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A guide for participatory safety audits in the scope of the project "Evidence-based policies for improved community safety in Latin American and African cities"

A project implemented by

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and

the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat)

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Contents

List of Figures

I. Introduction

This guide was developed in the context of the project entitled "Evidence-based policies for improved community safety in Latin American and African cities", jointly implemented by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat)[1] funded through the United Nations Development Account.

This guide aims to provide general guidance on the methodology of the participatory safety audits to be conducted in the three project cities (Querétaro, Mexico; Cali, Colombia; and Durban, South Africa). The guide describes what a safety audit is, what its purpose and main elements are, and how it can be conducted in practice by providing a list of action-oriented steps, data collection methods, and considerations to be kept in mind throughout the process. While the guide sets a general reference for conducting participatory safety audits, it is understood that it will need to be tailored to local specificities and requirements.

A. Crime prevention at the local level – a framework

With two-thirds of the world population expected to reside in urban environments by 2050[2], urbanization has become one of the most transformative trends of the twenty-first century. Urbanization, particularly in the developing world, has been accompanied by increased levels of crime, violence and lawlessness[3], which are linked to a variety of risk factors[4]. It is evident that urban areas tend to have higher rates of homicide and other types of crime than rural areas, in part because urban areas host many enablers of delinquent behaviour, including high levels of income inequality, large groups of unemployed youth, the potential for anonymity within a dense population, and the existence of gangs and other criminal groups. Indeed, urban crime, as referred to in the United Nations Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the field of Urban Crime Prevention[5], is characterized by a multiplicity of factors and forms. Violence and a real or perceived climate of

1 The strategic objectives of the project are (1) to enhance the capacity of city administrations to collect and analyse crime data to formulate and adopt urban crime prevention and safety policies and programmes, using a participatory approach; and (2) to improve the capacity of the three selected cities to monitor urban crime prevention and safety policies and programmes and measure progress towards achieving security and safety-related development targets at the local level.

2 See United Nations Population Division, World Urbanisation Prospects, 2018 Revision. https://esa.un.org/unpd/wup/Publications/Files/WUP2018-KeyFacts.pdf

3 See (2016) Enhancing the Culture of Community Crime Prevention: 20 Years of Safer Cities Experience in Africa, Conference Working Paper.

4 "Risk factors" is a term used especially in the field of developmental prevention to refer to characteristics affecting individuals or crime patterns, in particular characteristics that increase the likelihood of crimes occurring, such as relative poverty, violence, availability of drugs in the community, poor parenting, family conflicts, low school attachment, interaction with anti-social peers, and mental illness. See https://www.unodc.org/pdf/criminal_justice/Handbook_on_Crime_Prevention_Guidelines_-_Making_them_work.pdf

5 UN Economic and Social Council Resolution 1995/99, annex.

insecurity in urban areas are caused by local power dynamics and vulnerabilities on the one hand, and the interrelation of local and global crime phenomena, such as illicit trafficking of weapons or drugs, on the other. Indeed, a city's economic and social development is at risk if insecurity, crime and violence are not prevented or properly addressed. Crime, including fear thereof, intimidation, corruption, and extortion may limit individual freedom of movement and expression, among others, and disrupt businesses, education and daily life.

United Nations guidance on how to prevent crime is extensive and builds on years of experience and research. In particular, the above-mentioned 1995 Guidelines for Cooperation and Technical Assistance in the field of Urban Crime Prevention and the 2002 Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime[6], outline the considerable benefits that well-planned crime prevention can bring to countries, as well as cities and urban areas – from enhancing the quality of the social and economic life of cities and their inhabitants, to helping to bring about long-term reductions in expenditure on criminal justice, health and other services, promoting community safety and contributing to sustainable development.[7] Ever since the adoption of these instruments, UNODC and UN-Habitat have played an active role in supporting governments, including at the local level, and other stakeholders to implement them.

Recently, high level meetings of Member States have called for innovative approaches to address crime in a consultative and participatory manner (e.g. the Doha Declaration adopted by the 13th United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, 2015[8]), and stressed the need for measures on crime prevention and public safety in cities, including by engaging relevant local communities and non-governmental actors (e.g. the New Urban Agenda and its implementation plan, adopted by the United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development, 2016[9]). There is an increased recognition that inclusive, safe and resilient societies are a crucial factor of sustainable development, as reflected in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development[10], adopted by the Member States of the United Nations in September 2015. In particular, Sustainable Development Goal ('SDG') 5, "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls", Goal 16, "Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, providing access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels", and Goal 11, "Make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable", are relevant in the context of urban safety and crime prevention.

The New Urban Agenda provides the roadmap for sustainable urbanization in the years to come, stressing the importance of crime prevention and safety for the future of cities. In line with the UN Guidelines on Crime Prevention, the New Urban Agenda stresses the importance of engaging not only the police, but various levels and sectors of government. Urban crime prevention will strongly affect the ability of the international community and national governments alike to achieve the commitments under both the Sustainable Development Agenda and the New Urban Agenda. It is key

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[6] UN Economic and Social Council Resolution 2002/13, annex.

[7] Other important instruments include, for instance, the Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency, UN General Assembly resolution 45/122, and the Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Children in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, UN General Assembly resolution 69/194.

[8] UN General Assembly Resolution 70/174, entitled 'Thirteenth United Nations Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice', paragraph 10.

[9] UN General Assembly resolution 71/256, entitled 'New Urban Agenda', annex, and the Quito implementation plan for the New Urban Agenda, A/CONF.226/4* of 29 September 2016, para. 103.

[10] UN General Assembly Resolution 70/1, entitled 'Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development'.

to take advantage of urbanization as an engine of sustained and inclusive economic growth and social development, for which safety and security provide an important base.

Crime prevention, as outlined in the mentioned UN guidance documents, seeks to reduce the risk of crimes occurring, and their potential harmful effects on individuals and society, including the fear of crime, by intervening to influence their multiple causes. To do this effectively, it is important to study crime phenomena and the risk and protective factors linked to them. The Guidelines suggest the use of local diagnostic tools, and the local safety audit as used in the mentioned project offers such a tool.

Complementing the Guidelines, there are additional factors that require attention. As phrased by UN-Habitat in 2007, at the local level it is important to " […] include effective urban planning, design and governance; community-based approaches, in which communities take ownership of the various initiatives; reduction of risk factors by focusing on groups that are likely to be perpetrators and victims of crime; and strengthening of social capital through initiatives that seek to develop the ability of individuals and communities to respond to problems of crime and violence. The combination of several of these approaches — all of which are especially suitable for implementation at the local level into a systematic programme, driven by a broad strategy and based upon a careful understanding of the local context — seems more likely to succeed than the ad hoc application of individual initiatives."[11]

II. Participatory safety audits

A. What is a participatory safety audit

To inform the design and implementation of crime prevention policies and programs, safety audits are crucial. Safety audits can be defined as "a systematic analysis undertaken to gain an understanding of the crime and victimization-related problems in a city; to identify assets and resources for preventive activity; to enable priorities to be identified; and to help shape a strategy that will enable these problems to be tackled."[12]

The idea of a *participatory* safety audit is to create a mechanism that will allow for engaging all relevant stakeholders in the gathering of data and analysis of local crime causes, and potential ways to address them. Wide participation of groups within society is essential for this kind of diagnosis as it will allow:

- To build consensus among local stakeholders on crime priorities and a local vision on safety;
- To improve inter-institutional coordination for the management of information and decision-making on crime issues;
- To identify and engage the community and other local actors whose involvement is paramount for a successful implementation of specific measures, and existing local resources for public security;

[11] UN-Habitat, Reducing Urban Crime and Violence: Policy Directions (2007).

[12] European Forum for Urban Security (Efus), Methods and Tools for a Strategic Approach to Urban Security (2016), p. 17.

- To improve technical and managerial capacities in crime prevention among local authorities and non-governmental partners for a more effective governance on safety;
- To design accurate prevention policies and adequate measures and projects responding to local needs and circumstances.

In short, a participatory safety audit helps to connect relevant local stakeholders in a conversation on violence and crime and their causes and engage in discussing potential solutions for the problems identified. During the safety audit process, participatory decision-making structures can be established or strengthened to ensure the sustainability of developed safety policies and programs. What is more, the use of participatory methods is an important asset in building trust in local institutions.

Space and time are important variables in the design of safety audits. Safety audits can focus on a city in its entirety or specific neighbourhoods –this will depend on the scope and purpose of the audit, but it is recommended that data be collected at the lowest level possible. Another decision to be made during safety audits is the time period during which data will be collected, to allow for an analysis of the causes of crime in the given period, and of trends and variations over time.

B. Key considerations

A number of considerations need to be taken into account when planning and conducting a safety audit.

1. Human Rights and Human Security

The promotion of human rights and human security[13] is central to any safety audit, and indeed should guide all steps of the process, from data collection and analysis to the presentation of results and recommendations. A well-designed safety audit offers a tool to empower communities and strengthen the mechanisms and institutions that guarantee the fulfilment of human rights, and that help realise a world free from fear, want and indignity.

Political, civil, economic, social and cultural rights are closely related to guaranteeing the right to safety and security. For example, safe public transportation systems enable the exercise of free movement of people, and physical access to health and education services or job opportunities in the city. Citizens may exercise their right to safety through participation and involvement in local initiatives, including the participatory safety audit, recognizing their responsibility in making their city safer together with the local authorities.

Especially during the development of crime prevention policies based on the results of the safety audit, it is important to assess whether the measures proposed would have a positive impact on the enjoyment of human rights and human security.

[13]As noted in General Assembly resolution 66/290, "human security is an approach to assist Member States in identifying and addressing widespread and cross-cutting challenges to the survival, livelihood and dignity of their people." It calls for "people-centred, comprehensive, context-specific and prevention-oriented responses that strengthen the protection and empowerment of all people", and that help realise a world free from fear, want and indignity.

2. Gender dimensions

Men and women are affected differently by crime and violence, and they tend to play different roles as perpetrators. For instance, most victims of homicides worldwide are male[14], while the majority of human trafficking and domestic violence victims are women or girls. Domestic violence not only negatively affects the family, it also has long-term consequences for communities as a whole, since it exposes children and young people to violence that they may adopt and reproduce.

During the safety audit, gender differentials of crime, including the different risk factors of crime and expressions of violence, should be identified through the collection and analysis of data that is disaggregated by sex. Cultural norms that tolerate violence against women and girls in public spaces, such as at school, in transportations systems, at work, as well as at home, need to be detected and prevented. To obtain a thorough, gender-sensitive understanding of crime trends, however, the safety audit should go beyond understanding the distinct roles of men and women as regards crime - there is a wider spectrum of gender issues to take into account. For instance, discrimination and violence against persons of diverse sexual orientation and gender identity, such as lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender people, is also a severe problem around the world which remains underreported. The safety audit team should therefore aim to collect data on people of diverse sexual orientation and identity, including on crimes committed against them and on their own perceptions of fear, and identify and promote accessible reporting and prevention mechanisms.

3. Effective leadership

The municipal government is the closest level of leadership to the citizens and is responsible for an important share of competencies influencing their well-being and safety. Gathering competencies around a single objective, namely positioning safety at the top of the local public agenda, requires a strong political leadership supported by the diverse departments of the municipality, local stakeholders and the citizenry. A comprehensive vision on local safety supported by local leadership and adopted by the citizens is key to ensuring the sustainability of the policy across political changes. The safety audit needs to bring the analysis to the lowest level possible and involve the communities within different neighbourhoods, which allows building on local assets to enhance a positive micro-local identity that can contribute to urban safety and explain phenomena that go beyond official borders.

Bearing in mind the principles of good governance[15], effective government leadership to allow for crime prevention entails the ability of making and implementing decisions to ensure the safety and security of citizens across the various local government competencies: regulations and law enforcement measures, including local policing; social development; health; education and culture;

[14] UNODC Global Study on Homicide (2013).

[15] As defined by the United Nations Human Rights Officer of the High Commissioner, Good governance is "the process whereby public institutions conduct public affairs, manage public resources and guarantee the realization of human rights in a manner that should essentially be free of abuse and corruption, and with due regard for the rule of law". , See "Good Governance and Human Rights", 12 June 2018. Available from: https://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Development/GoodGovernance/Pages/GoodGovernanceIndex.aspx

sports and recreation; housing; infrastructure and urban planning; and other public services at the local level.

Political ownership of the safety audit is key to ensuring sustainability of the process and of the ensuing crime prevention actions or policies. In this regard, it is important to clearly determine who will lead the safety audit process, garner and formalize support around it, and set up coordination mechanisms among the relevant actors. A more elaborate example of a multi-disciplinary coordination platform set up for safety in cities is provided in Annex II[16].

a) Multilevel governance

There is a need for local, regional and national governments to better understand how 'traditional' forms of crime, as well as emerging and growing global threats, such as cybercrime, impact local communities, and how criminals exploit and exacerbate local vulnerabilities. While many responsibilities in the areas of justice and security lie with the national or regional government, cities have a key role to play in identifying risks of crime and vulnerabilities and in ensuring that policies and programmes are tailored to the local context and implemented in a sustainable manner.

The 1995 Guidelines emphasize the importance of complementary leadership of national or central authorities and at the local level: "All levels of government should play a leadership role in developing effective and humane crime prevention strategies and in creating and maintaining institutional frameworks for their implementation and review". While a local safety audit looks primarily at the local conditions and causes of crime, the bigger picture of the national situation and central government priorities and measures in addressing challenges and risks should be kept in mind. Emerging local policies should therefore be embedded in the national public safety and crime prevention frameworks to effectively address risk in a coordinated way.

b) Communication strategy

Each safety audit requires a communication strategy to inform stakeholders, including local community actors, about the objective, the process and the outcomes of the safety audit. The communication strategy can also serve to keep the different array of local actors engaged and mobilised around a common vision of increased safety and wellbeing in the community. To do so, it is important to focus on short, clear and positive messages about what the safety audit aims to achieve. The channels of communication for the delivery of such messages should be tailored to the local context and can include council meetings, talks in schools and relevant places of work, a dedicated website, social media platforms, and local press and media. The communication strategy could also envisage to have a two-way communication channel to receive feedback from the community on the safety audit and proposed recommendations, such as through online surveys or an online forum, which would increase transparency and community participation in the process. The communication strategy should therefore also factor in while allocating a budget for the safety audit.

[16] Annex II presents the UN-Habitat City Safety Labs model, which aim to create a permanent space for coordinated research on crime and violence and disseminate best practices.

4. Points to keep in mind throughout the process

Before moving to the step-by-step section of this guide, the list below provides an overview of useful tips to bear in mind throughout the entire safety audit process.

- ✓ ***Learn from the past***

Evaluate local past strategies and policies, and learn from their good results and mistakes, considering the objective facts but also the perception of local actors and citizens.

- ✓ ***Observe good practices***

Best practices in community resilience show that they tend to:

- Reinforce collective positive action based on horizontal relationships and trust within communities and/or re-create positive relationships between the community, local government institutions and the police;
- Use the resources of the community (history, beliefs, values, traditions) to reinforce its positive identity and social cohesion;
- Foster public/private and community associations;
- Enhance peaceful resolution of conflicts and mediation in neighbourhoods;
- Promote the visibility of positive role models for youth and children;
- Make the police an important part of the community resilience strategy;
- Be based on a common purpose and local identity;
- Gather the community around local projects meant to improve the quality of life of all residents: infrastructure, facilities, public services, public spaces;
- Re-organize spaces through safe urban design, urban renewal, slum upgrading;
- Adopt mixed land uses: residential, commercial, cultural;
- Promote private investment in the neighbourhood;
- Use participatory urban design techniques: involve the community in defining their own vision for the neighbourhood, including experts (urban design specialists, environmental psychologists, sociologists), and community actors (including hard to reach groups and scarcely heard actors, such as children and youth). They can contribute to developing proposals, providing feedback on safety design, accessibility, and inclusiveness, and monitor progress and maintenance.

- ✓ ***Integrate public security with primary, secondary and tertiary prevention:***

There is a need for complementary approaches between crime repression, or controlling its growth and extension, and the preventive approach. Restitution and reparation measures towards victims is also a part of prevention efforts, as well as community conciliation and the reintegration of ex-offenders for social cohesion.

- ✓ ***Combine institutional, situational, and community prevention:***

There is a complementarity between social and physical interventions in vulnerable neighbourhoods and communities. Many situational prevention projects have failed because of a lack of appropriation from the communities. However, social work and establishing a culture of safety can be strengthened

through physical changes and symbols that promote the renewed identity of the community and its commitment to safety.

- ✓ ***Be patient:***

No prevention policy can achieve quick results. Structural, societal and economical risk factors need long term policies inscribed in a long-term vision.

III. The participatory safety audit process

A. Establishing a team

A safety audit team is required to lead the safety audit process from A to Z. The design and implementation of the safety audit and the subsequent safety policy require technical and political leadership. If possible, and depending on the administrative or governance structures of the city or municipality, the Mayor's office should take the overall lead to ensure the necessary leadership and coordination of competencies for a multi-sectoral approach.

It is recommended that the safety audit team be composed of a manageable number of experts with a diverse range of complementary profiles, for instance statistics, crime prevention, human rights, gender, youth, and urban planning and design. The team should include representatives from all relevant agencies or stakeholders whose participation and commitment is needed to ensure that the different steps under the audit process are thoroughly conducted in an inclusive manner, and to also ensure appropriate follow up activities, such as the findings of the audit feeding into the development or revision of policies or action plans. For example, all departments of the city that collect data should be included, so that statisticians can elaborate on what kind of data is already produced, and what needs to be added. Departments for social affairs or environmental issues should also be on board. The team should also include at least one representative from academia, the private sector, civil society, and the local community or communities that are covered by the audit – such as district leaders, or representatives of cultural groups.

When deciding on the composition of the team, the team lead should consider the target and scope of the audit, i.e. will the audit cover the entire city, or specific neighbourhoods or districts; does it focus on problems of specific groups within society, such as young persons or the elderly; what kind of expertise is needed in the team, for instance technical or language skills; and who would be involved in implementing measures that will subsequently be agreed upon and taken to address crime and violence in the local context. Involving the latter actors will improve local capacity building, as shortcomings in available expertise will become apparent during the exercise, and, at the same time, an inclusive approach as a team with other members of municipal agencies and non-governmental actors will serve as a learning experience and can, in the best case, improve cooperation, trust and exchange of information among all involved. Within or working closely with the municipal team responsible for crime prevention and urban safety, the team should either represent or stay in close contact with specific community groups, especially those that often are not given a voice in society.

This team may require training before, during and after the participatory audit process in order to improve local capacities in gathering, collecting and analysing crime related information, and to build specific competencies for the design, implementation and monitoring of crime prevention

policies, programmes and projects at the city level, including with a view to addressing the needs of vulnerable groups.

It is important that the safety audit team meet regularly and develop a clear work plan for the safety audit process, including objectives and timelines. Regarding the safety audit process in general, the team should keep in mind the overall aim of mobilizing local stakeholders along all stages of the safety audit to allow for policy adjustment or development.

B. Initial stock-taking

While conducting a safety audit, it could be beneficial for the safety audit team to conduct a preliminary analysis of the data available at the local level to inform the following steps on the selection of indicators and data collection. The point in time at which this stock-taking exercise is conducted, however, may vary depending on the context, as some teams may prefer to assess data availability and quality during or after the data collection process.

1. Assessment of available data and local capacity on data collection and processing

Within municipal structures, different sectors – such as public security and law enforcement, social, health, education and housing services – produce data that is relevant to assess local crime problems and risk factors. The safety audit team should start by developing a catalogue of existing sources, including how often and by whom data is collected and analysed, and evaluate their relevance and the quality of the information produced to inform crime prevention policies. Sources for obtaining data on quantitative indicators include police records, justice system records, statistical offices, civil registration records, and administrative records from educational and health institutions.

In a second step, the team should assess the relevance of these data and their quality vis-à-vis the aim of informing future crime prevention policies and related measures.

This stocktaking exercise should follow a few guiding questions to map out who collects data and what kind of data, and to determine how useful or suitable this data is for the audit.

a) Which data are available?

- Do municipalities generate reports or collect, on a regular basis, relevant data on crime occurrence, patterns and/or its geographical concentration in territories or communities?
- Is data collected on victims, offenders and the context in which crime occurred?
- Are regular consultations or participatory exercises conducted with groups among the population on crime perception, or other relevant surveys done that crime risk factor analysis at the local level?
- Does the municipality monitor crime trends and risk factors over time and space? If so, does it use specific platforms or monitoring systems?
- What type of data is available (i.e. quantitative, qualitative and geo-referenced and geo-located statistical data at the city, neighbourhood and street levels)?
- How is the data collected, i.e. online, interviews, etc., and which platforms or tools are used?
- Which techniques are used for analysis (i.e. aggregation, comparison, pattern detection, trends, hot spots, etc.)?

b) What are the sources of data?

- Statistical office (if existing);
- Police/law enforcement;
- Government departments or offices, concerned with services such as:
    - Social and family affairs;
    - Housing;
    - Health;
    - Education;
    - Employment/unemployment;
    - Infrastructure.

Beyond local government departments or offices that collect and process data, other local actors – public or privately run – can produce valuable information on crime and risk factors. Their collaboration can be crucial for the design, monitoring and implementation of both the safety audit and the subsequent implementation of a policy or action plan, which has a higher probability of being successful if there is local buy-in and ownership. Other actors could include:

- Hospitals and health care institutions;
- Education centres, schools, and youth institutes;
- Social development centres;
- Women's institutes, and shelters for women and girls;
- Local urban observatories producing information covering a wide range of information sources and data collection activities, to inform public policies. They may be generic or specialized in specific areas of interest, such as urban safety, and operate at the local or national level;
- Local universities and research institutions;
- Local private business associations that sometimes produce surveys and studies on crime and related urban issues, such as insurance and private security businesses;
- Foundations;
- Local trade unions on transport;
- Civil society organizations and community groups.

c) Is the data suitable to inform the safety audit?

Once the sources have been identified, the team should assess the availability and suitability of the data. To do that, the following list of questions may be useful:

- Does the data have high quality – i.e. is it collected by a reliable source in a scientifically sound manner?
- Is the data relevant to assess the status quo, and to inform subsequent decision and policy making?
- Are the systems/processes of data collection user-friendly, i.e. adapted to the capacities of the different municipal areas and public servants called to feed the system (in terms of human resources, and officers' knowledge and training), and analyse its information on a regular basis?
- Is the data comparable to the information that is or will be collected from different sources during the safety audit? If not, does it make sense to still include it (e.g. data that was generated through a one-time-only survey on a specific topic)?

2. Overcoming the lack of data sources and capacity

If there are insufficient data available to feed the audit, or the available data are not suitable, the safety audit team may need to focus more intensively on collecting data on its own, and decide what can be addressed in the short-term, and what would only be feasible to cover after capacity-building measures. The team will likely have to adjust the timeframe and possibly also the cost estimate for the overall audit, as data collection can be very time consuming and requires resources.

Ideally, the safety audit would not only provide the city with an analysis of the status quo to inform the development or review of policies or action plans, but also reinforce and build capacity to generate and analyse data in the future, both in terms of sustainability of measures and impact, as well as to ensure monitoring and evaluation to adapt a policy or action plan in the future, if necessary. Local governments should always consider reinforcing their crime data collection and analysis capacities through specific trainings of officers or statisticians, establishing information protocols between agencies on crime data, investing in information systems, and/or establishing partnerships with other local actors producing relevant data.

Measures could include:

- Supporting local authorities to generate and analyse data on specific indicators to assess and monitor developments at the local level, such as through sharing or supporting the development of tools used during the audit;
- Supporting local authorities in creating a log-frame and understanding which data need to be collected and analysed on a regular basis to adequately assess the impact of specific activities/measures, as well as overall local crime fprevention policies or action plans;
- Supporting local authorities – whether they already own licenses for using tools or need to consider investing in them for the first time – in deciding which tools or software programmes are suitable. Data collection and analysis tools can be expensive and operating them can be complex, so each city shall select the technical tools that are available, sustainable and that fit local needs;
- Supporting local authorities in developing capacity for building a team, department or unit within the municipal structure that deals with crime prevention or urban safety, and can support (future) safety audit processes, and the subsequent development or revision of a policy or action plan;
- Supporting the local authorities in assessing training needs and develop trainings for officers in the area of crime prevention, such as on emerging trends and how to address them.

C. Developing a holistic indicators framework

To analyse data in a meaningful manner and understand the local context in all its complexity, a holistic framework of indicators needs to be created. This framework should contain SMART indicators that the analysis will be based on, and, once a policy is developed and implemented, can help to measure impact and progress.

A good model of reference to apply for the development of indicators is the SMART approach, a commonly known guide in setting objectives that has been applied to project management and development projects since the 1980s, and which stands for:[17]

- **Specific**. Be clearly defined and describe accurately what is being measured. It should be concise and focus on a single issue.
- **Measurable**. Deal with an aspect that can be objectively quantified to measure changes based on facts rather than feelings or perceptions. It should be reliant on data and information that are reasonably readily available.
- **Achievable**. Realistic and possible to achieve. They should allow for potential changes that may occur during implementation of the initiative.
- **Relevant**. Relate to important aspects of the initiative and only measure changes and progress that are significant and useful.
- **Time-related**. They should be linked to deadlines and interim target dates.

Indicators can be of a quantitative or qualitative nature. While quantitative indicators provide numerical values, qualitative indicators are important to understand processes at the policy level, and other dynamics that are not easily discernible but play a key role in shaping community dynamics and perceptions of crime. Both types of indicators should be used in conjunction.

The International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes (ICCS) is a classification of criminal offences based on internationally agreed concepts, definitions and principles which can be consulted for reference in this phase of the audit with a view to refine the quality of the analysis, and to increase the consistency and international comparability of crime statistics.[18]

The following section presents distinct categories of information that participatory safety audit can use to ground the selection of indicators.

1. The city context

Demography, economy and urban development have an impact on the quality of life and level of safety in cities. This section is meant to describe the singularity and specific trends of each city to enable an analysis of the crime dynamics in different communities and territories.

	Information
Urban development trends, infrastructure and facilities	• Size of city, density, land uses • Type of relationship between the city and the national context, and with other cities (metropolitan areas, dependent cities, boarder cities, coast, touristic cities) • Areas vulnerable to natural disasters

[18] 2015 International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/statistics/iccs.html. Please note that the adaptation of a country's crime statistics to the ICCS should first take place at the national level, and then be aligned to the local level.

	• Segregated neighbourhoods, economic centres • Availability, quality and accessibility of main public infrastructure (housing, transportation, public lighting, electricity, water and sanitation networks, garbage collection) • Social, education, health facilities • Accessible and safe public spaces (places, parks, market places, green space, etc.) • Recreational spaces, sports facilities
Demography	• Total population • Population density • Life expectancy at birth • Population growth rate • Internal and international migration rate • Teenage pregnancy • Sex structure • Age structure • Ethno-cultural groups
Economy/Employment	• Economic activities by sector, including informal economies • Gross Domestic Product • Employment/unemployment rates disaggregated by age, sex, cultural or ethnic group, territories • Size and characteristics of illicit/illegal economy • Gini coefficient • Poverty disaggregated by age, sex, cultural or ethnic group, territories
Social Development	• Social development index by population and geographical sectors • Human Development Index • Marginalization or exclusion index • Social cohesion
Education	• Literacy rate • Primary and secondary schooling available for all • School attendance, school drop-out rate • Quality of schools (infrastructure, curriculum, access) • Number of crimes in educational institutions, bullying • Average duration of education
Health	• Availability, affordability and accessibility of health care services • Drug and alcohol consumption and/or addiction • Persons with disabilities • Injuries and fatalities • Suicides • Main diseases affecting the population • Main causes of death

2. Local crime trends

This section offers a general vision of the main crimes that occur, their incidence rate and impact in the city according to social groups and divides, as well as in specific territories and communities.

a) Occurrence of crime

	Information
Local patterns of crime	• Prevalence and incidence of crime by type of crime, geographical area, rate of change • Contribution to the sensation of insecurity/fear of crime by sex, age, ethnic group, and other relevant criteria in the city context,
Economic costs of crime	• Costs of crime assumed by communities and individuals (violence-related injuries, private security measures, value of property stolen or damaged) • Cost of security assumed by public institutions: police, justice systems, prisons, hospital emergency services

Crime records from law enforcement authorities and the justice system inform on most recurrent offences, victims and offenders, as well as on crime concentration trends at specific times and in specific spaces. These numbers need to be seen in the context of national and other cities' averages in order to detect local crime patterns and specificities. The analysis should be conducted carefully, and take into account the number of un- or underreported crimes prevalent in most countries and cities in the world, also known as the 'dark figure' of crime.[19] While existing police and justice records can provide general information on potential trends and crime concentration, a thorough analysis of local dynamics and risk factors should follow in later steps to identify, for instance, which crimes have the highest impact on communities and on the perception of fear among citizens.

b) Surveys to measure opinions, perceptions and attitudes

Surveys, such as victimization surveys,[20] provide valuable information to fill the gap of crimes that remain unreported to the police. They also provide guidance on the context of the crime (such as place, time, use of violence, presence of drugs, alcohol or firearms), and, in some cases, on its consequences on the life of the victim (such as economic burden, psychological effects, experience of

[19] In Mexico, the National Victimization Survey for 2016 estimates that 93,7% of crimes committed that year remained unreported. In South Africa, the figure is disaggregated by crime and showed that murder (95%) and car thefts (89,5%) were the most reported crimes to the police between 2012 and 2016, when 34% of home robberies were not, neither 82,7%, of theft of crops. The reasons for whether a crime is reported or not are complex. Some crimes could be over-represented, such as burglaries, robberies and car thefts because insurance companies require a police statement to recognize a damage. Others can remain highly unreported due to the lack of trust of specific groups within the population in the police, the fear of acts of retaliation, the fear of suffering double victimization from the justice system, being discriminated by family and community, or the idea that the damage was not serious enough to be reported.

[20] Cf. for general information UNODC/UNECE, Manual on Victimization Surveys (2010), as well as the UNODC Latin American and the Caribbean Crime Victimization Survey Initiative (LACSI).

the victim with the police and justice systems). The analysis of survey results can provide information on recurrent characteristics of victims and offenders (age, sex, place of residence, socio-economic status, etc.) and their relationship (family, friend, no affiliation).

Additionally, victimization surveys can provide information on perceptions of crime. Perceptions can be distorted (higher or lower than actual crime incidence) and differ among social groups and place of residence. These data are especially relevant for the design of safety policies, since a high sensation of fear among citizens or specific groups can create social disorder and negative changes in social behaviours, such as avoiding public spaces and transportation systems, securing housing and belongings, mistrust in public authorities and their representatives, loss of social cohesion, and ultimately, a lower community resilience to crime risk factors. Communication will play a central role in correcting the perception of crime, if it is distorted, and enhancing the coproduction of safety.

Lastly, victimization surveys contribute to evaluating the level of trust in public institutions (the army, the justice system, the police, local government, etc.), and the need for specific reforms and trainings to regain the confidence of the citizenry.

Experience, perception and fear of crime	• Experience of victims of crime (crime prevalence and crime incidence) • Dark figure of crime (unreported crimes) • Fear of crime • Trust in public security institutions: police, justice system, municipal government, other institutions and services • Crimes with a higher impact on the community, according to respondents' perceptions

c) Risk factors

Risk factors, or factors that increase the likelihood of crimes occurring, include poverty, violence, weak parenting, low school attachment, and mental illness. According to the so-called 'ecological model', crime and violence risk factors can depend on individual characteristics, derive from relationships, be rooted in communities or relayed by cultural or societal structures.

Some risk factors are city-specific, and all of them should be explored separately as well as in their interactions with each other in different territories and communities.

Risk factors	**Individual:** biological, psychological or mental health issues, positive valuation of violent behaviours, early enrolment in gangs, low school attachment, drug or alcohol abuse; **Relationships:** Family: weak family structure, mental health problems of family members, abusive or poor parenting practices, domestic violence, intimate partner violence, lack of positive role models, problematic drug or alcohol abuse, criminal behaviours of family members, long term unemployment, poverty, the loss of a close family member; Peer influence: anti-social behaviour of peers, bullying, involvement in criminal activities, gangs.

	Community/Neighbourhood factors: limited access to infrastructure, basic urban services (water, sanitation, lighting, transportation, housing), deteriorated physical surrounding, social exclusion, lack of economic opportunities, segregation, high density of population living in poor conditions, lack of positive social capital, low social cohesion, negative local identity, presence of drugs, alcohol, firearms, violent gangs, criminal organizations. **Structural risk factors:** inequalities, social or economic exclusion, corruption, terrorism, armed conflicts, natural disasters, economic and political crisis, discrimination based on sex, age, sexual orientation and gender identity, ethnicity, race, etc.

Not all risk factors have the same weight in influencing individual and collective choices, and the safety audit can help to determine which factors play a bigger role in leading to criminal behaviour and victimisation. In addition, some risk factors are visible, such as the lack of public infrastructure, and others are more difficult to identify and require interviews and participatory exercises. Such factors include the belief that violence and illegality are justified means to revert inequalities, the belief that violence is a natural way of conflict resolution, and accepted discriminatory practices towards specific social groups.

Organized crime and highly organized violent gangs also require attention, considering the presence and impact of their activities on many local communities and territories around the globe. Activities such as human trafficking and drug trafficking can produce and increase risk factors and the vulnerability of communities and institutions (generalized corruption, problematic drug and alcohol consumption, or availability of firearms concentrated in specific territories or communities)

d) Vulnerability

Vulnerability is the degree to which a group of persons or a system anticipate and cope with external shocks. In crime prevention, it refers not only to the various levels of risk factors (individual, relationship, societal, community and structural risk factors) but also to the capacity of resilience of a community or group to these.

Vulnerability also entails societal or cultural risk factors such as structural norms of exclusion and beliefs systems that stigmatize specific groups. Groups that are particularly vulnerable to crime and violence include ethnic or cultural minorities, migrants, street children, persons with drug use disorders, sex workers, ex-offenders, former child soldiers, marginalised youth and women and girls.

Data on crime and victimization disaggregated by variables such as age, sex, religion, ethnicity, race, and other variables of social exclusion, will enable an analysis of the most recurrent characteristics of victims and offenders and highlight the social groups that are most vulnerable to crime across the studied territories.

In this sense, a high incidence of certain crimes suffered or perpetrated by specific population segments would reveal their vulnerability to crime and call for the design and implementation of targeted lines of prevention.

Vulnerable Groups	Incidence of crime against specific population groups: – Racial or hate crimes – Domestic violence

	– Child abuse – Street violence against women and girls – Human trafficking – Crimes against indigenous populations – Crimes against homeless persons – Other vulnerable groups in the city Exposure to becoming a perpetrator: – Youth in gangs – Youth with problematic drug/alcohol consumption – Youth in and on the streets – Ex-offenders, re-offenders – Other vulnerable groups in the city
Vulnerable Neighbourhoods/ Communities and Public spaces	Concentration of crimes by neighbourhood, or, if possible, in specific places or areas of the city: – Schools – Workplace – Household/residential – Public Transportation System and Terminals – Public spaces – Specific streets – Business and commercial districts – Touristic districts – Markets – Nightclubs and entertainment districts – Deprived neighbourhoods – Other places particularly vulnerable to criminal activities in the city

3. Local capacity for crime prevention

The audit not only registers the crime problems, contexts and causes, but also the local capacity for the local policy to build on existing capacities to prevent and address crime.

a) Institutional capacities

Local capacities for prevention can be of a political and/or technical nature, and can reside in the municipal leader, local public servants, national government working in the city, research centres, NGOs, and every relevant local actor that is able to contribute to urban safety policies. Past prevention or public security policies, programmes and projects are important resources as their success or even failure can indicate a way forward.

The institutional capacities for crime prevention determine the local governance of safety and the resilience of a city to cope with risk factors. The saturation of public services by extremely fast growing urban populations or unsustainable levels of inequalities often increases urban segregation and debilitates local governance of safety and governance in general.

Technical and institutional capacities for safety governance at municipal level	• Local leadership and engagement for crime prevention and crime control • Existing national or local legislation for prevention • Existing organizational structures and technical capacities and budgets for prevention • Political and institutional environment and technical capacity for prevention • Existing municipal policies, projects and initiatives in prevention • Reporting channels • Permanent training programmes/projects for prevention, including programmes for the reintegration of offenders. • Coordination mechanisms with other levels of government, private and civil society sectors

b) Other local capacities

Territorial divides among social groups and communities can disrupt community spaces and destroy social cohesion, but other intangible elements can reinforce community resilience: a common history of settlement, a collective identity, and positive values based on beliefs, traditions, culture, sports, etc. Similarly, urban spaces and territories can become vectors of prevention. All these elements need to be identified through the participatory audit.

Community capacities	• Values, traditions, norms and rules of the community/neighbourhood in line with the values of citizen safety and social cohesion • Local culture, arts and other local assets that can be used in the prevention strategy • Existing civil society, private sector, university or community projects and initiatives contributing to crime prevention
Urban capacities	• Urban areas of special interest and potential for the community (identity, historical or symbolic value, public spaces for positive community interaction)

Once the relevant categories have been identified, indicators need to be developed under each category. A non-comprehensive list of indicators by category developed for the Mexican context is presented in Annex I of this guide for reference[21]. Some indicators are more straightforward, whereas

[21] This list was developed for the city of Querétaro in the context of the United Nations Development Account Project "Evidence-based policies for improved community safety in Latin American and African cities" of UNODC and UN-Habitat.

others are more complex and data collection may be difficult. For example, categories such as 'access to justice' have proven to be extremely difficult to measure in past exercises.[22]

The selection and development of indicators require a thoughtful development process, and need to be reviewed thoroughly to ensure that they are realistic in what they can measure. In cases where certain issues are deemed relevant, but very difficult to measure, the safety audit could include them in an additional category and revisit them once data collection has been finalized to see whether the data collected allows for a proper assessment of the situation. In a similar vein, when many indicators have been selected and are readily available, it may be useful to make a distinction between 'core' and 'non-core' indicators and focus the analysis on those that, as per the initial hypothesis, are more central to understanding crime trends.

D. Data Collection

Once the indicators framework has been set up, the safety audit team will have to collect the relevant data by obtaining access to the sources of data identified earlier (e.g. police records, administrative records, etc.), and store them in a clear, organized and user-friendly manner. In addition, data can be collected from the community using a number of collective learning tools for participatory analysis of crimes that affect the community, their possible causes, risk factors and solutions. Participatory methods can also help to build consensus around priorities for future action, for instance in identifying the areas and groups that the crime prevention policy should focus on, and trying to ascertain which crimes may be easier to prevent in the short, medium and long run. Below is a non-exhaustive list of collective learning tools:

1. Geo-referenced information: mapping crime trends and risk factors

The analysis needs to dig into the root causes of crime in the selected territories and go as close as possible to the problem. Mapping and geo-referencing economic, sociodemographic and crime incidence gives a better understanding of the relationship between risk factors and incidence of crime. Therefore, different layers of information need to be studied jointly: concentration of crime by type and hour of the day (hotspots), trafficking routes and flows involving organized crime, gang territorial boundaries, irregular settlements, infrastructure gaps, poverty, coverage of public services, education and health facilities, transportation routes and infrastructure, public spaces and recreational areas, housing, lighting, natural disaster areas, etc. An example of geo-referenced maps used to analyse crime is provided in Annex II.

Geo-referencing allows for a social and situational prevention reading of the local crime problems. The result of this territorial approach to analysing crime may lead to concentrate efforts in the most affected areas, improving the perception of security and the reintegration of excluded neighbourhoods and communities to the city system, thereby contributing to improve urban safety.

[22] Cf. for example current access to justice indicators under SDG 16, target 3: Indicator 16.3.1: Proportion of victims of violence in the previous 12 months who reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms; and Indicator 16.3.2: Unsentenced detainees as a proportion of overall prison population.

2. Approaching communities and issues through key informants

When studying a specific crime, vulnerable group or territory, consulting key informants provides a good starting point. Municipal government officials (public security, police officers, gender violence experts, urban planners, social service directors, youth institute representatives, etc.), civil society workers, local entrepreneurs, influential young people, women organizations and other local stakeholders rooted in territories, need to be interviewed for a first glance at local problems and their dynamics.

Key informant interviews consist of asking individuals with an excellent understanding of a specific subject to provide a well-informed interpretation or assessment. Even as any point of view will always remain subjective and needs to be contrasted with other sources of information, this technique may provide a good entry point to understanding crime. For the more sensitive types of crime (e.g. human trafficking, gangs or organized crime), the safety audit team needs to offer the necessary levels of confidentiality to protect interviewed persons from threats to their life or their physical integrity.

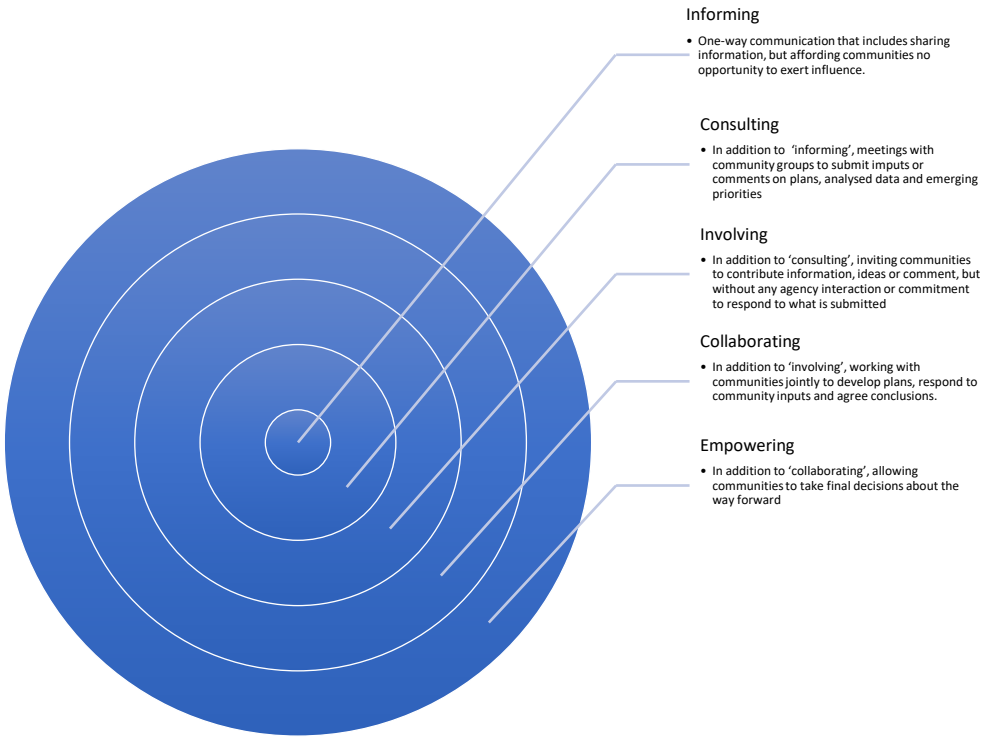
Furthermore, key informant interviews are useful when starting to map actors. A person with experience in a certain field of crime prevention may have established a network of partners and can provide a series of contacts. Actors should then be mapped organically to reflect their interactions and collaboration agreements on specific issues, but also territorially, to build alliances and make the mobilization task easier for the safety audit team.

When entering territories and communities, this exercise will serve to mobilize actors. For example, the participation of municipal agents, NGOs, community leaders or other persons considered trustworthy by the community is necessary to understand the dynamics in the community, to avoid possible mistakes from the beginning, and also to introduce the audit team members during the first activities to other stakeholders. A good practice to promote local participation is to develop a project/activity that responds to a local demand not necessarily connected with crime prevention in order to gain the attention and trust of the community.

The degree of participation to be achieved during the rest of the audit will depend on the needs detected by the audit team and can vary from a simple consultation to a participatory definition of priorities, design and implementation with local communities. There are five levels of community participation[23]:

[23] International Association of Public Participation (IAP2), "Community Engagement Procedure", 11 June 2018. Available from: https://www.iap2.org.au/Tenant/C0000004/00000001/files/News/GlenorchyCC_Community_Engagement_Procedure.pdf

Figure 1: Community participation levels



Some vulnerable groups or persons may be "hard to reach", or difficult to involve in the process. For example, youth usually expresses apathy towards adult-led processes. Nonetheless, their participation is fundamental to understand their experience and perception on crime, legality, trust in institutions, risk factors linked to their age, gender, and ethnicity, access to education or job opportunities and to design effective youth crime prevention strategies. Again, local associations or institutions working with youth (sports associations, youth centers, groups of neighbours with leadership amongst youth, faith-based organizations, etc.) need to be invited to offer guidance, help establishing a map of youth groups and engage in a dialogue. Communication strategies and activities should be adapted to their interests (arts, music, sports, modern technologies, etc.) to engage their participation.

A single team or person should oversee all data collection activities related to a specific community, territory and/or vulnerable group. To gain the trust of local communities, it is fundamental that this person or group remain the same during the entire process, and that no promise will be made that cannot be fulfilled.

3. Focus groups: a collective learning process

Focus groups can be composed of representatives of the entire community, or divided into smaller groups based on common characteristics (for instance, place of residence, age, sex, ethnicity, etc.) to reflect on how some aspect of crime impacts their lives in a direct or indirect way. The group is guided through a structured conversation which, for crime prevention matters, can follow these main topics:

- Map of problems: what are the most serious crimes affecting the community, neighbourhood, group?

- Who are the most recurrent offenders? Who are the most recurrent victims? What are their possible motivations? What can be the causes/risk factors of such behaviours?
- Are there transversal crime issues affecting the whole city?
- Map of actors: Who is doing something to reduce this problem in the community?
- Map of resources: Where are the places where the community tends to go to relax, gather with family and friends? Are there community celebrations or cultural trends that characterize the community? Is there a local identity? Is it positive or negative? Why? What could we do to change it?
- Local government policies: What worked? What did not? What can be improved? How?
- Vision: How would the neighbourhood look like without violence and fear? How would a peaceful community be? What changes should be done to achieve this vision? Who should be involved?

It is important to adapt the questions and dynamics in a way that will enhance participation in the focus groups. For example, with young people, the focus groups could be less structured, take place in their usual meeting places, be adapted to their forms of expression and/or address issues progressively, from most common problems (lack of infrastructure, lack of resources, etc.) to more personal or complex ones (domestic violence directed at them or around them, prostitution, drug addiction, discrimination, armed violence, ties to organized crime, etc.). In a comparable way, the guiding questions and the place and format of the discussion should be tailored to other vulnerable groups.

Finally, the map of local actors for prevention will be nourished by these conversations, identifying the most proactive agents among the diverse groups represented and inviting key local actors identified by the community to the conversation. The map of community actors is a fundamental asset for the multi-stakeholder approach to crime prevention and increasing safety and the sustainability of the future policy in time and territories.

4. Participatory mapping

Maps are a useful tool to approach violence territorially. Participatory mapping exercises can be done abstractly on a paper or drawn directly from the ground, through exploratory walks composed of multiple actors or reserved to specific groups, to sense their sensation of fear and vision for their neighbourhood along the streets.

For a study on a neighbourhood or community, much of the contextual data required already exists regarding topography, demography, public transportation, public facilities, and basic infrastructure. This information, once analysed and systematized by the audit team, can serve as the basis for discussions in focus groups and provides orientation on the design of solutions.

Some phenomena may be hard to draw on a map, but the mental representations of space by communities and their subgroups says a lot about local identities and local social conflicts. The most obvious representation of it may be the “invisible barriers” that separate one gang territory from another and that threatens the life of anyone crossing it without the permission of the auto-proclaimed owners of the territories. Many other invisible barriers can be mapped, such as the ones that divide one community from another, a group of settlers from the other depending on their political preferences, place of origin, ethnicity, religion, etc.

Mental maps also offer the possibility of focusing on the spaces of social integration and cohesion. The collective reading of spaces that serve as vectors of identity, citizen participation and peacebuilding enables the discussions on proposals for physical improvements and social projects for safety. Mapping these community space resources such as schools, public spaces, markets, community centres, sport complexes or even streets filled with a sense of belonging and local identity is fundamental for the design of community resilience projects.

As demonstrated by international experiences, community prevention projects are more efficient when capitalizing and strengthening a local identity based on shared values on peaceful coexistence and cohesion. For this reason, the map of community resources should also include persons (local positive role models, associations working for prevention), traditions, history, beliefs and local identities to inform policy design.

E. Data analysis

Once the indicators framework has been developed and data collected, the safety audit team can proceed with an exhaustive review of all available data, quantitative and qualitative, selected for their relevance, accessibility and reliability.

The data analysis should attempt to determine which types of crime, population groups and territories should be the focus of the local measures that are supposed to be taken after the conclusion of the audit, such as a local crime prevention strategy or a plan of action.

Special emphasis is placed on information disaggregated by sex, age, ethnic group, and spatial units such as neighbourhoods or administrative districts defined by the city. Such level of disaggregation will enable further analysis of crime trends and will help the safety audit team to obtain:

- A list and map of the most recurrent crimes, most vulnerable social groups across the city – both in terms of victimization, and likelihood to become an offender – and most vulnerable neighbourhoods;
- A correlation analysis between crime trends and risk factors, and the identification of strategies to tackle risk factors;
- Any gaps identified in existing data or crime reporting mechanisms.

1. Specific types of crime

Each crime responds to a different combination of risk factors and strategies. For example, assault tends to rely on an opportunity (environmental design), the expectation of an economic gain and the evaluation of a low probability of being caught. Domestic violence is rather influenced by individual and cultural risk factors regarding gender role patterns, sex and age, among others. The scope of the study, data collection methods as well as its recommendations in the short, medium and long run will differ according to the type of crime.

Other crimes are inserted in more complex criminal networks, involving other types of actions. Drug trafficking can relate to international or national crime structures and require a deeper study of its specific modus operandi and the local actors involved as well as the links between these and local communities. In this context, the study will devote more time and resources to obtaining a more comprehensive and efficient local safety policy. Such focus on criminal organizations is effective when including complementary elements towards corruption, weak institutions and rule of law, fire arms

trafficking, gangs, drug consumption, extended use of violence, high rates of homicides, assaults, gender violence, as well as community resilience.

2. Vulnerable groups

As discussed earlier, people are impacted differently by crime depending on their individual characteristics and their level of access to participation in the community. Collecting and analysing disaggregated data will help the team determine those differences. In the case of cities dominated by violent gangs, for instance, a study on youth violence may be most appropriate, as gangs tend to be composed of young people. The audit team should analyse this group in all its diversity: youth at risk, in prison, on the streets, at school, and their access to rights as citizens, for instance their access to employment, health, culture and sports. An analysis of crime and youth can also bring in specific territories, risk factors (drug consumption, early pregnancy, low school attendance, unemployment, etc.), and types of crimes. Special attention should be payed to young ex-offenders and youth in prison as their vulnerability to crime risk factors is very high and can keep them in a vicious circle of social exclusion, risky behaviours and re-offending.

3. Vulnerable territories/communities

Territories can be considered vulnerable when their access to public services and infrastructure is systematically inferior to the city averages and social unrest and crime is disproportionately affecting their communities. Vulnerable communities, territories or neighbourhoods can reach a critical situation when highly affected by the presence of organized crime of violent gangs. Indeed, those territories require an analysis to unveil the logics and strategies of violent gangs[24]. Different urban territories may face other kinds of challenges that need to be understood in their specific context.

Setting the boundaries of communities and neighbourhoods will be one of the first defining decisions of the analysis. Too often, territorial divisions are defined administratively, for politic or managerial purposes, and do not correspond to historical settlements limits or any community identity bonding. Using these administrative districts for studying community is one of the main reasons many urban and social development programmes have failed to improve social cohesion and community resilience.

Defining the community or neighbourhood with its members is part of the analysis and the basis for the success of any social change a policy would address at this level. The first step may be interviewing community leaders and proceed to exploratory walks or mental maps with local actors to perceive the diversity within communities.

F. Presenting and validating results for policy design

1. Consensus on priorities and final report

Once systematized, the results of the participatory data collection exercises should be analysed by the safety audit team, refined and integrated into a final report to be shared with the relevant local authorities for further action, and with community stakeholders. The key elements of such a final report include:

a) Detailed findings of the data collection and analysis process: local crime patterns in the studied time period; socio-economic and demographic profile of the studied community; any

[24] The experience supported by UNODC in the city of Medellín, Colombia, is particularly interesting in this regard, concentrating on organized crime prevention with the participation of the citizenry and local communities.

correlations identified between crime trends and specific risk factors; maps and other types of visual representations of results; conclusions deriving from focus groups and other participatory data collection methods; gaps identified in data collection or crime reporting mechanisms as well as in the local capacity to address crime;

b) A set of priority issues based on the findings: most prominent types of crime; key affected vulnerable groups and neighbourhoods/places; main risk factors of crime; key community 'assets' to be capitalized on for crime prevention.

c) Recommendations for adjustments/development of a crime prevention policy at the local level, including suggestions for improvement of the local capacity to collect, analyse and monitor crime data; and possible activities that the local authorities could conduct as part of a crime prevention action plan.

The final report should present the findings in a manner that it is addressed to an 'educated lay person', so that the audience within the local government and other relevant stakeholders who may not necessarily have expertise in the subject matter are able to understand the findings and results within their city's context. The safety audit team, and any other stakeholders involved in the decision-making process, should agree on the contents of the report before defining the specific components of the local safety policy. The final report and key messages contained therein should be communicated to the community using the channels foreseen in the communication strategy.

2. Setting priorities and action lines

It is important for the audit team to set policy priorities that are evidence-based (i.e. that are based in the findings of the audit) and convey them as such to the local authorities in charge of developing a crime prevention policy/strategy. While designing a crime prevention policy, it is also important to bear the policy's time frame in mind: while certain actions may provide quick results, long-term investment is also needed to ensure sustainability of the local capacity to monitor and address crime.

It is equally important to evaluate past local strategies and policies to be able to learn from positive results as well as mistakes made, considering both objective facts and also the perception of local actors and citizens in this regard.

The design of the safety policy requires the use of the logical framework methodology, where each problem is linked to a combination of risk factors and vulnerabilities. The solutions proposed must be directed at the reduction or elimination of the identified problems and risk factors. It is recommended to start from crime problems affecting the whole city and then detect its relationship with territories and communities. This order allows the definition of a general objective for the city and specific objectives and action lines corresponding to vulnerable groups and territories.

For example, theft may be a crime that affects security and the perception of citizens and requires a policy covering the city, while a local market could be affected by an extended shoplifting tendency, particularly in the main market of the city. Risk factors could consist of a lack of visibility in the market, problematic drug consumption in surrounding streets and lack of police rounds at specific hours of the day in that market place. Crime prevention actions should then focus on situational prevention measures in the market and in the nearby streets, defined collectively with merchants and the market clients, and on building a positive identity for that place. Health care programmes should concentrate efforts in that area to help drug consumers willing to do so to quit drugs and access treatment, and conduct sensitization campaigns to prevent further drug abuse. Police presence could

also be reinforced in that area during the hours of highest crime incidence and surveillance cameras could be installed in the market.

For each action proposed, it is important to consider the local capacity available, the local actors responsible for its implementation, available budgets, and the guiding principles of human rights and a gender-sensitive approach.

3. Define a policy monitoring and evaluation framework

Once a crime prevention policy has been developed/adjusted and adopted, monitoring and evaluation indicators should be selected to track progress made on each of the identified objectives.

The final report of a safety audit would not only inform policy development and implementation, but it can also serve as the baseline for monitoring of achievements by comparing the results of measures taken during and after implementation. It can serve as a reference point for systematic and continuous monitoring of the success of the policy, and, for example, help to detect changes in crime rates and patterns. For evaluation purposes, the safety audit, and in particular the framework of indicators (section C), would also be the basis for the development of process and impact indicators.

It is recommended to use the same original sources and techniques used for data collection and analysis during the audit, and to budget periodical monitoring. It is also recommended to establish process and output indicators to evaluate the performance of each project and its contribution to the specific and general objectives of the safety plan or policy, as well as outcome indicators for each priority and objective detected to be able to monitor progress in the short, medium and long run.

It is important to monitor crime risk patterns to predict possible rises in crimes and take early or preventive actions of contention. For example, a growing school dropout rate may indicate the need to provide specific training on life and technical skills to prepare the out-of-school youth to obtain jobs, and to prevent their possible engagement in illegal or risky behaviour. Ideally, information should be analysed not solely in the timeframe of the municipal political mandate under which the safety audit is conducted, but also beyond it.

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VI. Annex I: List of indicators for consideration when conducting a safety audit[25]

Indicators on crime and criminal justice		Socio-economic and infrastructure indicators	
1. Crime Incidence		6. Sociodemographic data	
1	Homicide rate per 100,000 population	48	Total population in the municipality
2	Robbery rate per 100,000 population	49	Total population by sex and age in the municipality
3	Vehicle theft rate per 100,000 population	50	Total number of migrants (internal and international)
4	Injuries rate per 100,000 population	51	Percentage of teenage pregnancy
5	Extortion rate per 100,000 population	52	Poverty rate
6	Vehicle robbery rate per 100,000 population	53	Social deprivation rate per 100,000 population
7	Number of police-recorded cases of antisocial behavior offences	54	School dropout rate per 100,000 population
8	Sexual offences rate per 100,000 population	55	Single parent households rate per 100,000 population
9	Femicide rate per 100,000 population	56	Indigenous population rate per 100,000 population
10	Number of police-recorded cases of illicit arms trafficking	57	Fertility rate
11	Rate of crimes committed with the use of firearms	7. Economic data	
12	Rate of business robbery	58	Economic activities
13	Number of police-recorded cases of missing people (forced disappearances proxy)	59	Illegal economy
14	Kidnapping rate per 100,000 population	60	Unemployment rate
15	Victimization rate per 100,000 population	61	Employment rate
16	Crime incidence rate per 100,000 population	62	Percentage of the population with precarious working conditions
17	Domestic violence rate per 100,000 population	63	Percentage of the population in informal employment
		64	Percentage of economically active population

[25] This list of indicators was developed for the Mexican context by the Center of Excellence in Statistical Information on Government, Crime, Victimization and Justice in Mexico. It can serve as a reference for the indicators selection process of other safety audits, bearing in mind that both the indicators and the way they are formulated would have to be adapted to the local context.

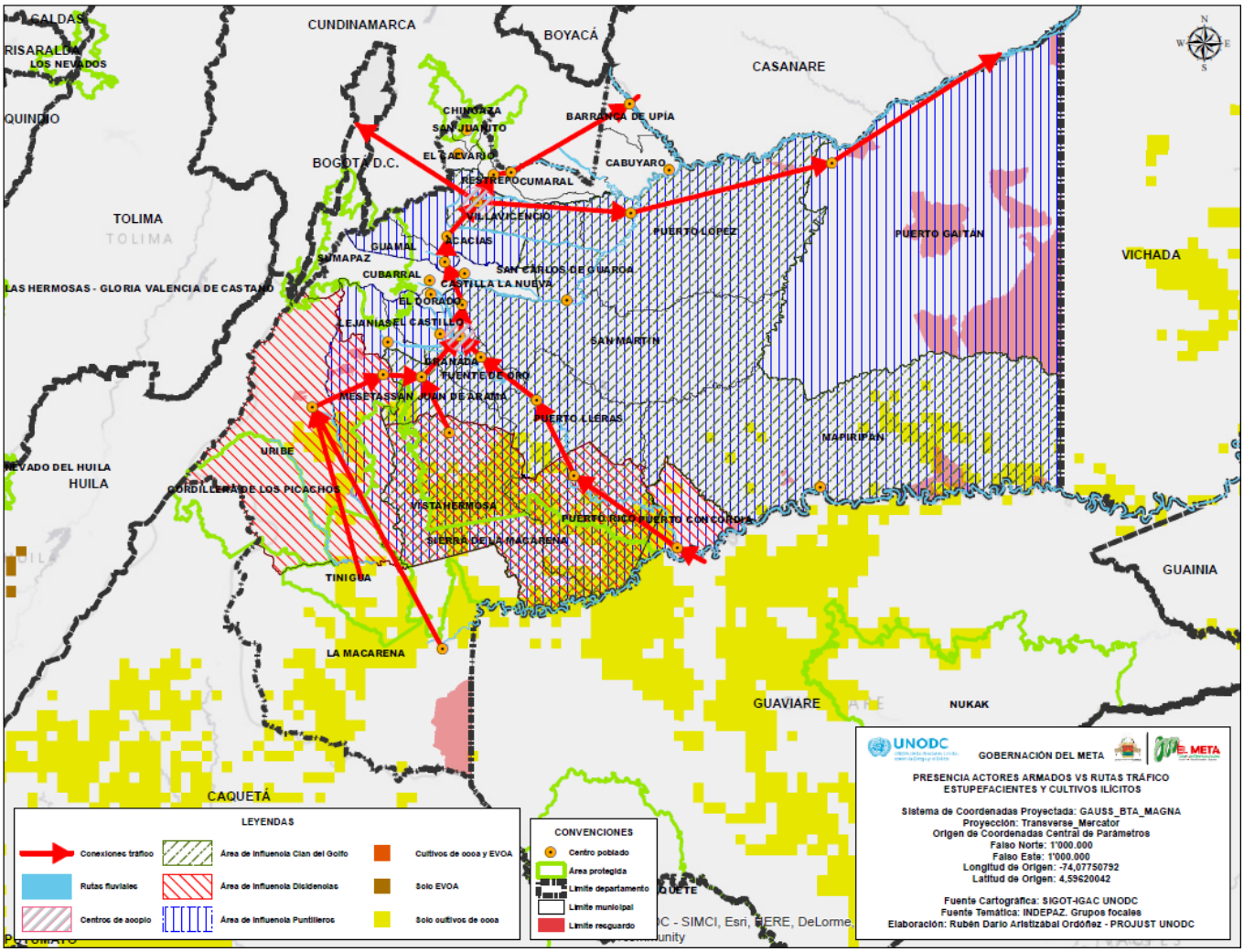
2. Access to Justice		65	Percentage of young population without access to formal work
18	Dark figure of crime	66	Women without access to formal work
19	Reasons for not reporting a crime to the authorities	67	Average income
20	Proportion of state prosecutor's human resources by condition of professionalization	68	Youth unemployment rate
21	Number of state prosecutors' agencies disaggregated by type	69	Gross Income Per Capita
3. Public Security		70	Gross Domestic Product
22	Population's perception of insecurity	71	GINI Index
23	Percentage of the population that have trust in criminal justice authorities	72	Social Progress Index
24	Total number of state police officers	73	Human Development Index
25	Number of state police officers per capita	74	Marginalization Index
26	Number of municipal police officers	75	Average schooling in population
27	Number of municipal police officers per capita	76	Illiterate population
28	Number of calls to emergency call-centers, disaggregated by location and cause	8. Social Cohesion	
29	Number of police operations	77	Number of NGOs focused on public security
30	Rate of the population that had contact with criminal justice authorities and were asked to pay a bribe by those authorities	78	Percentage of the population that reports family conflicts
31	Number of crime prevention programs in public security offices	79	Percentage of school-related conflicts
32	Number of arrests for 'in flagrante' offences, disaggregated by type of offence	80	Percentage of community participation
33	Total amount of resources destined to cover subsidies to improve public security	81	Percentage of the population that has witnessed violence in their community

4. Prosecutors' Offices		82	Social capital (trust and collaboration among neighbours)
34	Number of Prosecutors	83	Percentage of population having experienced neighborhood conflicts
35	Total of Prosecutor's Offices Prevention Programs	84	Number of community centers
36	Total amount of drugs seized by state and municipal police, disaggregated by type of drug	85	Number of citizens that participate in local consultations
37	Number of anonymous reports made at the Prosecutors' Office	86	Number of social development programs
38	Total number of drug cartels operating in the municipality	87	Number of beneficiaries of state and federal social development programs
39	Total number of drug trafficking cells operating in the municipality	88	Percentage of youth participation in recreational activities
40	Total number of drug related arrests in the municipality	10. Public Health	
5. Administration of Justice		89	Beneficiaries of health system rate per 100,000 population
41	Total number of arrest warrants	90	Addiction to legal or illegal drugs - rate per 100,000 population
42	Total number of prison population, disaggregated by State, sex, age and crime	91	Suicide rate per 100,000 population
43	Proportion of prosecuted detainees out of the overall prison population	92	Violence related injuries by causes, rate per 100,000 population
44	Proportion of recidivist detainees out of the overall prison population	93	Cause of mortality rate per 100,000 population
45	Proportion of sentenced prisoners out of the overall prison population	11. Infrastructure	
46	Prison overcrowding rate, disaggregated by State and facilities	94	Coverage of public lighting
47	Rate of young population in conflict with the law per 10,000 population	95	Number of youth integration centers
		96	Total and coverage of basic services (water, sewage system)

	97	Quality of housing
	98	Quality of sanitary standards
	99	Location of main roads
	100	Number of schools
	101	Number and location of liquor stores

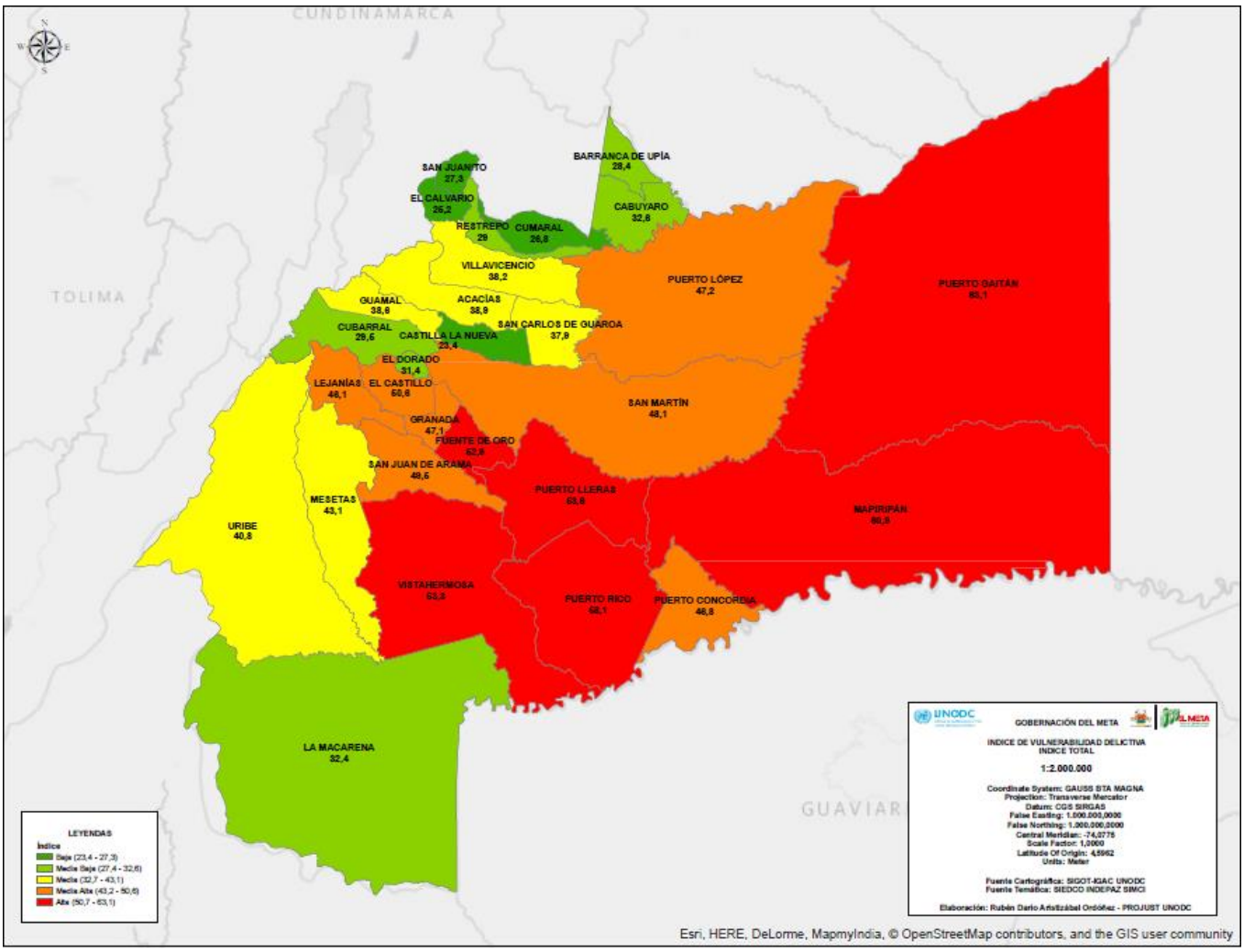
VII. Annex II: Examples of georeferenced maps to analyse crime and risk factors[26]

Map 1. Presence of armed actors and trafficking routes for drugs and illicit crops, Meta Department, Colombia.



[26] These georeferenced maps were produced by the UNODC Colombia Country Office for a safety audit conducted in 29 municipalities of the Meta Department, Colombia.

Map 2. Index of Vulnerability to Crime, Meta Department, Colombia



VIII. Annex III: City Safety Labs

Following the adoption of the 2030 Agenda and its urban dimension guidelines, the New Urban Agenda (UN-Habitat, 2016), the UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme launched the City Safety Lab project, a city collegiate forum that fosters the implementation of New Urban Agenda in cities. According to the Safer Cities Programme, the City Safety Labs are defined as *locally led spaces for experimentation and innovation to prevent and reduce violence and crime and to help build lasting relationships between people and authorities in their urban environments. It represents a new political space for the application of an integrated approach combining better security practices and peace building*[27].

The strategic components for the City Safety Lab are:

- Local leadership;
- Local understanding of problems, actors and agreements;
- Adaptation of good practices to specific contexts;
- Evaluation of new approaches to break the cycles of violence;
- Construction of new relationships between the city, citizens and the State

The New Urban Agenda calls to *integrate inclusive measures for urban safety, and crime and violence prevention (…) in developing urban strategies and initiatives (…) in the development of public security, and crime and violence prevention policies, including by preventing and countering the stigmatization of specific groups as posing inherently greater security threats.*

Building on the project "Evidence-based policies for improved community safety in Latin American and African cities", UN-Habitat proposed to engage local stakeholders in Durban to be part of a broader, long-term strategy by establishing a City Safety Lab in Durban within the existing METRAC platform (Metropolitan Action Committee for Urban Safety).

The City Safety Lab compiles data and best-practices in cities, and develops research lines to provide policy-makers with a strong evidence base for policies and strategies on increasing urban safety and social inclusion. The City Safety Lab creates a permanent space for coordinated research, discussion and exchange by disseminating its outcomes under the Global Network on Safer Cities (GNSC). These initiatives are designed for local governments to better understand the root causes of crime and violence, providing innovative ways to measure the impact of interventions and forecast city malfunctioning, therefore allowing policy-makers and local practitioners to apply anticipative strategies and preventive actions.

The City Safety Labs are pivoted in three dimensions: social, environmental and economic. It is crucial to ensure a multidisciplinary and sectorial representation on the governance of safety by integrating different perspectives and providing a shared diagnosis and common strategy. These strategies take into account the needs of vulnerable population groups. Fulfilling the right to security allows more efficient access to and exercise of the other human rights (e.g. health, education, labour, housing), often impossible to reach for those in more disadvantaged situations. The Lab allows local governments to define priorities and interventions based on a shared diagnosis and agreed vision towards safer and more inclusive city.

[27] City Labs for Safer Cities: Towards an integrated approach to urban safety and peacebuilding (2014). Geneva & Nairobi. UN-Habitat Safer Cities Programme and Geneva Peacebuilding Platform

The City Safety Lab, as a multi-disciplinary platform for universities, research institutes, Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) and local government, has the following goals

Knowledge and learning

Review and refine the integrated eThekwini Safety and Crime Prevention strategy

Design and develop a Safety Curriculum aligned to the strategy and share it through the AFUS members;

Consolidate existing knowledge: provide a platform for research, training, learning and capacity building, facilitating a framework for researchers, urban professionals, practitioners and policy-makers to carry out action-learning seminars, learning exchanges, expert group meetings, etc.

Innovations

Facilitate innovations in governance of safety, reinforcing an integrated approach on urban development, testing and validating applicability of innovative ICT/GIS-based tools towards the Safety Index (inspired by the model applied in in Rotterdam, Netherlands: *The Neighbourhoods Profile and the Safety Index*).

Global Community

Provide a framework for best practices' exchange through global networks, supporting high quality technical expertise and facilitate exchange within cities and partners under the Global Network on Safer Cities umbrella.