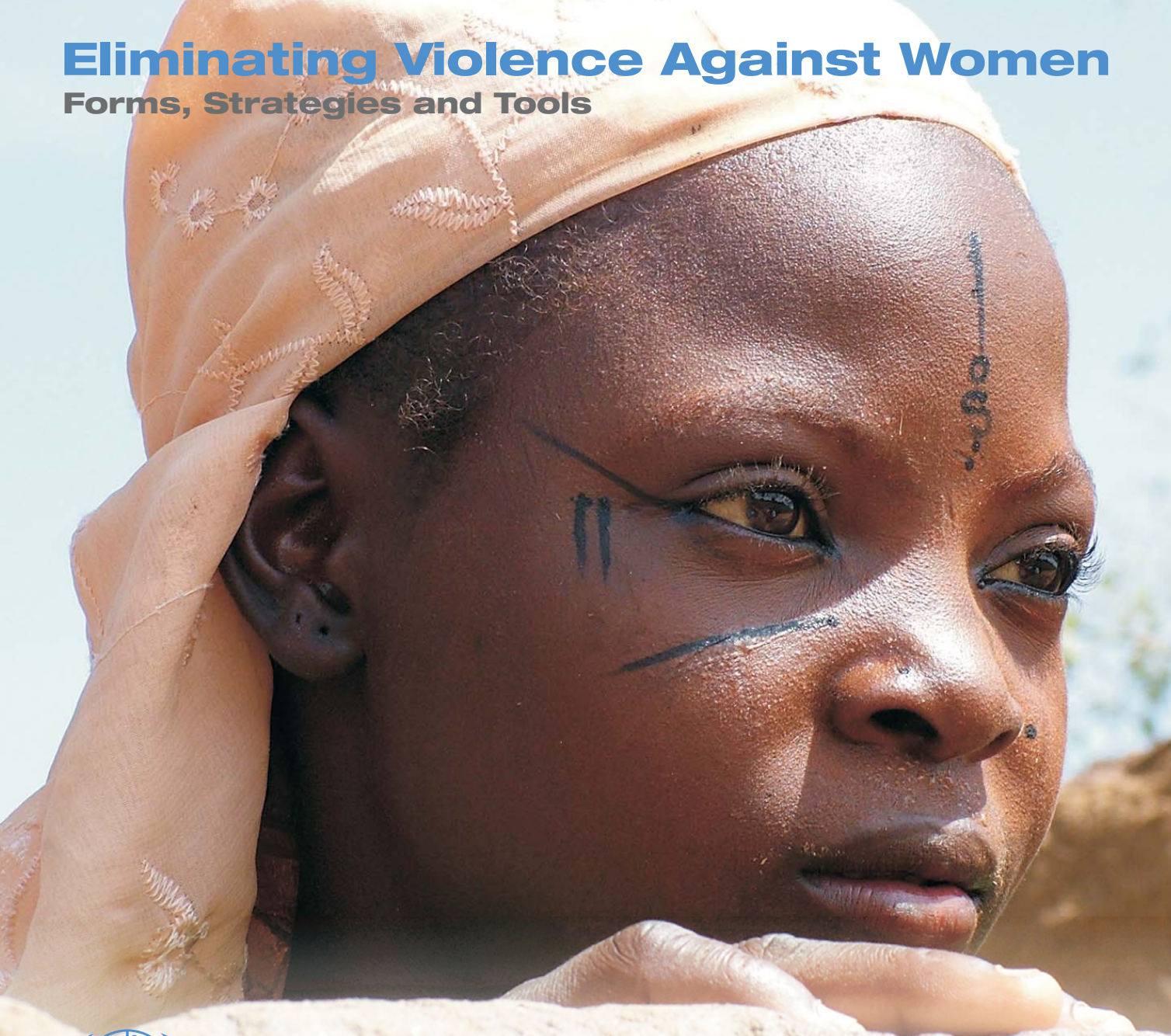
Eliminating Violence Against Women

Forms, Strategies and Tools



unicri

advancing security, serving justice, building peace

UNiTE TO END VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Workshop

Eliminating Violence Against Women: Forms, Strategies and Tools

On the occasion of the Seventeenth Session of the United Nations Commission On Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice

Vienna, 14 April 2008

Edited by: Vittoria Luda di Cortemiglia, UNICRI
Layout design: International Training Centre of the ILO
Cover photo: © Tina Imbriano (sulepaya@libero.it)

The opinions expressed in these reports are the sole responsibility of the authors concerned and do not necessarily reflect the views of UNICRI or the PNI Institutes.

Table of contents

Foreword		5
1	Cross-cultural Research on Violence against Women: Results of the International Violence Against Women Survey – HEUNI	7
2	Women, Girls and Terrorism – ISPAC	15
3	Violence Against Women and Girls During Armed Conflicts in Africa: Nature, Extent and a Way Forward – UNAFRI	29
4	Indicators on the Criminal Justice Response to Violence Against Women – ICCLR	39
5	Promoting Women's Safety: Local Strategies and Promising Practices to Prevent Violence Against Women – ICPC	57
6	Coordinated Community Response in Violence Against Women – NIJ	69
7	Exchange of Judicial Information to Improve Prosecution of Violence Against Women and Girls and Provide Timely Assistance to the Victims – UNICRI	79
8	The Institutes Comprising the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme Network (PNI)	91

Foreword

"Violence against women and girls continues unabated in every continent, country and culture. It takes a devastating toll on women's lives, on their families, and on society as a whole. Most societies prohibit such violence — yet the reality is that too often, it is covered up or tacitly condoned."

UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon, 8 March 2007

Violence against women and girls continues to be a global epidemic that wounds, tortures, and slays – physically, psychologically, sexually and economically. It is one of the most pervasive of human rights violations, denying women and girls' equality, security, dignity, self-esteem, and their right to enjoy fundamental freedoms. Violence against women is present in every country, cutting across boundaries of culture, class, education, income, ethnicity and age. Women are subjected to violence in a wide range of situations, including family, community, state custody, and armed conflict and its aftermath. Violence constitutes a continuum across the lifespan of women, from before birth to old age. It cuts across both the public and the private spheres.

The global dimensions of this violence are alarming. According to UN estimates, at least one out of every three women in the world is likely to be beaten, coerced into sex or otherwise abused in her lifetime, and one in five women will become a victim of rape or attempted rape[1]. No society can claim to be free of such violence. What differ are the patterns and trends existing in countries and regions. Specific groups of women are more vulnerable, including minority groups, migrant women, refugee women and those in situations of armed conflict, women in institutions and detention, female children, and victims of trafficking.

1 For more information, see *Fact Sheet - How Widespread is Violence Against Women?*, available at: http://endviolence.un.org/factsheet.shtml

This year, the United Nations Secretary-General is lending his leadership, through a multi-year system-wide campaign[2], to increase the visibility and unacceptability of violence against women as a violation of human rights and a major impediment to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

In its resolution 2006/29 of 27 July 2006, the Economic and Social Council expressed concern at the high levels of violence against women and girls in many societies and drew attention to the need for ensuring effective and coordinated responses by the criminal justice system. The ECOSOC invited the Institutes comprising the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme Network (PNI) "to consider providing assistance, upon request, to Member States in the area of crime prevention and criminal justice responses to violence against women and girls, in cooperation with other relevant entities of the United Nations system, and to integrate the elimination of violence against women and girls into their training and technical assistance efforts, including their crime prevention activities".

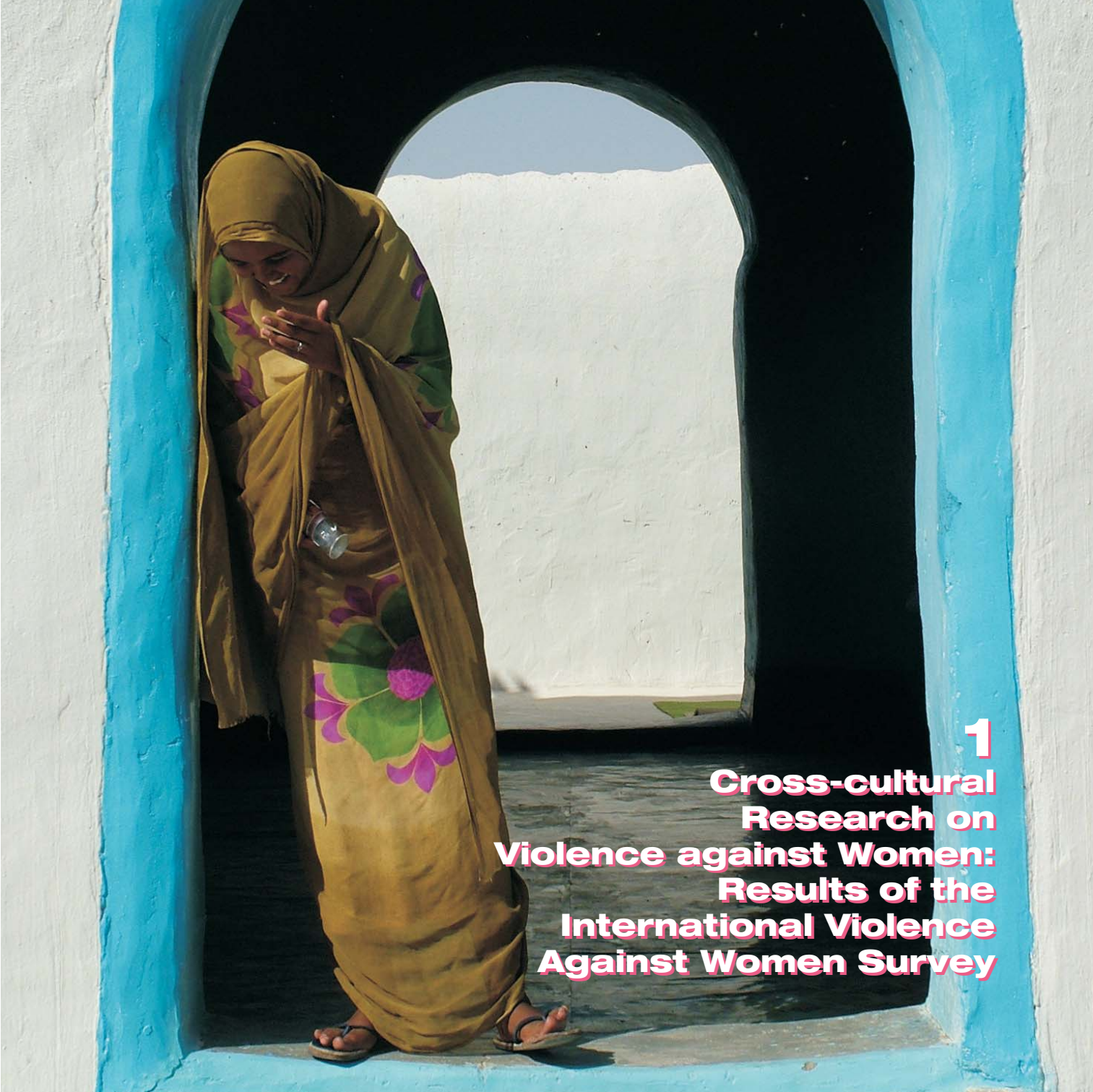
In this framework and on the occasion of the Seventeenth Session of the United Nations Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, the PNI has organized the workshop entitled "Eliminating Violence Against Women in the Field of Criminal Justice: Forms, Strategies and Tools". The present publication includes the background papers of the workshop, collected and published by UNICRI in its role of PNI Coordinating Institute.

I trust this publication can provide a hint for mindful thought on possible strategies and tools to be adopted at the national, regional and international levels in the effort of eliminating the scourge of violence against women and girls in whatever form should it take place. UNICRI and the other Institutes comprising the PNI are ready to join forces to assist U.N. Members States in their fight against this hideous and unacceptable crime.

Sandro Calvani
UNICRI Director

Photo: © Tina Imbriano

[2] Additional information can be found on the *Unite to End Violence against Women Campaign* official website, at http://endviolence.un.org/index.shtml



1
Cross-cultural Research on Violence against Women: Results of the International Violence Against Women Survey

By Holly Johnson, University of Ottawa, Natalia Ollus, European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control (HEUNI), Sami Nevala, European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control (HEUNI).

Violence against women has been described by the Secretary-General of the United Nations as the most shameful human rights violation and perhaps the most pervasive. As awareness of the harms associated with male violence against women continues to rise, so too does the demand for reliable statistical data describing the prevalence and nature of these acts. Governments and non-governmental organizations around the world recognize that sound policy decisions depend on a better understanding of the dimensions of this problem, the impacts, and victims' needs for social, health and justice services.

Population-based surveys are the preferred method for assessing the extent and nature of violence against women because they do not rely on victims' willingness to report to the police or other services. To date, approximately 70 countries have carried out population-based surveys confirming that violence affects vast numbers of women around the world. While population surveys have made important impacts in many countries, comparisons cannot be made reliably between countries because of the differences in methodologies, study populations (married women or all women), question wording, definitions of violence, and reference periods (one-year or lifetime).

Internationally-comparative studies are important for a number of reasons:

- test for universal or cross-cultural traits or factors associated with violence against women
- lead to social change on a broader scale
- help donors better understand the dimensions and context of violence against women which can lead to better targeting of aid
- survey data may be the only source of information about violence against women at the country level
- technical exchange at the local level
- plan interventions and services and public education
- develop training for police and other officials.

The International Violence Against Women Survey

The International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS) was developed in response to the need for improved data collection instruments that would provide reliable statistical data on the prevalence of various forms of male violence against women and their interaction with the criminal justice system. It has so far involved eleven countries and comparative analysis has been conducted with nine of those countries. Participating countries, respective sample sizes, and method of interviewing are as follows:

Country	Sample size	Method of interviewing
Australia	6,677	Telephone
Costa Rica	908	Face-to-face
Czech Republic	1,980	Face-to-face
Denmark	3,589	Telephone
Greece	Interviewing continuing	Face-to-face
Hong Kong	1,297	Telephone
Italy	25,000	Telephone
Mozambique	2,015	Face-to-face
Philippines	2,602	Face-to-face
Poland	2,009	Face-to-face
Switzerland	1,973	Telephone

Greece and Italy are not included in the international comparative analysis because these surveys were underway at the time of writing.

National coordinators from each country were trained in all aspects of undertaking the survey and each was provided with a comprehensive survey methodology package. In Australia, Denmark, Hong Kong, Italy and Switzerland, interviews were conducted over the telephone; the remaining countries interviewed respondents face-to-face.

Decisions about interviewing methods were based on practical considerations such as cost, telephone coverage and logistics, and were left to the discretion of coordinators in each country.

Two important objectives of the IVAWS were:

(1) To promote and implement research on violence against women in countries around the world, in particular developing countries and countries in transition, as an important research and policy tool.

(2) The survey may be considered a tool for developing and strengthening democracy by increasing public participation in the process of formulating criminal justice policies.

This presentation will focus on the prevalence of violence against women in these nine countries, correlates of violence, impacts, reporting to police, implications of the results for policy development, and challenges of conducting multi-country survey research.

Prevalence of violence

Violence is a universal experience which occurs in every country and among all ages and economic groups, although it varies in the number of women affected in each country:

- In the majority of countries studied, between 35% and 60% of women experienced physical or sexual violence by any man since age 16
- In most countries, between 22% and 40% of women have been physically or sexually assaulted by an intimate partner
- Between 10% and 31% of women have been sexually assaulted by a man other than an intimate partner.

Correlates of violent victimization

Violence against women is a complex social problem that cannot be linked to a single causal factor. The IVAWS identified certain factors that are correlated with women's victimization. For example, women who were abused or witnessed violence in

childhood are at heightened risk for further victimization in adulthood. Other important correlates concern the characteristics of male partners, including:

- using emotionally abusive or controlling behaviours against their female partners
- heavy drinking
- using violence toward others outside the home
- witnessing parental violence in childhood
- physical assaults by fathers in childhood.

Knowledge of correlates and risk factors form an essential starting point for prevention strategies and interventions aimed at reducing violent victimization. These findings suggest that actions to reduce violence against women must address a range of issues, including societal norms governing concepts of masculinity that affect the use of emotional abuse and control over female partners and male violence inside and outside the home. Interventions at an early age to prevent child abuse may have the effect of reducing violence against women over the life course. Reducing intimate partner violence should have inter-generational benefits by reducing the number of children who are witnesses to violence and who learn that violence is an acceptable way to solve problems in intimate relationships. Reducing public violence by men may have spillover benefits by also reducing violence against their female partners, and vice versa.

Reporting violence to the police

Very small percentages of women report intimate partner violence or sexual violence to the police and fewer cases result in an offender being charged with a crime or convicted in court. This process of attrition, whereby cases are screened out at various stages of the process, occurs in every country studied. Only in one country did more than 20% of women report a violent partner to the police. Even in cases of very serious assaults involving injury or threats to the woman's life, a majority of victims did not report to the police.

Principle reasons for not reporting intimate partner violence to the police were:

- a belief that the police wouldn't be able to do anything about it
- feelings of shame, not wanting others to know about it

- she dealt with it herself
- fear of the offender
- a belief that the incident wasn't serious enough to involve the police.

Limitations and challenges of cross-national survey research

Interviewing women about their experiences of violence is fraught with ethical issues and challenges. At all times, researchers must take account of the following:

- safety of respondents
- responding to emotional distress on the part of respondents and interviewers
- ensuring confidentiality
- specialized training and support for interviewers
- gaining trust, thereby minimizing under-reporting
- using valid definitions of violence
- accurate interpretation of results.

Cross-national research poses many additional challenges for researchers. For example, cross-national research is influenced by differences in local culture that can affect societal attitudes toward women and violence, norms protecting family privacy, and ideals and practices of masculinity. This, in turn, can affect the willingness of women to speak candidly about their experiences of violence. Individual respondents also may vary in the way they interpret questions about violence, depending on past experience.

The political context must be taken into account in interpreting the results of these surveys. This includes the presence of war and conflict, displacement of populations, the availability of weapons, and a culture of violence for solving social problems. The need to translate survey materials into a variety of languages may affect the results if certain concepts don't translate well or are misinterpreted due to inaccuracies with translation or differences in dialect. Other methodological issues, such as differences in modes of interviewing and different response rates may also affect the reliability of the estimates produced.

In resource-poor settings, researchers are faced with the added challenges of a lack of expertise for managing the survey and analyzing results, lack of funding, and lack of technology for data capture and analysis. In all countries, there are challenges relating to government resistance to using the results of these surveys for positive change.

Implications for policy development

Male violence affects large numbers of women in countries around the world. But because rates of violence vary significantly, it stands to reason that violence is affected by social and cultural factors and therefore can be reduced by social policies. This research also shows that, while the forms and frequency of violence may differ, aggression by men against women is a universal phenomenon that has many commonalities across cultures.

A number of recommendations stem from analysis of the International Violence Against Women Survey. One of the most critical observations is that, due to the multi-faceted nature of sexual and intimate partner violence, gender-based violence cannot be solved by the health sector or the justice sector or community groups working alone. Because of the widespread basis of the problem and the integral role it plays in the maintenance of unequal gender relations, all sectors of society have a role to play in its elimination. Recommendations for ending violence against women are categorized here under five general headings:

(1) promote gender equality

(2) improve service delivery

(3) hold offenders accountable

(4) prevention

(5) monitor and evaluate.

A strong criminal justice system plays an important role in a broad societal-level strategy to reduce violence, provide protection to victims and hold offenders accountable. The IVAWS provides important information about the need to strengthen criminal justice and other societal responses in order to better respond to female victims of male violence.

Photo: © Tina Imbriano

2
Women, Girls and Terrorism

By Maria de la Luz Lima, Member of the ISPAC Council and the Executive Committee of the World Society of Victimology WSV - Mexico.

1. Terrorism

The combination of terrorism and violence against women and girls has a variety of implications that are forcing us to reassess some of the basic notions that have informed our work, such as for example the definition of terrorism. This is an issue of fundamental importance in that it will shape our future strategy, priorities and policies.

Terrorism is a form of non-conventional, asymmetric warfare, employed when war itself cannot be used to resolve a fundamental conflict. Implicit in it is the threat of very high risk situations occurring, involving women and girls in particular, because those responsible are acting without regard or respect for the law - be it international law, humanitarian law or human rights legislation. The very opposite in fact – they are aiming to achieve maximum possible impact through the indiscriminate killing and wounding of civilians.

Acts of terrorism are premeditated acts that use violent action or the threat of violent action to influence governments or international organisations or intimidate the population as a whole or a section of it, for a variety of motives - political, racial, ethnic, and religious, etc. The motive determines the modus operandi and the target.

Terrorists make use of the terror that is inspired in the community, the terror of women and children in particular, as a tool, for propaganda purposes, using manipulation of the media as tactical weapon. It is the key to their identity as terrorists.

2. "Cloned terrorism" and organised crime

A major current cause of concern is the close linkage between international terrorism, transnational organised crime, illegal drug trafficking, money laundering, people trafficking and the illegal transfer of nuclear, chemical, biological and other lethal materials. Small groups - "cells" - can be hired to carry out acts of terrorism on a paid-for basis, practising terrorism as a form of business activity.

These "cloned" terrorists take advantage of the environment offered by social unrest, guerrilla warfare, organised crime, war and military conflict to come together in complex groupings in which identities and roles are swapped, sometimes as a survival technique or for purposes of tactical diversification, as a means of expressing blood-lust, to

generate publicity, to promote alleged religious beliefs, and in order to get involved in other unlawful activities[3]. This combination is a source of very considerable risk for women and girls who become marketable commodities in these situations of social conflict.

3. Image enhancement

Terrorists also establish links with and initiate their own legitimate programmes and activities as a covert strategy aimed at improving their image within the wider society, and in this context they often make use of women and girls. This is the method used by Hizballah who have created a social development and community reconstruction organisation specifically targeted at marginalised sections of the population in Lebanon (Brain, Cragin, Parachini,Trijullo & Chalk 2005)[4].

4. Gender and terrorism

Gender analysis is a very useful tool in the analysis of terrorism. The link between gender and terrorism has been discussed by a number of authors and is now an important area of empirical research. Gender has been a motivating factor inspiring resistance movements and security threats expressed in religious, secular, ethnic, nationalist, local, regional, national and international action (Kimmel & Sturoy 2007)[5]. Various academic commentators (Hoogensen 2006)[6] have suggested that the role of gender in promoting human security theory should be an integral part of security studies, bringing an epistemological perspective to the discipline.

Goldstein, who has analysed the relationship between gender and war in depth, offers some theoretical insights of use to the study of terrorism. For example, he examines the symbolic significance of rape in a context of war as a demonstration of military

3 Lima, M. 2006, *'Víctimas del Delito y el abuso del Poder del Terrorismo', Eguzkilore,* Cuadernos del Instituto Vasco de Criminología, no. 20 San Sebastián, España, pp. 41-74.

4 Jackson, B., Backer, J., Cragin, K., Parachini, J., Trijullo, H., & Chalk, P. 2005, *Aptitude for Destruction,* Case Studies of Organizational Learning in Five Terrorist Groups. Vol. 2, RAND Infrastructure, Safety and Environment, USA. Available at: http://www.rand.org/pubs/monographs/2005/RAND_MG332.pdf

5 Kimmel, M. & Sturoy, K. 2007, *The Gendered Society Reader*, Oxford University Press, USA.

6 Hoogensen, Gunhild, 2006, *'Gender, Resistance and Human Security Security'* Dialogue, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 207-228, Sage Journals. Available at: http://online.sagepub.com/

homophobia intended to emphasise the exclusion of sexual minorities (Goldstein 2001)[7]. He also argues that terrorism, like wars in the past, fuels gender aspirations, reinforcing stereotypes but at the same time opening up new opportunities for women. So is the participation of women and girls in terrorism evidence of empowerment or of serious oppression?

5. Gender-based violence

The concept of violence against women is defined in precise terms in the United Nations Declaration of Violence against Women, adopted by nearly every member state. However it requires further elaboration, as has been done for example by the states of Africa in relation to armed conflict and terrorism. (The African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa, a supplementary protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights)[8]. For the purposes of the Protocol it is defined in Article 1 of the Charter as follows:

"Violence against women" means all acts perpetrated against women which cause or could cause them physical, sexual, psychological, and **economic** harm, including the threat to take such acts; or to undertake the imposition of arbitrary restrictions on or deprivation of fundamental freedoms in private or public life in peace time and **during situations of armed conflicts or of war**.

Many questions have been raised by recent studies:

Is sexual violence another weapon in the terrorist's armoury? Is gender-based violence a new weapon of terrorism? Is terrorist victimisation a way in which violence perpetuates itself?

7 Goldstein, J. 2001, *War and Gender: How Gender Shapes the War System and Vice* Versa, Cambridge University Press. Available at: http://www.warandgender.com/wgch1.htm

8 *Protocol to the African charter on human and peoples' rights on the rights of women in Africa* 2003,The African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, Adopted by the 2nd Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the Union. Available at: http://www.achpr.org/english/_info/women_en.html

6. Gender-based terrorism and the perpetrators

Gender-based terrorism is the systematic and repeated victimisation of women and girls that affects all of their rights (to life, liberty, health, education, play, freedom of expression and freedom of movement, etc.) and creates a situation of permanent anxiety concerning their personal security in a context of terrorist activity (in which they suffer kidnapping, rape, mutilation, exploitation, use as human shields, forced involvement in small arms trafficking, slavery, sexual exploitation by the group), aimed at demoralising the enemy.

Terrorists and perpetrators of violence are not just "the enemy"; they are also public servants, educators, close relatives, members of the community and staff of reputable organisations. The victims are shocked when these individuals take advantage of confusion and helplessness to carry out violent acts. So this is gender-based terrorism that gives rise to cycles of revenge and further victimisation, impacting on thousands of women and girls who are forced to endure a conspiracy of silence and tolerance.

7. Indicators of violence

We are aware of the great effort that has been made to create indicators that measure violence against women, especially the work undertaken by the group of experts[9]. It is therefore considered to be important to create methods of measuring violence against women in terms of terrorism, gauging both the qualitative and quantitative criteria in order to include indicators of violence against women which have already been undertaken.

9 Expert Group 2007, *Indicators to measure violence against women*, Report of the Expert Group, United Nations Statistical Commission and Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations for Advancement of Women, United Nations Statistics division, in collaboration with ECA/ECLA/ESCAP/ESCWA, Expert group meeting, 8 to 10 October Geneva, Switzerland.

8. The agenda for women and girls who are victims of terrorism

The concept, victim of crime has been proposed by the Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and also the Abuse of Power by the United Nations and was agreed in 1985 in Milan.

This should be invoked according to national legislation and regional authorities accordingly. Even though the abovementioned concept is quite complete the following needs to be included (with a bias towards gender) exact standards and norms, technical criteria, methods, procedures with which to undertake and unify the parameters concerning solutions when dealing with women and girls who are victims of terrorism.

Since the terrorist acts of 11 September, many countries have created or strengthened their national strategies (Australia, UK, USA, Canada) others reformed their legislation with regard to compensation, thus bringing about specialised services to ensure that the rights of victims of terrorism were taken into consideration (France, United States, Spain). Other countries created networks of services, research institutes, training programmes etc. (EU) in order to have access to the information and database[10].

The United Nations on 8 September 2006 adopted "The Global Strategy for the fight against terrorism and the Plan for Action" that is the only plan which links up the national, regional and international fight, being the first time that all the member states agreed on a common and workable strategy for the fight against terrorism. Mentioned therein is a new line of thinking, which is directed "to reinforce the optional way in which the support and care for victims of terrorism and their families are undertaken[11].

We therefore consider it to be of the utmost importance to increase gender mainstreaming in the contra terrorist global agenda, to bring attention to gender perspectives and goals in the integral part of all activities across all programmes. This Strategy has to be carried out in a manner, which is empowering for women and girls.

Resolution 1325 approved by the United Nations Security Council for women, peace and security has been a great step forward. This order increased the representation of

[10] Lima, M. *2006, 'Víctimas del Delito y el abuso del Poder del Terrorismo' Eguzkilore,* Cuadernos del Instituto Vasco de Criminología, no. 20 San Sebastián, España, pp.41-74.

[11] United Nations General Assembly 2006, *Resolution: The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, Annex Plan of Action* A/RES/60/288. Available at: http://www.un.org/terrorism/strategy/

women at all levels of decision making concerning prevention, management and resolution of conflicts, to attend to the special needs with regard to protection for women in these areas, including refugees, to increase the support to women in the peace movement, that there be no impunity for war crimes committed against women, including gender based violence. To adopt a perspective on gender where United Nations peace keeping is being undertaken and in the post-conflict processes to adopt a gender perspective in United Nations and Security Council Mission reports[12].

9. Responses for women and girls who are victims of terrorism

Plans should be drawn up to create solutions for women and girls who are victims of terrorism by the public policy decision makers i.e. diplomats and consular personnel, legislators, judges, defenders of human rights etc. and also civilians such as scientists or academics[13].

One of these is the main office where information concerning the victims is processed. Here data including the diverse range of victims and their requirements is collected. The cases are prioritised and classified into emergencies, and less pressing cases. With this information assistance modules are being planned.

There are those who consider the perpetrators of terrorism thus: legal status (under suspicion, case being processed, sentenced, jailed) and the victims by their state of health (physical or mental) nationality (residents or foreigners) their origin (from a friendly country or a hostile one) immigrant status (legal or illegal) according to their criminal status (having criminal tendencies or having actually committed a crime) the target chosen i.e. diplomats, journalists, governors, political opponents or civilians. As a result of criminal activity (direct or indirect), vulnerability (minors, the elderly, disabled, refugees) for the level of risk (soldiers at the front, civilian personnel in free zones within areas of conflict) or according to what the criminals want (victims of national or international terrorism) etc.

12 Security Council 2000, *Resolution 1325, S/RES/1325(2000).*

13 Rodríguez, L. 2007, *Victimología,* 10th edn, Editorial Porrúa (eds.) México.

Direct help (women and girls who have become the terrorists' target) to those who have died, been wounded, kidnapped, raped, exploited, and those who have been sold and trafficked as sexual slaves[14].

- The friends and families of the female and young girls' victims.
- A civilian population made up of women and girls that have been affected by the terror within the area where they live (displaced, refugees, abandoned, lost).
- Women and girls and their families and dependents who are victims of abuse of power in the fight against terrorism (those who have been detained tortured or have lost touch with their families).
- Front line professionals (and their families – spouses, children of army or police staff) working on antiterrorist operative units.
- Women and girls victimised by the State as a result of antiterrorist initiatives.
- Women and girls who are victims of acts of violence carried out by their own countrymen as a result of policies undertaken by the government (victims of paramilitary organisations).
- Girls who are suicide bombers – we do not include women suicide bombers as victims as they had the legal capacity to take responsibility.

For each kind of victim we need to draw up a flowchart, intervention strategies and protocols.

10. The human rights of women and girls in terrorism

The Secretary General of the United Nations affirmed that human rights are the fine scarlet threads that run through all our work. They are the link for all the components. As a consequence any strategy that puts human rights in danger is beneficial to the terrorists.

The member states must ensure that the counterterrorism measures they adopt take into account international law and in particular human rights, refugees' rights and humanitarian international law. At present these principles are insufficient where

[14] For some people the victims themselves are instrumental because they are the drum that is beaten in order to cause a greater impact and reach a larger audience.

terrorism is concerned. There are some remarkable efforts like the Guidelines emitted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on the human rights and the fight against the terrorism, in where criteria are approached carefully to avoid the violation of human rights of victims and offenders[15].

In the report covering the period October 2006 to August 2007, Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon[16], demanded that those who commit crimes against children be tried by the International Penal System[17] and stated that a total of 13 countries in the world, amongst them, Colombia, practised the recruitment and employment of children in armed conflict where they are sometimes subjected to various forms of violence.

The countries sited by Ban were: Colombia, Burma, Chad, Afghanistan, Burundi, Sudan, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, the Philippines, Nepal, Somalia, Sri Lanka and Uganda.

We therefore think it expedient to add or draw up new laws which deal exclusively with terrorism.

The Geneva Conventions and its protocols were drawn up with regard to war and internal armed conflict not terrorism. Nowadays terrorists are not fighters of peacekeeping forces, nor part of belligerent groups. Neither do they recognise the abovementioned principles.

It has been estimated that over 2 million children have been killed in armed conflicts; another 6 million have been rendered permanently disabled; and, more than 250,000 children continue to be exploited as child soldiers[18].

---

15 Human Rights and the fight Against Terrorism, Council of Europe Guidelines 2002. Directorate General of Human Rights. Available at: http://www.coe.int/t/E/Human_Rights/Guidelines%20compendium%20ENG.pdf

16 Ki-Moon, Ban *2007 Report of the Secretary-General on the protection of civilians in armed conflict.* UNDOC United Nation s/2007/643. Available at: http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N07/573/58/PDF/N0757358.pdf?OpenElement

17 See the competence of the Court: *Statute of Rome,* 2002, International Criminal Court Article 5. Crimes under the competence of Court 1. The competence of the Court is limited to the most severe crimes for the overall international community. The Court has competency according to the present Statute for the following crimes: a) Genocide; b) Crimes against humanity of c) War Crimes; d) Aggression.

18 Information available at:http://www.un.org/children/conflict/english/conflicts.html

11. The female terrorist – "a real woman cannot be a terrorist"

Women participants in armed groups, revolutionary forces or wars are not a new phenomenon. Some women have played prominent roles in various terrorist groups. Such is the case of the Irish Republican Army, Red Brigades, and Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine, where their role has mainly been one of support[19] (Bloom Mia, 2007).

Recent research has proven that female terrorists are women who have received an education and that there is a larger female percentage taking part in terrorism nowadays. Other data shows that younger women are taking part in these activities, many of them come from difficult backgrounds or have been rejected socially (Dirty girls); others are displaced persons and as a consequence find it difficult to integrate socially into the community; others embrace radical ideology. Women and girls tend to join these terrorist groups because they form part of family networks involved with these factions or thanks to the proselytism carefully undertaken by them. Many of them act by logical imitation or extra logic, joining the cells or networks of radical members training in camps or virtually.

In these groups the mothers act as collaborators, informers, sexual bait, recruiters and both sexual and domestic slaves. They also provide logistic support, obtain food and water, make clothes for the troops, do the washing and send messages.

Terrorist organisations with newly defined networks enable more members to link up with them. Within these, the women take part in operations, transport of merchandise, sometimes they are the communication tool within the cell. They also participate in the recruitment and training of young women that prepare the young girls who have been chosen to be suicide bombers. There is a programme in place to ensure that when the young girl is missing her mother and is going through a difficult time, she is always accompanied by one of these female terrorists.

Some women are found at the core of military operations but it is unusual to find them forming part of the central mandate or to be in charge.

Some are even chosen for martyrdom (suicide bombers) as an innovative tactical tool against the enemy, because they do not suspect them and they can easily fool the

[19] Bloom, M. 2007, *Females suicide bombers: a global trend*, Daedalus Winter, Paper presented for "*Female Suicide Bombing and Europe*" workshop IISS & Fletcher School's Jebsen Centre for Counter-Terrorism Studies, 12 Mar 06.

enemy, being a cheap weapon for the terrorist campaign. With them they get better media coverage and provoke a greater reaction from society in general who view the participation with surprise and indignation and cannot believe that women have stopped being symbols of peace and harmony.

'On 12 March 2007, the IISS held a joint workshop in collaboration with the Fletcher School's Jebsen Center for Counter-Terrorism Studies, on "Female Suicide Bombing and Europe". The event drew some of the most influential scholars of suicide terrorism in the world today, to discuss the growth of the phenomenon and possible European responses, with a particular focus on gender issues. The workshop forms one part of the IISS's broader commitment to improve the understanding of terrorism in general and its most recent manifestation, suicide bombing, in particular'[20].

12. Motives to become a terrorist

It is known that the motives determine the modus operandi in terrorism. There is still insufficient research and little data to explain why women and girls become involved in terrorism.

The most important motives are: religion, they have been indoctrinated since childhood in widespread violence and martyrdom. Some web pages are dedicated to this (Palestine) where cartoons are used to show martyrdom and how paradise can be reached (Shahida). The girl grows up with the hope of being chosen to be a martyr accepting violence to justify this end.

Other women enlist in order to have revenge on the death of someone close to them. Others join when they become engaged or marry a terrorist, now that terrorism is something that unites them[21]. Others want revenge because a group has wiped out their family and they have endured constant violation to their human rights and have been victimised and humiliated (e.g. the experiences of some Northern Irish families).

---

20 For more information: *Female Suicide Bombing and Europe,* workshop IISS & Fletcher School's Jebsen Centre for Counter-Terrorism Studies, 12 Mar 06, London. Available at: http://www.iiss.org/conferences/counter-terrorism-series/female-suicide-bombing-and-europe

21 Consult Muriel Muriel Degaque's case, a Belgian woman, who was the first European woman to carry out a suicide attack in Iraq. She is alleged to have converted to the Muslim faith after marrying her Algerian husband. Available at: http://counterterrorismblog.org/2005/12/zarqawis_european_network.php

Few women use terrorism as a form of women's liberation because at the heart these movements do not practise democracy and they find it difficult to be accepted. Some women after living such oppressed lives decide to provide a service to the community which is financed by groups who use this method to recruit others (Hizballah Social Development Programme).

Some terrorists with personal problems see the movement as an escape route, for example those girls that have suffered sexual abuse and have been expelled from the community and stigmatised; cases where the parents have offered their daughter as a suicide bomber as the only way to regain the family honour. Some women take part in direct military actions, killing and causing serious damages, even like suicide bombers[22].

A strategy should be developed involving as many actors as possible to prevent all violence against women and girls during and after acts of terrorism.

References

— (2006). *Female Suicide Bombing and Europe,* workshop IISS & Fletcher School's Jebsen Centre for Counter-Terrorism Studies, 12 Mar 06, London. Available at: http://www.iiss.org/conferences/counter-terrorism-series/female-suicide-bombing-and-europe

Bloom, M. (2007). *Females suicide bombers: a global trend*, Daedalus Winter, Paper presented for "*Female Suicide Bombing and Europe*" workshop IISS & Fletcher School's Jebsen Centre for Counter-Terrorism Studies, 12 Mar 06.

Council of Europe (2002). *Human Rights and the Fight Against Terrorism*, Council of Europe Guidelines 2002, Directorate General of Human Rights. Available at: http://www.coe.int/t/E/Human_Rights/Guidelines%20compendium%20ENG.pdf

Expert Group (2007). *Indicators to measure violence against women*, Report of the Expert Group, United Nations Statistical Commission and Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations for Advancement of Women, United Nations Statistics

[22] Zadalis, D., 2004, *Female Suicide Bomber,* Strategic Studies Institute Home. Available at: http://www.strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/

division, in collaboration with ECA/ECLA/ESCAP/ESCWA, Expert group meeting, 8 to 10 October Geneva, Switzerland.

Goldstein, J. (2001). *War and Gender: How Gender Shapes the War System and Vice* Versa, Cambridge University Press. Available at: http://www.warandgender.com/wgch1.htm

Hoogensen, Gunhild, (2006). '*Gender, Resistance and Human Security Security'* Dialogue, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 207-228, Sage Journals. Available at: http://online.sagepub.com

Jackson, B., Backer, J. Cragin, K., Parachini, J., Trijullo, H., & Chalk, P. (2005). *Aptitude for Destruction,* Case Studies of Organizational Learning in Five Terrorist Groups. Vol. 2, RAND Infrastructure, Safety and Environment, USA. Available at: http://www.rand.org/pubs/monographs/2005/RAND_MG332.pdf

Ki-Moon, Ban (2007). *2007 Report of the Secretary-General on the protection of civilians in armed conflict,* UNDOC United Nations/2007/643.] Available at: http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N07/573/58/PDF/N0757358.pdf?OpenElement

Kimmel, M. & Sturoy, K. (2007). *The Gendered Society Reader*, Oxford University Press, USA.

Lima, M. (2006). '*Víctimas del Delito y el abuso del Poder del Terrorismo' Eguzkilore,* Cuadernos del Instituto Vasco de Criminología, no. 20 San Sebastián, España, pp.41-74.

Rodríguez, L. (2007). *Victimología,* 10th edn*,* Editorial Porrúa (eds.) México.

United Nations General Assembly 2006, *Resolution: The United Nations Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy, Annex Plan of Action* A/RES/60/288. Available at: http://www.un.org/terrorism/strategy/

Zadalis, D., (2004). *Female Suicide Bomber,* Strategic Studies Institute Home. Available at: http://www.strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/

Photo: © Tina Imbriano

3 Violence Against Women and Girls During Armed Conflicts in Africa: Nature, Extent and a Way Forward

By Dr. N. Masamba Sita, Director of United Nations Africen Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of the Offenders (UNAFRI). This paper is an abbreviated version. The original version can be accessed through UNAFRI's Web Site.

Introduction

UNAFRI has carried out two studies on trafficking in persons in Nigeria and Uganda (UNAFRI, 2007a, b). Human trafficking is one of the forms of violation of rights of women and girls. The practice is prevalent and perpetuated during armed conflicts (Amnesty International, 2005:4-5). As one of the institutes comprising the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programmes Network, Article 13, Section VIII: Research and Evaluation, of the Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, tasks UNAFRI to develop a crime survey on the nature and extent of violence against women in the field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. That is why the Institute has launched another study to cover some of the other forms of abuse women and girls are suffering in Africa, especially during armed conflicts.

The Institute has not been able to organise the requested survey, mainly due to field (primary data collection) and financial constraints. However, in the process of a fact finding search from secondary sources, the Institute has come across rich alternative sources of materials (Amnesty International; Human Rights Watch; International Committee of the Red Cross; and others: Maya Steinitz, 2001; E. Rehn & E Johnson Sirleaf, 2002; R. Lefort, 2003; Dyan Mazurana, 2005; J. Ward & M. Marsh, 2006) on violence against women and girls during and after armed conflicts. The materials are examined in light of Article 1 of the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women and of some stipulations of Article 13: (1) in looking at the nature and extent of the violence against women and girls during and after armed conflicts; and (2) evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness of the Criminal Justice System in fulfilling the needs of women subjected to violence. And a way forward is proposed.

The materials gathered indicate that violence against women and girls is not only from one region of the world, but from everywhere where there are armed conflicts. However, the presentation focuses on Africa taking into consideration the nature, extent and response to it. Names of countries, towns or places, and involved armed groups are deliberately withheld in some quotations, our interest being purposely on what happened.

We would like to take this opportunity to commend and acknowledge the organisations which have produced the materials in use and others to which we did not have access, as they give more visibility, at national and international levels, to this unacceptable degrading physical and mental suffering women and girls are subjected to, during armed conflict in Africa in particular and in the world in general. We are of the opinion that, with

regard to national and international legal instruments in place, more visibility of these crimes would definitely discourage all the offenders: those who physically commit them and those who, by wilful negligence or other unlawful reasons, allow them to do so.

1. Definition, Nature and Extent of Violence Against Women

We refer to the definition of violence against women as enshrined in Article 1 of the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, from which we have identified some key concepts making up our conceptual framework. As already indicated above, the exercise will also strive to look at a number of sub-paragraphs of paragraph (b) of Article 13 of the Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence against Women in the field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice.

This type of violence is made up of a variety of crimes (Amnesty International, 2005:4-5) to be defined in the perspective developed by The Schwendingers, (Herman and Julia Schwendingers, 1975) that considers crime as violation of human rights. And any abuse of human rights of women in situations of armed conflicts is contrary to the fundamental principles of International human rights and humanitarian law. The following is the definition. Article 1 of the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women posits that:

> "For the purpose of this Declaration, the term "violence against women" means any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such act, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life".

1.1 Any Act Of Gender-Based Violence

The definition refers to any act of gender-based violence (J. Ward and M. Marsh 2006:15) define "gender-based violence" as:

> "an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person's will, and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females".

Women and girls are victim of the violence described below by virtue of their femininity. In order to have an idea on the extent of the situation, let us refer to R. Lefort (2003). He has indicated that according to a U.N. department, on average, some 40 women were raped every day between October 2002 and February 2003 in and around a town called Uvira (East of DRC), a town with a population between 200,000 and 300,000. Even though cases of males being exposed to sexual violence by armed men have been reported (See R. Lefort, 2003:7; and Human Rights Watch, 2005:20-21), women and girls seem to be the main victims of this type of violence during armed conflicts.

That results Or Is Likely to Result in:

1.2.1 Physical harm or suffering

Human Rights Watch (2002:21) reported that "Assailants who raped women and girls frequently beat, whipped, or otherwise physically abused them before, during, and after the crime". This statement gives an idea on the nature of violence inflicted on women and girls during armed conflicts in Africa.

Some few case referred to here below are only illustrations for those who have not had the opportunity to read the above publications, as to the extent of the atrocities, cruelty or the nature of violence inflicted on women and girls during armed conflicts; because, there are other cases with greater atrocities than the following:

> "Seven soldiers took the … woman off and raped her. Then one of the rapists put a gun into her vagina and shot her. The assailants then left. The witness and other women came out of their hiding place and tried to take the badly injured woman for medical assistance, but she died on the way." (Human Rights Watch, 2002:21).

The very report revealed further that:

> "Beyond such usual kinds of abuse, there were other cases where the rapists inflicted severe injury on their victims with sticks or other objects or by mutilating their sexual organs with such weapons as knives or razor blades. A gynaecologist has been reported saying that in his many years of work he had never seen atrocities like those committed against women who had been raped whom he has treated recently …" (Human Rights Watch, 2002:21).

Insults and humiliations led us to consider another type of violence women and girls and also families are subjected to: the psychological harm or suffering.

1.2.2 Psychological harm or suffering

An aspect of psychological harm or suffering is the stigmatisation the individual victim has to suffer. A physician of a girl raped by several men has this to say:

> "We can do little else to prevent her being rejected. It's not her fault, (…). Physically she'll probably get better, although we don't know yet if she contracted any other illness. And on psychological level, it remains a problem. She lost her virginity, which is something very important in the village. She can't even talk about it" (Human Rights Watch, 2002).

The report reveals, from a number of cases, the psychological suffering families, friends and communities, have to undergo:

> "… many women and girls were raped in the presence of others. Family members, friends, or other captured women were forced to watch. In several cases, children were reportedly forced to hold their mothers down while they were raped. …" (Human Rights Watch, 2002:12).

1.3 Coercion Or Arbitrary Deprivation Of Liberty

The material at our disposal does not use these terms. Instead, it is often referred to "abduction" with a purpose of sexual exploitation and other related exploitations such as forced labour. We consider that coercion and arbitrary deprivation of liberty are characteristic elements of abduction.

Human Rights Watch reports about forced labour that:

> "Combatants abducted women and girls and held them for periods up to a year and a half, forcing them during that time to provide both sexual services and gender-specific work. In addition to being raped, women and girls were obliged to do domestic labour, such as finding and transport firewood and water, gathering food, and doing laundry for the men who held them captive" (Human Rights Watch, 2002:26).

About sexual slaves to armed combatants, J. Ward and M. Marsh report that:

> "Many other instances have been identified where women and girls are abducted for the purposes of supplying combatants with sexual services. According to one soldier …" "Our combatants don't get paid. Therefore, they can't use prostitutes. If we politely ask women to come with us, they are not going to accept. So, we have to make them obey us so we can get what we want" (J. Ward and al., 2006:5).

2. Response To Gender-Based Violence

The material under analysis reveals that in the majority of cases, there is total impunity of violence against women and girls during and after armed conflicts. The different reasons include: the weakness of National Criminal Justice System (NCJS); lack of complaint due to ignorance and/or fear of the retaliatory reaction of the offender, or of the community, of stigma; and lack of sufficient evidence. We join J. Ward and M. Marsh in their conclusion to say that: "In a world where thousands of women suffer sexual violence committed with impunity in the context of conflict, the message needs to be made clear: A single rape constitutes a war crime". It is worthy to note that "War crimes" together with the crime of genocide, crimes against humanity, and the crime of aggression are crimes within the jurisdiction of the International Criminal Court (Article 5 of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court). We assume that the majority of reported cases fall under Crimes against humanity and War crimes.

2.1 Crime Against Humanity

Article 7, paragraph 1(g) of the Rome Statute of the International Criminal court stipulates:

> "For the purpose of this Statute, "crime against humanity" means any of the following acts when committed as part of widespread or systematic attack directed against any civilian population, with knowledge of the attack:
>
> > (g) Rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilisation, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity".

2.2 War Crimes

The distinction made between internal or international character of the conflict leads us to consider Article 8 (War crimes) of the Statute. Paragraph 1 of Article 8 of the Statute gives jurisdiction to the International Criminal Court to deal with rape, sexual slavery and other crimes:

> "The Court shall have jurisdiction in respect of war crimes in particular when committed as part of a plan or policy or as part of a large-scale commission of such crime".

If the described armed conflicts are to be defined as "internal", provisions of Article 8 (War crimes) of the Statute, especially its paragraph 2(b) (xxii) is to be referred to. Paragraph 2, sub-paragraph (b) (xxii) posit:

> "Other serious violations of the laws and customs applicable in international armed conflict, within the established framework of international law, namely, any of the following acts:
>
> > xxii) Committing rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, as defined in article 7, paragraph 2 (f), enforced sterilisation, or any other form of sexual violence also constituting a grave breach of the Geneva Conventions."

In a number of cases, armed men seem to be allowed to behave with cruelty, as if they obey to hidden instructions, plan or policy. R. Lefort (2003:8) reports:

> "The sexual violence against women constitutes a "war within the war" (…). These rapes are show of force, "asserted a doctor who treats the victims." The point is to show the husband, the family, the village, that they're all powerless. It's as if the rapists are saying: We can do any thing we want to you. "Humiliate, terrorize, all the while stressing the victims' total absence of recourse, until the populace resigns itself to obeying these outside masters (…)".

Gillian Triggs (2003:15) observes that often the persons who committed the war crime are not those who ought to ultimately be criminally responsible for the act. The Rome Statute adopts the principle of command responsibility. Article 28 (Responsibility of commanders and other superiors) includes within the jurisdiction of the ICC the acts of

military commanders who will be responsible for crimes against humanity, war crimes and genocide. Similar provisions (See Article 28, paragraph (b) apply to superiors who are not commanders and under whose authority and control people commit crimes.

2.3 Initiation of Investigation

The prosecutor shall initiate an investigation unless he or she determines that there is no reasonable basis to proceed under this Statute (Article 53). We would like to reiterate that there are national and international instruments that protect the rights of women and organise or guide prosecution of related crimes. Are local authorities and populations aware of such instruments and the required procedure for their implementation? Are victims aware of such instruments preventing and protecting them against violence related to armed conflicts? There is a need for sensitization campaigns about the above and other related instruments. We are of the opinion that this will be a positive development in the attempt to combat impunity that has been identified as a major explanation for the prevalence of violence against women and girls.

3. A Way Forward

We have observed an unacceptable situation of impunity regarding the violence women and girls are subjected to during armed conflicts. Since the National Criminal Justice System (NCJS) is often weakened during these conflicts, the International Criminal Justice System (ICJS) should come at its recourse by initiating the prosecution, on the basis of the information gathered by the field organisations mentioned above and others.

A way forward to combat impunity and prevent the different crimes women and girls often suffer from during armed conflicts, is to organise sensitisation campaigns through electronic and other mass media means of communication, that should aim at potential victims (by informing them about their rights and related International Instruments protecting them); offenders (by drawing their attention on their responsibilities and the related instruments organising their prosecution); and the field Civil Society Organisations (on their obligations or responsibilities). The sensitisation should focus on the sure and subsequent prospect of accountability for any act of humane rights abuse by all those responsible.

UNAFRI envisages organising an expert meeting that will give the opportunity to representatives of concerned Civil Society Organisations, the ICC Prosecutor, United Nations Missions (UNMISS) and others from any interested organisations, to discuss inter alia, the mechanisms to put in place for the Prosecutor of ICC to have access to any useful information at their disposal.

References

Lefort, R. (2003). *Congo: A Hell on Earth for Women*, Le Nouvel Observateur, Paris, France, 11-18 September.

Human Rights Watch (2002). *The War Within the War: Sexual Violence against Women and Girls in Eastern Congo*, Library of Congress.

Maxfield, M.G., & Babbie E. (1998). *Research Methods for Criminal Justice and Criminology*, Second Edition, West/Wadsworth.

Schwendinger, H. & J. (1975). "Defenders of Order or Guardians of Haman Rights?" in Ian Taylor, Paul Walton, and Jock Young, eds. *Critical Criminology*, Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative Analysis for Social Scientists*, Cambridge University Press.

Hirschi T., & Selvin H. C. (1967), *Delinquency Research: An Appraisal of Analytic Methods*, The Free Press, New York.

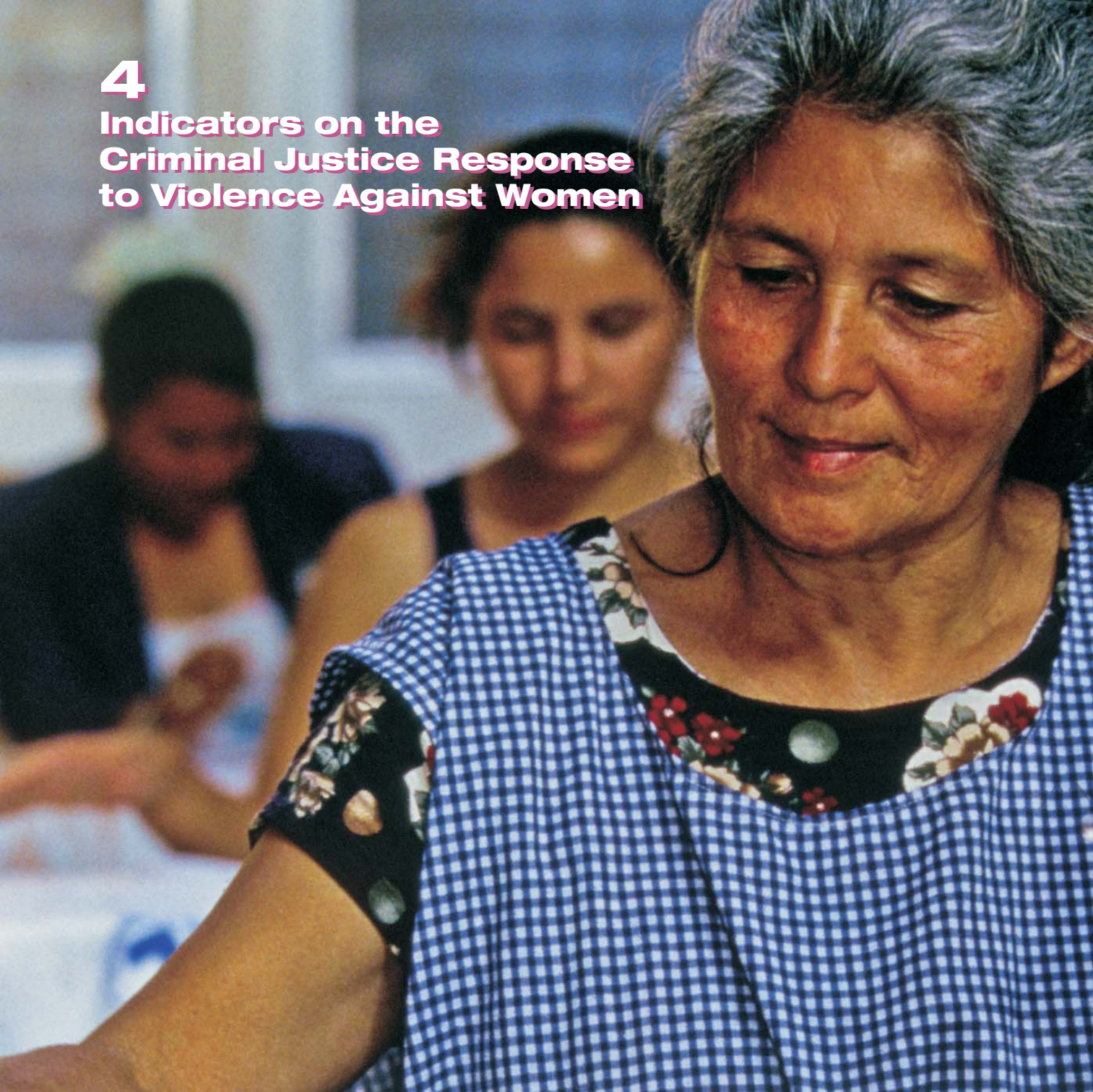
Triggs, G. (2003). *Implementation of the Rome Statute for the International Criminal Court: A quiet Revolution in Australian Law*, Sydney Law Review. Available at: www.austlii.edu.au/au/journals/SydLRev/2003

United Nations (1998). *Statute of the International Criminal Court*, Rome.

UNODC (2006). *Compendium Of United Nations Standards And Norms In Crime Prevention And Criminal Justice*, United Nations, New York.

Ward J. and Marsh M. (2006). *Sexual Violence Against Women and Girls in War and Its Aftermath: Realities, Responses, and Required Resources; A briefing Paper*; UNFPA, Brussels (Belgium), 21-23 June 2006.

© UN Photo



4
Indicators on the Criminal Justice Response to Violence Against Women

By Eileen Skinnider and Yvon Dandurand, International Centre for Criminal Law Reform and Criminal Justice Policy (ICCLR).

Introduction

The high levels of violence experienced by women and girls in many societies remains a cause of considerable concern[23]. Concern exists over the lack of effective responses by the criminal justice system and, at times, the fact that many criminal justice practices may themselves contribute to the problem[24]. Over the last two decades, increasing attention has been given to the issue of violence against women and the generally inadequate social and criminal justice response it was given. National laws and policies and an evolving body of international law were developed in order to improve that response[25]. Notwithstanding this increased attention, it is clear that much remains to be done[26].

States have taken various initiatives to combat violence against women, including numerous criminal justice initiatives. Progress has been achieved in the effective criminalization of various forms of violence against women in domestic law, the simplification of evidentiary requirements and the reform of criminal procedure to facilitate the prosecution of these crimes, the establishment of specialized courts and dedicated services to deal with various types of violence against women[27]. Good or promising practices have been identified and implemented[28]. Yet a number of questions remain largely unanswered. How do we monitor the impact of these various initiatives? Do we know whether they contribute to reducing the prevalence of the violent crimes? Without clear answers to these and other important questions, how can we develop approaches and strategies that truly evidence-based and carry a reasonable chance of success?

---

23 United Nations Secretary General *"Ending Violence Against Women: From Words to Action - Study of the Secretary-General"* (United Nations: 2006). This Study notes that there is compelling evidence that violence against women is severe and pervasive throughout the world and the Secretary General refers to at least one survey in which 71 countries were surveyed.

24 Holly Johnson, Natalia Ollus and Sami Nevala *"Violence Against Women: An International Perspective"* (Springer Science and business Media: 2008), see Chapter 6 Disclosing violence to police and other supports", pages 133 - 166.

25 United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs *"Broken Bodies, Broken Dreams: Violence Against Women Exposed"* (UNOCHA/IRIN: July 2005). This report lists the international instruments: 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women; 1995 Beijing Platform of Action; and in 1993, the Commission of Human Rights establishing the position of Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women.

26 Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, Yakin Erturk, *"Integration of the Human Rights of Women and the Gender Perspective: The Due Diligence Standard as a Tool for the Elimination of Violence Against Women"* (E/CN.4/2006/61: 20 January 2006). She notes: "States are failing in their international obligations to effectively prevent, investigate and prosecute violence against women".

27 See *supra* note 3, *Broken Bodies, Broken Dreams*.

28 International Centre for Criminal Law Reform and Criminal Justice Policy, *"Compendium: Model Strategies and Practice Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice"* and the *"Resource Manual: Model Strategies and Practice Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice"* (ICCLR: 1999).

The need to develop violence against women indicators is recognized at all levels of intervention, but the task is a fairly difficult one. We are obviously all looking for relevant, valid and reliable indicators which are simple and unequivocal and can be produced in a timely and cost-effective manner, building as much as possible on existing data-generating systems. A considerable amount of work is ongoing within various UN agencies to develop suitable international indicators that can help us monitor the impact of our policies and interventions[29]. The most important indicators of all are surely those that allow us to monitor the prevalence of various forms of violence against women. However, given the significant role that the criminal justice system is called upon to play in the prevention and control of these crimes, it is evident that we must also develop a set of process indicators focused on the nature and efficiency of the criminal justice response to violence against women. There are no doubt several valid approaches to the definition of such indicators and one should first and foremost take the time to carefully examine the experience to date of various states and organizations who have attempted to define and implement these kind of indicators. Nevertheless, we propose to explore briefly here whether the 1997 *United Nations Model Strategies and Practical Measures to Eliminate Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice* (the Model Strategies), perhaps in conjunction with some other reference points, could be used as a starting point for developing some particularly practical and useful indicators[30]. We note, for instance that the Model Strategies have been successfully used, in conjunction with the text of the *Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Sanction and Elimination of Violence against Women*, to review and assess the implementation of that Convention by the OAS (Commission of Women – CIM)[31].

---

29 See UN Report of the Expert Group Meeting "Indicators to Measure Violence against Women" (8 to 10 October 2007: Geneva), found at: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf. See also the Advanced Edited Version of the Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, Yakin Erturk "Indicators on violence against women and State response" (A/HRC/7/6: 29 January 2008) found at http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/hrcouncil/docs/7session/A-HRC-7-6.doc

30 Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, adopted by the sixth session of the United Nations Commission for Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice and later approved by the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly (GA res 52/86 of 12 December 1997). Further the ECOSOC resolution 2006/29 entitled "Crime prevention and criminal justice response to violence against women" requests States to consider using the Model Strategies in developing and undertaking strategies and practical measures.

31 See: Violence in the Americas - A Regional Analysis, Including a Review of the Implementation of the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment, and Eradication of Violence Against Women (Convention of Belém do Pará), the Inter-American Commission of Women (CIM) Organization of American States (OAS), the International Centre for Criminal Law Reform and Criminal Justice Policy (ICCLR), and the United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (ILANUD). Washington, Vancouver, San José (Costa Rica), July 2001. http://www.oas.org/cim/Documentos/Violencia-FINAL%20REPORT.Violence.EDITED.ing.doc

About Indicators

Indicators provide a common way to measure and present information[32]. They have been defined as "an item of data that summarizes a large amount of information in a single figure in such a way as to give indication of change over time" [33]. Indicators are often connected to a norm or benchmark; in the case of violence against women, some of the international human rights and justice standards that apply to the criminal justice response to this type of crime can provide that basis. However, it is still important to be clear about what indicators are not; they are not substitutes for comprehensive evaluations of existing interventions, in-depth gender analyses and careful social research[34]. Indicators are not designed to provide complete information on all aspects of this issue. Rather they are best at showing trends, monitoring change over time, or making broad comparisons between countries or systems. They can also be useful by revealing existing gaps in our knowledge and leading to more comprehensive research.

Violence against women indicators can serve a number of obvious purposes. They can be used by policy makers, justice officials, service providers and the public to systematically monitor the efforts of criminal justice system to prevent and control violence against women, to strengthen our knowledge base, develop more effective policies and intervention strategies, inform legislative reforms, and measure victims' access to justice, effective protection, and redress. By encouraging the regular and systematic collection of data that can be used to assess and systematically monitor the impact of existing practices and policies, indicators can guide policy makers, inform public opinion and assist with the development of national and local strategies. Internationally accepted indicators can be implemented and begin to allow for international, perhaps even global comparisons.

Some of the Current Initiatives to Develop VAW Indicators

Within the United Nations and in other multilateral organizations, some attention is being given to the conceptualization and development of VAW indicators which could

32 This definition is from the UNODC *"Manual for the Measurement of Juvenile Justice Indicators"* (UN: New York: 2006) found at http://ungift.org/pdf/juveline_justice.pdf

33 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

34 *Ibid*.

be adopted at the national level and lead to implementation of standardized indicators at the international level. These efforts would probably benefit from better coordination and must build on the experience to date and the work already being done by various groups such as the UN Expert Group on Indicators to Measure Violence against Women whose report was considered by the Commission on the Status of Women at its most recent session[35], or the work of the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women whose latest report submitted to the Human Rights Council is on indicators[36]. These reports have proposed indicators to measure both the extent of violence against women and the States' responses. The Expert Group report also set out in detail the major national, regional and international initiatives being undertaken in this area.

Linking with current crime trend assessment and monitoring

UNODC has been developing measurement tools for crime trend assessment and monitoring, including the UN Survey of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice (CTS) and the International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS)[37]. The development of indicators on violence against women needs to make full use not only of the expertise developed through these exercise, but also of the data that can thus be generated. Furthermore, this should be linked with the on-going process of developing indicators for complex crime, such as transnational organised crime, corruption and trafficking in persons[38]. The latter, of course, can also constitute a form of violence against women.

---

35 The UN Expert Group Meeting on "Indicators to measure violence against women" was organized by the UN Division for the Advancement of Women, UN Economic Commission for Europe and the UN Statistical Division, in collaboration with UNECA, UNECLAC, UNESCAP and UNESCWA. It was held in October 2007 and the report and supporting papers can be found at: http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw_indicators_2007/egm_vaw_indicators_2007.htm. The Commission on the Status of Women held a joint workshop with the Statistics Commission at its most recent session, 52nd Session, February 25 to March 7 to consider the expert group's report. The report takes stock of existing major national, regional and international initiatives aimed at developing indicators on violence against women and makes recommendations for a possible set of indicators to measure the scope, prevalence and incidences of violence against women.

36 Advanced Edited Version of the Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, Yakin Erturk *"Indicators on violence against women and State response"* (A/HRC/7/6: 29 January 2008). She proposes a limited set of international indicators to allow comparison between countries. These include: (i) indicators for measuring violence against women (grave violence against women indicator; femicide indicator; and social tolerance indicator); and (ii) indicators for State response which include institutional indicators and process indicators. Institutional indicators look at which international instruments are ratified and whether there is a national action plan. Process indicators include access to justice and reporting indicators, victim protection indicators, protection indicators, prevention indicators, and training indicators.

37 These are discussed in more detail in a Supporting Paper submitted by UNODC at the Expert Group Meeting on Indicators to measure violence against women, Steven Malby and Anna Alvazzi del Frate *"Indicators, Crime and Violence Against Women"* (Supporting Paper 2: 5 October 2007). The IVAWS is an internationally comparative survey specifically designed to measure domestic violence and sexual assault against women in a number of countries on a repetitive basis which will offer input for the development of criminal justice approaches, see *supra* note 2, *"Violence Against Women: An International Perspective"*.

38 See UNODC Supporting Paper, *ibid*.

Need for standardized and regular data

The development of VAW indicators is linked to the availability of crime statistics and other statistics on law enforcement and other components of the criminal justice system. Generally speaking, crime data is gathered through two main methodologies: administrative statistics and victim surveys. Administrative statistics provide useful and relevant information about the criminal justice system's response to crime. Surveys can contribute to the understanding of these statistics by introducing victims' perspectives of the criminal justice system, and allowing reporting levels to be compared to victim levels, which evidences the level of unreporting. However, national systems often use different frameworks, methodologies and time-spans and these differences significantly complicate international comparisons[39]. For international comparisons to be possible and valid, some level of standardization in data definition, collection and analysis must obviously take place. The experience from UNODC from their administration of the UN Survey of Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems and the International Crime Victim Survey yields some important lessons in that respect, as does the work it conducted with UNICEF relating to the development of juvenile justice indicators[40].

Improving national data collection capacity

Reliable VAW indicators are entirely dependent on the national data collection capacity. The quality and reliability of indicators on the criminal justice response to VAW depend in turn on the capacity of the criminal justice system to generate reliable data on reported incidents and on the various activities which take place within the criminal justice system. Countries differ in their capacity to generate reliable crime and criminal justice statistics. In many countries there is no comprehensive or systematic mechanism for collecting reliable data on violence against women[41]. Obstacles to the use of indicators include impoverished data collection systems at local level institutions, such as police stations, prosecution offices and courts. Administrative statistics and victim surveys are often limited to the number of gender-based crimes and should be extended to identify risk factors, services to victims, and public attitudes and perceptions[42]. However, improving national data collection is not for the sole purpose of developing indicators and should not be seen as a one-off exercise. Rather,

39 See *supra* note 3, *Broken Bodies, Broken Dreams*.

40 *Manual for the Measurement of Juvenile Justice Indictors*, *supra* note 9 and UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

41 See *supra* note 3, *Broken Bodies, Broken Dreams*.

42 See UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

national data collection strategies should be integrated into the day-to-day operations and management of criminal justice institutions to inform those institutions.

The issue of quantitative and qualitative indicators

Indicators to measure the criminal justice system response need to be both quantitative and qualitative. The juvenile justice indicators serve as a useful model, in particular looking at those indictors that measure the criminal justice system's response to the phenomenon. The proposed juvenile justice qualitative indicators measure this phenomenon using a system of levels, levels 1-4[43]. This can provide descriptive information about laws and policies and be supplemented with quantitative information about implementation. These indicators assess whether international standards are enshrined in national law or policy. There are also a number of features of the criminal justice system response to violence against women that can be expressed with numbers (quantitative). For example, whether a certain service, such as victim support services, is present in the system can be a yes or no answer[44].

The Usefulness of the UN Model Strategies

The United Nations *Model Strategies and Practical Measures to Eliminate Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*, developed by the Crime Commission in 1997, can help conceptualize some of the indicators to measure the criminal justice response to violence against women[45]. One concern often repeated in the development of indicators is the lack of common understanding on the norms and standards that apply. The Model Strategies provide a fairly comprehensive description of the main features of an effective criminal justice system's response to violence against women. They cover the criminalization aspects of the response; criminal procedure and evidentiary requirements; police powers, policies and interventions;

---

43 The juvenile justice qualitative indictors use a scoring system of "level 1, 2, 3 or 4" based on whether 0 to 25%, 25 to 50%, 50 to 75% or 75 to 100% of the relevant policy tool questions were answered in the affirmative, see *Manual for the Measurement of Juvenile Justice Indictors*, *supra* note 9.

44 See UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

45 The Model Strategies builds on the existing international instruments of Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women and are specific measures undertaken by States to implement the Beijing Platform for Action within the field of crime prevention and criminal justice.

sentencing and corrections; victim support and assistance; health and social services; and, crime prevention.

It should be noted at the outset that there is a large number of possible potential indicators to measure the implementation and impact of these strategies. It is important to remember that a good indicator should be attainable, simple, specific, measurable and relevant, "based on objective information and data-generating mechanisms, suitable for temporal and spatial comparison and following relevant international statistical standards" [46]. Therefore, discussions around developing a set of indicators to measure the criminal justice response will have to prioritize which elements of the response should be measured[47].

Criminal Law[48]

The Model Strategies call for States to: review their laws, especially criminal laws, in order to assess whether these allow, either by specific provisions or omissions, conditions which create special vulnerabilities for women[49]; review and amend laws to ensure a comprehensive set of legal prohibitions covering all acts of violence against women; and review their laws to ensure that violent offenders can be restricted in possessing firearms[50].

The criminalization of various forms of violence against women could be measured. The Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women has proposed a nuanced indicator asking whether all forms of violence are criminalized and treated as serious offences and includes a layering of levels ranging from 1 to 5: (1) sexual harassment and stalking; (2) domestic violence; (3) harmful practices; (4) rape, including marital rape; and (5) trafficking for sexual exploitation[51]. Conducting a legal audit of the laws is an important

---

46 The Special Rapporteur on violence against women discusses the standards for indicators and refers to the UNOHCHR's set of indicators for measuring human rights, see Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

47 Steven Malby and Anna Alvazzi del Frate proposes some options: degree of criminalization of violent acts; victim police reporting and secondary victimization; ability or usage of victim support (service-based data) and policy or practice relating to prevention of violence – see UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

48 Article 6 of the Model Strategies.

49 Article 6(a) of the Model Strategies calls for the periodic review of all laws, recognising that not only is criminal law the only type of law which can affect or is related to violence against women, but also that civil law, particularly family law should be included – ICCLR's Resource Manual: Model Strategies, see *supra* note 6.

50 This last obligation recognizes the research of the risks of homicide and the culmination of a series of violent behaviour, particularly in intimate relationships – ICCLR's Resource Manual, *supra* note 6.

51 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

step towards ensuring that all forms of violence against women are addressed in criminal and civil law and therefore that women will have access to justice[52].

Criminal Procedure[53]

States are to review their criminal procedure to ensure that the police have adequate powers to enter premises and conduct arrests in cases of violence against women and that preliminary responsibility for initiating prosecution lies with the prosecution authorities. Victims should be able to avail themselves of measures to facilitate their testimony and protect their privacy. Rules and principles of defence should not discriminate against women; intoxication is not to be a total defence; and evidentiary rules allow for consideration of prior acts of violence by the perpetrator. Furthermore, courts should have the authority to issue protection and restraining orders and there should be measures in place to ensure the safety of victims.

These strategies respond to the concern that there has been a traditional discounting of violence against women by criminal justice institutions, such as police, prosecutors and courts as well as from the female victims themselves who might not see that they have a right to protection and redress or that they can find this from the criminal justice system[54]. The Strategies also recognise the very real concern of re-victimization of the female victim by the criminal justice system process itself, whether by the treatment during the court process, including discriminatory evidentiary rules such as allowing aggressive cross-examination of a rape victim's sexual history or during the criminal investigation by the police. Indicators could track trends of legislative and policy reforms in domestic systems and monitor the impact and effectiveness of such laws and policies.

Measuring whether these criminal procedures exist formally in law or policy is the first step of then measuring whether they are being used appropriately. Some States have adopted specific legislation to address domestic violence or other forms of violence against women, while other States elaborate these strategies in policy documents or directives[55]. Some countries have established specialized prosecutorial teams or set up

52 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7. The Beijing Platform for Action and subsequent documents required that States undertake an audit of their legal framework, taking whatever measures necessary to ensure that all forms of VAW are addressed in criminal and civil law. Specific requirements included ensuring that rape is a crime against the person rather than against morals, which cannot be erased through marriage; domestic and intimate partner violence is criminalized; trafficking and sexual exploitation of children are criminalized; and harmful practices are addressed.

53 Article 7 of the Model Strategies.

54 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

55 UNIFEM, *"Not a Minute More: Ending Violence Against Women"* (UNIFEM, New York: 2003), pages 36-41.

family courts[56]. Nuanced indicators could measure for the existence of specialized institutions that are specially trained in understanding the dynamics of violence against women and the best approaches in dealing with such cases in the courts.

Another indicator could measure the way the criminal justice system operates, that is, how effective are the criminal procedures that are in place in protecting and respecting the rights and dignity of female victims of violence. They can be developed to provide an indication of secondary victimization by the criminal justice system. Another example is to measure the use (number and types) of protection orders and the proportion breached.

Indicators that measure the level and standards of reporting can provide indications over time as to women's access to justice. Then the other actors in the justice system can be measured by collecting attrition rates (the proportion of cases which fall out of the system before being decided by the courts), the proportion of cases that are prosecuted and the proportion that result in conviction. Of course the accuracy of the administrative data is imperative and States must ensure that appropriate data systems are in place and personnel are trained. Therefore by tracking reporting, prosecution and conviction rates on a regular basis, one can see certain trends emerge. For example, if the rate of reporting is increased while rates of prosecution continue to be low, or conviction rates are low, then this helps to identify potential problem areas in the system. Furthermore when reforms to law and policies are introduced, such data can indicate if the procedural law reforms are having the desired impact. The Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women proposes indicators that measure whether reporting/prosecution/conviction rates are increasing, flat or decreasing for all forms of violence against women, most forms or some forms[57].

Police[58]

The police, of course, play a pivotal role in combating violence against women, as they are the frontline workers, to ensure that the laws and policies are effectively implemented. There must be consistent enforcement in such a way that all criminal acts of violence against women are recognised and responded to accordingly. Investigative techniques should not degrade women but rather minimize intrusion while maintaining standards for the collection of best evidence. Police procedure (decisions on arrest,

56 ICCLR Resource Manual, *supra* note 6.

57 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

58 Article 8 of the Model Strategies.

detention and release) need to take into account the need for the safety of the victim, to prevent further violence, to enable the police to respond promptly, and to also hold them accountable when they do not. States need to encourage women to join the often male-dominated law enforcement sector.

Some States have implemented these strategies by establishing specialized investigative units, such as police desks, units and even all female officer police stations, some have multidisciplinary teams of police and social workers whereas others have created hospital-based "one-stop" centres which combine police, medical services and other professionals.

Possible indicators include whether there are clearly defined police powers contained in written policies known to all police and the public and what measures are there to ensure consistent enforcement. Do these written policies include how to handle calls relating to specific types of violence against women, interviewing victims by patrol officers, guidelines for investigation, and protocols for supervisors to ensure consistent compliance?

Indicators can be used for the purpose of monitoring the extent that police powers are being used appropriately and the impact of police policies and investigative guidelines (from seeing trends in the levels of reporting, prosecution and conviction). Comparing victim surveys with data on reporting from administrative statistics can provide some understanding of the figure of under-reported crimes of violence against women. However measuring satisfaction of the victims and the community might be difficult as it is subjective. The CVS questions can be informative. One standard is: did you or anyone else report the incident to the police? On the whole, were you satisfied with the way that the police dealt with the matter? For what reason were you dissatisfied? [police didn't do enough, were not interested, didn't find or apprehend the offender, didn't keep me properly informed, didn't treat me correctly/were impolite, slow to arrive, other reasons] [59].

Sentencing and Corrections[60]

Another response of the criminal justice system that should be monitored and measured to ensure that violence against women is effectively being addressed is that played by sentencing and corrections. The goals of sentencing should include holding

59 UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

60 Article 9 of the Model Strategies.

offenders accountable, stopping violent behaviour, considering the impact on the victim and the families, and promoting sanctions that are comparable to other violent crimes. There should be a legal structure to ensure that victims are notified of the release of the offender when their safety is an issue, that there is a full range of sentencing dispositions to protect the victim and that the victims have input in the sentencing process, including through victim impact statements where permitted. States are also encouraged to develop offender treatment programmes and judges should be encouraged to recommend such treatment. Females who are detained for any reason need to be protected from violence during such detention.

Indicators could measure whether there are formal sentencing guidelines in existence and the extent to which these strategies are incorporated into those guidelines. Other possibilities include measuring the extent that victim's rights are outlined in legislative form, how gender sensitive they are, and whether there is a law or policy allowing consideration of victim impact statements or other methods of victim input into the sentencing process.

Victim Support and Assistance[61]

The United Nations has adopted a number of formal declarations which advocate and elaborate strategies for the proper treatment of victims of crime[62]. Building on this, the Model Strategies call on States to inform female victims of violence of their rights and remedies that are available and this includes being informed throughout the criminal justice process, providing legal representation where appropriate, and the existence of support services. These services are important to ensure that women report the violence, follow through on formal complaints and receive prompt and fair redress.

A proposed indicator could be to measure the ability or usage of victim support services. A challenge would be how to measure the unmet demand for such victim and support services.

---

61 Article 10 of the Model Strategies.

62 UN Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power and the Handbook on Justice for Victims on the Use and Application of the UN Declaration of Basic Principles for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power.

Health and Social Services[63]

For many women, the law is a last resort against violence and legal processes alone cannot be expected to prevent violence or protect all victims[64]. Complementary housing, financial assistance, health and social services will always be a key component of efforts to deal with violence against women. The Model Strategies recognize the need to establish better linkages between medical services and the justice system and the need for specialized units with multidisciplinary sectors that are specially trained to deal with the complexities and victim sensitivities.

Over the last twenty years, services for victims have improved in scope and quality[65]. Some States have introduced innovative initiatives such as "one-stop" centres that ensure assistance not just through the criminal justice system but also provide medical and financial support[66]. Other initiatives include setting up networks of transitional houses or safe houses. Others involve developing protocols to ensure a coordinated approach: covering referrals to health services, temporary housing services, welfare, counseling, legal aid, and economic support. Some States have established a system of victim support officers placed in prosecution offices[67]. Possible indicators could measure how coordinated the response is. It has been noted that measuring qualitative issues of quality of care services would likely be difficult on a global scale[68].

Some of this data might be in the hands of non-governmental organizations. The Special Rapporteur encourages States to do regular audits of the extensiveness and use of the support services[69]. This would allow for measuring the extent of the services available as well as the access of victims to appropriate services. She notes that measuring such services must move beyond counting shelters, in favour of looking at the extent to which services are holistic and integrated. For example, are these services free of charge, available 24/7, accessible to all women?[70] The question is how to measure unmet demands. She feels that such an indicator might be too complex for an

63 Article 11 of the Model Strategies.

64 ICCLR Resource Manual, *supra* note 6.

65 See *supra* note 3, *Broken Bodies, Broken Dreams*.

66 *Not a Minute More Report*, *supra* note 36.

67 These examples are from ICCLR's Resource Manual, *supra* note 6.

68 This was discussed by the juvenile justice experts working group; for more details see *Manual for the Measurement of Juvenile Justice Indictors*, *supra* note 9.

69 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

70 *Ibid*.

international set of indicators but that it would be important to encourage States to introduce such indicators at the national level[71].

One of the Special Rapporteur's proposed indicators, calculated from national data, is:

- help line hours calculated by the number of telephone lines and hours open;
- shelters/refuges calculated by number of individual/family places;
- advocacy/one stop shop advice and support services;
- specialist counseling services offering long-term support;
- specialist provision for disadvantaged groups and provisions for girls;
- women's self-defence classes;
- geographical spread across both regions and urban/rural populations.

Another issue to look at would be how to link the development of these indicators with the WHO Multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women.

Crime Prevention[72]

Crime prevention strategies can cover long-term strategies aimed at changing society's attitudes and values, as well as the structures which facilitate inequality, and short term strategies which comprise a more effective service response with a public awareness campaign aimed at prevention of violence and preventing its occurrence[73]. The media play a key role in either promoting or undermining respect for women in society. The Model Strategies call for the development and implementation of public awareness and public education and school programmes that promote equality, cooperation, mutual respect and shared responsibilities between women and men, as well as developing multidisciplinary and gender-sensitive approaches within public and private entities. Furthermore, outreach programmes should be established to promote peaceful conflict resolution, anger management as well as offering information on human rights of women. States should develop indicators that measure policy and practice relating to prevention of violence.

---

71 *Ibid*.

72 Article 14 of the Model Strategies.

73 ICCLR Resource Manual, *supra* note 6.

There are proposed qualitative indicators for violence against women to measure attitudes and perceptions of violence. As some scholars note "such an indicator would be useful both for interpretation of "outcome" indicators and for monitoring the impact of awareness raising or preventive programmes (if measured periodically)"[74]. Specialized questionnaires already exist. They further note, "information on whether violence prevention good practice or standards and norms are enshrined in law or policy and implemented in practice could be extracted from questionnaires and standardized tools. A scoring system can be used to present the results. From a criminal justice system's point of view, such an indicator could aid interpretation of victim/police reporting rates and levels of police-recorded crime itself" [75].

The Special Rapporteur also proposes indicators to measure prevention initiatives, suggesting that an indicator could measure the existence of a country wide awareness raising campaign of violence against women, with nuanced levels and whether violence prevention is integrated into school curriculum[76].

Training[77]

Training has a number of key dimensions: training of the various criminal justice officials at the entry level, in-service and specialist training in cross-cultural sensitivity, gender sensitivity and violence against women issues. The Special Rapporteur proposes to measure increasing the capacity of professionals to respond appropriately to violence against women by measuring the proportion of new recruits in various agencies that have core curriculum on violence against women and the proportion of existing actors have this training[78].

Conclusion

The thematic discussion at this year's session of the Commission meeting addresses aspects of violence against women that pertain directly to the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice. The discussion will likely be limited at times by the lack

74 UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

75 UNODC Supporting Paper, *supra* note 14.

76 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

77 Article 12 of the Model Strategies.

78 Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women 2008 report, *supra* note 7.

of information on successful practices and on the impact of current policies and practices. There is a need to have more information on what happens to women victims within the criminal justice system and to have the necessary data to monitor the effectiveness of the criminal justice response. The challenge is one of refining our strategies, but it is also one of refining the means we have to monitor their impact. Furthermore, the process of developing indicators can engage local actors involved in the criminal justice system, raising their awareness of their responsibilities towards the victims of violence against women and providing them with an opportunity to review their treatment of women within the justice system[79].

With the ongoing process of developing international indicators to address violence against women by a number of UN agencies, UNODC has engaged in this important work, bringing its expertise and experience in crime data collection. The Commission must encourage the UNODC to continue this important work and perhaps also direct the UNODC to develop a proposed set of international indicators as well as a proposed methodology for their consideration, adoption and gradual implementation at the national level.

References

CIM, OAS, ICCLR, & ILANUD (2001). *Violence in the Americas - A Regional Analysis, Including a Review of the Implementation of the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment, and Eradication of Violence Against Women*, Washington, Vancouver, San José, July.

ECOSOC Resolution *Crime prevention and criminal justice response to violence against women*, ECOSOC Res. 2006/29, United Nations: New York.

ICCLR (1999). *Compendium: Model Strategies and Practice Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*, ICCLR: Vancouver.

ICCLR (1999). *Resource Manual: Model Strategies and Practice Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*, ICCLR: Vancouver.

[79] These reasons were set out in the *Manual for the Measurement of Juvenile Justice Indictors*, *supra* note 9.

Johnson H., Ollus N., Nevala S. (2008). *Violence Against Women: An International Perspective* New York: Springer.

Malby S., Alvazzi del Frate A. (2007). *Indicators, Crime and Violence Against Women* Supporting Paper submitted by UNODC at the Expert Group Meeting on "Indicators to measure violence against women", (Supporting Paper 2: 5 October 2007) Geneva, 8-10 October.

Special Rapporteur on violence against women (2008). *Indicators on violence against women and State response* (A/HRC/7/6), OHCHR: Geneva.

Special Rapporteur on violence against women (2006). *Integration of the Human Rights of Women and the Gender Perspective: The Due Diligence Standard as a Tool for the Elimination of Violence Against Women* (E/CN.4/2006/61), OHCHR: Geneva.

United Nations (2007). *Indicators to Measure Violence against Women*, Report of the Expert Group Meeting, Geneva, 8-10 October.

United Nations (1995). *Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power* (A/RES/40/34), United Nations: New York.

UNIFEM (2003). *Not a Minute More: Ending Violence Against Women*, UNIFEM: New York.

United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2005). *Broken Bodies, Broken Dreams: Violence Against Women Exposed*, IRIN/OCHA.

United Nations General Assembly (1997). *Model Strategies and Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*, (G.A. Res 52/86 of 12 December 1997), United Nations: New York.

United Nations Secretary General (2006). *Ending Violence Against Women: From Words to Action - Study of the Secretary-General*, United Nations: New York.

UNODC (2006). *Manual for the Measurement of Juvenile Justice Indicators*, UNODC: Vienna.

© UN Photo/Mark Garten

5
Promoting Women's Safety: Local Strategies and Promising Practices to Prevent Violence Against Women

By Margaret Shaw, Director of Analysis & Exchange, International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC). This paper draws on on-going work being undertaken by ICPC, especially by Michelle Virgin, Manon Jendly and Valerie Sagant.

For UN-Habitat the security of individuals in cities in all regions is a "*matter of growing urgency as unsafe cities restrict access and mobility for their citizens, especially women*" while "*violence and the fear of violence prevent women from full and equal participation in the social life of their community and threaten our understanding of what should be the democratic functioning of our society*." Further, "*Insecure and even hostile urban environments can be perpetuated by local authorities' inattention to planning for women's security both domestically and in public places*" [80].

Apart from initiatives on human trafficking, much of the current work undertaken internationally and nationally to respond to the challenges of violence against women, focuses on private violence in families and relationships, and is rightly concerned with legislation, criminal justice responses and enforcement. This includes the development of legislation, specialized court services, protocols and training of police, prosecution, and judiciary, as well as strengthening support to victims. National and regional governments play a major role in such initiatives, but as with many other types of crime and violence, the impacts of violence against women are felt locally. This includes the impacts of the sex-trade and human trafficking on women and girls at the local level. Local governments have a major role in prevention, and in preventing violence against women, rather than only responding to its consequences.

The *International Centre for the Prevention of Crime* is an international non-government organization which works with governments and cities to promote crime prevention and community safety, especially at the local level[81]. In recent years the Centre has undertaken comparative reviews on policy and practice relating to violence against women, but especially its *prevention*. It undertook reviews of international policy and practice in 2004[82], which highlighted the separation of work relating to violence against women in private settings from that in public and semi-public space, but more importantly, the relative absence of discussion on gender and crime prevention. ICPC's forthcoming biennial report on international crime prevention trends, draws on a number of recent reports for an assessment of the state of violence against women

80 UN-HABITAT(2001), *Women and Urban Governance*. Policy Dialogue Series: Number 1, Nairobi: UNCHS, p. 21.

81 ICPC was founded in 1994 to promote a shift among governments at all levels away from criminal justice responses to crime, towards a greater focus on prevention and community safety, especially at the local level. Canada, France and Quebec were founder member governments. ICPC also works in collaboration with *Women in Cities International* an international network which organized the *Ist International Seminar on Women's Safety* in Montreal in May 2002, and the *Women's Safety Awards* 2004.

82 Margaret Shaw & Laura Capobianco (2004). *Developing Trust: International Approaches to Women's Safety*. Montreal: ICPC. See also Margaret Shaw & Caroline Andrew (2005). 'Engendering crime prevention.' *Canadian Journal of Criminology,* 47 (2) pp. 293-316.

globally, and the range of responses which promote women's safety[83]. This review highlights the increasing range and amount of data and information on the extent of gender-based violence across the world, but underlines yet again the seriousness and extent of the problem. This is in spite of the adoption of international protocols, model strategies, and an increase in legislative responses[84].

The United Nations sees violence against women as a human rights violation, and an issue of gender equality. Violence against women, *gender-based violence* as it is referred to internationally, takes many different forms, and occurs in both private and public settings, but in all cases the causal factors are similar. We use the term *women's safety* to refer to the range of proactive and planned strategies and initiatives which work to prevent both public and private violence which may affect women and girls. These approaches recognize that *gender* is a term which includes both women and men, and that broader crime prevention policies need to build in gender at all stages of their development[85].

Thus promoting women's safety includes a range of approaches from better data collection and analysis, public awareness and education to change attitudes, including initiatives with men and boys, public health approaches to violence, strengthening local capacities, and improving urban design and the management of public space. But it also includes issues of governance, and how local governments and NGO's and civil society can work together more effectively in analyzing problems, and developing strategic responses which take gender into account in the development and planning of interventions and programmes.

More specifically, there is an increasing range of tools which have been developed at the community and local government level in recent years, based on partnerships between government and civil society and community-based organizations, and often incorporating participatory approaches. They include local city toolkits, safety auditing and exploratory walks, manuals and guides, and observatories on crime trends in different regions of the world which take account of gender. Such tools are being used and adapted to the needs of specific groups, such as those in disadvantaged

---

83 See 'Women's Safety.' In *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety.* Montreal: ICPC. (Forthcoming July 2008). Women's safety will also be the topic of ICPC's Annual Colloquium on Crime Prevention in Queretaro, Mexico on 14-17th November 2008; and a Compendium of promising practices on women's safety will be published in 2009.

84 United Nations General Assembly (2006), *In-Depth study on all forms of violence against women: Report of the Secretary-General*, A/61/122/Add.1. See also *Model Strategies & Practical measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention & Criminal Justice.* Adopted by ECOSOC resolution 52/86 1997.

85 Dianne Jefthas & Lillian Artz (2007). 'Youth violence: a gendered perspective.' In Patrick Burton (Ed.) *Someone Stole my Smile. An exploration of the causes of youth violence in South Africa.* Cape Town : CJCP.

neighbourhoods and slums, or migrant or immigrant women and those in minority and Indigenous communities.

Defining and Measuring The Problems

Violence affects women of all ages and includes physical, sexual, economic, and emotional/psychological behaviours. In different countries violence against women in the private sphere is variously referred to as domestic violence, family violence, or intimate partner violence. Domestic and family violence often include children as the subjects of violence. Beyond this women and girls experience violence in public spaces or institutions including the workplace, in schools, while using public transport, as well as through the sex trade and forced prostitution, and in situations of armed conflict.

While there are major difficulties in measuring the extent of violence against women, and much underreporting, there are also major difficulties in comparing rates of violence between countries and regions, although some progress towards more standardized reporting is being made. This includes the International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS) and work by UNODC and other international organizations on developing indicators[86]. Violence against women affects some women and girls more than others. The WHO multi-country study found rates of domestic violence to be higher in disadvantaged neighbourhoods, and among indigenous communities, for example[87].

A recent preliminary international survey of organizations working on women's safety, commissioned by UN-HABITAT, identified the familiar range of risk factors for violence: illiteracy; economic inequalities (unemployment of women and their relative poverty and financial dependence on partners); cultural norms and socio-customary practices; lack of access to safe and affordable homes, and property disinheritance; lack of or ineffective services and resources for women; lack of or ineffectiveness of gender-based policies; poor urban infrastructures; and drugs and alcohol abuse[88].

---

86 Holly Johnson, Natalia Ollus & Sami Nevala (2008). *Violence Against Women: An International Perspective.* New York: Springer; UNODC (2007). *Indicators, Crime and Violence against Women*. Supporting Paper, Expert Group Meeting on indicators to measure violence against women. Geneva, 8-10 October 2007.

87 WHO *Multi-Country Study on Women"s Health and Domestic Violence against Women* (2005); and *World Report on Health and Violence* (2002). Geneva: WHO.

88 *Global Assessment on Women's Safety*. (2007). Women in Cities International, Red Mujer Y Habitat LAC-HIC and the Huairou Commission.

Guidelines and Tools to Support Women's Safety

The *UN Guidelines for Crime Prevention* (ECOSOC resolution 2002/13) provide a set of principles, and a methodology for effective crime prevention, particularly applicable at the local level. The basic principles stress the importance of government leadership, socio-economic development and inclusion, co-operation and partnerships, sustainability and accountability, the use of a knowledge base, human rights and a culture of lawfulness, interdependency, and differentiation.

This includes the importance of developing and adapting interventions to meet the needs of particularly vulnerable groups within communities, through inclusive and participatory approaches for example.

Such approaches apply equally to the development of strategic crime prevention to prevent violence against women from a gendered perspective. This includes considering the differential situations and experiences of men and women in terms of such issues as family responsibilities, unpaid work, income disparities, housing security, and limited access to decision-making. An increasing number of discussions and guides are becoming available. *The Handbook of Community Safety, Gender and Violence Prevention*. *Practical Planning Tools* is a recent guide to violence reduction in communities using a gendered approach, and provides a useful assessment of current initiatives internationally[89]. *Cuidades Para Convivir: Sin Violencias hacias las Mujeres* (2007) incluyes a series of debates on creating safe cities for women[90]. Many other guides to developing safe cities for women have been developed, including *Tools for the Promotion of Safe Cities from a Gender Perspective* (2006) developed for Latin America; *Preventing Gender-based violence in the Horn, East and Southern Africa*, (2005); and a gender equality city guide in Ottawa, Canada[91]. Many examples of good practices have been identified through women's safety awards and competitions for women-friendly cities[92]. They include examples of community mobilization, networking, capacity building and training, public awareness and education programmes, safety planning and public space design, and municipal gender-based policies.

89 Carolyn Whitzman (2008). *The Handbook of Community Safety, Gender and Violence Prevention*. *Practical Planning Tools.* London: Earthscan.

90 Ana Falu & Olga Segovia (Ed). Santiago, Chile: SUR.

91 Liliana Rainero et al. (2006). Cordoba Argentina : CISCSA; *Gender Equality Guide.* (2006); Lori Michau & Dipak Naker (2004) Preventing Gender-based Violence in the Horn, East and Southern Africa. Kampala : Raising Voices; *Gender Equality Guide.* (2006). Ottawa: City of Ottawa, City for All Women Initiative.

92 Eg. *Women's Safety Awards 2004. A compendium of good practices*. (2004). Montreal: Women in Cities International; IV Competition on Women Friendly Cities: Safer Cities for Women and Girls in Latin America and the Caribbean awarded in March 2008, in Costa Rica. www.safercities-competitions.org

A wide range of tools have been created in recent years to support the development of strategic policy development promoting women's safety. Better data collection and its disaggregation in terms of men and women is important. A number of **Observatories** on crime and social problems have been established recently to collect and monitor information. The *Gender, Ethnicity and Health Unit* (GE) of the Pan-American Health Organisation makes data available to aid policy making in Latin American countries. Its report "*Gender, Health and the Americas: Basic Indicators*", provides a sense of the magnitude of the problem of violence against women in countries in the Latin American region.[93] The *Observatorio Centroamericano sobre Violencia* (OCAVI) also compiles information on violence against women in Central America.

The increasing use of victimization surveys, and safety audits undertaken by women, help to support strategic planning. The IVAWS collects data on the patterns of activity and the location of violence, as well as insecurity. The Australian IVAWS report found, for example, that the amount of time spent in public places after dark increases likelihood of victimization, as does one's ability to defend against attack.[94]

Public awareness campaigns at national or local level are increasingly used to draw attention to gender-based violence. The government of Quebec uses public awareness campaigns on intimate partner violence "*La violence conjugale est un crime. Appelez votre service de police*", and on equality "*Pour que l'égalité de droit devienne une égalité de fait*". In South Africa an 'edutainment' approach has been developed to change attitudes about violence against women. In Panama, a 2005 national awareness campaign *Si eres hombre…depende de ti* (If you're a man, it depends on you) sought to sensitize men about violence against women, while Costa Rica has used a seven-phase national campaign to educate and sensitize the public about domestic violence, through the media[95]. Other approaches include *Neighbours, Friends and Family* initiative which provides a range of public announcement and public education materials, community action kits and videos developed to encourage people to become more alert to signs of violence against women in their communities[96].

Other initiatives provide **targeted awareness training** to specific groups. In Costa Rica, training and awareness-raising sessions have been conducted by local networks

93 See Pan American Health Organisation : www.paho.org/generoysalud.

94 Jenny Mouzos and Toni Makkai (2004), *Women's Experiences of Male Violence: Findings from the Australian Component of the International Violence Against Women Survey*, Research and Public Policy Series, n° 59, p. 34, Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

95 UN Comission on Human Rights (2005), *Respuestas oficiales al cuestionario de Sra. Yakin Ertuk, Relatora Especial sobre violencia contra la mujer, sus causes y consecuencias.* Misión Permanente de Costa Rica: Ginebra.

96 www.neighboursfriendsandfamiles.ca This project is currently being evaluated in Ottawa, Canada.

for judges, lawyers, medical workers, social workers, and the police. In El Salvador, the body which oversees the national action plan, ISDEMU, implemented a municipal prevention strategy including *Ferias Preventivas de la Violencia Intrafamiliar***,** or Domestic Violence Prevention Workshops, working with local authorities, institutions and civil society organizations to familiarize the local population about the problem of domestic violence and the institutions that work in the field, as well as train people on how to identify and denounce violence. Between 2002 and 2005, 276 workshops had taken place, with 252,795 people directly benefiting and 1,263,977 receiving indirect benefits[97]. The experience of women police stations in Brazil, and of women working in the *panchayat* police stations in the slums of Mumbai, India, provide further examples of attempts to increase the willingness of women to seek help and interact with the police[98].

Many **education initiatives** work with children and young people to help to change attitudes and behaviours. Based on a human rights perspective, the *Council of Europe* has recently published a manual for educators and youth leaders on preventing gender-based violence among young people[99]. A number of **school-based curriculum projects** which teach school children about gender relations now exist, such as the *Developing Healthy and Respectful Relationships* project developed and evaluated on Salt Spring Island, British Columbia, with support from the Canadian National Crime Prevention Centre[100].

An increasing number of education initiatives focus on **masculinity and working with men and boys**. For example, a programme in Nicaragua for 15-25 year old men sought to change their attitudes to gender relations[101]. Run by a Nicaraguan NGO specializing in communication between the sexes using popular education, the programme offered courses on masculinity for young men. An evaluation found considerable changes in attitudes among participants[102]. The United Nations has highlighted the need to work with men to address violence against women, and the UN International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women gives a number of local examples[103].

---

97 El Salvador (2005), *Información adicional presentada por El Salvador en respuesta a la solicitud de la relatora especial sobre violencia contra la mujer de las Naciones Unidas, Señora Yakin Ertürk.*

98 Cecilia McDowell Santos (2005). *Women"s Police Stations: Gender Violence and Justice in Sao Paulo, Brazil.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

99 *Gender Matters – A manual for addressing gender-based violence affecting young people*. (2008). Strasbourg: Council of Europe. http://book.coe.int

100 *Women's Safety Awards 2004. A compendium of good practices*. (2004). Montreal: Women in Cities International.

101 Cantera, see: http://www.canteranicaragua.org/que_es_cantera.htm [11 February 2008].

102 Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo (2001), Educación popular sobre masculinidad en Nicragua. BID. p. 8.

103 INSTRAW (2002), *Partners in Change: Working with Men to End Gender-Based Violence*, Santo Domingo: Instraw.

Safety planning and design has been another important area for local government strategic prevention, working with women's organizations or establishing specific roundtables or committees which include a range of women's organizations and stakeholders. Many guides now exist such as those developed by the City of Montreal, Canada, Goteburg, Sweden, or the work of the Women's Design Service in England[104]. This work ranges from improving the design and lighting of public spaces, to transport changes to create safer travel for women.

Women's safety audits have been a valuable participatory tool to aid such safety planning. They are designed to help identify specific problems for women in local environments through the use of exploratory walks by groups of women, and local city planners or officials. Originally developed by a Toronto-based organisation, the approach has been widely used and adapted in communities across Canada, in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, Delhi, India, Durban, South Africa, Warsaw, Poland, Rosario, Argentina, Bogota, Colombia and Santiago, Chile among others[105].

Beyond the practical application of women's safety audits, however, is their role in **capacity building** among civil society women's organizations, and in helping to engage municipal governments more directly with women in their strategic planning. This is not an easy task for many women's organizations, and models for building sustainable partnerships with local governments have been developed[106]. As recent experience in Central America indicates, women's organizations who work to reduce violence against women, begin to play an important role in creating stronger and more conflict resistant communities, as they gain understanding of how to work with local authorities and institutions, as well as their own communities[107]. At the local level, women can help to strengthening safety and peaceful relations through mediation and community leadership.

---

104 *Pour un environnement urbain sécuritaire: Guide d'aménagement.* Programme Femmes et villes. (2002). Montreal: City of Montreal; Anna Mtani (2007) 'Local innovations for crime prevention the case of safer cities of Dar-es Salaam.' In Shaw & Travers (ed). *Strategies and Best Practices for Crime Prevention in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*. Montreal: ICPC; Jagori (2007) *Safe Delhi: Make our city safe for women.*; and see Shaw & Andrews op. cit.

105 Shaw & Andrew (2005), op. cit.; UN-HABITAT (2007), *Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Global Report on Human Settlements 2007*, London: Earthscan; UN-Habitat (2007), Women's Safety Audits for a Safer Urban Design, Results of the pilot audit carried out in Centrum, Warsaw, Warsaw: UN-Habitat.

106 Two Canadian examples include *A City Tailored to Women.* (2004). Federation of Canadian Municipalities and City of Montreal; and *Building Community-Based Partnerships for Local Action on Women's Safety.* (2007). Montreal: Women in Cities International.

107 Jenny Pearce (2007). *Violence, power & participation: Building citizenship in contexts of chronic violence.* IDS Working Paper 274 Brighton, Sussex.

Gender-based violence presents many challenges, and has many regional and cultural variations. It is recognized, however, that in order to develop a more comprehensive *preventive* approach to promote the safety of women in all settings, we need to take a much broader view of the role of gender in crime prevention. The Safer Cities Programme of UN HABITAT continues to develop and support the safety of women in cities, seeing a city which is safe for women, as a city which is safe for all, and the Secretary General has just launched a global campaign to eradicate violence against women by 2015. There is much work to be done, but an increasing range of tools available to support strategic prevention at the community level, and widening range of organizations and networks committed to working in partnerships and with municipal governments at the local level.

References

City of Ottawa (2006).*Gender Equality Guide*, Ottawa: City of Ottawa & City for All Women Initiative.

City of Montreal (2002). *Pour un environnement urbain sécuritaire: Guide d'aménagement.* Programme Femmes et villes. Montreal: City of Montreal.

Council of Europe (2008). *Gender Matters – A manual for addressing gender-based violence affecting young people*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Available at: http://book.coe.int

Falu A., Segovia O. (Ed.) (2007). *Cuidades Para Convivir: Sin Violencias hacias las Mujeres*, Santiago, Chile: SUR.

FCM (2004). *A City Tailored to Women.* Montreal: Federation of Canadian Municipalities and City of Montreal.

Johnson, H., Ollus N. & Sami N. (2008). *Violence Against Women: An International Perspective*, New York: Springer.

ICPC (Forthcoming July 2008). 'Women's Safety' in *International Report on Crime Prevention and Community Safety*, Montreal: ICPC. Available at: www.crime-prevention-intl.org

INSTRAW (2002). *Partners in Change: Working with Men to End Gender-Based Violence*, Santo Domingo: INSTRAW.

Jagori (2007). *Safe Delhi: Make our city safe for women.* Delhi: Jagori. Available at: www.jagori.org

Jefthas D., Artz L. (2007). 'Youth violence: a gendered perspective', Patrick Burton (Ed.) *Someone Stole my Smile. An exploration of the causes of youth violence in South Africa.* Cape Town: Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention.

Mtani A. (2007). 'Local innovations for crime prevention: the case of safer cities Dar-es Salaam' in Shaw M. & Travers K. (Ed.) *Strategies and Best Practices for Crime Prevention in Particular in Relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk*. Proceedings of the Workshop held at the 11th UN Congress on Crime Prevention & Criminal Justice. Bangkok, Thailand, April 2005. Montreal: ICPC.

McDowell Santos C. (2005). *Women's Police Stations: Gender Violence and Justice in Sao Paulo, Brazil*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Michau, L., Dipak N. (2004). *Preventing Gender-based Violence in the Horn, East and Southern Africa*, Kampala: Raising Voices.

Mouzos J., Makkai T. (2004). *Women's Experiences of Male Violence: Findings from the Australian Component of the International Violence Against Women Survey.* Research and Public Policy Series, No. 59, Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

Pearce J. (2007). *Violence, power & participation: Building citizenship in contexts of chronic violence.* IDS Working Paper 274. Brighton. Sussex : Institute for Development Studies.

Rainero L. et al. (2006). *Tools for the Promotion of Safe Cities from a Gender Perspective*. Cordoba Argentina: CISCSA.

Shaw M., Capobianco L. (2004). *Developing Trust: International Approaches to Women's Safety*. Montreal: ICPC.

Shaw M., Andrew C. (2005). 'Engendering crime prevention.' *Canadian Journal of Criminology,* 47 (2) pp. 293-316.

UN Commission on Human Rights (2005). *Oficiales al cuestionario de Sra. Yakin Ertuk, Relatora Especial sobre violencia contra la mujer, sus causes y consecuencias.* Misión Permanente de Costa Rica: Ginebra.

United Nations General Assembly (2006), *In-Depth study on all forms of violence against women: Report of the Secretary-General*, A/61/122/Add.1.

United Nations (1997). *Model Strategies & Practical Measures on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the Field of Crime Prevention & Criminal Justice*. Adopted by ECOSOC resolution 52/86 1997.

UN HABITAT (2001). *Women and Urban Governance*. Policy Dialogue Series: Number 1. Nairobi: UNCHS.

UN-HABITAT (2007). *Women's Safety Audits for a Safer Urban Design. Results of the pilot audit carried out in Centrum, Warsaw.* Warsaw: UNCHS.

UN-HABITAT (2007). *Enhancing Urban Safety and Security: Global Report on Human Settlements 2007.* London: Earthscan.

UN-HABITAT (2007). *Global Assessment on Women's Safety*. (2007). Women in Cities International, Red Mujer Y Habitat LAC-HIC, and the Huairou Commission.

UNODC (2007). *Indicators, Crime and Violence against Women*. Supporting Paper, Expert Group Meeting on indicators to measure violence against women. Geneva, 8-10 October 2007.

Whitzman C. (2008). *The Handbook of Community Safety, Gender and Violence Prevention*. *Practical Planning Tools.* London: Earthscan.

WHO (2005). *Multi-Country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women*, Geneva : WHO.

WHO (2002). *World Report on Health and Violence*, Geneva : WHO.

WICI (2004). *Women's Safety Awards 2004. A compendium of good practices*, Montreal: Women in Cities International.

WICI (2007). *Building Community-Based Partnerships for Local Action on Women's Safety*, Montreal: Women in Cities International.

IDB (2001). *Educación popular sobre masculinidad en Nicaragua*. Washington DC: Interamerican Development Bank.

Photo: © Michele D'Ottavio

6
Coordinated Community Response in Violence Against Women

By Summer Acevedo, Cindy J. Smith, Brandi Meredith and George Fachner, National Institute of Justice (NIJ).

What is a Coordinated Community Response?

Coordinated community responses have multiple forms in the research literature. Early models included coordination of stakeholders within the criminal justice system, while more recent models include coordination of all stakeholders. They are based on cooperation between various community and public safety agencies, such as police, prosecutors, judges, and healthcare workers, and have a stated common goal. Coordinated community responses are a specific coordinated response to a variety of public needs that involves governmental and non-governmental agencies. Although the models vary significantly, they have two key components; active stakeholder participation and consensus on the response to the problem.

Coordinated community responses are becoming a way of incorporating the multi-disciplinary perspectives necessary to comprehensively address crime and social problems. While the coordinated community response models originally developed primarily to address issues of violence against women, variations of the coordinated community response model are being crafted in a broad array of crime areas, including, for example, community victim-centered models, elder abuse models, federal terrorist-event response programs, and rural crime-prevention models. Smaller, community-based agencies, such as victim advocate groups or counseling centers, are frequently involved in coordinated community responses (Keveles & Patchin, 2006). Conversely, the CCR model has also been used by the US Department of Homeland Security to prepare for potential terrorist attacks (Lum, et al., forthcoming).The common goals of coordinated community responses are centered on public or victim advocacy and safety. But, some programs have incorporated goals of broad social change (i.e. efforts to change an aspect of the community, such as the culture of permissiveness regarding domestic violence) (see, for example, Funk, 2001).

CCRs in the United States

There are two main types of Community Coordinated Responses that address violence against women: rape victimization and domestic violence programs. Rape victimization CCRs include Sexual Assault Response Teams (SART) and Sexual Assault Nurse Examiners (SANE). Domestic violence cases may or may not include rape victims. The most common model targeting domestic violence is the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (DAIP). These three models, SART, SANE & DAIP, were all developed by practitioners in the field. They use a victim-centered focus, meaning they respond and

are supportive first and foremost to the needs of the victim, to achieve the goals of a safe and effective response to women's victimization. The formation of the models was spurred in part by state and federal efforts to increase reporting rates for sexual assault and domestic violence, as well as to reduce case attrition and increase successful prosecution of offenders (Wilson & Klein, 2005).

Use of a CCR to address issues of violence against women began with development of the SART model in 1977. In the SART model, community actors form a united front to assist victims of sexual assault, while also working towards the goal of successful prosecution. For example, a police department may have a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) on file with a local SART that outlines the role of each group in administration of the program. Officers could be responsible for informing victims about SART services, and if victims were interested, would then refer them to SART coordinators (Wilson & Klein, 2005). Other community actors involved in SART include victim advocates, prosecutors, and healthcare providers. The role of the medical community is very important in the SART model. Attempts to improve this role led to the development and diffusion of SANE programs.

SANE programs began in the 1990's, with the primary goal of improving the traditional model used for sexual assault evidence exams (Littel, 2001). Like the SART model, the program is victim-centered and focuses on providing compassionate care for the victim, coupled with enhanced evidence collection techniques that increase the probability of prosecution and conviction for the offender (Littel, 2001).

The final type of victim-focused CCR is the Domestic Abuse Intervention Project (DAIP). The program was developed in Duluth, Minnesota in 1980 and serves as a model for other programs around the world, having conducted training in Scotland, New Zealand, and Germany (Pence & Shepherd, 1999). The state of Minnesota has developed almost 50 DAIPs in the first two decades after the program was created (Thelen, 2000).

The DAIP focuses on organizing community resources for women who want to leave an abusive relationship, as well as increasing protection for those who decide to stay in such relationships. Several actors in the community have created policies (e.g. mandatory arrest or court-mandated participation in batterer intervention programs) that may overlap and complement each other, and are all guided by the primary concern of victim safety (Shepard, Falk, & Elliott, 2002). Involved actors include dispatchers, medical personnel, police officers, correctional authorities, prosecutors, shelter workers, therapists, and probation officers. The response to each particular case is tailored to the needs of each victim, and evaluation of the model is listed as one of its eight essential activities (Pence & McMahon, 1997).

CCRs in the United Kingdom

CCRs were proliferating in the early 1990's in the United Kingdom, but lacked evaluation evidence (Morley, and Mullender, 1994). In the National Community Safety Plan for 2006-2009, the UK government identified CCR's as one of its 12 key priorities, recognizing that policing alone cannot be successful in producing safe communities. The make-up of CCR's in the UK include central and local government, agencies responsible for policing, offender management, health, education, and other services. Today, domestic violence accounts for 15% of the violent crime and 31% of the violence against women in the UK. As a result, a National Delivery Plan has been developed to outline the duties of the related agencies on how to protect the women and children (Home Office, 2006).

CCRs in Australia

CCRs are used in Australia in response to mental health issues. It is recognized that CCRs are more cohesive and coordinated in the rural areas (McNair, et al., 2002). Tasmania developed its CCR, Safe at Home, based on best practice components, including specific legislation, hotline, police response to the victim, increased funding for prosecutors, legal aid and the courts, support to the victim in negotiation the criminal justice system, counseling and housing for the victims and assessment and treatment for the offender (Winter, 2006).

Are Coordinated Community Responses effective?

Coordinated Community Responses represent a viable policy option in addressing public safety and public health concerns, but present several methodological issues for evaluation. These programs have been widely diffused in their original form. However, the CCR model is constantly being adjusted to attend to emerging community concerns. These methodological issues must be addressed in order for the CCR evaluation literature to evolve and be able to provide more robust conclusions about effectiveness. The use of quasi-experimental design, multivariate statistical techniques, and consistent operationalization of outcome measures will have large, beneficial impacts on the future of CCRs.

A review of evaluation results for the three main types of CCRs: SART, SANE, and DIAP programs reveals that, overall, there is positive empirical support for the effectiveness of these victim-focused CCRs (Crandall & Helitzer, 2003; Muftic & Bouffard, 2007). Unfortunately, there are no empirical studies on elder abuse or terror-event response CCRs to report. These programs are still in the development phase. However, the CCR models already in the evaluation stages provide an excellent framework for future efforts. Due to their obvious parallel with violence against women CCRs, it is anticipated elder abuse models will soon be subject to evaluation.

Terror-event response models are different on several dimensions, primarily their singular, episodic nature. Therefore, assessments regarding their efficacy will likely take time, and more importantly the attention of those directing implementation. According to the 2003 LEMAS, less than half of large police agencies and less than 1% of small agencies reported forging partnerships with culturally diverse communities, engaging in public anti-fear campaigns, disseminating information to increase citizen preparedness, and holding community meetings on homeland security and preparedness. Additionally, research has shown that community involvement in responses, planning, training, and to terrorist attacks is quite low (Lum, et al., forthcoming; also see LEMAS, 2003).

Victim-focused CCRs include the SART, SANE, and DIAP models, which were all created to address issues of violence against women. Prior to their development, there was no standardized method for collecting evidence in sexual assault cases. Many hospital staff were inexperienced with forensic procedures, as well as how to treat the sometimes delicate psychological state of victims before, during, and after the exam. The Office for Victims of Crime (OVC) of the U.S. Department of Justice has funded several projects that helped communities develop their own programs. In addition it has provided support for practitioners to complete training guidelines and manuals to be disseminated to healthcare professionals around the country (Ledray, 1999).

Unfortunately, there are no systematic reviews or meta-analyses available on CCRs for violence against women. These programs have been in operation for several decades, but evaluation of their responses appears to be their most weakly developed aspect. In the DIAP model, the most popular outcome measure is the recidivism rate for male offenders. Conversely, SART and SANE models often have a goal of successful prosecution, while victim safety is an important, but secondary priority. For all models, the use of experimental methods for evaluation is a significant obstacle in that victims self-assign to the “treatment” condition, thus making randomization or quasi-experimental methods difficult to implement.

The first outcome evaluation of a SART was conducted recently in Rhode Island. The Rhode Island SART, established in 2002, had the primary goal of helping victims throughout the criminal justice process, with a secondary goal of increasing successful prosecution of sexual assault cases. The researchers found positive effects regarding demand for services (i.e. victims were actively using the program), but there were no differences in the legal outcome between SART and non-SART cases (Wilson & Klein, 2005). Only 47 of the 238 cases examined were SART cases, which resulted in low levels of statistical power, thus making evaluation findings much less robust than if a significantly larger number of SART cases had been examined (Wilson & Klein, 2005).

Evaluations of SANE programs have produced more promising results. Crandall and Helitzer (2003) conducted the first comprehensive evaluation on a New Mexico SANE program created in 1996. Their study evaluated the impact of SANE services in four areas: healthcare, victim services, law enforcement, and prosecution. They found positive results for all categories, with more victims receiving medical services for sexual assaults (e.g. STD treatment, pregnancy testing), increased referral to victim services, increased reporting to police, more charges filed by police, higher conviction rates, and longer average sentences for post-SANE cases. However, no differences between the pre and post-groups were found in the number of case dismissals or acquittals (Crandall & Helitzer, 2003).

Campbell, Patterson, & Lichty (2005) offer a review of SANE studies on three outcomes: psychological impact, quality of forensic evidence collection, and use of prosecution. Their review shows tentative evidence supporting positive impacts of SANE programs across the United States. However, their main conclusion is that the literature is primarily composed of case-studies and the lack of empirical work prevents stronger statements from being made about the nationwide success of SANE programs.

Although evaluation of the Duluth model is listed as one of its eight essential activities, the process of evaluation is described only as an “audit” that examines how well the various agents were “organized central to victim safety” (Pence and McMahon, 1997). There is no mention of data collection on physical injury, psychological state, or legal outcomes for victims. A study that examined domestic violence CCRs in 4 states (California, Maryland, Minnesota, and Missouri) focused on process, rather than outcome of the programs (Clark, et al., 1996), representing a significant missed opportunity for empirical outcome evaluation.

Despite this limited blueprint for evaluation, several studies have examined outcomes for victims involved in CCRs targeting domestic violence. Overall, these results have generally been favorable, supporting the conclusion that male offenders are less likely

to recidivate after treatment in the program (Muftic & Bouffard, 2007; Murphy, Musser & Maton, 1998; Shepard, Falk, & Elliott, 2002). These lower levels of recidivism speak directly to the goals of enhanced victim safety.

In addition to promising findings, there are clearly several opportunities in the area of evaluation for CCRs targeting violence against women. Taken together, the findings of these studies demonstrate the need for more consistent operationalization of outcome measures, coupled with improvements in experimental design and statistical methods of analysis. Important questions still remain about which types of programs are most effective (e.g. does a SART program need a SANE?), which types of victims (if any) the programs work best for, and the mechanisms that are involved with program success (Campbell, Patterson, & Lichty, 2005).

How do I create a Coordinated Community Response?

To understand CCRs at the macro level, we can examine the elements necessary for the successful implementation of domestic violence CCRs (Uekert, 2003). Two required elements for success are the active participation of key stakeholders in the response, and consensus among those stakeholders about the most appropriate response (Uekert, 2003). The first element, stakeholder participation, also explains why CCRs are not present in every community, addressing the myriad public policy or social programs. Participation of and teamwork by key stakeholders is not always readily available, especially when the change in underlying beliefs about the issue is drastic. Additionally, the process of developing CCRs includes raising awareness of the issues and needs of the community and victim, changing current responses to these needs, and changing the relationship between agencies (both governmental and non-governmental) who have historically been in competition or at direct opposition (Clark, Burt, Schulte & Maguire, 1996). Finally, turf wars or political motives can prevent the development of successful CCRs. The second element, consensus among the stakeholders, follows after education of the issue is completed and change in attitude has occurred.

References

— (2002). *World Population Ageing 1950-2050,* Department of Economic and Social Affairs: Population Division. United Nations. Available at: http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/worldageing19502050/

Crandall, C., & Helitzer, D. (2003). *Impact Evaluation of a Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner (SANE) Program*, Washington, DC: Final Report to the National Institute of Justice.

Campbell, R., et al. (2001). *Preventing the "Second Rape": Rape Survivors' Experiences with Community Service Providers,* Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 16(12), 1239-1259.

Campbell, R., D. Patterson, and L. Lichty (2005). *The effectiveness of Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner (SANE) Programs. Trauma, Violence, and Abuse*, *6*(4), 313-329.

Clark, S. J., M. R. Burt, M. M. Schulte, & K. E. Maguire. (1996). *Coordinated Community Responses to Domestic Violence in Six Communities*. *Beyond the Justice System*, Urban Institute.

Davis, L, Riley, J., Ridgeway, G., Pace, J., Cotton. S., Steinberg, P., Damphousse, K., & Smith, B. (2004). *When terrorism hits home: How prepared are state and local law enforcement*? Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Eyerman, J. & Strom, K.J. (2005). *A cross-national comparison of interagency coordination between law enforcement and public health,* Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

Foster, C. & Cordner, G. (2006). *The impact of terrorism on state law enforcement: Adjusting to new roles and changing conditions*, The Council of State Governments and Eastern Kentucky University. Available at: http://www.csg.org/pubs/Documents/Misc0504Terrorism.pdf

Funk, R.E. (2001). *A Coordinated Collaborative Approach to Address and Combat Teen Dating Abuse*, Working Paper #6, United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW).

Home Office (2006). *National Community Safety Plan, 2006-2009*. Available at: www.crimereduction.gov.uk/ncsp

Keveles, G. N. & Patchin, J. W. (2006). *Rural Criminal Justice: A Coordinated Community Response to Crime Problems. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Society of Criminology (ASC),* Los Angeles Convention Center, Los Angeles, CA Online. Available at: http://www.allacademic.com/meta/p125692_index.html

Ledray, L. E. (1999). *Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner (SANE) Development & Operation Guide*, Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Justice.

Littel, K. (2001). *Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner (SANE) Programs: Improving the Community Response to Sexual Assault Victims*, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Lum, C., Haberfeld, M., Fachner, G., and Lieberman, C. (forthcoming). "Police strategies and tactics in fighting terrorism and crime: What we know and what we need to know," in D. Weisburd (Ed.) *To Protect and To Serve: Policing in the Years of Terrorism – and Beyond*, Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice.

McCue, B., Hughes, C.A., & Ward, K.M. (2003). *Analysis planning for a domestic weapon-of-mass-destruction exercise*, Alexandria, VA: The CNA Corporation.

McNair, B., N. Highet, I. Hickie, & T. Davenport (2002). "Exploring the perspectives of people whose lives have been affected by depression." in *Depression and the Community. Vol 176: S69-S76.*

Morley, R. & Mullender, A. (1994). *Preventing domestic violence to women*, Home Office Police Research Group.

Murphy, C. M., Musser, P. H., & Maton, K. I. (1998). "Coordinated community intervention for domestic abusers: Intervention system involvement and criminal recidivism," *Journal of Family Violence, 13*, 263-284.

Muftic, L. R. and J. Bouffard (2007). "An Evaluation of Gender Differences in the Implementation and Impact of a Comprehensive Approach to Domestic Violence," in *Violence Against Women, 13*(1), 46-69.

Pence, E. and M. McMahon (1997). *A Coordinated Community Response to Domestic Violence,* Duluth, Minnesota: The National Training Project.

Pence, E. and M. Shepherd (1999). *Coordinated community responses to domestic violence: Lessons from Duluth and beyond, Sage Publications, Inc.*

Shepard, M. E., Falk, D. R., & Elliot, B. A. (2002). "Enhancing coordinated community responses to reduce recidivism in cases of domestic violence," in *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 17*, 551-569.

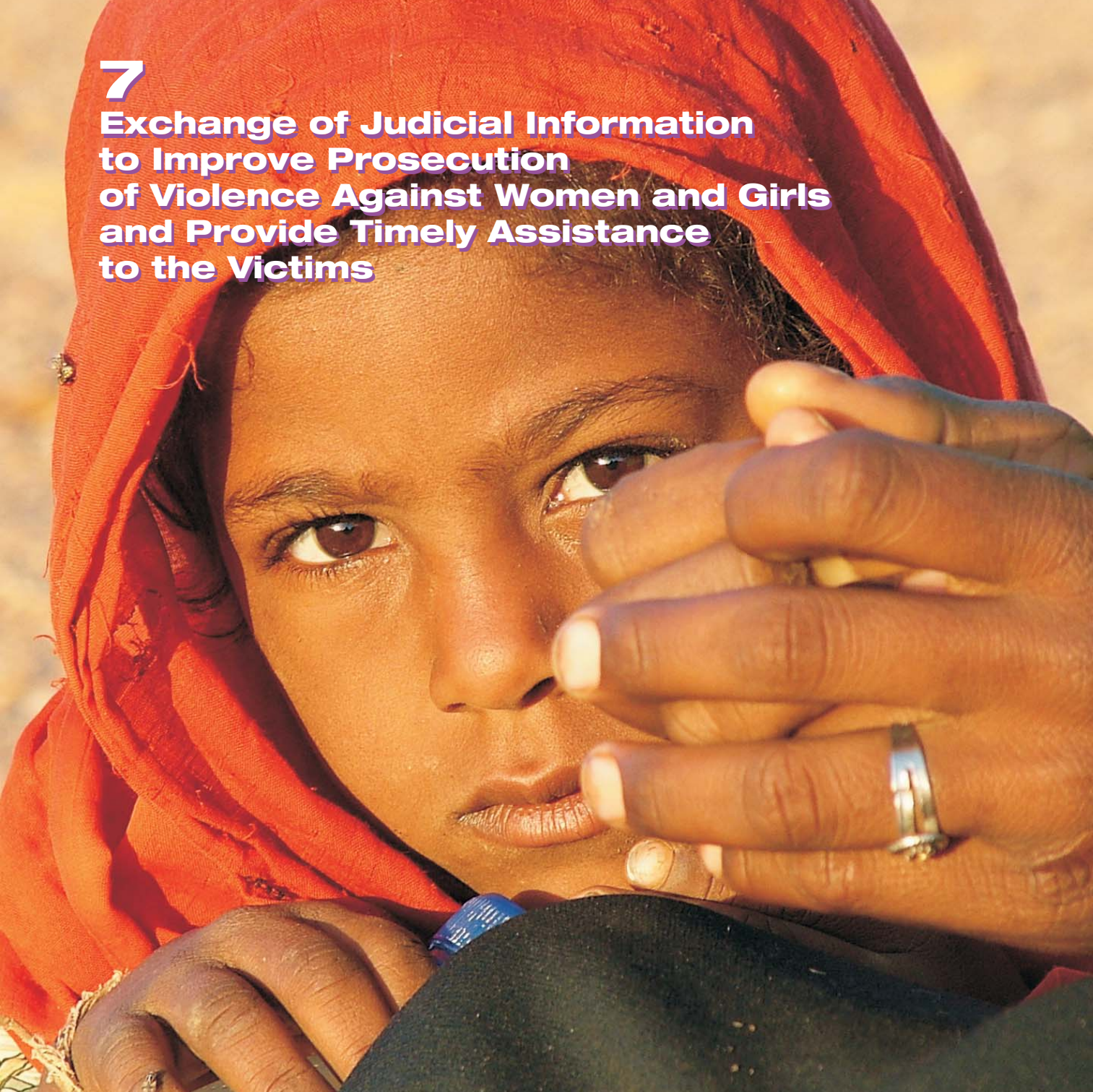
Thelen, R. (2000). *Advocacy in a Coordinated Community Response: Overview and Highlights of Three Programs*, Gender Violence Institute.

Uekert, B. (2003). "The Value of Coordinated Community Responses," in Criminology and Public Policy, 3(1), 133-136.

Wilson, D. and A. Klein (2005). *An Evaluation of the Rhode Island Sexual Assault Response Team (SART)*, Washington, DC: Report to the National Institute of Justice.

Winter, R. (2006). *Researching family violence.* Tasmanian Institute of Law Enforcement Studies, Briefing Paper #2.

Photo: © Tina Imbriano



7 Exchange of Judicial Information to Improve Prosecution of Violence Against Women and Girls and Provide Timely Assistance to the Victims

By Francesca Bosco, Consultant, UNICRI Emerging Crimes and Anti-Human Trafficking Unit.

Violence against women and girls persists in every country worldwide as an undiminished violation of human rights and a major obstacle to achieving gender equality, development and peace. It transcends cultural, ethnic, economic and generational boundaries. Violence against women has a far deeper impact than the immediate harm caused. It has devastating consequences for the women who experience it, and a traumatic effect on those who witness it, particularly children. It shames states that fail to prevent it and societies that tolerate it. The United Nations Secretary-General, through a multi-year system-wide campaign[108], is lending UN leadership to increase the visibility of violence against women as a violation of human rights and a significant impediment to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

Violence against women must be eliminated through political will and by legal and civil action in all sectors of society. A coordinated criminal justice response to dealing with the multifaceted issues arising from violence against women and girls is fundamental. Article 1 of the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000)[109] states that the purpose of the Convention is to promote cooperation to prevent and combat transnational organised crime more effectively. We should remember that no country is capable of defeating violence against women alone.

International legal and policy frameworks – including the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993)[110] – have been established to address and respond to the many different forms of violence against women. In December 2006, the General Assembly adopted resolution 61/143 on the intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women. In paragraph 12 of the resolution, the General Assembly urged the entities of the United Nations system, *inter alia*, to support the strengthening of national capacities and efforts on the collection, processing and dissemination of data for their possible use in the national plans of action against all forms of violence against women. The Assembly urged those entities to enhance the coordination of and intensify their efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls in a more systematic, comprehensive and sustained way. Data on violence against women is essential to inform sound policy, and many entities, at the national, regional and international level, undertake or support the collection of such data.

---

108 For more information, please visit: http://endviolence.un.org/

109 Status of ratifications (as at March 2008): Signatories: 147, Parties: 140.

110 UN General Assembly, *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women*, Resolution A/RES/48/104, 23 February 1994, which defines violence against women as "…any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life."

Although the knowledge base of all forms of violence against women needs to be strengthened, some progress has been made in documenting some of the most common forms, particularly intimate violence from a partner, sexual violence, female genital mutilation/cutting and child sexual abuse. However, there are still many forms of violence that remain largely undocumented. Efforts are ongoing to improve the quality of data collection, but in some cases, new methods need to be developed to adequately understand the extent and dynamics of these under-documented forms of violence. Under-documented forms of violence against women include, among others, femicide, sexual violence against women in armed conflict and post-conflict situations and trafficking in women for sexual and other exploitation. Trafficking of women is fundamentally a manifestation of violence. Its victims, predominantly women and girls, suffer the brunt of this insidious form of violence. It is about abuse, exploitation, coercion, deception, abduction, rape, physical and mental abuse, prostitution, forced labor, and indentured servitude. It is about high profits and low risks. In certain cases, it is even about death.

Statistics available in this area are notoriously unreliable. Many countries do not have proper trafficking legislation or have legislation that is inadequate. Even where legislation is in place, few traffickers are successfully prosecuted. There is often no centralized agency collecting data on human trafficking. Statistics may be reported by individual government agencies, by NGOs, the media or international or regional organizations, but these data sources are rarely linked and are often not comparable. Trafficked women rarely report their situation to the authorities and are often unwilling to cooperate with law enforcement officials if identified and rescued.

With regard to trafficking, several regional and national initiatives have begun to develop comprehensive databases to provide information on international trafficking routes, sources, transit and destination countries and on the number of trafficked victims and offenders.

UNICRI approach

UNICRI has wide expertise in the field of information and data exchange mechanisms, especially in the area of counter human trafficking activities. Some components of our programmes aim to enhance data collection on victims facing different forms of violence and try to attain a complete picture of the phenomenon and its numerous dimensions. Information exchange mechanisms allow the gathering of data to

follow-up on crime trends. They help to develop potential solutions as well as adopt new strategies and methodologies. Accurate and comprehensive data and other documentation are crucial to monitoring and enhancing State accountability for violence against women and for devising effective responses. The role of the state in promoting research, collecting data and compiling statistics is addressed in policy instruments. Introducing a system to document incidents and patterns of violence against women is important not only for defining and quantifying the problem, but also for tracking and monitoring cases.

Moreover, specialized training of criminal justice system practitioners (police, prosecutors, magistrates, judges) on responding to violence against women is pivotal. All those who respond to violence against women, such as law enforcement officers, immigration, judicial and medical personnel and social workers, require the capacity to deal with such violence in a gender-sensitive manner. Training relating to violence against women can contribute to such efforts. The kinds of training should vary from broad gender and cross-cultural sensitivity issues to specific training: e.g. training of prosecutors on the detection, registration and investigation of: violence against women; of law enforcement officers on front-end service delivery; and of service providers, such as health and legal practitioners. Thanks to multidisciplinary training courses carried out by UNICRI, important networks have been formed: personal contacts are often vital. Direct contacts can open communications channels more easily and develop familiarity and confidence necessary to optimize outcomes from mutual legal assistance.

Applied research for good practices: UNICRI experience

There are three examples, drawn from UNICRI technical cooperation programs, that can be considered as promising practices with regards to the investigation and prosecution of cases of human trafficking.

The landmark United Nations Convention on Transnational Organized Crime and its supplementary protocols on trafficking in persons and migrant smuggling[111], reflected the growing recognition by governments of the trans-boundary and organized crime dimension of the problem of trafficking in humans. This is also reflected in the largely law and order approach used in anti-trafficking initiatives. With regard to information

[111] Adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 15 November 2000, and entered into force on 29 September 2003.

exchange mechanisms, many articles, such as Article 18 of the Convention[112], are dealing with this issue. In the Trafficking Protocol[113] there is no specific Article that deals with cooperation between States Parties as a general subject. Instead, various Articles set out a series of specific obligations for cooperation with other States Parties with respect to specific subject matter[114]. Nevertheless, Article 10 of the protocol requires the sharing of information about a range of relevant matters, including the identification of possible victims and/or traffickers in transit and information about the various means used by offenders, including the misuse of travel or identity documents. In order to efficiently combat human trafficking, States should establish direct channels of communication, particularly with officials in neighbouring countries. UNICRI is actively involved in designing projects with this fundamental element as their goal.

In Costa Rica, in the framework of the project "Action Programme against Trafficking in Minors for Sexual Purposes", funded by the Italian Cooperation and implemented by UNICRI in collaboration with the local NGO *Fundación Paniamor*, UNICRI set up an operational information system for Public Prosecutors' Offices to follow up cases relating to sexual exploitation of children and trafficking, targeted at Public Prosecutors' Offices. SISCESCO is an important, user-friendly tool for data collection that can help the Prosecutors' Offices to build stronger cases against those who sexually exploit, and improve their investigating skills and strategies. It also supports the Office of the Attorney General in drawing up policies against these crimes.

The aim of the system is to provide the responsible institutions (*Fiscalías de Delitos Sexuales*) with data on crimes related to sexual exploitation and trafficking of minors in order to:

- contribute to the efficiency of the judicial processes aiding the building of stronger cases against those who sexually exploit;
- develop more effective national judicial strategies, public policies and methods of investigation;
- identify patterns of crimes and sentences and a possible profile of the offender;
- identify personnel needs related to the average process of criminal investigation;

[112] See Article 18-Mutual legal assistance, Article 19-Joint investigations, Article 26-Measures to enhance cooperation with law enforcement authorities, Article 27-Law enforcement cooperation.

[113] Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000).
Status of ratifications (as at March 2008): Signatories: 117, Parties: 118.

[114] Moreover, see Protocol Articles 6 (3) and 9 (3) for obligations to cooperate with entities who are not States Parties to the Protocol.

- aid in the elaboration of risk factors;
- aid in decision-making regarding agreements of bilateral and multinational cooperation;
- establish the average time-frame between the report of a case and the completion of the judicial process;
- design training programs;
- provide information for the proper allocation of budgetary and personnel needs in regions where the problem of commercial sexual exploitation of children and trafficking in children is more pronounced.

In this framework, it is important to underline the role of specialized Public Prosecutors' Offices in the investigation of cases of sexual exploitation of children and trafficking in children for sexual purposes. In order to enhance the effectiveness of the State's response to violence against women, specialized courts can improve efficiency and minimize the burden on victims and improve case outcomes when prosecutors, judges and other court officers have received relevant training. Specialized police units also aim to provide a safe environment for women who report violence and to enhance police response to violence against women through specialized officers. Everybody acknowledges the key role played by the police. As the initial point of contact between most victims and the justice system, they can ensure an effective and consistent response to violence against women[115].

In Thailand, UNICRI developed a national database on human trafficking. The database, accessible via an intranet website, provides holistic data on both the prosecution of cases and the assistance of victims. It is also an important tool in strengthening the exchange of information among stakeholders (including NGOs), and in helping government authorities in the formulation of policies as well as in their monitoring and evaluation.

The website is arranged on three levels. The first level is accessible to the public and contains general information on the phenomenon, such as statistics on human trafficking cases, countries of origin or destination of trafficked victims, trends and so on; the other two levels provide confidential data that can only be accessed by officials dealing with an individual case.

[115] For more information, please see: http://www.unicri.it/wwd/trafficking/minors/activities_costarica.php

The database template was improved through recommendations provided by the agencies concerned, such as police, prosecutors, judges and NGOs working on the issue. The template was then submitted to the "National Sub-Committee to Set Up a Database on Human Trafficking", which operates under the Office of the Prime Minister. The system is managed by a central Government authority and its use made compulsory through a government order[116].

In Nigeria, during a pilot technical cooperation program[117] on trafficking in persons from Nigeria to Italy, UNICRI, within the National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP), created a National Monitoring Centre (NMC). This activity was deemed necessary to make up-to-date information concerning trafficking available to relevant officials in both Nigeria and Italy. An international group of experts[118]suggested the creation of a centralized database. They stressed the importance of collecting data especially concerning the investigation and prosecution of trafficking cases and to ensure the compatibility of this data with that collected in Italy and other European countries. To facilitate exchanges of compatible data in the future, the Task Forces recommended the establishment of a database similar to that used by the Italian National Antimafia Bureau (DNA), the SIDDA 2000. This operational tool is the result of several years of work and consolidated experience on behalf of the DNA. One of the advantages of SIDDA 2000 is that it was selected by Eurojust as a model for the creation of similar databases in other European countries, meaning that, in the future, data and judicial information on trafficking and criminal networks may be exchanged on a broader scale[119].

To support NAPTIP and in particular the NMC, UNICRI is launching a project which will follow the recommendation of experts and will adapt this comprehensive and integrated database to the Nigerian context. This process will also see the active involvement and participation of key NAPTIP personnel in critical stages of the software's development. The purpose is to develop a sense of ownership and capacity in Nigeria and to ensure that the database can be properly operated, modified and adapted to future needs without external assistance.

---

116 For more information, please see: http://www.unicri.it/wwd/trafficking/minors/activities_thailand.php

117 From 2002 to 2004.

118 In the field of bilateral cooperation and capacity building, the programme (Nigeria-Phase 1-2002-2004) achieved an extremely important result: the establishment of two Task Forces composed by representatives of Italian and Nigerian institutions working in the field of anti-trafficking and victims' assistance and reintegration, and selected experts. The two Task Forces worked closely together, thereby giving birth to new mechanisms of collaboration between Italian and Nigerian institutions. For the first time Nigerian and Italian law enforcement officials and prosecutors came together to discuss and devise common strategies and actions against the heinous phenomenon of trafficking.

119 For more information, please see: http://www.unicri.it/wwd/trafficking/nigeria/index.php

The software SIDDA 2000, offered as an in-kind contribution by the Italian Ministry of Justice, will be adapted for this purpose to fit the priority needs of NAPTIP and to adequately match local conditions and capacity[120].

Recommendations

Violence against women will not be eradicated without political will and commitment at the highest levels to make it a priority locally, nationally, regionally and internationally. It is a phenomenon that can only be overcome if all players, inside and outside Governments can work together based on sound information about the phenomenon, how it is evolving and how it is affected or not by various interventions. Progress has been made in improving coordination at several levels, but many efforts should still be made to implement the best strategies. We need a truly integrated response to the problem of violence against women. UNICRI has made the following recommendations in accordance with our experience:

Adopt a Women's Rights Approach and promote gender equality

Violence against women is an extreme manifestation of gender inequality that needs to be addressed urgently. Such violence in turn perpetuates this inequality. Improving women's legal and socio-economic status is likely to be, in the long term, a key intervention in reducing women's vulnerability to violence. National efforts to challenge the widespread tolerance and acceptance of violence against women are also important. Governments should strive to harmonize their legislation with these commitments and bring about the necessary changes in national laws, policies and programmes[121]. Advocacy for gender equality and human rights, and monitoring of national progress towards international commitments, need to be strengthened. Governments should accelerate the development of comprehensive legislative frameworks to criminalize all forms of violence against women and ensure that violence against women is prosecuted and punished.

---

120 Carefully selected technical staff of NAPTIP will be trained, not only during the design phase but also prior to its testing. These staff will later be expected to train others in NAPTIP so that knowledge and skills will be consolidated within the agency.

121 Taking into consideration the high percentage (more than 90%) of ratifications obtained by the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), States should focus on the development of concrete actions to ensure the implementation of the Convention.

Sensitize legal and justice practitioners to the particular needs of female victims of violence

Criminal justice systems as a whole need to be assessed comprehensively to ensure that women seeking justice and protection are treated appropriately and professionally. All those who make up the criminal justice system (police, investigators, medico-legal staff, lawyers, judges, etc.) should be trained and sensitized to consider and address the particular needs and priorities of abused women. Gathering evidence of violence should be part of a comprehensive package of care, including counselling and relevant treatment. A coordinated approach from both the criminal justice system and appropriate civil law protection agencies is necessary to ensure that women's safety is foremost. Creating special units within existing law enforcement structures, with a specific mandate to develop and effectively target operational activities to combat violence against women, as well as establishing special national focal points are also important.

Enhance capacity and establish systems for data collection to monitor violence against women

In order to design and implement an adequate response to the problem we need reliable and consistent data and other information about the prevalence, the causes, the nature and the consequences of violence against women. Standardized research instruments and methodologies make it possible to measure, compare and interpret data across jurisdictions and over time. Responsibility for such tools should be explicitly given to an institution, agency or government unit, to ensure the use of a standardized methodology and the establishment of mechanisms to guarantee that data will be disseminated and used properly. Data on the number of cases of violence that come to the attention of the police and a systematic process to track either referrals or judicial outcomes are key elements of a comprehensive strategy to address violence against women. Moreover, there is a strong need to establish direct channels of communication between competent authorities, agencies and services, including special units and focal points.

With specific regard to trafficking, several regional and national initiatives have begun to develop comprehensive databases to provide information on international trafficking routes, sources, transit and destination countries, and on the numbers of trafficked victims and offenders.

Implement multidisciplinary action plans to address violence against women

The prevention of violence against women should be placed high on national public, social and legal agendas. Governments should publicly acknowledge that the problem exists, make a commitment to act, plan and implement national programmes both to avert future violence and to respond to it when it occurs. They should also invest significant resources in programmes to address violence against women. Reducing violence against women will take concerted and coordinated action across a range of different sectors (e.g. international organizations, judiciary and police, health and social services, and the media). It is important to enhance multi-disciplinary co-ordination and co-operation at the national and regional level with a view to ensuring an integrated approach to victims of violence, taking into account the specific needs of both adult and child victims.

Enhance formal and informal support services for women suffering from violence

Few women seek help and support from formal services or institutions (e.g. social workers, counsellors, shelters). This reflects many factors, one of the most important being simply the lack of such services, particularly in rural areas. In addition, many women lacked confidence in existing services, believing that they would not act impartially or with sensitivity. In many cases they also believed that the services would not have any impact on their situation. This highlights the need for better and more accessible support services where women can safely disclose their experience of violence. It is necessary that States adopt appropriate measures for the protection of victims of violence to avoid stigmatisation as well as the risk of re-victimisation[122]. They should endeavour to provide victims of violence with short- and long-term legal, psychological medical and social assistance in order to promote their full recovery.

[122] It is also important to stress the requirement to cooperate with entities which are not States Parties to the Trafficking Protocol (Articles 6 (3) and 9 (3)). These articles recognize the importance of "non-governmental organizations, other relevant organizations and other elements of civil society" in providing victim assistance and establishing preventative measures. Many victims are reluctant to come forward to officials or agencies too closely associated with the State. The value and principal role of NGOs in such situations lies in their independence and ability to act on behalf of victims, often serving as a bridge between otherwise isolated victims and officials.

Raise awareness

Public awareness campaigns are a widespread approach to addressing violence against women. Campaigns to describe and communicate the unacceptability of violence against women are a stepping-stone towards change through the development of awareness and knowledge. The joint action of education and awareness campaigns is vital to tackle violence against women. There is a need for a multi-faceted campaign to raise awareness and understanding of violence against women and to promote cooperation in creating a safer environment for women and children.

References

United Nations (2000), *United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.*

United Nations (2000), *Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.*

United Nations (2006), Background documentation for: 61st session of the General Assembly Item 60(a) on advancement of women Secretary-General's study on violence against women. Forthcoming as document A/61/122/Add. 1

United Nations Secretary General (2006), *Ending violence against women. From words to action. Study of the Secretary General*. United Nations: New York.

UNODC (2006), *Assistance for the Implementation of the ECOWAS Plan of Action against Trafficking in Persons. Training Manual,* UNODC: Vienna.

UNICRI website: www.unicri.it

Photo: © Tina Imbriano

8
The Institutes Comprising the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme Network (PNI)

In recognition of the importance of regional and interregional cooperation, and in response to various legislative mandates, a network of institutes was established by the Secretariat of the United Nations, to assist the international community in strengthening international cooperation in the crucial area of crime prevention and criminal justice in the global, regional and sub-regional levels. The components of the network provide a variety of services, including exchange of information, research, training and specialized education.

Since the creation of the oldest institute in 1962 in Tokyo, Japan, this United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme Network (PNI) has grown in number and presently consists of the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and several interregional and regional institutes around the world, as well as specialized centres.

Major activities among the institutes include the organization of joint events and meetings. The role of PNI in preparing the U.N. Quinquennial Crime Congresses has grown in significance over the years. The Programme Network has also started, on a standing basis, to cooperate in the organization of practical workshops and events in support of the work of the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice during its annual sessions. These activities are in fulfillment of the mandates given to the Institutes by the Commission to provide technical assistance to Member States on relevant issues of the Programme. The topics of these workshops are related to the thematic debate of the Commission. Accordingly, the areas covered have dealt with prison issues, criminal justice reform, trafficking in human beings and the promotion of the rule of law and this year violence against women.

Australian Institute of Criminology - AIC

The Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC), an Australian government agency, is the national centre for the analysis and dissemination of criminological data and information. It aims to be responsive to the needs of the government and the community with respect to policy issues in the fields of justice and the prevention and control of crime, and provides authoritative information on a national level in these fields. Policy relevant research is undertaken at the AIC within four main program areas:

- Crime monitoring, including violent, property and drug related crime. Major projects include drug use monitoring; national homicide, firearms and armed

robbery monitoring; bushfire related arson; and analysis of national/international crime surveys;

- Crime reduction and review, focusing on innovative approaches to local crime prevention, the criminal justice response to drug related crime, evaluation and capacity building;
- Global, economic and electronic crime, analysing the causes, prevention and control of fraud, cybercrime, hi-tech crime and the identification of emerging criminal threats and response strategies; and

Justice and crime analysis, providing information on juvenile crime, community corrections and prisoners and violence against women. Major projects include the national deaths in custody monitoring program and drug use careers of offenders. The AIC disseminates its research through conferences, roundtables, its website and its various publications.

GPO Box 2944
Canberra ACT 2601, Australia
Tel: +61.2.6260 9200
Fax: +61.2.6260 9201
e-mail: front.desk@aic.gov.au
home page: www.aic.gov.au
Director: Ms. Toni Makkai

Basel Institute on Governance

The Basel Institute on Governance is an independent and non-profit institution associated with the University of Basel. The main responsibilities of the Institute include the conduct of scientific research, policy advice and the support of capacity building in the area of public, corporate and global governance. Its primary objective evolves around the fight against corruption and money laundering. These aims are pursued through the assistance in the establishment of regulation mechanisms and compliance systems.

The International Centre for Asset Recovery of the Institute is specialized in the training and assistance of developing countries on the practical issues of tracing, confiscating and repatriating the proceeds of corruption, money laundering and related crimes. The

advisory and training services of the Centre is accompanied by follow-up consultancy by asset recovery experts and an online information service. The main objective of ICAR's work is to support developing countries in the implementation of the provisions of chapter V on asset recovery of the UN Convention against Corruption (UNCAC). The ICAR has been established in July 2006 in order to provide a permanent source of advice or training in international incidents of asset recovery.

Peter Merian-Weg 8
P.O. Box
CH-4002 Basel
Tel: +41.61.267 0500
Fax: +41.61.267 2481
e-mail: info@baselgovernance.org
http://www.baselgovernance.org
Director: Ms. Gretta Fenner

European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations - HEUNI

HEUNI, the regional institute for Europe, was established through an Agreement between the United Nations and the Government of Finland, signed on 23 December 1981. The primary objective of HEUNI is to promote the international exchange of information on crime prevention and control among European countries. Its main activities are the organization of meetings, the conduct of research and the provision of technical assistance to Governments on request. The topics recently covered by HEUNI include such as reporting on the United Nations Surveys on Crime Trends and Operations of Criminal Justice Systems, cross border crime, trafficking in persons, violence against women and prisons issues.

P.O. Box 444,
00531 Helsinki, Finland
Tel: + 358.10.366 5280
Fax: + 358.10.366 5290
e-mail: heuni@om.fi
home page: www.heuni.fi
Director: Mr. Kauko Aromaa

Institute for Security Studies - ISS

The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) was originally established as the Institute for Defence Policy in 1991 and has offices in Pretoria and Cape Town and Malawi. The ISS is a regional research institute operating across sub-Saharan Africa, staffed by more than sixty full-time employees representing a broad political spectrum from half a dozen African countries. In recent years the Institute has become more regionally focused, acting in support of the Southern African Development Community (SADC), Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) and the African Union (AU), and co-operating with a number of governments, institutes and organisations in the region such as the Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organisation (SARPCCO). ISS research teams travel extensively within the continent, conducting seminars and hosting training sessions. As well as larger conferences, the Institute runs a series of free monthly seminars. These sessions provide the opportunity for informed discussion around a single topical subject. Towards the end of 1996 the mission of the Institute expanded to reflect a concern with the enhancement of human security in Africa, achieved through applied research and the dissemination of information relating to individual, national, regional and international security. The Institute is committed to core values of democracy, good governance and the promotion of common security. By advocating an approach based on common security the Institute aims to encourage countries, particularly African countries, to shape their political and security policies in co-operation with one another.

P.O. Box 1787, Brooklyn Square
Pretoria 0075, South Africa
Tel: +27.12.3469 500
Fax: +27.12.4600 998
home page: www.issafrica.org
Executive Director: Mr. Jakkie Cilliers

International Centre for Criminal Law Reform and Criminal Justice Policy - ICCLR & CJP

The International Centre was established in Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada in 1991 as one of two interregional institutes in the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme. The Centre's mission is to promote the rule of law, human rights, democracy and good governance. It fulfills its purpose by contributing to local, national and international efforts to support law reform initiatives and to improve the administration of criminal justice. The International Centre conducts research and policy analysis, undertakes the development and delivery of technical assistance programs and provides public information, consultation and education relating to the international field of criminal law, criminal justice policy and crime prevention issues.

1822 East Mall, Vancouver
B.C., Canada V6T 1Z1
Tel: +1.604.822 9875
Fax: +1.604.822 9317
e-mail: icclr@law.ubc.ca
home page: www.icclr.law.ubc.ca
President: Daniel Préfontaine

International Centre for the Prevention of Crime - ICPC

ICPC is an international forum for national governments, local authorities, public agencies, specialized institutions, and non-government organisations to exchange experience, consider emerging knowledge, and improve policies and programmes in crime prevention and community safety. It assists cities and countries to reduce delinquency, violent crime and insecurity. It helps put knowledge into action by:

- Making the knowledge base for strategic crime prevention and community safety better known and more accessible worldwide.
- Encouraging the use of good practices and tools to produce community safety.
- Fostering exchanges between countries and cities, criminal justice institutions and community-based organizations.
- Providing technical assistance and networking.

ICPC considers human security as an essential public good, and believes that integrated prevention policy and action is a key tool for safe communities. It promotes the use of research based knowledge to advance policy and action, and fosters international dialogue and exchange, respectful of differences between the diverse regions of the world, as a major tool for positive change.

465 St Jean, Suite 803
Montreal, H2Y 2R6
Quebec, Canada
Tel: +1.514.288 6731
Fax: +1.514.288 8763
e-mail: cipc@crime-prevention-intl.org
home page: www.crime-prevention-intl.org
Director General: Valérie Sagant

International Institute of Higher Studies in Criminal Sciences - ISISC

ISISC is a non-governmental organization in consultative status with ECOSOC and the Council of Europe. A Public Foundation established in 1972 and recognized by Decree of the President of the Republic of Italy, ISISC is a scientific institution devoted to higher education, studies, research, training and technical assistance in matters pertaining to international and comparative criminal law, international humanitarian law and security issues.

Via S. Agati, 12
96100 Siracusa, Italy
Tel: +39.0931.414 515 or 414 516
Fax: +39.0931.442 605
e-mail: segreteria@isisc.org
home page: www.isisc.org
President: Mr. Cherif Bassiouni

International Scientific and Professional Advisory Council of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme - ISPAC

The tasks of ISPAC are to help channel professional and scientific input and provide a capacity for the transfer of knowledge and the exchange of information in crime prevention and criminal justice to the United Nations, thus assisting them with access to the services and expertise of its constituent organizations, including technical assistance, training and research. This is mainly carried out through the convening of annual conferences devoted to topical subjects as agreed upon by the ISPAC Board in consultation with the UN Secretariat. ISPAC places special emphasis on enhancing the contributions of scientific institutions and non-governmental organizations from developing countries. ISPAC also serves as the body for the coordination of NGO activities and ancillary meetings at the United Nations Crime Congresses. On its Web site, ISPAC provides detailed information on the work of the United Nations and other international organizations in the field of criminal justice, links to other institutes and sources of information with a database of relevant organizations and thier publications, a detailed calendar of international criminal justice activities. ISPAC also hosts a specialized forum for those working in the area of international criminal justice.

Piazza Castello 3
20121 Milan, Italy
Tel: +39.02.8646 0714
Fax: +39.02.7200 8431
e-mail: cndps.ispac@cnpds.it
home page: www.ispac-italy.org
Director: Mr. Renato Ruggiero

Korean Institute of Criminal Justice Policy - KICJP

The Korean Institute of Criminal Justice Policy (KICJP) was established in 1989, as a governmental research agency for the Ministry of Justice. Since the year of 1999, KIC has been working for the Prime Minister Office in the field of crime & criminal justice. In response to rapidly changing criminal environments, KIC conducts comprehensive and interdisciplinary researches on the issues of crime trends, juvenile crimes, correction, criminal laws, criminal justice system, and drugs and organized crimes. With over 30

researchers in law, sociology, psychology and criminology, KIC publishes more than 50 research reports every year, through which it contributes to the establishment and evaluation of criminal justice policies for the Korean government. KIC also publishes the quarterly journal Korean criminal Review that is a major journal on criminal & criminal law in Korea.

142 Seocho-Gu, Woomyun-Dong, Seoul
Republic of Korea
Tel: +82.2.3460 5151
Fax: +82.2.571 7488
e-mail: nj102@kic.re.kr
homepage : www.kicjp.re.kr/english/index
President: Mr. Taehoon Lee

Naif Arab University for Security Sciences - NAUSS

NAUSS, an intergovernmental organization operating under the aegis of the Council of Arab Ministers of Interior, carries out various interdisciplinary and cross-sectoral activities to serve the needs of Arab States. The main institutions comprising NAUSS are College of Graduate Studies, Training College, College of Forensic Sciences, College of Languages, Studies and Research Centre and Computer and Information Centre. All Arab countries are members of NAUSS. NAUSS prepares an annual work programme. It comprises a digest list of all academic activities which NAUSS implements through the year. It pays special attention to the objectives associated with crime prevention programme and its dimensions. It also considers the future needs of the Arab security personnel.

P.O. Box 6830
Riyadh 11452
Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Tel: +966.1.246 3444
Fax: +966.1.246 4713
e-mail: info@nauss.edu.sa
home page: www.nauss.edu.sa
President: Mr. Abdulaziz S. Al-Ghamdi

National Institute of Justice - NIJ

NIJ is the research, development, and evaluation agency of the U.S. Department of Justice. The Institute's mission includes developing knowledge that will reduce crime, enhance public safety and improve the administration of justice. NIJ sponsors basic/applied research, evaluations, and pilot program demonstrations. NIJ also develops new technologies and disseminates criminal justice information. The International Center at the National Institute of Justice has a fourfold mission: to stimulate, facilitate, evaluate, and disseminate both national and international criminal justice research and information. The International Center focuses on eight manifestations of transnational crime: terrorism, organized crime, human trafficking, corruption, intellectual property theft, policing & local impacts of transnational crime, international cooperation, and fostering transnational crime research.

International Center
810 Seventh St. NW #7333
Washington, DC 20531 USA
Tel: +1.202.353 2538
Fax: +1.202.307 6394
Email: International.Center@usdoj.gov
http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/nij.htm
Director of the International Center: Ms. Cindy Smith

Raoul Wallenberg Institute of Human Rights and Humanitarian Law

The Raoul Wallenberg Institute is an academic institution established in order to promote research, training and academic education in the field of international human rights law and related areas. In addition to the facilitation of two master's programmes at Lund University and a publications programme, the Raoul Wallenberg Institute co-operates with public institutions as well as academic institutions and non-governmental organizations in several countries on different continents for the promotion of human rights and good governance, through capacity building programmes.

P.O. Box 1155
S-22105 Lund, Sweden
Tel: +46.46.222 1200
Fax: +46.46.222 1222
e-mail: johannes.eile@rwi.lu.se
home page: www.rwi.lu.se
Director: Mr. Leif Holmstrõm

United Nations Asia and Far East Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders - UNAFEI

UNAFEI focuses on technical cooperation including training and research to promote the sound development of criminal justice systems not only in Asia and the Pacific region but also in other parts of the world. The Institute addresses urgent, contemporary problems in the administration of criminal justice, paying the utmost attention to the trends and activities of the United Nations, and the needs of the countries concerned.

1-26 Harumi-cho, Fuchu,
Tokyo 183-0057, Japan
Tel: +81.42.333 7021
Fax: +81.42.333 7024
e-mail: unafei@moj.go.jp
home page: www.unafei.or.jp/english/index
Director: Mr. Keiichi Aizawa

United Nations African Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders - UNAFRI

UNAFRI is an inter-governmental organization for promoting the active cooperation and collaboration of governments, academic institutions as well as scientific, professional non-governmental organizations, and experts in crime prevention and criminal justice. It is mandated by member States in the African region to assist to mobilize human,

material and administrative potential and deploying their efforts for harmonious growth, intended to enhance self-reliance and sustained development, and strengthening their capacity to prevent and control crime. It undertakes research for policy development, training and human resource development, programmes for gathering and dissemination of nformation and documentation and advisory services to governments in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice.

P.O.Box 10590
Kampala, Uganda
Tel: +0256.41.221 119
Fax: + 0256.41.222 623
e-mail: unafri@unafri.or.ug
home page: www.unafri.or.ug
Director: Mr. Masamba Sita

United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute – UNICRI

The United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) is United Nations entity established in 1967 by the ECOSOC to support countries worldwide in crime prevention and criminal justice.

UNICRI is a mandated to assist intergovernmental, governmental and non-governmental organizations in formulating and implementing improved policies in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice. UNICRI' s goals are:

- to advance understanding of crime-related problems
- to foster just and efficient criminal justice systems
- to support the respect of international instruments and other standards
- to facilitate international law enforcement cooperation and judicial assistance.

The programmes of UNICRI aim to promote national self-reliance and the development of institutional capabilities. To this end, UNICRI provides a one-stop facility offering high-level expertise in crime prevention and criminal justice problems. Technical

co-operation is enhanced by the use of action-oriented research to assist in the formulation of improved policies and concrete intervention programmes. Institutional and on-the-job training of specialized personnel form an integral part of UNICRI activities.

Viale Maestri del Lavoro 10
10128 Turin, Italy
Tel: +39.011.6537 111
Fax: + 39.011.6313 368
Email: unicri@unicri.it
home page: www.unicri.it
Director: Mr. Sandro Calvani

United Nations Latin American Institute for the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders - ILANUD

ILANUD was established on June 11th, 1975, in compliance with Resolutions 731-F (XXVII) and 1584 (L) of the Economic and Social Council, ratified by the Congress of the Republic of Costa Rica by law Nº 6135 of December 7th, 1977. This agreement is supplemented by bilateral co-operation agreements with the countries of the region. As stated in its foundational charter, the main objective of the Institute is to collaborate with the governments in the balanced economic and social development of the Latin American and Caribbean countries through the formulation and incorporation into national development plans of adequate policies in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice. The services include research, training and technical assistance in designing and implementing programs and projects in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice.

P.O. Box 10071-1000
San José, Costa Rica
Tel: +506.257 5826
Fax: +506.233 7175
e-mail: ilanud@ilanud.or.cr
home page: http://www.ilanud.or.cr
Director: Mr. Elias Carranza

The above-mentioned Institutes operate in consultation with the

United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime – UNODC

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) is responsible for crime prevention, criminal justice, criminal law reform and drug abuse control. Its works focuses. Established in 1997 through a merger between the United Nations Drug Control Programme and the Centre for International Crime Prevention, UNODC operates in all regions of the world through an extensive network of field offices.

The three pillars of the UNODC work programme are:

- Field-based technical cooperation projects to enhance the capacity of Member States to counteract illicit drugs, crime and terrorism;
- Research and analytical work to increase knowledge and understanding of drugs and crime issues and expand the evidence-base for policy and operational decisions; and
- Normative work to assist States in the ratification and implementation of the international treaties, the development of domestic legislation on drugs, crime and terrorism, and the provision of secretariat and substantive services to the treaty-based and governing bodies.

Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 500
A-1400 Vienna -Austria
Tel: +43.1.26060.0
Fax: +43.1.26060.5898 or 5933
home page: www.unodc.org
Executive Director: Mr. Antonio Maria Costa

United Nations Crime Prevention and
Criminal Justice Programme Network Institutes (PNI) Workshop

On the occasion of the
Seventeenth Session of the United Nations Commission
On Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice

Cover photo: © Tina Imbriano