. United Self-Defense Forces of Colombia (AUC)
103. People's Armed Commandos (CAP)
104. Giraldo, J. 2009. "Guerra...", op. cit.
105. Giraldo, J. 2009. "Guerra...", op. cit.
106. Municipio de Medellín. 2006. "Acuerdo Municipal 46 de 2006, por el cual se revisa y ajusta el Plan de Ordenamiento Territorial para el Municipio de Medellín y se dictan otras disposiciones", *Gaceta Oficial 2803* art. 108.
107. Based on presentations given by Ronaldo Teixeira and Reinaldo Gomes, Ministry of Justice, Brazil.
108. All images are provided by Kalpana Viswanath and Sohail Husain
109. Kalpana Viswanath is Director of the Gender Inclusive Cities Project and based in New Delhi (India). Email: kalpana@femmesetvilles.org
110. Sohail Husain is Evaluator of the Gender Inclusive Cities Project and based in Hampshire (UK). sohail.husain@analytica-consulting.co.uk .
111. In the first photo: Street vendors in Petrozavodsk, Karelia, Russia. In many cities women hawkers and vendors are at heightened risk of sexual assault and harassment.
In the second photo: Young girls on the street in an informal settlement in Cairo, Egypt. Safe open spaces for play are needed but often absent or dominated by men and boys.
In the third photo: Local produce market in Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea. Women vendors and buyers experience violence or coercion from men at markets, sometimes from those responsible for managing, guarding or policing the area.
In the fourth photo: Town centre security guards in Cape Town, South Africa. Gender-sensitive policing is essential for improving women's safety, but only one of the responses needed.

112. The Facts: Violence Against Women & Millennium Development Goals (compiled by UNIFEM, 2010).
113. WHO conducted an extensive ten country study on domestic violence which documents the incidence of violence in 15 sites, both rural and urban. http://www.who.int/gender/violence/who_multicountry_study/en/
114. <http://www.femmesetvilles.org>
115. International Centre for Network and Information on Crime (ICNIC) – Dar es Salaam, Jagori – New Delhi (<http://jagori.org>) Red Mujer y Habitat, Rosario (<http://www.redmujer.org.ar>), Information Center of the Independent Women’s Forum (ICIWF) – Petrozavodsk (<http://www.owl.ru/eng/women/org001>)
116. For more information about women’s safety audits see http://www.unhabitat.org/downloads/docs/7381_86263_WICI.pdf and http://www.femmesetvilles.org/pdf-general/WISE_new%20safety%20audit%20guide.pdf
117. All images are provided by Andrew Carpenter
118. Chief - Strategic Policy and Development Section Police Division, UN Peacekeeping, New York, USA
119. <http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/sites/police/background.shtml>
120. Ibid
121. http://www.saps.gov.za/_dynamicModules/internetsite/buildingBlocks/basePage4/BP445.asp
122. Institutional Relations Officer, Fight for Peace, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
123. <http://www.fightforpeace.net/default.asp?contentID=2&lang=1>
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128. Dowdney LT, “*Children of the drug trade: a case study of children in organised armed violence in Rio de Janeiro*”, 7Letras, Rio de Janeiro (2003)
129. Dowdney LT, “*Neither War nor Peace: International Comparisons of Children and Youth in Organised Armed Violence*”, Viva Rio / ISER / IANSA, 7Letras, Rio de Janeiro (2005).
130. Research on LPP’s work is available at www.fightforpeace.net/default.asp?contentID=11&lang=1
131. Luta pela Paz Annual Report 2009 is available at www.fightforpeace.net/downloads/FFP_Annual_Report_2009_ENG.pdf
132. ALVARADO, Sara Victoria; MARTINEZ POSADA, Jorge Eliécer and MUNOZ GAVIRIA, Diego Alejandro. Contextualización teórica al tema de las juventudes: una mirada desde las ciencias sociales a la juventud (Theoretical contextualization of the issue of the youths: a perspective of youth from the social sciences) *Rev.latinoam.cienc.soc.niñez juv* [online]. 2009, vol.7, n.1, pp. 83-102
133. Based on the presentation given by Denis Mizne, Executive Director Instituto Sou da Paz.

134. <http://www.soudapaz.org>
135. Original in French. Translated by Vivien Carli and Margaret Shaw. All images are provided by Fady Dagher.
136. Former Commandant City of Montreal Police Service, Station 30, Montreal, Quebec, Canada. The Montreal Police Service is organized on a community policing basis and Station 30 serves Saint Michel.
137. All images are provided by Fabio Sorgoni
138. Social worker and Sociologist, On the Road - NOVA Consortium, Italy
139. http://www.giustizia.it/giustizia/it/mg_1_14_1.wp?facetNode_1=1_5_2&facetNode_2=3_1_6&previousPage=mg_1_14&contentId=SST171276
140. www.ontheroadonlus.it; www.consortionova.it
141. <http://www.cestim.it/index01dati.htm#ismu>; <http://www.caritasroma.it>; <http://www.interno.it>; <http://www.istat.it>; <http://www.ismu.org>;
142. *Non-Lieux. Introduction à une anthropologie de la surmodernité*, 1992; trad. Ital. Dominique Rolland, *Nonluoghi. Introduzione a una antropologia della surmodernità*, Milano: Elèuthera
143. <http://www.onds.it/>
144. www.parsec-consortium.it/index.php
145. <http://progettomediazionesociale.blogspot.com/2010/03/comunicato-stampa-lassociazione.html>
146. See also Margaret Shaw, "Introduction: Setting standards and assessing progress in crime prevention" and Stawomir Redo, "The shape of future technical assistance", both in: *Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention in particular in relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk. Proceedings of the Workshop held at the 11th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. Bangkok, Thailand 18-25th April 2005* edited by Margaret Shaw and Kathryn Travers, Montreal 2007.
147. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), Division for Operations, Vienna, Austria
148. In the United Nations programmatic terms "crime prevention" still tends to be a catch-all phrase which includes such "control" activities as legislative assistance in the ratification or/and implementation of the United Nations legal instruments (conventions, resolutions) countering drugs, crime and terrorism. It also includes the prevention of corruption. All such activities have been pursued against very diversified mandates and actors. Only a miniscule part of that really covers crime prevention proper, understood as strategies and measures that seek to reduce the risk of crimes occurring, and their potential harmful effects on individuals and society, including fear of crime, by intervening to influence their multiple causes or risk factors. They include global changes and trends which affect the social and economic conditions of regions and countries; factors affecting individual countries and local environments and communities; those relating to the family and close relationships; and those which affect individuals (adapted from the ECOSOC resolution 2002/13 (Annex) and the UNODC Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines (2010)). "Crime prevention" as covered by this article focuses particularly on urban crime prevention.

149. Nominally, established by the General Assembly resolution 46/152 (Annex) of 8 December 1990, it has been developed since 1946 by the resolutions of various United Nations policy-making bodies, starting with those of the Temporary Social Commission. Currently, it comprises Member States (acting individually or through the intergovernmental Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, meeting annually), the United Nations Secretariat, including the UNODC, 16 Programme institutes and specialized centres, and non-governmental organizations. The goal of the Programme to assist the international community in meeting its pressing needs in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice and to provide countries with timely and practical assistance in dealing with problems of both national and transnational crime.
150. International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety: Trends and Perspectives. 2008 & 2010. Montreal: ICPC.
151. The ECOSOC resolution 1995/9 of 24 July 1995 with *Guidelines for the prevention of urban crime* (Annex), “aware of the universal character of urban crime”, list among it “theft, robbery, burglary, racial attacks, drug related crimes, juvenile delinquency and illegal possession of firearms, taking into account all the factors that may directly or indirectly cause such problems or contribute to them” (para. A. 3 (a) (i)).
152. Broad concept related to the notion of human development that focuses on the need to create and sustain societies that enable individual human beings to realize their full potential. For that purpose, individuals should be protected against threats arising not only from conflicts and war but also from non-military threats such as poverty, environmental degradation, infectious diseases, illicit drug trafficking, crime and victimization. The concept of human security remains controversial. Critics argue that it is tantamount to pouring old wine into new bottles and that it is too broad for concrete policy applications. Proponents, on the other hand, point to the rapid expansion of the range of security threats and find ammunition in the United Nations report of the High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges, and Change (2004) which identifies several clusters of threats, including economic and social threats, internal and external conflicts, terrorism and organized crime, all of which are connected globally (Jacques Fomerand, *Historical Dictionary of the United Nations*, The Scarecrow Press, Inc., Lanham 2007:159).
153. There is no internationally agreed definition of “urban security”. The working definition of this term, based on elements of United Nations crime prevention developments, suggests that urban security includes strategic and managerial governmental capacity to counter in a sustainable manner, insecurity, crime, violence and other disorder in cities. The term includes facilitating work to reduce disorder, excessive socio-economic inequality, social exclusion and land tenure problems, where these are significant factors.
154. *UNDP Human Development Report 2007*, United Nations, New York 2007, pp. 9 & 26.

155. The Charter of the United Nations originally enjoined the Organization to promote “higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress.” On that basis and with the mass entry of developing countries in the 1960s, the United Nations vastly expanded the scope of its activities in development. Poverty eradication (or “freedom from want”), is now one of its overriding objectives. Poverty, originally defined as “denial of choices and opportunities for living a tolerable life” which includes adequate food, water, health care, and education (*UNDP Human Development Report 1997*, New York 1997, p.3), is widely and currently understood as the non-fulfilment of preferences and the non-satisfaction with basic needs. Inequality, deprivation, relative deprivation, social exclusion, powerlessness and vulnerability are dimensions of poverty measurable by social and economic indicators. Poverty may be defined in terms of individual consumption levels of less than US\$ 1 or 2 a day. This rather conservative indicator based on purchasing power parity techniques to facilitate comparisons across countries shows that over 1 billion of people, a quarter of the population of the developing world, now live below US\$ 1 a day. Although there is no simple or direct correlation between inequality and crime, especially violent crime, excessive economic and social inequality does appear to exacerbate the likelihood of violent crime and imprisonment, especially when it coincides with other factors. Originating from the study of the poverty problem, relative deprivation theory suggests that inequality breeds social tension, as those who are less well-off feel dispossessed when comparing themselves with others. This theory is based on the assumption that individuals or groups are most likely to engage in violence if they perceive a gap between what they have and what they believe they deserve.
156. World Bank, 2004, *Improving the Lives of the Poor Through Investment in Cities*, World Bank Operations Evaluation Department, Washington, D.C. See also: *Slums of the World: The face of urban poverty in the new millennium?* Working paper, p. 24, http://www.sustainable-design.com/sustain/UN-Habitat_2003WorldSlumsReport.pdf, p. 12.
157. *Slums of the World...*, op. cit., p. 24.
158. United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *Global Report on Human Settlements 2007, Enhancing Urban Safety and Security*, Earthscan, London-Sterling, VA 2007, pp. 11 & 55.
159. In most studies, areas with population over 25,000 inhabitants were qualified as “cities” (Lee Ellis and Anthony Walsh, *Criminology: A Global Perspective*. Boston, Pearson-Longman 2005, pp.143-146).
160. On the basis of criminal statistics from 110 countries and 44 cities from the years 1900-1970, collected by Dane Archer & Rosemary Gartner, *Violence and Crime in Cross-national Perspective*, New Haven, Yale University Press 1984, p. 116.
161. Ibidem.
162. *Global Report...*, op. cit., pp. 68-69.
163. Ibidem, pp. 17 & 63.
164. One approach would seem to be effective in diverse and evolving contexts: after accounting for geographic or/and temporal displacement effects, it would appear that targeting “Hot spot” crime may on balance be effective. See Centre for Problem-Oriented Policing, *Crime analysis for problem-solvers in 60 small steps*. <http://www.popcenter.org/learning/60steps/index.cfm?stepNum=48> .

165. http://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison-reform/crimeprevention/09-82502_Ebook.pdf
166. *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool*, op. cit. p. iii.
167. Indeed, Member States have a considerable reporting burden in the implementation of all the United Nations crime prevention and criminal justice standards and norms. Their substantive provisions amount to around 2000 items and include various “prevention” legal instruments (4), and some 55 other “control” instruments involving criminal justice matters, all adopted by the United Nations policy-making bodies between 1955-2010. In 2004, the Economic and Social Council streamlined the reporting procedures on the implementation of all these legal instruments by clustering them (there are four such clusters) and instituting a reporting cycle. In principle, this makes it possible to collect, analyse and provide global follow-up technical assistance recommendations on a particular cluster of standards and norms, once in an 8-year cycle. (ECOSOC resolutions 2003/30 of 22 July 2003, 2004/28 of 21 July 2004, and 2006/20 of 27 July 2006 are all on the United Nations standards and norms in crime prevention and criminal justice, so assuming that the turnaround time for each cluster is two years from the time UNODC sends out the survey questionnaires, to reporting to the Commission, each cluster would be reviewed every eight years). Accordingly, the first, and so far, the only report on the use and application of the crime prevention standards and norms was completed in 2007 (E/CN.15/2007/11). However, the 19th session of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice (2010) did not take any new decisions on the above reporting obligations. Consequently, the periodicity of reporting on the implementation of crime prevention and other standards and norms will remain unclear as long as there is no such a decision taken by the Commission. This implies that, *de facto*, the reporting obligations of Member States on particular clusters of standards and norms are postponed.
168. *The Global Programme Against Corruption. UN Anti-Corruption Toolkit*. <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/treaties/CAC/self-assessment.html> .
169. http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/uploads/media/pub_183_2.pdf .
170. ECOSOC resolution 2002/13 (Annex) of 24 July 2003.
171. http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/uploads/media/pub_201_1.pdf , chapter 8.
172. Based on the presentation given by Aida Luz Santos de Escobar. President of CNSP, El Salvador. All images were provided by OCAVI.
173. <http://www.ocavi.com>
174. All images are provided by Sohail Husain
175. Sohail Husain is Director of Analytica Consulting, Hampshire, UK, and was the Consultant for the project.
176. Professor Balestreri, Former National Secretary Public Security, Ministry of Justice, Brazil.

