



Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice

Salvador, Brazil, 12-19 April 2010

Distr.: General
5 February 2010

Original: English

Item 5 of the provisional agenda*
**Making the United Nations guidelines on crime
prevention work**

Making the United Nations guidelines on crime prevention work

Working paper prepared by the Secretariat

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* A/CONF.213/1.



I. Introduction

Definition. “Crime prevention” includes all efforts to reduce the risk of crimes occurring as well as their harmful effects on individuals and society, including the fear of crime. Crime prevention attempts to influence the multiple causes of crime. Law enforcement and criminal sanctions are not considered in this context, despite their potentially preventive effects.

1. Prevention is the first imperative of justice, as stated by the Secretary-General in his report to the Security Council on the rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies (S/2004/616, para. 4). Echoing the words of the Secretary-General in that report, participants at the seventeenth session of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, the preparatory body for the Twelfth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, emphasized the centrality of crime prevention and the need to encourage Member States to undertake a special effort to make crime prevention work (E/2008/30, para. 116).

2. The United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme network of institutes started contributing to that policy objective in 1990. Then the General Assembly, on the recommendation of the Eighth Congress, adopted the Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (the Riyadh Guidelines) in its resolution 45/112. With the adoption by the Economic and Social Council of the Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the Field of Urban Crime Prevention (resolution 1995/9, annex) and the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime (resolution 2002/13, annex), drawn up by the Commission, the Programme has elevated crime prevention to a general United Nations criminal policy objective.

3. That objective is now attainable on the basis of the following eight principles:

(a) Government leadership at all levels to create and maintain an institutional framework for crime prevention;

(b) Integration of crime prevention into policies for socio-economic development;

(c) Cooperation between government institutions, civil society and the business sector;

(d) Sustainability and accountability, that is, adequate long-term funding for establishing, maintaining and evaluating programmes, and clear accountability in the use of funds;

(e) Knowledge-based action, that is, a multidisciplinary body of evidence about crime problems, their causes and proven practices serve as the basis for any crime prevention strategy;

(f) Respect for human rights and the rule of law, and promotion of a culture of lawfulness;

(g) Consideration of the links between local offending and transnational organized crime;

(h) Differentiation of strategies for special groups, in particular for boys and girls, men and women, and vulnerable members of society.¹

4. Well-planned crime prevention strategies not only reduce crime and thus victimization, but also promote community safety and enhance the quality of life of citizens. Effective crime prevention produces long-term benefits by reducing the costs related to victims and the criminal justice system.

5. Since crime is born out of multiple factors, a coordinated and multisectoral approach is necessary, in which government authorities at all levels have an important role to play — crime prevention is not the responsibility of the police and the criminal justice system alone.

6. Prevention strategies need to target causal factors. The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime list approaches categorized as social, community-based and situational crime prevention. All three approaches are part of the armoury of crime prevention measures from which an overall strategy may be developed and offer a range of short- and long-term responses to crime problems, each of which has different advantages and disadvantages.

7. Social prevention increases the well-being of people and encourages pro-social behaviour through social, economic, health, employment, and educational measures, with particular emphasis on children and youth, and focuses on the risk and protective factors associated with crime and victimization.

8. Community-based prevention attempts to change conditions in neighbourhoods where the risks of becoming involved in crime or being victimized are high, because of widespread deprivation, for instance or a lack of community cohesion or a combination of other economic and social problems.

9. Situational crime prevention aims at reducing opportunities and incentives for offending, at maximizing the risk of being apprehended and minimizing the benefits of crime, for example, by environmental design of public spaces or housing facilities or by providing advice to victims. These techniques are directed at specific forms of crime and are based on the assumption that offenders make rational decisions in a given situation about the potential risks and rewards of breaking the law. They may, however, have side effects by displacing crime from one location to another, by (intentionally or unintentionally) excluding marginalized groups from using certain spaces and by infringing on peoples' right to privacy.

10. In this context, national Governments have to set standards and initiate and facilitate action for social and situational crime prevention. Local authorities have to develop and tailor programmes to local circumstances, since crime is experienced at the local and neighbourhood level and many causes can be tackled only locally.²

11. The Guidelines also indicate what Governments should consider — in addition to the eight principles mentioned above — in developing strategies to prevent crime and reduce victimization, such as:

¹ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime and United Nations Human Settlements Programme, *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* (HS/1232/09E), Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit, No. 5 (New York, 2009), p. 13.

² *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* ..., p. 9.

(a) Including crime prevention as a permanent part of their structures and programmes for controlling crime besides law enforcement, criminal justice and corrections;

(b) Developing training and capacity-building in crime prevention;

(c) Strengthening international action in crime prevention through the application of existing standards and norms, technical assistance and networking.

12. The Guidelines recognize an evidence-based approach as a key element in the success of crime prevention. Victim surveys are important for obtaining information on the occurrence of crime. Opinion surveys may be used to assess the nature of crime problems, the main groups at risk and people's concerns and fears, as well as their views on crime prevention. Where national crime statistics or surveys are insufficient for planning purposes, local or regional observatories on crime and social problems such as those in Bogota, Madrid or Paris can fill the gap.³

13. The Guidelines stress the importance of the rule of law and respect for human rights. The rule of law is a principle of governance according to which all persons, institutions and entities, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights standards. It also requires measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fair application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness, and procedural and legal transparency (S/2004/616, para. 6). The capacity to establish and guarantee the rule of law is a key component in the development of a country.

14. Crime prevention should be part of the rule of law architecture of a country as well as of its efforts towards development, in particular since the impact of crime is most serious for the poor. Crime and victimization have been shown to affect development by degrading the quality of life of citizens and by impeding access to employment by driving away business. The costs of crime and criminal justice reduce the funds available for social development, which will not be achieved unless security and safety are maintained. It is not sufficient to increase the efficiency and capacity of the justice system or to train the police and prison staff. The factors that contribute to crime, such as lack of post-prison reintegration (after care) programmes, which is one of the indicators of social exclusion, and lack of employment or of access to good health and housing services, all need to be addressed.⁴

15. The Twelfth Congress offers a unique opportunity to examine where the Guidelines have proved workable and effective after almost a decade since their adoption, with a view of fine-tuning them to the latest developments in the area of crime prevention, including reduction of armed violence, and encouraging or facilitating their further application (A/CONF.213/PM.1, para. 41). The Congress will also enable the international community to respond more effectively to the challenge posed by the link between crime prevention, the rule of law and

³ International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, *Crime Observatories: Survey on International Experiences* (Montreal, 2007 and 2009). Available from www.crime-prevention.intl.org/publications/pub_198_1.pdf (in English and French).

⁴ *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* ..., p. 3.

development, by deepening and strengthening its expertise and capacity in the area of crime prevention.

II. Elements for an effective and successful implementation of the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime

16. Chapter II outlines the statements in the Guidelines regarding the organization of crime prevention policies, drawing in part on a draft manual for implementing the Guidelines soon to be published (*Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guideline — Making them Work*). It also builds on the results of the regional preparatory meetings for the Twelfth Congress and upon the findings of the related survey conducted in Member States in 2007 (E/CN.15/2007/11). Since only 42 Member States participated in that survey, it is difficult to ascertain on this basis the global situation concerning the implementation of the Guidelines.

17. According to the Guidelines (paras. 2, 7-9, 16 and 19), all levels of government should create and maintain a context within which governmental institutions and civil society can play their part in preventing crime. This includes the development of strategies and their implementation and review. To that end, the creation and support of partnerships with relevant sectors of society is required, as is the inclusion of prevention as a permanent part of government structures for controlling crime and promoting social development. Such policies include those relating to employment, education, health, housing and urban planning, given the multiple causes of crime and the faculties required to address them. Among these causes are social marginalization and exclusion. Central Governments should exercise leadership in that effort, even though the participation of local communities and civil society is essential for crime prevention, in particular in identifying priorities, in implementing and evaluating programmes, and in identifying resources.

18. The Guidelines not only set standards for effective crime prevention strategies, but also help to assess country needs concerning the provision of advisory services and to design technical assistance projects. The survey among Member States was most helpful in specifying such needs.

19. According to the results of the survey, the main elements of successful crime prevention policies are:

(a) Establishing a central body that is charged with the implementation of national programmes and coordinates the efforts of central and local governments, as well as other organizations;

(b) Reviewing strategies regularly to identify real needs as well as best practices, and adapting national and local plans accordingly;

(c) Producing guides, toolkits and manuals to assist in the dissemination of knowledge on crime prevention and coherent implementation of plans;

(d) Creating commitment of central and local governments to the success of crime prevention programmes, backed up by sufficient resources;

(e) Creating partnerships and cooperation with non-governmental organizations and encouraging participation of the public in crime prevention.

20. All this sounds quite elaborate, but, as one Government put it (E/CN.15/2007/11, para. 60):

“Crime prevention may appear very costly in the beginning, but over the long term it is less expensive than the alternative in terms of quality of life and direct expenses of crime.”

21. Member States are encouraged in the report to cooperate bilaterally or through international organizations in implementing the Guidelines by sharing expertise and best practices and by providing technical assistance in areas where they have successfully implemented crime prevention strategies.

A. Establishing a central body charged with the implementation of national programmes and coordinating the efforts of central and local governments and other organizations

22. Governments are encouraged in paragraph 17 of the Guidelines to make prevention a permanent part of their structures for controlling crime by:

- (a) Establishing centres with expertise and resources;
- (b) Establishing a crime prevention plan with clear priorities and targets;
- (c) Establishing coordination between relevant government agencies;
- (d) Fostering partnerships with non-governmental organizations, the private sector and the community;
- (e) Seeking the participation of the public in crime prevention.

Establishing centres with expertise and resources

23. One example of a central authority responsible for crime prevention is the Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention, established in 1974, whose task is to implement crime prevention strategies at the national and local levels by funding and evaluating programmes. Similarly, Canada has had a National Crime Prevention Strategy since 1994, which is administered by the National Crime Prevention Centre within the Ministry of Public Safety. It supports and evaluates various local programmes, currently focusing on youth and youth gangs.

24. In several federal States, provincial governments have established central structures of their own to promote and coordinate crime prevention strategies, for example, Australia, Canada, Germany, Mexico, South Africa, which has such structures at the national, state and local levels, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Establishing a crime prevention plan

25. National crime prevention plans need to be based on consultation across all sectors of government and with civil society, as well as on research findings. They need:

- (a) To indicate the major crime and victimization challenges facing the country;

- (b) To indicate their likely social, cultural and economic causes;
- (c) To establish priorities for intervention in the short, medium and longer term;
- (d) To propose a set of initiatives to address those priorities;
- (e) To outline who is to be involved in implementing the plan;
- (f) To indicate what resources are to be made available.

26. At the local level, a crime prevention plan should include the following steps:

- (a) Describing the characteristics of the city (demographic, economic, etc.) in comparison with the region or country as a whole;
- (b) Analysing crime, violence and disorder in terms of their scale, trends and distribution;
- (c) Profiling victims and offenders (by age, gender and ethno-cultural and socio-economic patterns);
- (d) Investigating patterns of risk factors;
- (e) Assessing the effectiveness of current projects and services (such as health, housing, welfare and education) in relation to prevention;
- (f) Assessing the political and institutional environment so as to identify opportunities for developing preventive action;
- (g) Identifying the opportunities, strengths and potential for the area, including social capital, civil society and existing projects on which a future strategy may be built.

27. The drafting of such a local plan may follow the *Guidance on Local Safety Audits — A Compendium of International Practice*,⁵ which provides detailed information on who should be involved, the skills and knowledge required, establishing planning timetables, and the types of information that can be sought from sectors such as housing, health, education, victim services, police, justice and social services. Similar audits have been undertaken in Cameroon and Papua New Guinea as part of the Safer Cities Programme of the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT) and in central Karoo, South Africa. In addition, the Beccaria Standards for Ensuring Quality in Crime Prevention Projects provide practical help in quality management concerning the planning, implementation and evaluation of crime prevention activities.⁶

28. The plan needs to set clear objectives and to specify how and when they are to be achieved. In most cases, plans are established for a period of 3 to 10 years. This allows time for implementation and the assessment of outcomes before subsequent review and adaptation of strategies.

⁵ Canada, Public Safety Canada, and European Forum on Urban Safety, *Guidance on Local Safety Audits — A Compendium of International Practice* (Paris, 2007). Available in Arabic, Chinese, English, French, German, Russian and Spanish from www.fesu.org.

⁶ Available from www.beccaria.de in Arabic, Chinese, Czech, English, French, German, Hindi, Hungarian, Lithuanian, Polish, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish, with versions in Croatian, Korean and Turkish in preparation.

29. Crime prevention strategies have been formulated in several countries: in Brazil, the National Programme for Public Security and Citizenship is based in the Ministry of Justice, but relies on other ministries on specific issues concerning the implementation of the Programme's activities. This approach involves both structural changes to key institutions and targeted local programmes. The Programme outlines interventions in 11 metropolitan areas for which funding is available. It is significant that a condition of funding is the willingness of municipalities to establish integrated management offices themselves.

30. In Chile, the National Public Safety Strategy comes under the leadership of the Ministry of the Interior, which cooperates with other government departments such as justice, education, labour, health, urbanization and planning. In Hungary, the National Crime Prevention Board is implementing the National Strategy for the Social Prevention of Crime under the responsibility of the Ministry of Justice. In Norway, the police have a central role in crime prevention, but the National Crime Prevention Council advises them and other government departments and implements projects on their behalf.

B. Reviewing strategies regularly to identify real needs as well as best practices, and adapting national and local plans accordingly

31. Once formulated, crime prevention strategies and programmes should be reviewed regularly to ensure that they actually meet their objectives and that they do so with integrity and efficiency. To allow for such monitoring on a systematic basis, they need to be based on a broad foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising practices. In order to select and continue interventions that are likely to respond to the identified crime problems, it is important to examine what programmes and services already exist and how they might be improved, but also the experience of crime prevention practices locally, nationally and internationally.

32. The monitoring and evaluation of programmes relies on a clear definition of target populations and areas, expected outcomes and the distribution of responsibilities. Measuring the impact of programmes requires particular skills and knowledge, so there is a need for professional capacities for crime prevention in order to ensure the quality of programmes from design to implementation, monitoring and evaluation. In short, quality requires qualification (Guidelines, paras. 18, 23 and 29).

33. In many countries, monitoring of crime prevention programmes has been undertaken by Governments and research institutions together. For example, in Australia, the Government has worked closely with the Australian Institute of Criminology, a member of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme network of institutes, in developing its crime prevention programmes and monitoring and evaluating them. It has also funded research projects on issues such as early intervention, policing, violence against women and crime prevention and Aboriginal communities.

34. In Chile, the Ministry of Justice collaborates with the Alberto Hurtado University, which evaluates national programmes and also runs a diploma programme on urban safety. The University of Chile offers academic programmes

and professional training on youth offending, intervention and prevention, and on community prevention.

35. The State of Minas Gerais and the city of Belo Horizonte in Brazil cooperate with the Study Centre on Crime and Public Safety of the Federal University of Minas Gerais. Apart from developing data analysis systems and training programmes, the Centre has collaborated in the development and evaluation of an effective youth homicide prevention programme *Fica Vivo* (Stay Alive).

Links between local crime and transnational organized crime

36. The Guidelines recommend that national crime prevention plans consider the links between local crime problems and transnational organized crime, for instance, in the context of trafficking in drugs (paras. 13, 27 and 31). They encourage Member States to collaborate in analysing and addressing those links, for example by reducing opportunities for criminal groups to participate in legitimate markets, by preventing the misuse of tender procedures, subsidies and licences granted for commercial activity and by protecting socially marginalized groups, especially women and children, from activities such as trafficking in persons or smuggling of migrants.

C. Producing guides, toolkits and manuals to assist in the dissemination of knowledge on crime prevention and coherent implementation of plans

37. At best, crime prevention should become a professional field of its own. Until this happens, training and specialized tools are needed.⁷ Examples of such internationally available tools are the United Nations Guidelines, the *Handbook on Planning and Action for Crime Prevention in Southern Africa and the Caribbean Regions*,⁸ the *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* and the forthcoming works, the *Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines — Making them Work* and the *Handbook on Policing Urban Space*.

38. There is ample information on effective crime prevention programmes, originating mostly in Europe and North America, but recently emerging also from South-South cooperation. Neglected areas of crime prevention research have been how to implement programmes and policies and how to evaluate them. This is an integral aspect of effective crime prevention, in which Governments need to invest time and resources and for which they should, if necessary, request technical assistance. Guidance on these issues is available from a number of international and national bodies working in the field, ranging from the United Nations Guidelines, manuals produced by the International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) and other research institutes to training programmes offered in several countries.

39. Research on the effectiveness of crime prevention has grown considerably in recent years. The need for baseline data, that is, local data on situational crime

⁷ See “Report on the Technical Consultative Expert Group Meeting on Making the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines Work, held in Berlin from 2 to 4 July 2008” (E/CN.15/2009/CRP.2).

⁸ United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.IV.1.

prevention, has emerged. In developed countries, programmes evaluated by the Campbell Collaboration (www.campbellcollaboration.org),⁹ for example, include only those meeting scientific standards such as the use of a control group and a clearly defined type of intervention. By studying programmes in different settings, the Campbell Collaboration can show the effectiveness of such programmes. This approach is particularly suited to analysing types of crime prevention such as situational prevention or early childhood intervention, but is more difficult to use with community-level interventions that involve a range of different activities.

40. However, since many crime prevention programmes were initially designed and evaluated in developed countries, their experience is not always applicable in less developed settings. There the need for baseline data is dire and assistance in establishing databases, training, implementation and evaluation of such projects is particularly important.

41. Claims about effectiveness have led a number of countries to attempt to replicate a “proven” programme in their own situation. Often this has not been successful because of the very different constraints experienced in the original compared with the new settings, and because a major determinant of the success of a programme lies in how it is implemented.

42. Such experiences have resulted in better awareness of the need to tailor and adapt crime prevention strategies to the context of individual countries and regions, where, in any case, baseline data serve as a common denominator to measure the success or failure of crime prevention. Apart from high levels of violence and victimization, the economic and social circumstances of a country, its levels of development and capacity, as well as its political history, are all factors that influence the needs of that country, the kinds of crime problems it faces and the feasibility of successful interventions.

43. There is nevertheless an increasing amount of experience among developing countries facing similar economic and social conditions and some well evaluated effective practices. South-South exchanges between such countries have also increased. Rather than transplanting programmes from developed countries, these countries have been innovative in shaping projects that respond to their circumstances and build on their own strengths.

44. Information on policies and practices can be found in inventories on promising and successful crime prevention strategies and programmes, which are now widely available in several languages. They include award-winning projects in different regions and countries; inventories and reports on effective practices, such as those compiled by the Campbell Collaboration (see para. 39 above), and collections of programmes on specific topics such as urban crime prevention, youth at risk, women’s safety, youth gang interventions, safe schools and the management of public spaces.¹⁰ In Europe, the European Union Crime Prevention Network (www.eucpn.org), the Beccaria project entitled “Quality management in crime prevention” and the CRIMPREV project entitled “Assessing deviance, crime and

⁹ See Lawrence W. Sherman and others, *Preventing Crime: What Works, What Doesn't, What's Promising*, report to the United States Congress prepared for the National Institute of Justice (Washington, D.C., 1997). Available from www.ncjrs.gov/works/.

¹⁰ See the publications of ICPC at www.crime-prevention-intl.org.

prevention in Europe” (www.gern-cnrs.com/gern/index.php?id162&L=2) have generated useful studies of evidence-based prevention. Regional and international networks also provide information on promising prevention practices.

45. Increasingly, studies from Africa, the Caribbean and Latin America are becoming available and are an important resource for Governments assessing their own situation. Among these studies are publications by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)¹¹ which provide detailed and comprehensive analyses of the extent and the probable causes of crime and differentiated recommendations to prevent crime in these regions. The UN-HABITAT Safer Cities Programme has undertaken a number of studies of crime and victimization across African cities. In Latin America, regional research organizations such as the Latin American Faculty of Social Sciences (FLACSO) and university centres such as the Centre for Crime and Public Safety Studies (CRISP) and the Centre for Studies on Public Security and Citizenship (CeSeC) in Brazil and the Alberto Hurtado University in Chile are important resources. Regional sources can be valuable in identifying projects in neighbouring countries with similar experiences and contexts, and South-South exchanges such as the UNODC project between countries of the Caribbean and Southern Africa have helped in the exchange of policy and project ideas. In South Africa, the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research collaborates with national and state government ministries and with the South African Police Service. It has helped develop guides and toolkits and design and implement programmes, in particular on issues affecting children and youth, supported local municipalities in developing their own prevention strategies, organized conferences to facilitate exchange and good practices, and conducted training programmes.

46. Many Governments have established online information resource centres to provide advice and resources to policymakers, practitioners and researchers working at all government levels. For example, in the United Kingdom, the Government has established the crime reduction website to assist the Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships in England or Community Safety Partnerships in Wales. In Australia, the authorities in New South Wales have created a website to support community-building, including action on crime prevention at the local level. It is an electronic clearing house providing a range of tools, resources and information on funding sources.

47. An important method of disseminating knowledge on crime prevention strategies, their implementation and their evaluation is the exchange of expertise between countries and cities. Learning directly from those with experience in different countries about how they managed their projects and dealt with problems is often the fastest way of understanding what can be done. Forums such as ICPC and the European Forum for Urban Safety (EFUS) and programmes such as the European Union’s Urban Development Network Programme (URBACT) and the UN-HABITAT Safer Cities Programme have considerable experience in facilitating

¹¹ *Crime and Development in Central America — Caught in the Crossfire* (United Nations publication, Sales No. B.07.IV.5); the report entitled “Crime and development in Africa”, published by UNODC in June 2005; and the report entitled “Crime, violence and development: trends, costs and policy options in the Caribbean”, published by UNODC and the World Bank in March 2007.

such exchanges. UN-HABITAT has held international and regional conferences in Africa and Latin America to bring together mayors and other stakeholders to promote exchange on local crime prevention projects, and the UNODC South-South project on regional cooperation for determining best practices for crime prevention in the developing world has linked policymakers, practitioners and researchers in Caribbean and Southern African countries to share experience between regions facing very high levels of violence.

48. Since 2003, the European Union has funded the Beccaria Programme of the Crime Prevention Council of Lower Saxony, Germany, to promote quality management, professional training and knowledge transfer in crime prevention (development of an electronic reference and network and the compilation of a collection of international crime prevention tools, soon to be available on a special web portal, www.beccariaportal.org). Since 2008, the Beccaria Programme has been conducting an in-service basic skills training for practitioners. Topics covered include criminology, crime prevention and project management, with practical project work. It is planned to develop the curriculum for distance learning in English and, if feasible, in other languages. At the Twelfth Congress, an enhanced English version of the training will be presented at the Workshop on International Criminal Justice Education for the Rule of Law and will, it is hoped, be implemented as a post-congress technical assistance programme. On 26 May 2010, UNODC, in cooperation with the University of Vienna, will air from the United Nations Information Service via the Internet an experimental e-lecture on “Sport, violence and crime prevention” that may help demonstrate one of the readily available modalities to advance crime prevention training beyond its present technical and geopolitical limits, including field training.

An example of a comprehensive manualized crime prevention strategy

49. Crime prevention strategies should be intersectoral, knowledge-based, sustainable and accountable. One example of a crime prevention strategy that meets these criteria is the “Communities That Care” (CTC) approach for the prevention of substance abuse, delinquency, violence, teenage pregnancy, school dropout and depression among adolescents.¹²

50. CTC is a manualized prevention planning system based on research in social work, public health, psychology, criminology and organizational development. It relies on strengthening protective factors such as strong social bonds or consistent standards for behaviour and on reducing risk factors such as poor family management or community disorganization that are linked to an early start of drug use, delinquency or violence.

51. CTC helps coalitions of community stakeholders with the selection and implementation of programmes by developing a data-based profile of community

¹² See Social Development Research Group, *Research Brief*, No. 3, October 2009, available from www.uwsrd.org/sdrg/ResearchBrief_Oct2009.pdf; J. David Hawkins and Richard F. Catalano, *Investing in Your Community's Youth: An Introduction to the Communities That Care System* (2005), available from the website of the United States Department of Health and Human Services, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (<http://download.ncadi.samhsa.gov/Prevline/pdfs/ctc/Investing%20in%20Your%20Community's%20Youth.pdf>).

strengths and challenges; establishing action priorities based on that profile; mobilizing members of the community for youth development; targeting resources for effective use; and aiming at measurable outcomes for repeated evaluation studies.

52. CTC includes a student survey on self-reported deviance and on the prevalence of risk and protective factors, and a databank of intervention programmes that have been shown to be effective.

53. Evaluations of the CTC process at the organizational level have found, inter alia, improved inter-agency collaboration, reduced duplication of services, coordinated allocation of resources, increased use of knowledge-based programmes and increased involvement of professionals, citizens and youth in community prevention activities.¹³

54. A recent study evaluated the impact of CTC four years after implementation.¹⁴ Communities using CTC had experienced significant reductions in substance abuse and in delinquency among students completing the eighth grade compared with control communities.

55. CTC has so far been or is being implemented in Australia, Canada, Croatia, Cyprus, Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In Cyprus, the implementation has been supported by the United Nations Development Programme and the United States Agency for International Development. While the general outline of the process is applicable to other countries as well, adaptations to local conditions will be inevitable.

D. Creating commitment of central and local governments to the success of crime prevention programmes, backed up by sufficient resources

56. The Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime emphasize the importance of the principles of sustainability, that is, adequate and reliable funding, and accountability, that is, periodic reviews of expenditures and rigorous evaluation of the results, including the involvement of the community (paras. 1, 10 and 20). This implies, inter alia, providing project staff and the community at large with the information necessary to analyse and address crime problems, supporting systematic and comprehensive research on the effects and conditions of success of crime prevention approaches, as well as synthesizing and disseminating the results. It also requires thorough planning and implementation of interventions, gaining the support of potential partners for long-term cooperation and continuous monitoring and evaluation of outcomes, material and immaterial costs and benefits (paras. 11 and 21-23). After all, scarce resources should be allocated primarily to programmes

¹³ United States of America, Department of Justice, Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, *Title V Incentive Grants for Local Delinquency Prevention Programs: Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974, as Amended in 1992 (PL 93-415; 42 U.S.C. 5601 et seq.) — 1996 Report to Congress: Program Report* (Washington, D.C., 1996).

¹⁴ J. David Hawkins and others, "Results of a type 2 translational research trial to prevent adolescent drug use and delinquency: a test of Communities That Care", *Archives of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine*, vol. 163, No. 9 (2009), pp. 789-798.

and initiatives that have demonstrated effectiveness and responsible use of their budgets.

57. Sustainability can be enhanced by the adoption of long-term strategies. For example, in 2008, the city of Bogota outlined its long-term goals for improving the safety and quality of life of its citizens, linking them to ongoing funding mechanisms for local boroughs to undertake prevention initiatives. Establishing crime prevention as one of the characteristics of good governance can take time. While not easy to accomplish, sustainability relies in part on removing prevention from current political agendas, which may change over time.

E. Creating partnerships and cooperation with non-governmental organizations and encouraging participation of the public in crime prevention

58. Crime has many causes and, accordingly, there are many ways to prevent its occurrence. Thus, various institutions at all levels of government as well as the private sector and civil society need to participate in a coordinated and multisectoral approach to prevent crime. This requires coordination between government agencies and partnerships with non-governmental organizations, the private sector and the community.

59. Experience has shown, however, that such partnerships are a difficult way of working. It takes time for ministries or service sectors to work with others and to share areas of work that have previously been their exclusive domain. Some sectors may not appreciate the importance of their contribution to crime prevention and prefer to cede responsibility to the justice system or the police. Confidentiality issues can affect the sharing of information: health sectors may be reluctant to provide information to a crime prevention committee and the police may not be willing to share intelligence on particular crime problems. Unless there is strong leadership, agencies may be reluctant to allocate resources to a joint venture. Continuity of personnel is a significant factor, since changes in membership of committees weakens resolve and collective energy. All this underlines the importance of government leadership in establishing a central agency to assume responsibility for the development and implementation of crime prevention strategies. It also underscores the need for those working in partnerships to have sufficient authority to make commitments of time and resources.

60. While a coordinated approach of governmental and non-governmental organizations is indispensable for effective crime prevention, it will often not be sufficient. Just as important is seeking the participation of the public in crime prevention by informing it of the need for action, the necessary means and the public's role in this context.

61. Convincing the public to participate in crime prevention requires information, which in turn requires the cooperation of the media. Crime control policy can be driven by public anxiety and demands for tougher action, and in almost all countries the media tend to focus on the most violent offences, which has a powerful influence in shaping public attitudes. Nevertheless, when people are given more balanced information, they are willing to support crime prevention: opinion surveys

in Canada, for instance, have indicated strong positive attitudes towards investment in prevention programmes.

62. Often the public assumes that it is the responsibility of the police alone to ensure safety and security. Governments therefore need to engage in a dialogue with the public to discuss ways in which other sectors of society can contribute to prevention and how they themselves can help to ensure safer communities and minimize their vulnerability.

63. It is important in developing prevention strategies to examine the public's experiences and to determine the problems and priorities they see as important. Informing the public about the success of programmes or the challenges faced and working with the media to generate balanced reporting on prevention are important ways of helping ensure that programmes are understood and supported.

64. Finally, public education is a major resource in changing the attitudes of the public in general, groups at risk or victims of particular crimes about the kinds of services available to them. For example, as part of its strategy to prevent violence against women, the Federal Government of Brazil launched a campaign to change attitudes concerning this type of offence. This included information on available services, a 24-hour hotline for victims and a series of public forums on women's safety to increase debate and awareness.

III. How to overcome the main challenges encountered by Member States in the implementation of the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime

65. According to the survey (E/CN.15/2007/11, para. 61), there were seven main challenges encountered by Member States in implementing the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime, as described below:

- 1. Strengthening social prevention as public policy and creating organs responsible for its implementation**
- 2. Improving coordination among government bodies involved directly or indirectly in crime prevention**

66. Social prevention means that aspects of crime prevention are considered in all fields of social policy, such as health, education, urban planning and employment. Where decision makers in these fields do not recognize the side effects their strategies may have on crime prevention, strong leadership is necessary to encourage such recognition either by providing insight or through regulation. This requires clear commitment at the top levels of national, regional and local government.

67. Given such commitment, it is advisable to establish a binding form of cooperation and oversight to overcome the inertia of organizations having an impact on but no immediate responsibility for crime prevention. This may be a standing committee of ministers, a council of top-level administrators or — at the local level — a crime prevention council chaired by the mayor or deputy mayor.

Experience shows, however, that establishing such an organization is difficult owing to resistance resulting from traditional views of strictly sectoral responsibilities.

3. Addressing specific areas of organized crime, such as drug trafficking, which often connect local to transnational crime

68. Several areas of organized crime have direct links to local crime: drug trafficking usually involves local dealers on the street and the money paid for illegal drugs most often stems from theft, robberies and other “conventional” offences. Trafficking in women and children for sexual exploitation will be profitable only if locally organized prostitution offers their services. Any successful action against one side of this “business” will thus have an effect on the other. Apart from specific law enforcement activities, there are steps to be taken at the international level, including the signing of bilateral agreements, sharing information, participating in international and regional networks, and allowing for extradition and mutual legal assistance. These issues are dealt with in more detail under substantive item 4 of the provisional agenda of the Twelfth Congress.

4. Disseminating knowledge to local governments and stimulating their participation in crime prevention

69. If local governments are to participate in crime prevention efforts, they need to have reliable and comprehensive information on offences committed in their jurisdiction. This may be provided by disaggregated crime statistics where possible, by local victim surveys or by combinations of relevant data from various sources as they are collected in crime observatories. The (subjective) feeling of security among citizens may be one such source, but should not be the only one.

70. Local governments have an important role to play, since crime is experienced at the local and neighbourhood level and many causes of crime can be tackled only locally. Local authorities thus have to develop and tailor programmes to local circumstances, for which they will often need either support from specialized research institutes or suitably qualified staff who are capable of analysing the situation, selecting appropriate programmes and implementing and monitoring those programmes.

5. Creating training programmes to address lack of expertise in crime prevention and creating databases on best practices

71. Training programmes for crime prevention practitioners are offered by several institutions around the world, for example in South Africa, Europe and Latin America. Databases on best practices are available in North America and Europe, but these data may not necessarily be helpful in other regions due to problems of transferability (see chap. II, sect. C, above). However, research in this field is developing rapidly, especially in South Africa and Latin America, so the situation may improve over time.

6. Making use of advanced technologies to improve crime prevention strategies

72. Advanced technologies are employed primarily in two fields of crime prevention: in situational prevention, for example, closed-circuit television (CCTV) surveillance and “target hardening”, and in analysing local crime trends by using

geographical data to map the frequency of offences according to area, time and seriousness. Such approaches have been used in Brazil, Canada and France, for example.¹⁵

7. Devising evaluation mechanisms, in particular those connected with cost-benefit assessment

73. Evaluating prevention programmes in the field (besides conducting controlled experiments, which is not always feasible) is a major challenge. Researchers such as Campbell and Stanley have developed experimental and quasi-experimental designs for evaluation studies that may be selected to fit the specific circumstances of a given programme and its implementation.¹⁶

74. Cost-benefit assessments are particularly difficult. While the expenditures for a prevention programme may still be measurable by accounting methods, estimating the benefits, that is, the social costs avoided by preventing an unknown number of offences of unspecified seriousness, is problematic. It involves estimates of the crimes to be expected, had the prevention programme not been implemented, and of the costs to victims and the criminal justice system that were avoided. Not surprisingly, making cost-benefit assessments has been one specific activity for which assistance has been requested by Member States responding to the survey.

IV. Experience in the implementation of the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime

75. Given the importance for the promotion of the rule of law of the effective application of its standards and norms in crime prevention and criminal justice, the United Nations has been working for decades to that end. The role of the United Nations in this field is crucial, as it is the only organization that can provide a global perspective and mobilize the support of both intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations. The utilization of its standards in the context of technical assistance is fundamental in establishing the basis for good governance, protection of human rights and strengthening of the rule of law. Developed countries also take advantage of the availability of these instruments to identify gaps and deficiencies in their criminal justice systems and to launch appropriate reforms (A/CONF.203/8, paras. 53 and 54).

76. Effective application of United Nations norms can be achieved only through their widest possible dissemination, promotion and acceptance at all levels of government. This implies inculcating them into policymakers responsible for creating the framework for action, practitioners responsible for crime prevention and criminal justice, and individuals affected by them. It is necessary, therefore, to publish them in appropriate languages and to make them easily accessible to relevant professional groups.

¹⁵ *Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines* (see para. 16 above); and *Crime Observatories* (see footnote 3 above).

¹⁶ See www.campbellcollaboration.org; and Sherman and others, *Preventing Crime* (see footnote 9 above).

77. Experience with implementation of the Guidelines seems to have been quite varied. On the one hand, the results of the survey presented in chapter III indicate that many Member States follow the Guidelines at least in part. This may be due, however, not only to knowledge of and respect for the Guidelines, but also to the fact that they reflect the state of the art in crime prevention, so that any country striving to implement up-to-date crime prevention policies will at the same time largely adhere to the Guidelines.

78. On the other hand, one of the regional preparatory meetings noted a lack of knowledge about the Guidelines and recommended that increased efforts be made to disseminate them more widely among the groups responsible for their application at the national level (A/CONF.213/RPM.1/1, para. 22). This points to the need for attention to this lack of knowledge. Some professionals and practitioners may find the Guidelines too abstract in their wording: they will profit from the detailed advice provided in the *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool* and the forthcoming *Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines — Making Them Work*. Others may not have heard of them in their training, so the United Nations should strive to have the Guidelines incorporated into relevant curricula. The high quality of the Guidelines and the related *Toolkit* and *Handbook* should facilitate this process, once they have become widely known among academics.

79. Finally, since the survey has in many cases pinpointed the need for technical assistance, for instance in the field of cost-benefit analysis and other aspects of organizational development, the Guidelines are likely to be found useful as a schedule for identifying areas of support by the international community, to be followed up by in-depth consulting based on the *Crime Prevention Assessment Tool*. This again will promote the dissemination of the Guidelines, in particular among policymakers.

V. Conclusions and recommendations

80. Ethically, financially and practically, it is neither advisable nor feasible to respond to crime with deterrent and judicial measures alone. Furthermore, effective crime prevention is an essential factor in promoting sustainable development, since reductions in crime and insecurity improve conditions for business and employment and permit the channelling of resources into socio-economic progress instead of crime control. Social prevention programmes in particular foster social inclusion of marginalized groups or promote their reintegration. Some programmes empower victims or particularly vulnerable groups, which is another aspect of social inclusion. Well-meant programmes, however, are not enough. They need to be scrutinized by assessing their impact and use of funds, meaning that evidence-based good practice is necessary.

81. Today, there is ample information and guidance on how to implement effective crime prevention strategies. It can be provided by the United Nations system, international organizations such as ICPC or EFUS, or by national and regional institutions. A shortage of prevention programmes nowadays cannot be attributed to a lack of information. It may be attributable to a shortage of financial, technical or personal resources, and at worst may be the result of insufficient commitment.

A. Recommendations to the United Nations and other international organizations

Recommendation 1

82. Crime prevention should continue to be an increasingly important United Nations criminal policy objective in rule of law technical assistance provided in the fields of general social and economic development. It should promote and broaden social inclusion, in particular of youth, delinquents and adult offenders, including the reintegration of ex-prisoners into the mainstream of society's life.

Recommendation 2

83. The international community should promote and pursue studies and encourage technical assistance projects on the links between organized crime and local crime with a view to incorporating crime prevention responses into solutions to this problem.

Recommendation 3

84. The United Nations and other international and regional organizations in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice should disseminate further the United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime and related documents, in particular to universities and training institutes, to promote their recognition, use and application.

Recommendation 4

85. All these entities should also facilitate appropriate training for practitioners in the planning, implementation and evaluation of prevention programmes. Crime prevention training that takes account of specific geopolitical and socio-economic factors so as to make prevention work in local circumstances should be encouraged cross-regionally, regionally and domestically through conventional training and modern information technologies, and always with a practical focus on the victimized communities and persons.

B. Recommendations to national Governments

Recommendation 1

86. Governments should provide strong leadership in making crime prevention work. Intersectoral crime prevention may require far-reaching changes in attitudes among policymakers and practitioners as well as changes in organizational structures and areas of cooperation.

Recommendation 2

87. Crime prevention should not be regarded as a matter of law enforcement and criminal justice alone: any policy influencing the quality of life of citizens, in particular of families, children and young people, is likely to have an impact on crime prevention

Recommendation 3

88. Effective crime prevention strategies require baseline data and high-quality planning, implementation and evaluation. As the resources necessary for meeting these standards may not always be available, Governments, especially in developing countries, should actively seek technical assistance in terms of consulting, training and funding, as offered by many organizations and individual Member States. At the same time, Member States should be ready to share their experience concerning their crime prevention strategies. Training and capacity-building may be necessary nationally to ensure the availability of competent staff and of prevention approaches suited to each country's specific conditions.

Recommendation 4

89. Crime prevention is usually a long-term effort — if funds are not granted for a sufficient period of time, they may well be wasted. Long-term funding, however, should be accompanied by responsible accounting of the use of funds, including the assessment of results.
