

Community Safety
Workers:
An Exploratory Study of
Some Emerging Crime
Prevention Occupations

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Executive Summary

Fear of crime within communities, a perceived lack of social controls or community cohesion, and the limitations of reactive or repressive approaches to crime or of the capacity of the police alone to prevent it, have all contributed to the development of new forms of community safety practices. A number of new community safety 'professions' or positions have emerged in recent years. These often target neighbourhoods or housing areas seen as at-risk or disadvantaged, or are employed in selected public spaces.

The aim of this report is to provide a brief overview of the emergence of such community safety roles, based on examples drawn from selected countries: England and Wales, France, Belgium, Australia, and South Africa. Within each country, examples of community safety positions are examined in terms of their public policy context, job description and structure, roles and responsibilities, recruitment and training, and their monitoring and evaluation. Some of the practical and political considerations in their implementation are also touched on.

In **England and Wales**, Neighbourhood Wardens and Community Support Officers provide various forms of visible patrols, and serve to control low-level public disorder and disorganization. Evaluation of these programmes provide some evidence that their presence is linked to a decrease in crime, and clear indications that they can have a positive impact on residence satisfaction and quality of life, and reduce fear of crime through their presence. Their work is viewed by the police as contributing to the reporting of crime, intelligence gathering, improving the police image, and enabling the police to deal with more serious crime.

In **France**, Local Social Mediation Agents are recruited to ensure safety, security and assistance in public transport areas, to undertake night patrols, to enhance the perception of public order and strengthen social ties by their presence in public spaces, and in some cases to facilitate access to services and promote civil rights. Most evaluations of these services are process evaluations, and do not provide quantifiable outcomes. Managers have reported a relationship between the presence of social mediators and such positive indicators as a decrease in moving from particular dwellings or neighbourhoods, incivilities and complaints, and mediators are also seen to contribute to a more positive image of the area in which they work.

In **Belgium**, there are a number of Prevention and Security Agents that supply functional supervision either on public transport, apartment complexes, commercial or shopping centers, urban or industrial complexes, high-risk neighbourhoods, and recreation areas. What they have in common is that they provide an on-site presence to promote security, and a semi-formal form of social control. Evaluation of these services is mostly carried out by local councillors for internal purposes, and on the basis of on-site visits. On a local level, such internal evaluations determine trends in crime and incivilities within municipalities, in order to initiate adequate security and prevention programmes.

In **Australia**, Night Patrol services have been put in place at the request of Aboriginal community members and adapted to their needs. They provide foot or vehicle patrol services in a particular area, or throughout a community, which intervene using non-coercive approaches to prevent the occurrence or escalation of harm and antisocial behaviour. They target those at-risk groups such as youth, women, sex workers, the homeless and intoxicated. Few of these services have been formally evaluated, but many areas attribute a range of reductions to the presence and intervention of night patrol services. This includes levels of youth crime, complaints, truancy, reports of

antisocial behaviour, calls to the police, family violence, excessive drinking, intoxicated individuals handled by the justice system, accidents related to substance abuse, hospital admissions, and the lessening of tension between Aboriginal people and communities and businesses.

In **South Africa**, the Community Peace Workers programme is a cooperative initiative between the German Technical Cooperation (GTZ) and the Department for Safety and Security. The programme's major goals are the prevention of crime and youth development in targeted low-income areas. The project aims to provide young people with the skills to mediate situations of conflict in their community, and provide them with life skills and job training. Monitoring and evaluation of the programme seems to suggest some success in meeting its objectives. There are reported reductions in insecurity, and Community Peace Worker graduates appear to behave in a more positive and responsible manner, with as many as 80% of them working or self-employed.

Overall conclusions

Community safety professions appear to have been created primarily to address the consequences of a lack of social cohesion and control, and feelings of insecurity in crime-prone environments and communities, often associated with isolation, conflict and despair among residents. In some cases they are specifically intended as employment creation and job-training initiatives. The report presents a variety of positions which range from voluntary recruitment to those which are virtually police personnel. These jobs address a need to provide services not performed by public authorities or organizations.

Community safety workers often have few statutory powers to coerce, and rely primarily on persuasion and mediation. They often encounter difficulties such as a perceived lack of legitimacy by other crime prevention actors, mainly because their roles are largely ill-defined. Community safety professions are often seen as auxiliary or temporary functions by other actors, such as those who implement programmes, and even by the community safety workers themselves. It is optimal for these community safety services not to be thought of as marginal or auxiliary, but as complementary to other roles and as a way to bridge gaps in service through working in partnerships.

The notion of visibility is widely accepted as a key component for reducing fear of crime and reassuring residents. There are, however, paradoxes in the way these community safety positions are created which significantly impacts their performance. While they are created to reassure the public through providing a visible, familiar presence, in many cases there is high staff turn-over. The case studies suggest that the most significant challenge to the viability and longevity of such programmes is their position within national and local safety strategies, and responsibility for, or the ability to finance, the initiatives. Creative and dual-purpose initiatives such as job-creation approaches have been successful in getting programmes started, but sustainability has proved to be difficult.

Evaluation of these programmes or initiatives is often scarce or limited in scope. They are generally internal, based on observations by workers, and on the use of services, the number of interventions, and sometimes on local crime statistics. More systematic and better evaluation of these programmes is clearly needed.

This report suggests that culture, tradition, and assessments of changes in social controls and guardianship are significant factors determining how a position is conceptualized, and the kinds of emphasis placed on its role. They range from providing additional patrols, extra security in public spaces, to mediating conflict and improving

social cohesion. The examples also suggest that local implementation is key to the success of an initiative, since adaptation to a community is crucial for the acceptance of community safety workers by residents of a neighbourhood.

These professions are relatively new initiatives created within the past 15 years, and they have shown some merit. Community safety workers interviewed during evaluations believe they can make a difference in the community they serve. While they face many challenges as their roles evolve, or alternative funding sources are sought, community safety professions should be considered as desirable policy directions for the time being. The challenges include coordination, job definition, legitimization and funding support, and are conditions that must be considered when evaluating the effectiveness of their roles. As these positions continue to grow and expand, more in-depth analysis is needed to assess their value and contribution to prevention strategies and their application within the context of different communities around the world.

Résumé

Face au développement du sentiment d'insécurité, en raison des limites inhérentes à l'action de la police et aux approches répressives pour prévenir la criminalité due aux facteurs sociaux, et pour répondre au besoin d'une approche globale de prévention et de sécurité incluant la participation des habitants, de nouvelles pratiques de prévention et de sécurité se sont développées dans plusieurs pays.

L'objet de ce rapport est d'explorer l'apparition d'un petit nombre de nouveaux « métiers » de prévention et de sécurité en Angleterre et au Pays de Galles, en France, en Belgique, en Australie et en Afrique du Sud. Pour chaque pays, seul un type de « nouveau métier » est retenu. Le contexte général de politique publique est mentionné; et la description du métier présente sa structure, ainsi que les responsabilités, le recrutement et la formation des agents qui l'exercent. Enfin, les éléments pratiques et politiques de leur mise en œuvre, ainsi que les résultats de leur évaluation, lorsqu'elle existe, sont indiqués.

En Angleterre et au Pays de Galles, les *Wardens* (gardiens) et *Community Support Officers* (CSO) (agents de soutien communautaire) constituent des patrouilles visibles et servent au contrôle des troubles à l'ordre public. Quoiqu'il n'y ait pas d'élément probant qui démontre un lien direct entre ces services et la diminution des crimes, les gardiens et les agents de soutien communautaire ont un impact sur la satisfaction des riverains et sur la qualité de vie dans les quartiers où ils interviennent. Leur présence a permis de réduire le sentiment d'insécurité par leur présence familière. Leur travail est bien perçu par la police dans la mesure où ils contribuent aux signalements des crimes, à l'amélioration de l'image de la police et permettent ainsi à la police de se consacrer aux enquêtes sur les crimes plus graves.

En France, les agents locaux de médiation sociale aident à assurer la sécurité et à fournissent aide et assistance dans les transports publics, les ensembles de logements, les lieux publics. Ils contribuent globalement au renforcement du lien social et à l'amélioration de la perception de l'ordre public. Ils facilitent également l'accès aux services et aux droits. La plupart des évaluations de ces services sont des évaluations de processus et l'impact de leur action est bien évidemment difficile à quantifier. Les responsables notent néanmoins une relation directe entre la présence de ces agents de médiation et des indicateurs positifs : diminution du nombre de déménagements de certains immeubles ou quartiers, baisse des incivilités et des plaintes. Les médiateurs contribuent également à améliorer l'image du quartier dans lequel ils travaillent.

En Belgique, il y a plusieurs types d'assistants de prévention et de sécurité qui exercent des fonctions de surveillance dans les transports publics, les bâtiments résidentiels, industriels ou commerciaux, les centres commerciaux, les « quartiers à risque élevé » et les lieux de loisir. Leur présence sur les lieux favorise la sécurité et une forme de contrôle social informel. Les évaluations de ces postes sont faites par les conseillers locaux qui visitent les lieux afin de vérifier leur fonctionnement et transmettent les résultats à l'interne. Au niveau local, un évaluateur interne détermine les tendances de la délinquance et des incivilités dans les municipalités pour pouvoir initier des programmes de sécurité et de prévention adéquats.

En Australie, les services de *night patrols* (patrouilles de nuit) sont mis en place à la demande des membres des communautés aborigènes et adaptés à leurs besoins. Ces services ont pour but d'effectuer des patrouilles à pieds ou en véhicule dans un secteur ou parmi une communauté et interviennent par des moyens non coercitifs pour prévenir les conflits ou les « comportements anti-sociaux », en ciblant les groupes de population

aits « à risque » tels les jeunes, les femmes, les prostitué(e)s, les sans-abri et les adultes enivrés. Quoique peu de ces services aient été évalués formellement, on note sur plusieurs sites, une réduction de la délinquance juvénile, des faits de violence familiale, du nombre de cas de personnes toxicomanes ou alcooliques faisant l'objet d'un traitement judiciaire, du nombre d'accidents liés à la consommation excessive d'alcool ou de drogues et du nombre d'admissions à l'hôpital. De même, dans ces secteurs, le nombre de plaintes a diminué, ainsi que la dénonciation des « comportements anti-sociaux » et les appels à la police. Plus globalement, la présence et les interventions des patrouilleurs de nuit sont perçues comme réduisant les tensions entre les personnes aborigènes et le reste de la communauté locale.

Pour l'**Afrique du Sud**, l'exemple du **Community Peace Officer (Travailleur de paix communautaire)** est présenté. Ces agents sont recrutés pour le projet de « Paix et développement », une initiative de coopération entre l'agence de coopération technique allemande (GTZ) et le Département de la sécurité d'Afrique du Sud. Le programme vise à prévenir la criminalité et à favoriser le développement des jeunes dans certaines zones de pauvreté ciblées. Le projet fournit aux jeunes les qualifications nécessaires pour identifier les situations de conflit dans leur communauté et mettre en place une médiation entre les parties impliquées. Un cadre de contrôle et d'évaluation du projet a été créé en 2005 pour renseigner les indicateurs de façon régulière, en vue de l'élaboration d'un rapport annuel d'avancement. Après avoir travaillé comme Agent de paix communautaire, les candidats semblent se comporter d'une manière plus positive et responsable, et plus de 80% entre eux ont trouvé un emploi salarié ou autonome.

Conclusion

Au-delà des différences liées aux contextes locaux, il apparaît que les métiers de sécurité et de prévention ont principalement été créés pour répondre aux conséquences du manque de cohésion sociale et du sentiment d'insécurité, souvent liés à l'isolement, aux conflits, et au désespoir ressenti par les membres d'une communauté ou d'un quartier. Leur fonction répond à un besoin de fournir des services non offerts par une autre autorité publique ou organisme.

Ces professionnels de sécurité « communautaire » ou « de proximité » disposent généralement de peu de pouvoirs officiels de contrainte, mais plutôt de persuasion et de médiation. **Le flou qui entoure parfois leurs missions peut entraîner un manque de légitimité** face aux autres professionnels de la prévention. En particulier, nous notons parmi les différents cas présentés que les métiers de sécurité communautaire sont perçus comme étant des fonctions auxiliaires ou temporaires, soit par les autres acteurs, soit par ceux qui gèrent les programmes, ou encore par les travailleurs de sécurité communautaire eux-mêmes. L'efficacité de ces nouveaux services dépend assez largement de leur positionnement ; ils ne doivent pas être perçus comme marginaux ou auxiliaires, mais complémentaires à d'autres, permettant par le partenariat de combler certaines lacunes.

La visibilité de ces nouveaux professionnels est largement acceptée comme étant une composante importante de l'effort requis pour réduire le sentiment d'insécurité et pour conforter la confiance des habitants dans leur vie quotidienne. La mise en œuvre sur le terrain souffre d'une situation paradoxale : alors que l'impact positif reconnu à ces fonctions réside dans leur visibilité, leur capacité à développer un lien avec la population locale et à favoriser une présence familière, le taux de renouvellement des personnels est souvent très important et rapide. Au-delà de la grande variété des fonctions décrites, du médiateur social au quasi-agent de police, la viabilité et la longévité de ces métiers sont très directement liées à la pérennité de leur financement.

La culture, les traditions locales et les évolutions des modes de contrôle social jouent un rôle important dans la façon dont ces métiers sont conçus et en premier lieu dans le choix du nom qui leur est attribué, qu'il s'agisse de patrouilles ou de mesure de sécurité supplémentaires dans les endroits publics ou de l'amélioration des relations sociales. Cette première étude permet également de conclure que **l'adaptation locale de ces missions est essentielle à leur réussite**, car ces projets doivent être acceptés par les habitants et occupants des lieux auxquels ils s'adressent.

Les évaluations de ces programmes sont assez rares et reposent principalement sur les observations des acteurs eux-mêmes, ou bien sur une analyse quantitative du nombre d'interventions et des chiffres de la délinquance. **Le développement de pratiques d'évaluations scientifiques de ces programmes et, d'une manière plus générale, la connaissance précise et suivie de ces nouveaux métiers constituent un enjeu majeur.**

L'ensemble de ces métiers est relativement nouveau, leur ancienneté ne dépassant pas une quinzaine d'années. Ils paraissent clairement répondre à de réels besoins et aux évolutions des attentes de la population en matière de prévention et de sécurité. Les agents interrogés perçoivent nettement l'impact de leur action dans un quartier ou une communauté et les premières évaluations soulignent des résultats positifs lorsque les conditions de mise en œuvre de ces métiers sont bonnes : bonne articulation avec les autres partenaires locaux, mandat clairement défini, recrutement et formation adaptés...

Ce premier rapport comparé montre la nécessité d'analyses plus approfondies face à la diversité de ces métiers, à leur fragilité et au besoin de mieux évaluer leur impact au sein des stratégies de prévention et de sécurité à moyen et long terme.

Introduction

The rise in importance of insecurity, social cohesion and social control

Insecurity and fear of crime have become a pervasive concern in many countries, and are often associated with public spaces in cities or with particular disadvantaged neighbourhoods and communities¹. Such fear arises not only from actual levels of criminal incidents, but also from a belief in the potential for victimization². This insecurity can limit a person's perceived freedom³. The impact that feelings of insecurity may have on cities and on their economic and social development can be severe, reducing community or neighbourhood activities, or civic and economic vitality⁴.

Among the factors that contribute to fear of crime is the media's tendency to focus on and sensationalize violent crime, or sometimes overemphasise publicly announced policies combating levels of crime. Even when rates of crime are constant, or have decreased over a number of years, the perception that violent crime is on the rise often persists, and the feeling of insecurity increases. Public incivilities such as graffiti, litter and minor destruction of public property have also been seen as adding to the perception of neighbourhoods that are conducive to more serious crime and contribute to residents' insecurity⁵. Feeling unsafe translates into a perception of a poor quality of life, an inability to fully participate in society, as well as contributing to distrust of the police.

Disadvantaged communities and neighbourhoods are often seen as lacking in social controls or social cohesion, without the necessary ability to regulate themselves, and deal with internal and local conflicts as disorders. Apart from social and economic changes, cities in many countries in recent years have experienced rapid population changes and growth, adding to the perception of communities which are disorganized, isolated, poorly serviced and experiencing high levels of unemployment, school drop-out, ill-health and crime and victimization.

Cost and inability of police services to respond to and impact local crime

Many Western countries experienced increased levels of crime from the 1960's to the mid 1990's, and many attempts have been made to enhance policing to respond to the demand for security. According to the United Nations, most industrialized countries increased their police personnel by as much as 50% during the period of 1965 and 1995, representing a major increase in the cost of police services⁶.

Despite this, crime rates were not affected, and the traditional reactive policing approach and the deterrent impact of the criminal justice system have been found to be ineffective in preventing crime. Risk factors such as social isolation, poverty, lack of social services, and family and individual factors play a key role in crime, and the police alone are not able to respond to such factors or to ensure public safety, and reduce feelings of

¹ European Forum for Urban Safety (2006) *Security, Democracy and Cities, the Zaragoza Manifesto*.

² Lawlink. The Safe Women Project. *Plan it Safe: A Guide for Making Public Places Safer for Women*. Retrieved September 15, 2006, from http://www.lawlink.nsw.gov.au/swp/swp.nsf/pages/swp_toc

³ Hough, M. (1995) *Anxiety about crime: findings from the 1994 British Crime Survey*. Home Office Research Study 147, London, HMSO

⁴ Shaw, M. (2001)

⁵ Wilson, J. & Kelling, G. (1982) *Broken Windows: the Police and Neighbourhood Safety*. Atlantic Monthly (March), available at: http://www.lacity.org/council/cd7/index/cd7index68640819_10032006.pdf

⁶ Chalom, M. et al. (2001)

insecurity⁷. At the end of the 1980's, for example, police services in Belgium concluded that an entirely repressive approach to crime was not enough to bring about necessary and desired social changes (Robert, 2000). Their powers lay in reacting to criminal events or behaviours, the symptoms of criminality, but not the root causes which required a preventative approach on a local level. What was needed was a more decentralized and comprehensive response to controlling crime and feelings of insecurity (Vourc'h & Marcus, 1994).

This focus on more collaborative relationships between national and local governments and communities has characterized crime prevention and policing strategies over the past decade or more⁸. The importance of taking account of the perceptions of local residents and businesses about their needs and concerns has become widely accepted as an essential element in the development of prevention strategies at the local level⁹. This has also contributed to creating links between the police and local populations, while strengthening the perception of police accountability. The benefits of developing programmes which target the risk factors for crime, including high-risk areas, is now well recognized. This has resulted in an array of prevention approaches which are both effective and less costly than reactive policing and justice responses.

The greater focus given to insecurity and disorder in communities, the limitations of reactive policing approaches, and the development of more holistic approaches which take account of community perceptions, have all contributed to the creation of 'new' community safety practices. Traditionally, a range of actors have played an important role in local crime prevention, although this has not been recognized, through their general surveillance or support of the socially isolated or marginalized. A variety of social workers, unattached youth workers, neighbourhood volunteers and patrols, concierges, night watchmen and voluntary organizations have provided support to children and families at risk of crime or victimization, to children experiencing abuse or neglect, to the homeless, mentally ill or those suffering from drug or alcohol addiction. What is specific about the new community safety professions is their more explicit role in crime prevention, aiming to provide reassurance, strengthen social ties, and improve social and environmental conditions and the quality of life. They are seen as filling a gap between existing services.

Community safety and crime prevention occupations

This report focuses on positions that have been created in recent years to assist local crime prevention strategies, and to fill a perceived void between citizens and institutions including the police and local authorities. **Examples have been selected from England and Wales, France, Belgium, Australia, and South Africa¹⁰**. The new community safety professions include functions ranging from patrollers and advisors, to social agents and mediators. They provide a presence, ensure safety and the resolution of conflicts, and help create better links among citizens, and between them and the police. They may be attached to local government, to local police forces or other existing institutions, and funded in a variety of ways.

This preliminary report provides a brief overview of each example, based on available literature and evaluations, as well as official documentation, in order to explore their

⁷ Waller, I. & Sansfaçon, D. (2000)

⁸ Shaw, M. (2001)

⁹ Alvarez et al. (2005)

¹⁰ A brief summary of other examples is given in Appendix D. Similar models have existed in The Netherlands, see Sansfaçon, D. & Welsh, B. (1999) *Crime Prevention Digest II*. ICPC Publications.

functioning in a comparative fashion. It provides descriptive accounts of how these positions were created and who funds them, their stated objectives, the activities entailed, recruitment and training, and responsibilities and powers, and any evaluation of their effectiveness. Within this broad category of positions there are many debates on definitions, and an array of titles¹¹. There is also relatively little literature on the subject. Within and between countries, there are some significant differences influencing their development, roles and targeted recruitment. What the positions do share is their common aim to encourage closer social integration, and the use of mediation or persuasive techniques in resolving conflicts. The report concludes with a discussion of some of the commonalities and differences (cultural, economic, social etc.) among the examples considered, their future role in local crime prevention, and some of the challenges presented for ensuring their effectiveness and sustainability.

¹¹ One of the problems of compiling this report relates to the use of similar titles which cover very different functions. For example, Community Support Officers in England and Wales fulfill a patrolling and visible presence role. In Australia, the same term is used for local government managers responsible for developing and implementing local crime prevention strategies (Cherney, 2004). While the latter also constitute a 'new' community safety profession, they are not focus of this paper.

England and Wales

Wardens

Community Support Officers (CSO)

Public Policy Context

The positions of Wardens and Community Safety Officers in England and Wales have both been created since the late 1990's. The Government's Crime and Disorder Act (1998), Crime Reduction Strategy launched in 1999, and Neighbourhood Renewal Strategy (2000), all placed an emphasis on the public's growing concern about safety and public order. The posts respond to the lack of presence of police officers patrolling the streets, by creating visible patrols. They form part of the Government's commitment to community policing, forging partnerships with communities and local organizations, with the aim of enhancing order in public places and disadvantaged neighbourhoods, reassuring the public through the provision of a familiar presence, and thereby increasing the sense of safety, and of police effectiveness.

Job Description and Structure

Wardens: 'more than the ears and eyes of communities'¹²

Warden schemes were initially created as part of a pilot scheme by the Neighbourhood Renewal Unit (NRU), of the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister. Three types of community wardens were created under different funding initiatives (Crawford & Lister, 2003; Husain, 2006): Neighbourhood Wardens, Street Wardens, and Street Crime Wardens. All have been coordinated and funded by the national Neighbourhood Warden Team (subsequently the Neighbourhood Management and Warden Team). Overall, some £93 million has been invested in the pilot programme which ended in March 2006, and the government has estimated that over 500 schemes existed by 2006.¹³ The pilot aimed to persuade local authorities to fund these new posts as part of on-going neighbourhood renewal schemes. The different positions initially had slightly varying functions, although in practice the distinctions have now largely disappeared.

- *Neighbourhood Wardens* (2000, 2001): While some examples existed before¹⁴, Neighbourhood Wardens have been consolidated under the Neighbourhood Renewal Strategy since 2000, to improve conditions in poor neighbourhoods, counter social exclusion and improve the quality of life. They provide residential areas with a visible uniformed patrol, and semi-official presence as intermediary agents of social control. Funding and coordination for Wardens is handled by a unit in the central government, with funds matched by local governments. Between 2000 and 2003, 84 Neighbourhood Warden Schemes were introduced in England and Wales employing over 400 wardens, and the scheme was extended with additional funding in 2004. There are currently 160 Neighbourhood Warden Schemes.¹⁵
- *Street Wardens* (2001): These are employed or funded by local associations such as retail businesses. They carry out similar functions to Neighbourhood Wardens, but are not restricted to residential areas. They

¹² See Appendix A for more facts on Wardens.

¹³ Husain (2006).

¹⁴ See *Crime Reduction Programme: Neighbourhood Wardens*, www.crimereduction.gov.uk

¹⁵ Neighbourhood Renewal Unit. www.neighbourhood.gov.uk

patrol public spaces especially, and address disorderly behaviour and environmental problems. In 2002, there were 655 Street Wardens, and 121 Street Warden Schemes by the year 2005, with funding of £35 million.

- *Street Crime Wardens (2002)*: This patrol position was created to combat street crime in ten of the highest crime-risk areas England and Wales, combining crime prevention within long-term regeneration policies. A total of 380 Street Crime Wardens were appointed in 2002¹⁶.

Community Support Officers (CSO):

These positions were created under the Police Reform Act (2002), to provide support to civilians and the police by addressing low-level disorder problems. They aim to reduce insecurity by providing a visible uniformed presence and patrol in the community, and free police time to tackle for serious crime. CSOs work in conjunction with police officers, under their control, and are funded by central government. Senior police officers may also contract out their services to private organizations or local authorities.

Accredited Community Support Officers (ACSO) (2002) are private CSOs who have received accreditation. Accreditation schemes require consultation between police and local authorities within a police area, and give ACSOs limited powers. They reflecting the Government's interest in creating an 'extended police family' (Crawford & Lister, 2003).

ACSOs can be employed by local authorities, housing associations, and the private sector rather than the police, and only partly under their direction. In this way, the police have some control over private security and the organizations they choose to work with, but they are not responsible for funding them nor liable for their conduct. This requires the private sector to be more accountable for its own security measures.

Between 2002 and 2004, over 5,000 people were recruited to CSO positions, earning salaries ranging from £14,000 to £25,000¹⁷ per year, depending on seniority, and the police force with which they worked (Home Office, 2006).

Roles and Responsibilities

Wardens provide an accessible and semi-official uniformed presence within the community, linking residents and community needs to council and local service providers (Crawford et al, 2005). Their roles and responsibilities vary according to the needs of the community in which they work, but generally include:

- locating and informing appropriate authorities of physical problems in the area (litter, graffiti, checking empty premises etc.);
- informally managing social needs, bringing them to the attention of appropriate services, or speaking on behalf of the community at administrative meetings; and
- facilitating the flow of knowledge, and increasing the level of trust between local citizens and the formal systems. This is most important in areas where levels of crime and distrust of the police are high.

The main role of the CSO is to provide high-visibility patrols, but they also interact with the community and respond to low-level crime or antisocial behaviour, thereby assisting

¹⁶ Neighbourhood Warden Team (2002) *List of programmes*, in Crawford & Lister (2003).

¹⁷ Approximately U.S \$27,000-\$49,000.

the police and helping to reduce the public's fear of crime¹⁸. The proportion of time CSOs devote to these functions varies between and within police forces (Home Office, 2006). While on patrol, they gather local intelligence to supplement police officer information, and may encourage people to report crimes. They deal mainly with anti-social behaviour by youth, such as drinking, drug consumption, aggressive behaviour and intimidation, considered by residents and business owners to be the most problematic situations. Their visibility encourages familiarity and trust from residents, as does their regular involvement in community activities such as residents' association meetings, and visits to schools, local businesses, community centres, the elderly, and victims and witnesses of crime. They spend some time responding to non-urgent incidents.

CSOs report to police Sergeants, and their powers vary depending on the force with which they work¹⁹. The question of a standardized set of powers is now under review by the Home Office. For the most part, their powers include:

- being able to issue tickets for minor disorders (Antisocial Behaviour Orders);
- asking for the name and address of anyone acting in an antisocial fashion;
- stopping or removing vehicles, directing traffic; and
- in some areas detaining people for up to 30 minutes while waiting for an officer to arrive or to escort them to a police station, provided that they have that person's consent.

Most CSOs have the right to use force needed to detain someone. The limitations of their powers may ensure that they mainly keep to patrolling duties, while being able to deal with petty crimes on their own. ACSOs have powers similar to those of CSOs, and while they too can hand out fixed-penalty notices for petty crimes, they have no powers of detention (Crawford & Lister, 2003).

Recruitment and Training

The Neighbourhood Warden's Unit provides a training manual for new **Neighbourhood Warden** recruits²⁰. As each neighbourhood should tailor the position to meet its needs, the manual is to be used as a guide. Topics covered in the manual include matters related to personal issues and job development; roles, responsibilities and procedures; legal aspects; communication; observation skills; health and safety; local knowledge; and other skills or specialist training. The manual recommends that training procedures be evaluated in terms of effectiveness.

Most **CSOs** are recruited from those with extensive working experience from diverse fields such as administration and public service, or those related to police services like traffic wardens, civilian police staff and private security (Home Office, 2006). Those applying to the position of CSO tend to be older and more representative of communities in terms of ethnicity and gender than police recruits (ibid).

According to the Home Office (2006), there was not enough time to build a national training model before the post was introduced. Each force had to develop its own training programme based on its needs, and programmes varied in length and content. The Chief Officer decided on training requirements for CSOs, as well as their powers.

¹⁸ Crawford & Lister (2003)

¹⁹ Home Office (2006), Crawford & Lister (2003)

²⁰ Neighbourhood Warden's Unit (2001) *Neighbourhood Warden's Training Guidance: Draft*. London: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions. Retrieved January 31, 2007, from <http://www.neighbourhood.gov.uk/displaypagedoc.asp?id=288>

This problem has now been resolved with the development of a single training manual created by Centrex (the National Centre for Policing Excellence).

The Centrex Manual²¹ covers training, which may last up to 10 weeks, on issues such as:

- the CSO's role, needs and expectations;
- uniform and dress code;
- communicating, questioning;
- race relations;
- regulations of service;
- health and safety;
- gathering evidence and statements;
- victims' needs;
- powers of arrest;
- Human Rights;
- information on various crimes; and
- first aid.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Neighbourhood wardens have emerged as one of the real success stories of the Neighbourhood Renewal Strategy²²

An independent **national evaluation of neighbourhood wardens** was carried out between 2001 and 2003 for the Neighbourhood Renewal Unit.²³ It found that wardens have a positive impact on resident satisfaction and quality of life, and have reduced the fear of crime especially for the elderly, and the incidence of crime and perception of incivilities. Neighbourhood wardens have a distinctive role in neighbourhood renewal, provide an accessible presence, and are able to refer people to pertinent agencies. There was a 28% reduction in victimization levels compared with increases in comparison areas. Some 286,000 fewer offences occurred than elsewhere, during the two and a half year period. Concern about street robbery fell by 10%. Anti-social behaviour by young people remained a challenge, however. The work of wardens is viewed by the police as contributing to the reporting of crime and intelligence gathering, improving the police image, allowing them to deal with more serious crime, and collaboration on crime prevention projects.

The precise impact of the presence of wardens on crime reduction has been more difficult to assess scientifically, however. While wardens may have some impact on the level of anti-social behaviour, this is hard to measure. Crawford et al (2005), report that residents surveyed in a city centre attributed an increased feeling of safety in public places, especially during the day, to the presence of wardens, yet those residing in other areas were not aware of wardens' services. They recommend that clearer definitions, and proper communication of the role and limitation of powers that wardens possess, can enhance their partnerships with other social agencies, and enhance public understanding of their role.

²¹ An example of a training guide is available at: http://police.homeoffice.gov.uk/news-and-publications/publication/police-reform/centrex_cso_training.pdf?view=Binary

²² Husain (2006).

²³ Neighbourhood Renewal Unit (2004). *Neighbourhood Wardens Scheme Evaluation*. Social Development Direct in collaboration with NOP and Crime Concern. www.neighbourhood.gov.uk/publications

Evaluation of the second funding period also found reductions in fear and victimization, although not as high, but more significantly underlined the importance of the wardens' use of a problem-solving approach, and mediation with, and on behalf of, the community.²⁴ By 2006, six years after their creation, it is argued that neighbourhood wardens have become firmly established in a variety of neighbourhoods, have reduced crime and anti-social behaviour, and attracted strong public support. Some 80% of schemes are now being funded from other sources, and 'more than 3,000 wardens now work for councils, social landlords, neighbourhood renewal partnerships and development trusts.' (Husain, 2006). In addition, wardens schemes have provided job opportunities to a diverse range of people, facilitated the physical improvement and rapid clean-up of neighbourhoods, and helped reduce truancy and encourage sports and other recreational activities.

A **national evaluation of CSOs** was conducted between July 2004 and June 2005 (Home Office, 2006). The report examines their profile, deployment, impact on level of crime and anti-social behaviour, and public perceptions. The findings indicate that:

- CSOs spend over half of their time patrolling, making contact with members of the community, and managing trouble caused by youth or associated with alcohol. Their actions varied, depending on local needs or within police forces.
- Even though targeting *hot-spots* is regarded as being an important aspect of successful foot patrol, only 14% of CSOs were deployed in such a way. (Some CSOs are now being deployed in hot-spots within their regular beat areas).
- There was no evidence that, in comparison to control areas, the presence of a CSO was related to a decrease in the level of recorded crime or reported incidents of social disorder. This may be because of data limitations, the type of non-criminal activity addressed by CSOs, or residents' willingness to report low-level incidents.
- Many citizens found CSOs to be more approachable than the police, and more available to listen to them, and were therefore more likely to report certain crimes and divulge information to them.
- The role of CSOs was appreciated by the public, in terms of creating a sense of reassurance and familiarity with residents and local business owners, and in reducing disorder, especially that committed by youth. They were also appreciated by the police for their ability to gather intelligence and information.
- In areas where CSO services were long established and well known to residents, their presence did have an impact on residents' feeling of security, although some preferred fully sworn police officers on patrol.
- An important factor in the success of this programme was the diversity of CSOs in terms of ethnicity and age, but also previous work experience.

Practical and Political Considerations

The Home Office evaluation outlines a number of issues and problems for CSOs:

- CSOs may be used for tasks other than patrolling, and care needs to be taken to ensure a balance between those tasks, and providing specific communities with a

²⁴ *Street Wardens and Young People. An Evaluation Summary.* Matrix. September 2004. www.matrixrcl.co.uk in Husain, 2006.

visible presence, in order to ensuring a sense of familiarity. Some forces have both locally-based CSOs to guarantee this visibility, and deployment CSOs to respond to incidents.

- Work shifts do not always permit the CSO to be visible or to work in conjunction with police officers, or during the same hours as their supervisor. To counter feelings of isolation, and encourage CSOs' partnerships with the community policing team to promote job satisfaction and more effective policing, it is recommended that shifts be organized to allow for daily support, supervision and cooperation. Working together also allows police officers to understand and value the contribution of CSOs' to community policing, and facilitates their acceptance. Mentoring and induction training were mentioned by CSOs as a way of facilitating their introduction to a community and its policing team.
- CSOs can experience physical abuse and most face verbal abuse from the public, causing them to feel vulnerable. Many CSOs wanted more on-going and practical training in important skills such as self-defence. Many CSOs felt that a senior police officer was not available to offer them support, and that such supervisors needed training.
- Most CSOs reported enjoying their job, and older women were the most satisfied. More than 40% of CSOs, however, mostly young males, revealed that they took on this job in the hope of eventually becoming a fully sworn police officer. Some found it to be repetitive, and many questioned their ability to further their career, suggesting a potential for low work morale. This may lead to a large turnover in the position of CSO, thereby compromising their ability to maintain familiarity.

Crawford & Lister (2003) suggest there is some confusion about the roles and identity of CSOs. Although they may help police officers to deal with more serious crimes, they may also create more work through the additional information gained while they are on patrol. The Police Federation, on the part of police officers, has expressed some reservations and opposition to the use of CSOs, making their integration into local forces a challenge.

Crawford & Lister (2003) also note some challenges facing ACSO programmes, including:

- the willingness of local police forces to grant accreditation;
- the willingness of local authorities to pay for the accreditation;
- the willingness of private firms to transfer responsibilities. Since they currently supply security services, this could mean competition; and
- how their powers and role will be viewed by the Human Rights Act.

France

Agents locaux de médiation sociale (Local Social Mediation Agents)

Public policy context

France's National Crime Prevention Council which amalgamated with the *Conseil national des villes* (National City Council) in 1989, established local crime prevention contracts (*contrats locaux de sécurité*)²⁵. Since then, City Contracts have been established to provide funding for prevention initiatives aimed at improving social solidarity and development. In 1997, the local safety contract was added to existing mechanisms for urban safety and crime prevention policies. It emphasises the decentralization of initiatives in order to serve the community better (Napolano & Wyvekens, 2004). Cities or communities decide for themselves what they need to do, with the help of safety audit mechanisms that require citizen participation, consultation and partnerships, and carry out the implementation and evaluation of action plans. Much preoccupation with security was found to arise from the lack of personnel in public transportation systems and around schools. A number of former positions had been removed to cut costs, and it was subsequently determined that a physical presence was necessary.

In response, some social mediation programmes in France²⁶ began around 1989, using volunteers to help solve conflicts occurring at schools in high-risk neighbourhoods. These areas often lacked social cohesion, and local authorities did not always respond to problems²⁷. In 1990, public transport companies began using mediation approaches to counter perceived insecurity and incivilities, and a number of youth employment programmes followed suit, to improve relations and resolve conflicts with the help of an impartial third party. By 1997, this mode of intervention was included within the *Contrats locaux de sécurité* to improve conditions in public places, and these mediation techniques are now widely used by local communities, businesses, and public housing and public transport to promote better living conditions among and for citizens²⁸.

Many mediation agent positions were created in 1997, as a result of the *emploi jeunes* (youth employment) initiative. This was part of a programme to generate employment in cities, and under a 5-year contract they received 50% of funding from the State. The position of *Adjoints de sécurité* (police auxiliaries) was also created under the youth employment initiative to develop community policing²⁹. By the year 2000, there were nearly 20, 000 such jobs, whose main function was either mediation only or, for the most part, providing mediation as well as other services³⁰. When state funding for *emploi*

²⁵ Shaw, M. (2001)

²⁶ Institutional mediation began in 1973 with the creation of the *Médiateur de la République* (Mediator of the Republic), an ombudsman working within each federal department, whose function consisted of helping those who contested administrative decisions or actions. This position was further developed in 2000, within the scope of the Urban Affairs Ministry (*Ministère délégué à la Ville*) under city policy. By 2003, there were 282 delegations of these mediators to deal with citizens' claims, contest the non-execution of justice decisions, and make reform propositions (DIV and CNFPT, 2004).

²⁷ DIV (2004) *Les dossiers ville : Médiation sociale-Du bénévolat à la reconnaissance*. Retrieved September 11, 2006, from <http://www.ville.gouv.fr/infos/dossiers/mediation-sociale.html>

²⁸ *ibid*

²⁹ Their role includes prevention, and improving relations between the public and the police. They wear a police uniform, work primarily in at-risk areas, and are trained with the intention of ultimately becoming police officers (Gorgeon, 2000). For this reason, they fall outside the focus of this work.

³⁰ DIV and CNFPT (2004)

jeunes was cut in 2003, however, it is estimated that 45% of the contracts for these jobs were terminated. Nevertheless, many municipalities decided to continue the programme by integrating these services with those of activity leaders/facilitators or the municipal police³¹.

In 2000, the *adultes relais*³² (adult intermediaries) programme became part of city policy with financial support from the State, which, by 2004, allowed for the creation of nearly 3,300 positions providing general or crime prevention services. The programme *femmes relais* (women intermediaries), providing social and cultural mediation, mediation in public places/transportation, and night patrollers was extended to combined municipalities, rather than just cities, in 2001³³.

Job descriptions and structure

The report on mediation services by the *Délégation interministérielle à la ville* (DIV)³⁴ and the *Centre national de la fonction publique territoriale* (CNFPT) (2004), identifies four different types of mediators of interest to this study, with slightly varying functions³⁵:

- *Agent de prévention et de médiation présent dans les espaces publics et /ou ouverts au public* (Mediation and prevention agents in public spaces and/or open to the public): These agents patrol in teams with the aim of providing a presence in public places to increase perceptions of security and public order, or strengthening social ties. They deal principally with neighbourhood disputes and those relating to the use of public space. They help residents resolve conflicts with each other, or institutions, and initiate activities to promote the quality of life. In 2004, there were approximately 7,000 such positions, with another 15,000 anticipated in the future.
- *Agent d'ambiance dans les transports* (Transportation control agent): These agents patrol in teams specifically in public transport vehicles or areas to ensure their proper usage, provide information, promote service quality, and intervene in conflicts to prevent an escalation in violent or anti-social behaviour. By 2004, there were 309 such positions.
- *Médiateur social et culturel* (Social and cultural mediator), for example, *femmes relais*: The job of this mediator, most often a woman, is to listen and dialogue to facilitate relations between people, access to appropriate services or institutions, to promote civic rights and civil ties, and prevent isolation. *Femmes relais* facilitates access to social and medical services for women, mainly those from cultural or ethnic minorities or with limited French speaking skills.
- *Correspondant de nuit* (Night patroller): These agents work in partnership with emergency or social services with strict guidelines on reporting and information sharing practices. They patrol at night in accordance to the safety, security, personal and emergency needs of residents, and report any problems to the appropriate authorities. Approximately 500 of these positions were in place by 2004.

³¹ DIV (2004).

³² See Appendix B

³³ DIV and CNFPT (2004)

³⁴ Interministerial Delegation for Cities

³⁵ See also Chambron, N., Marcus, M. & C. Mennetrier (1997)

Social mediation agents are mostly employed by local communities, by a group of municipalities, property owners, public transportation services, employer associations and neighbourhood boards³⁶. Many cities, as well as public housing corporations, property owners and certain associations have created permanent *correspondants de nuit* (night patrollers) jobs. Funding is also provided by foundations and insurance companies.

Thus the specific function of social mediators depends on their field, level of intervention and schedule (DIV, 2004). The main objectives are to help citizens to resolve their disagreements themselves, to provide assistance to those who need it, to facilitate access to certain rights, and to re-establish social ties and reduce insecurity by providing a presence in public places. Their aim is to facilitate problem-solving through communication and by encouraging concerned parties to take responsibility for finding solutions to problems. Apart from their different functions, social mediators have varying work status, being employed on a contractual or volunteer basis, for an undetermined length of time, or as a temporary replacement. The position can consist of full-time mediation or include other duties such as prevention, reception, providing information, and animating activities.

Roles and responsibilities

In terms of conflict resolution, mediators are most often called to solve disputes between neighbours, fights, family arguments, and loitering in public places by young people (DIV, 2004). The aim is to reduce tension by listening to problems and opening up a dialogue between citizens. The role of the mediator is also to respond to cases of social exclusion and distress by easing the relationship between public services or institutions and citizens, especially those from other countries. Mediators may also enhance access to rights by accompanying families and children to hospitals, doctors, schools and social workers. By being present in public places, they may also boost a feeling of security as well as contribute to making an area often neglected by public services more appealing.

The *Charte de référence de la médiation sociale* (reference charter of social mediation)³⁷, was established by the *Groupe de travail interministériel et interpartenarial sur les emplois dits «de médiation sociale»* (Interministerial and partnership work group on social mediation jobs) and adopted in 2001. The charter provides guidelines on the specific functions of social mediators, as well as for the use of mediation by other professionals. It establishes that through the work of an impartial third party, the objective of mediation is to create or solidify social ties and communication between those in conflict, so that they themselves can find mutually satisfying solutions to such issues. It specifies the judicial and ethical rules, and the rights and duties of mediators. These include: being neutral and impartial, using negotiation and dialogue as communication tools, obtaining consent from parties in order to participate in the process, the use of various pertinent services, respecting anonymity, and protecting personal and fundamental rights. Social mediators must be supported by a supervisor.

Recruitment and training

According to a 2005 study on mediation occupations³⁸, 61% of mediators are employed by associations and 27% by cities. Most social mediation positions within associations, such as *femmes relais*, are occupied by women (68%), whereas in other mediation

³⁶ DIV (2004)

³⁷ See Appendix C

³⁸ Délégation Interministérielle à la Ville (DIV) (2005)

positions, those where the employer is the city, the proportion of men is higher (62%). Those employed by cities also tend to be younger than those working for associations (e.g. 25% of those working for the city are over the age of 35, compared with 40% in associations). One third (33%) of mediators working within public transport services are under the age of 25.

To be eligible to work for an *adulte relais* association, one must be from an at-risk neighbourhood or an area covered by a city contract, at least 30 years of age, and unemployed³⁹.

The *Charte de référence de la médiation* provides for the professionalization of social mediation services and security of this type of career. Based on the charter, local initiatives have begun to create a more structured job description for these positions and appropriate training. In general, training must include role playing and intervention techniques that encourage communication, and a partnership and multidisciplinary approach⁴⁰.

A number of curricula for specialized diplomas have been developed, such as the *certificat de formation professionnelle d'agent de médiation information services* (AMIS) (professional mediation information and services agent training certificate); the *certificat d'aptitude professionnelle d'agent de prévention et de médiation* (professional qualification of the prevention and mediation agent certificate)⁴¹; the *Technicien médiation et services* (Mediation and services technician); and the *Baccalauréat professionnel services de proximité et vie locale* (Bachelor of professional community and local services)⁴².

Monitoring and evaluation

Since 1999, evaluation of the effectiveness of public policies has been carried out by the *Conseil national de l'évaluation* (the National Evaluation Council)⁴³, but in the case of social mediation programmes, most evaluation is undertaken by the *Délégation interministérielle à la ville* (DIV).

As reported by the DIV and CNFPT (2004), most evaluations are process evaluations, based on the opinions of mediators and other professionals of the impact of social mediation services. Overall it is difficult to quantify the impact of social mediation. This is because services vary widely, and evaluation of impact would need to draw on statistical information on areas beyond those served by mediators. Selected findings on the impact of mediation services include:

- Managers have reported a correlation between the presence of social mediators and positive indicators of programme success. These include an increase in the occupation of dwellings in popular neighbourhoods, increased attendance at sporting and cultural events, and a decrease in relocation from particular

³⁹ DARES (2003) *Les adultes relais : Premiers éléments d'évaluation*. Retrieved September 17, 2006, from <http://www.professionbanlieue.org/gestion/doc/pbrapportadulterelais.pdf>

⁴⁰ *Question de M. Jean-Pierre LECOQ et des membres du groupe "Rassemblement pour la République et apparentés" à M. le Maire de Paris et à M. le Préfet de police au sujet du recrutement des emplois-jeunes*. Retrieved September 18, 2006, from <http://www.v1.paris.fr/BMO/debat/CMDEBAT20010925/CMDEBAT20010925-83.htm>

⁴¹ DIV and CNFPT (2004)

⁴² DIV (2005)

⁴³ Sansfaçon, D. et al. (2002)

- dwellings or neighbourhoods, incivilities, and complaints. Social mediators are seen to contribute to a more positive image of the area in which they work.
- Mediators have improved payment for transport services. In Montpellier, for example, according to TAM (*Transports de l'agglomération de Montpellier*), failure to pay bus fares has been reduced from 25 to 6%.
 - Telephone surveys of satisfaction were conducted in Paris (2002) and Sevran (2003), among a representative sample of residents and security professionals other than social mediators. Results show that 81.6% of residents are reassured by the presence of mediators, 41.6% judged that there was more security since their arrival. Security professionals other than social mediators also reported being satisfied with the work of mediators, and a reduction in their workload and need to intervene.

A review of appropriate indicators for mediation services suggested that quantitative indicators should include variance in the number of complaints, requests for service and number of interventions, while qualitative data should include surveys to measure residents' satisfaction⁴⁴. Because the social mediator's position was created in the same period as community policing and the *Adjoins de sécurité*, it is difficult to attribute any changes in residents' perceptions of safety solely to the work of social mediators. In the view of the DIV, it was important not to isolate the actions of social mediators, but to consider their impact on perceptions of safety along with other services, since their actions are often part of a combined series of interventions.

Practical and political considerations

The prevention and security measures put in place by the State are non-binding (Bailleau & Pattegay, 2005). Municipalities decide which to use, and define where they will be deployed, mainly based on indices of population and high crime-risk. Among those in charge of providing services (*chargé de mission*), the type of person employed tends to be correlated with job title. Those described as security positions tend to employ a higher number of police, those emphasising prevention a higher number of mediators. This presents challenges for developing practical and effective partnerships between police and social mediators, and illustrates how those in charge have not acquired a common vision for safety and prevention, a clear professional identity in terms of delivering the services, or understanding of the respective responsibilities of police and mediators.

This raises the question: is there a real need to create a new profession of community mediators, or can the duties be filled by police and social workers? According to Yvon Robert (2001)⁴⁵, the job of the police is more reactive and repressive in nature, while that of the social worker is educational and one of specialized or follow-up intervention. There is still a definite need for a professional social mediator to complement the work of both, and to tackle issues primarily present in poorer communities. These include dysfunctional social ties and relational problems that are apparent and play out within public spaces.

Robert (2001) argues that the work of social mediators is to specifically address these issues and play a more preventive role. While the technique of mediation can be an important part of police and social worker's training, the current mandate or contract of the position of "activities leader" could be redefined to include social mediation as its

⁴⁴ DIV and CNFPT (2004)

⁴⁵ President of the *Groupe de travail interministériel sur les emplois dits de médiation sociale*.

prime objective. This would help to contribute to the renewal of poorer urban areas. Special educational training should be available to fulfill the requirements needed for this new type of employee.

In the view of the DIV (2004), the role of the social mediator needs to be clearly defined so that it may be understood by all, allowing for maximum cooperation between workers and assuring the provision of adequate training. Training remains a challenge in ensuring that social mediation positions are valued as being unique and specific (recreating social ties, easing conflicts and promoting a sense of security and order in public spaces) while at the same time being part of a multidisciplinary team. Many social mediators feel that they are not a part of a collaborative team of professionals.

The DIV (2005) also notes that a major factor in the successful maintenance of these services depends on the type of employer. For mediators working within associations, financial issues were of most concern, for those employed by cities, the principal problem lay in the professionalization of services. A further problem lies in the fact that the mandate of the social mediator has two purposes, (security and reassurance, and mediation to resolve conflicts), but it also has a mandate to create new jobs for the unemployed. This can create complications in setting policy priorities, targets for project implementation, or indicators for evaluating the projects' success.

Belgium

Les assistants de prévention et de sécurité (APS) (Prevention and Security Assistants)

Public Policy Context

In Belgium, a number of new policies have been developed to counter increasing levels of insecurity since the 1980's (Gallet, 2004). These include the decentralization of police forces, flexible plans adapted to the needs of different environments, and a local crime prevention model, similar to that developed in France. Since 1991, a number of prevention initiatives have been developed on situational prevention, petty urban crime, security contracts, partnerships, and community involvement. In 1992, the government created the *Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention* (Permanent secretariat for prevention policy) within the Ministry of the Interior, and new security policies were developed including *les contrats de sécurité* (Security Contracts)⁴⁶. These provide funding and personnel to develop programmes which respond to community needs, as part of the emergency programme on societal problems (*programme d'urgence sur les problèmes de société*).

These contracts have become part of the Minister of Interior's overall prevention policies responding to urban insecurity. They seek to combine the work of social and police services, following police reforms in 1990. Community policing (*police de proximité*) techniques have also been developed to provide policing services more adapted to neighbourhood needs. In 1996, the contracts were renamed *contrats de sécurité et de société* (Security and Society Contracts). They aim to facilitate local authority integration and the management of prevention and crime reduction, through urban renewal programmes, rather than simply as security issues. At this time, Prevention Contracts were also in place. These are measures for medium-sized cities to improve security by way of prevention by identifying and acting on problems experienced locally.

With the aim of improving the quality of life and reducing unemployment levels, the government also adopted the *Plan global pour l'emploi, la compétitivité et la sécurité sociale* (Global Plan for Employment, Competitiveness, and Social Security) in 1993. The plan was to create jobs for the unemployed, bring help to families, and address issues of urban decay. It is under this plan that the programme *Les assistants de prévention et de sécurité* (APS) was developed in 1996, by the Minister of the Interior and of Employment.

In 2002, the differentiation between Security and Society Contracts and Prevention Contracts became obsolete; they combine to form *Les contrats de sécurité et de prévention* (Security and Prevention Contracts)⁴⁷. Matters involving the police were no longer covered in the contracts due to another police reform in the same year. For a municipality to benefit from a contract, it must meet one of three criterions: to have a population of more than 60, 000, to have higher crime rates per capita than other areas, or to have a population of more than 10, 000 and a lower socio-economic status than other areas.

⁴⁶ See also, Napolano & Wyvekens (2004)

⁴⁷ Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention. *Les contrats de sécurité et de la prévention 2002-2003*. Retrieved December 22, 2006, from http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/eucpn/docs/crimepreventionbe.fr.pdf

Job Description and Structure

Generally speaking, APSs provide an on-site presence to promote security, and a semi-formal means of social control. They provide functional surveillance in public transport, apartment complexes, commercial or shopping centers, urban or industrial complexes, high-risk neighbourhoods, and recreation areas. APSs may have various work titles reflecting their functions. These include (Gallet, 2004)⁴⁸:

Gardiens d'espaces publics (Public Spaces Guards): These APSs work in parks or streets within the municipality, providing assistance and directions, referrals to appropriate social services, repairing or reporting damages, and ensuring respect for green spaces.

Vigiles/surveillants municipaux (Municipal Supervisors or Guards): These APSs oversee traffic outside schools and ensure safe boarding on buses, they may also oversee car and bicycle lots to prevent theft, or work with public transport companies on passenger security.

Concierge/responsables/gardien d'immeubles (Building Guard or Caretaker): These APSs work as mediators to resolve problems between neighbours in buildings, provide a semi-official presence for residents to consult, and prevent incivilities like litter, graffiti or loitering.

Stewards (Fan Coaches): These APSs are present at sporting events to provide extra security and help promote appropriate fan behaviour.

It is largely up to municipalities to define their mandate, training, recruitment or evaluation processes, territory, and to whom they will report (Gallet, 2004). In most cases, there is a coordinator who manages and supervises the work of a team of APS⁴⁹.

These new APS positions are funded by the government through unemployment allowance, and integration salary schemes, reducing working costs and maintaining certain social advantages for the unemployed. Funding is also provided by the Minister of the Interior and Employment through extended security contracts. Staff employed as APS' receive their unemployment benefits as well as 197 Euros⁵⁰ for 53 hours of work per month. Depending on the needs defined by cities, the Minister of the Interior offers contracts for project funding with certain conditions, such as the integration of social and police services in the development of prevention practices.

In 2006, the *Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention* mandated the hiring of 160 new APSs through its security funds, and will pay half their yearly wages of 29, 000 Euros⁵¹ per year, as well as training on administrative sanctions. This funding is to be matched by municipalities⁵².

⁴⁸ See also, Chambron, N., Marcus, M. & C. Mennetrier (1997)

⁴⁹ Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention. *La fonction d'assistant de prévention et de sécurité*. Retrieved October 10, 2006, from <http://www.belgium.be>.

⁵⁰ Approximately U.S \$260.

⁵¹ Approximately U.S \$38, 300.

⁵² Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention. *Circulaire PREV 29 relative aux instructions pour l'introduction de proposition de projet en vue du lancement du dispositif APS*. Retrieved October 7, 2006, from http://www.uvcw.be/no_index/police/sac/Prev29_FR_.pdf

Roles and Responsibilities

According to the *Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention*⁵³, the role of the APS is to enhance security and contribute to improving the quality of life of residents by being a visible presence and providing supervision, relaying pertinent information to the proper authorities, problem-solving, and giving referrals to appropriate services. Under the New Neighbourhood Law (*Nouvelle loi communale*) of 2004, APSs may hand out fines for petty offences such as litter, graffiti, and vandalism⁵⁴.

Recruitment and Training

Though employment policies, APS positions are given to long time beneficiaries of unemployment pay, or those receiving incomes for integration into the workforce. Officially, recruitment targets those over 40 years of age and with limited education (Gallet, 2004). In practice, as reported by Smeets⁵⁵, this is not always the case; though more compensation is granted when hiring older candidates, precedence is sometimes given to younger and more educated candidates for reasons of developing a more diversified team of APSs, or to give priority to the professional reinsertion of younger people. Today, the proportions are about half and half. Moreover, APS' are required to have a bachelor's degree in order to be able to hand out fines for incivilities. The author also reveals that a disproportionate amount of these jobs are held by men, which coordinators say is because it is a security position that generally attracts a greater number of males than females.

Training takes place at provincial police schools (*écoles de police provinciales*), in collaboration with the local police, public institutions, and the private sector, and includes topics that are judged relevant by local authorities and that relate to crime prevention, such as⁵⁶:

- the development of communication skills;
- conflict resolution;
- writing of reports;
- local regulations;
- the integration of prevention concepts;
- first aid; and
- monitoring and supervision skills.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Local councillors are responsible for implementing and evaluating Security and Prevention Contracts and prevention strategies developed at the federal level, in their local city or municipality.⁵⁷ Municipalities formulate policies and implement and adapt initiatives to their needs, making use of a local security diagnostic manual prepared by

⁵³ Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention. *La fonction d'assistant de prévention et de sécurité*. Retrieved October 7, 2006, from <http://www.belgium.be>

⁵⁴ Secrétariat permanent à la politique de prévention. *Circulaire PREV 29 relative aux instructions pour l'introduction de proposition de projet en vue du lancement du dispositif APS*. Retrieved October 7, 2006, from http://www.uvcw.be/no_index/police/sac/Prev29_FR_.pdf

⁵⁵ Based on information gathered by Smeets for her thesis regarding these new prevention actors (forthcoming), disclosed by phone on February 6, 2007.

⁵⁶ SPP. *Circulaire PREV 29 relative aux instructions pour l'introduction de proposition de projet en vue du lancement de dispositif APS*.

⁵⁷ Minister of the Interior's Annual Report (2003) <http://ibz.fgov.be>

the Minister of the Interior. They must also evaluate and provide solutions when difficulties arise in carrying out the contracts.

An internal evaluator at the local level assesses all the projects within the municipal Security and Prevention Contract, in terms of actions taken and their effects. This is based on criminal statistics, data gathered by community services and appropriate methodological instruments⁵⁸. Monitoring is mostly undertaken through on-site visits and routine follow-ups of project functioning, and an evaluation tool has recently been created so that municipalities can evaluate the impact of their projects on the community. The results of the evaluations are not subjected to general analysis or published, but the conclusions are used internally⁵⁹. A requirement to evaluate projects, rather than provide simple activities reports, has been introduced since 1998, but evaluation still remains a somewhat irregular activity (Van de Vloet, 2003).

Since 2006, Security and Prevention Contracts have been granted for a period of four years, and are to be results-focused. Their content is to be determined by municipalities in accordance with needs based on local security analysis (*diagnostic local de sécurité*). The results are to be evaluated in the third year of the contract, to assess whether funding for the project will continue⁶⁰.

Coordinators are supposed to provide monthly reports on activities of their APS programme to the Ministry of the Interior, and evaluation of programmes is conducted by internal evaluators (Smeets & Hendrickx, 2000), on the basis of an evaluation grid provided by the Ministry of the Interior. This includes information on numbers of reported infractions, action taken, reports to the police or other services, and views of citizens on the programme (from town hall meetings). Yearly reports on the functioning of the programme are also developed by local coordinators, based on meetings with APS personnel.

Practical and Political Considerations

Gallet (2004) reports variation between APS' in their job description and funding. Those specifically defined as APS' have concrete job descriptions given by the Minister of Interior, but their functions differ depending on the municipality's security needs. Other posts vary slightly, for example, Stewards may be hired on contract, and may be APSs, or APSs on temporary assignment, depending on the city in which they work.

Evaluating the impact of prevention contracts and the APS on crime and insecurity cannot be undertaken by the use of police data on reported incidents alone. This would require repeat victimization surveys in local areas. Further, crime rates do not reflect the prime objectives of the security and prevention contracts, which are to improve residents' quality of life and perception of safety. Increasing confidence in the police may also affect willingness to report to police. A number of factors and initiatives can influence a person's perception of security and quality of life, and they are hard to transpose into quantitative data⁶¹. It can also be difficult to isolate the impact of specific initiatives in a programme. Thus the work of APSs is hard to isolate from other prevention initiatives.

⁵⁸ Barchechat, O. (2004)

⁵⁹ As relayed by Ronald Lescart, Local councillor for the SPP

⁶⁰ Direction générale, politique de sécurité et de prévention. *Rapport d'activités (activities report) 2004*. Retrieved October 31, 2006, from <http://www.ibz.fgov.be>

⁶¹ Van de Vloet (2003)

Swinner et al. (2005) point out difficulties in evaluating security and prevention contracts, which is that they are very rarely created on the basis of survey or base-line data which would provide an *a priori* picture. Usually, they stem from political choices to respond to problems or emergencies at a given time. A comparison of the situation before and after the application of the measure that would reveal its impact is, therefore, never possible.

Some difficulties in the programme are due to its dual objectives of decreasing feelings of insecurity and creating jobs. It is hard for coordinators to establish priorities, and many have stated the need for more clarity and specification in their role. Training practices and topics vary since they are developed on a local level, between those encouraging professional reintegration, and those promoting security. The two objectives require the use of different indicators of the programme's impact in terms of evaluation, and the dual objectives also hinder the development of a more permanent professional status.

Australia⁶²

Night patrols

Public Policy Context

In Australia, night patrols are primarily found in Aboriginal communities. They constitute a form of self-policing, and are supported by legislation. The Law Reform Commission of Australia (1986) identified a strong need for self-policing by and for Aboriginal people. Although there was never a rejection of the requirement of police services from within Aboriginal communities, members did want to have a say in how policing was undertaken. The advantages of self-policing techniques include offering the possibility of handling anti-social behaviour in a manner that is less rigid, more in keeping with Aboriginal customs, and therefore more suitable. This allows more time for the police to tackle more serious situations, a point which could also pertain to urban areas. Night patrols are often the initiatives of local women, who feel the need for less coercive and more consensual responses to problems, including family violence, and by elders who believe that a return to the use of Aboriginal methods of conflict resolution is important.

Blagg (2003) reports that the topic of night patrols received greater attention in the literature following the deaths of Aboriginal people in police custody. It seemed clear that self-policing initiatives could be a fruitful way to address the ineffectiveness of policing services, and growing dissatisfaction with those services, while allowing Aboriginals to manage conflict resolution in their own way. This was a recommendation of the Royal Commission into Aboriginal Deaths in Custody, and the Report of the Aboriginal Issues Unit of the Northern Territory in 1991. Since that time, reports by the Aboriginal Justice Council are supportive of patrols as a way of keeping Aboriginals out of police custody, to counter their over-representation in the justice system, as well as responding to problems related to intoxication.

Other self-policing programmes have existed, such as warden schemes initiated in remote areas under the Aboriginal Communities Act (1979). This service was later replaced by a system of police aides, a strategy that was opposed by the Aboriginal Justice Council on the grounds that it used non-Aboriginal approaches. Other programmes include night watchman schemes where older men toured and kept an eye on the community. These have subsequently become night patrol services.

Job Description and Structure

Blagg (2003) notes that there is no common definition of night patrol services. They are put in place at the request of community members and adapted to the community's needs. Even the word community may refer to a particular area or hot-spot, or to people of a certain socio-cultural background. The services are found in the Northern Territory, Western Australia, Queensland, South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales. The term 'night patrols' is used only in the Northern Territories, elsewhere terms such as street patrols, community patrols, foot or barefoot patrols, mobile assistance patrols, and street beat programmes are used. The latter deal principally with at-risk youth.

In general, the goal of night patrols is to prevent or end incidents, and to preserve peace and create security within the community. They provide foot or vehicle patrol services, in targeted areas or throughout a community. Particular groups at risk include youth, women, sex workers, the homeless and intoxicated adults. Night patrols work in

⁶² Unless otherwise indicated, the information for this section is drawn from Blagg (2003).

conjunction with the local police and family, clan or tribal affiliations in the case of Indigenous patrollers.

Blagg (2003) notes that funding for such programmes varies depending on the jurisdiction, but mainly comes from local councils or government agencies, such as the Department of Justice or Health, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, the Department of Indigenous Affairs. Welfare agencies, the police, or Indigenous people and Aboriginal community groups, such as sobering-up shelters, other drug and alcohol services, or Community Access Support Services may also provide funds. For example, the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission provided \$1, 746, 833⁶³ for patrols and related organizations in 2001 in the Northern Territories, and \$13, 000⁶⁴ for personnel and fuel expenses to one project in Victoria. Many patrollers work on a volunteer basis, while others, depending on the funder, are paid. A general overview of the make-up of patrols in different regions is provided by Blagg (2003):

- In the Northern Territories, there are over 30 patrols. Some employ only women and some only men, but most are mixed with men and women on different shifts. There are between 6 and 29 people on each patrol, mostly volunteers, though two thirds of patrols have paid full-time coordinators.
- In Queensland, there are at least 9 schemes with between 2 and 10 workers each of mixed gender, although men generally outnumber women.
- In South Australia, there are over 5 patrols with between 2 and 19 workers each, mostly part-time paid or volunteer positions, with a balance of genders.
- In New South Wales, there are at least 7 schemes. Two have between 2 and 7 paid workers per night, while the rest are made up of a pool of volunteers of up to 30 men and women. Women are generally outnumbered by men.
- In Victoria, at least 3 projects exist. Two of them employ staff with funds from Community Development Employment Projects, while the other uses volunteers. Each project has between 3 and 6 workers, with an equal ratio of men and women.

Roles and Responsibilities

Blagg (2003) describes the role of night patrols as quite flexible and adaptive, providing an extensive range of services, but excluding powers to detain, question and arrest, which remain police responsibility. Night patrols:

- provide services in areas that are under-policed, by preventing disorder or the escalation of violent behaviour, and protecting those who are vulnerable;
- help those from indigenous communities whom are at times over-policed, or those who are intoxicated, avoid contact with the criminal justice system;
- provide youth with referrals to support organizations or safe transportation, and attempt to prevent juvenile crime and anti-social behaviour;
- work in partnership with or as an outreach service for safe houses, women's shelters, medical services, community justice initiatives, sobering up facilities and schools and in the Northern Territory, with a community Law and Order

⁶³ Approximately U.S \$1, 379, 124.

⁶⁴ Approximately U.S \$10, 263.

Committee to develop agreements and protocols with family services and housing agencies.

- provide transport to those in need.

Blagg's (2003) report gives an overview of the main focus and target groups of patrol services, hours of service, and other matters relating to patrols' functioning and patroller powers:

- The main problems addressed by patrols relate to alcohol, but emphasis was also on drug and other substance abuse, as well as anti-social behaviour and family violence.
- Patrols normally deal with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, but offer services to non-aboriginals as well. The average number of interventions is approximately 40 per night though in remote areas it may be less; the proportion of interventions with men is similar to that with women; and most patrol work involves those between the ages of 13 and 25, especially Street Beat programmes which target youth at risk.
- Working hours may include some daytime hours, depending on the patrol's mandate, and the needs and resources of the community.
- Most patrols work in partnership with the police. Shortage of personnel especially in remote areas, and communication practices affect the ability of both services to respond to residents' requests.
- Patrollers may work in pairs or in teams of up to 18 people.
- Elders contribute to patrols through taking part in them, by sitting on committees or councils, by endorsing or authorizing patrols, or in dispute resolution.
- A patroller's powers are those of an ordinary citizen; they use mediation and persuasion and perform their work by forming strong ties with people and obtaining their consent. In some remote areas where Indigenous traditions are stronger, they may exert authority as dictated by customary law. In general, patrols are most successful when they serve a mandate that conforms to the needs of the community in which they serve.

Recruitment and Training

Patrols provide a community service rather than primarily security. Many are now trained by community support groups instead of private security organizations to work with youth, use mediation techniques, and first aid (Blagg, 2003). The age, gender, and cultural backgrounds of patrollers are diverse, and they aim to be representative of the community. Ages range between 17-60 years, with an average of 30-40, and men are more present in urban areas.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Few night patrol services have been formally evaluated⁶⁵, though several have been assessed internally by the agency that funds them, or management committees. Some evaluation findings include (Blagg, 2003):

⁶⁵ Australian Institute of Criminology (August 5, 2004). Retrieved September 21, 2006, from <http://www.aic.gov.au/publications/crm/crm026t.html>

- In Western Australia, police arrest or detention statistics are used in local evaluations, or the number of those assisted. The presence and intervention of night patrol services is attributed in many areas to the reduction in numbers of youth crime, complaints, truancy, reports of antisocial behaviour, calls to the police, family violence, excessive drinking, intoxicated individuals handled by the justice system, accidents related to substance abuse, hospital admissions. They are also credited with lessening tensions between Aboriginal and non-aboriginal peoples.
- In the Northern Territory, the police consider patrols essential for providing law and order services to Indigenous and remote communities. Patrols are found to be cost effective, and free officer time to deal with other policing duties while presenting a positive image of Aboriginal people in the resolution of conflict and order maintenance. In one area, it is felt that the combined preventative impact of a safe house and night patrols has helped reduce the number of women seeking refuge.
- The impact of patrols on youth is less positive. A service for youth in Queensland reports having no real effect and providing only a temporary relief to persistent problems. Another youth service in New South Wales believes that resources could be better spent on youth risks, such as dropping out of school, alcohol and drug abuse, homelessness, and health needs. Other projects report some progress in enabling young people to seek help for health and welfare needs, or avoiding unnecessary contact with the police.
- In Western Australia, the Aboriginal Justice Council showed that patrols in three areas were able to reduce the number of lock-ups by 30-36%, between 1994-96. Research by the National Drug Research Institute (2000) found that patrols in Halls Creek had been useful in identifying and responding to those in need, and contributed to the reduction in domestic disturbances and other violent offences.

Practical and Political Considerations

Blagg' (2003) reports a number of challenges to providing this service including:

- Sustaining funding is the major hindrance for patrols. This may be due to organizational dysfunctions, inability to release previous grants, or to gain commitment from funding bodies. In the Northern Territory, as is the case for many patrol services, Indigenous people have tried to find funding sources that are reliable and adequate to offer patrollers the salary, training and support they require, rather than just a single or spontaneous payment. Often there is uncertainty over who has the responsibility for funding.
- Competing definitions, roles, and responsibilities of police and patrols may cause friction and impede the quality of communication between the two services. For example, in some areas, the police feel that the purpose of patrols is to bring intoxicated people to a shelter or sobering-up facility, while patrollers believe that this falls within the police job description.
- Some patrol services experience difficulties responding to the needs of community members which extend beyond their original mandate. They may also experience a lack of cooperation or support by the Aboriginal community because they are perceived as asserting government authority in a tailored, pseudo-Aboriginal manner. In the Northern Territory, patrollers felt it important that Indigenous authority be respected, and that patrols should be self-

determining rather than the property of government agencies or non-Aboriginal organizations. The police note difficulty in the management and coordination of patrols, as well as a deficiency in community support.

- There are some challenges to implementing and sustaining services in remote areas due to differences between traditional and current cultural authorities, generational conflicts, and alcohol-related issues.
- In some instances, there is a lack of support and referral services, follow-ups with specialists, and youth or recreational programmes.
- There is a lack of training, especially on working with the police, which can lead to breaks in services.
- Other problems pertain to the management and operation of vehicles. It may be too costly to purchase or maintain them or to buy fuel. Their use may spark resentment within communities or raise questions as to their appropriate use.
- Other issues include a high turn-over rate in employees (because of burn-out or disillusionment), changes in management structures, officials being too removed from the problem and unaware of the needs, and inflexible bureaucracies.

Blagg's (2003) makes a number of recommendations to improve night patrol services, to ensure that they continue to provide people with the ability to watch over their own community, and with opportunities to decrease unwarranted contact with the justice system. These include: a focus on evaluation, funding, ongoing support, proper management, clear role definition, and the development of a Night Patrol Forum.

South Africa

Community Peace Workers (CPW)

Public Policy Context

South Africa's political and social situation is quite unique within the context of this report, following the major social, economic and government reorganization of the post-apartheid regime. Recent accounts of crime in South Africa (du Plessis, 2005)⁶⁶ suggest that:

- there were close to 2, 500, 000 crimes committed per year since 2000, and the rate has risen since 1994, although this is expected since there is now more trust in, and access to, police services thus more reporting of crime;
- the violent crime rate is high in comparison with Western countries, at 33% of recorded crimes in South Africa, compared with 15% in the U.S., and 5% in the U.K.

A number of initiatives to prevent crime have been launched since the end of Apartheid, starting with the National Crime Prevention Strategy of 1996⁶⁷.

The South African Police Services Act (1995) established the formal basis for community policing, with an emphasis on sector policing. Police officials or sector managers were appointed to specific areas and responsible for promoting safety and security. Their duties included the gathering of information to be discussed at Station/Sector Crime Forums, and station meetings to encourage the participation of community members, enhance the relationship between police and residents, and decrease the amount of police corruption by making officers more accountable. There were also community based programmes for crime prevention, managed and organised by National and Local Government Police Services.

Since 1994, the government has strived to encourage democratic local governance and development through new policies and cooperative initiatives. The Peace and Development project, responsible for instituting Community Peace Workers, provides a case study for the purposes of this report. The project has been supported by German Development Cooperation (GTZ), and recognizes the importance of working in partnerships to counter social problems of violence, unemployment, low education, high crime rates, social overcrowding, poverty and difficult social conditions⁶⁸.

The Community Peace Workers initiative is part of the Conflict Management Programme, a scheme involving cooperation between GTZ and the Department for

⁶⁶ Du Plessis, A. (2005) *Violent crime levels in South Africa: An overview of available data*. Retrieved November 21, 2006, from <http://www.csvr.org.za/cjspeak.htm>

⁶⁷ For a detailed account of crime prevention in South Africa, see Du Plessis, A. & Louw, A. (2005) *Crime Prevention in South Africa: 10 Years After*. *The Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 47(2), 427-446.

⁶⁸ Co-operation: Republic of South Africa and Federal Republic of Germany (2005). *Progress report, Focal Area: Local Governance and Development*. Retrieved November 7, 2006, from http://suedafrika.ded.de/cipp/ded/lib/all/lob/return_download,ticket,g_u_e_s_t/bid,1803/no_mime_type,0/~/_Local_Governance_Development_-_Progress_Report_2005.doc

Safety and Security. The project was initiated in Nyanga Western Cape province in 1997, and has since expanded to Soshanguve in 1999 and Khayelitsha in 2004⁶⁹.

The programme's major goals are the prevention of crime and youth development, in targeted low-income areas. The aim of the project is to provide young people with the essential knowledge and tools to identify situations of conflict in their community, and mediate between involved parties⁷⁰.

Job Description and Structure

The Community Peace Worker (CPW) recruits perform volunteer community service for one year, while acquiring experience that may lead to gainful employment. After initial training, half of their day is dedicated to foot patrols, while the other is spent in training sessions where they are given further instruction as conflict mediators and leaders. GTZ gives personal, technical and some financial support for training and operations. This includes the supply of transport and food parcels during duty and training to all workers. The project is also based on a working partnership with the police, Community Policing Forums, social workers, community organizations, and the Departments of Health, Labour and Education.

Roles and Responsibilities

As in other examples discussed in this report, safety patrols provide a **visible, on-site presence** in the hope of being a deterrent to crime and, thereby, increase the perception of safety among residents. Community Peace Workers also facilitate mediation and negotiation in family and other neighbourhood disputes. They aim to prevent the escalation of aggression in what are, potentially, very violent situations⁷¹.

Other responsibilities include citizen arrest, helping to decrease drug trafficking and illegal weapons, increasing safety at school, assisting crime victims, giving first aid or calling an ambulance when someone is injured, and educating people about the risk of HIV/AIDS. Through their interventions and their involvement in community cultural and sporting activities, the young workers build trust relationships and gain credibility with members of the community.

Recruitment and Training

The Peace and Development Programme/Urban conflict Management Project has been successful in recruiting and training approximately 350 candidates in Soshanguve since 1999. The youths (average age of 22) are selected from low-income areas to serve in their own communities for one year. Half the recruits are men and half women.

Basic training involves developing the required techniques to be successful in mediating between conflicting parties and preventing the incidence of violent crime, as well as life skills. Topics include: leadership, setting goals, working in cooperation, facilitation and communication skills, human rights, conflict resolution, problem-solving stress management, family law, first aid, HIV/Aids awareness, emotional coping skills, and working with victims. Recruits are also taught subjects relating to the operation of the project, including a code of conduct, their roles and responsibilities, how to process

⁶⁹ GTZ-German Technical Cooperation. *Urban Conflict Management-Peace and Development Project*. Retrieved November 7, 2006, from <http://www.gtz/de/de/dokumente/en-suedafrika-conflict-management-PDP-national.pdf>

⁷⁰ Ibid

⁷¹ Ibid

information and write reports, radio communication, and crowd control. In Soshanguve, recruits are also given police training. This covers issues such as law enforcement, bylaws, the Domestic Violence Act, tactical training, community policing, first responder to a crime scene, school patrol, land invasion, drug identification, and on the Safe School Programme.

Training is on-going throughout the year and aims to provide recruits with the essential knowledge for becoming an asset to any organisation or company. It teaches the attitudes necessary for being an honest, responsible and productive employee or business owner. It also provides practical information such as business English, mathematics, career guidance, and basic computer skills. Once the programme is completed, Community Peace Workers are offered additional training and help to qualify for, or find jobs.

Monitoring and Evaluation

In 2005, a framework for the monitoring and evaluation of projects was created, providing indicators for assessment and to assist yearly progress reports⁷².

One of the national goals set in the 2005 progress report was to reduce the rate of contact crimes annually by 7%-10%. Among other indicators, this was to be measured by the improvement of safety and security and living conditions in the Khayelitsha and Soshanguve project areas.

As the report underlines, there are no local crime statistics to quantify improvements in safety, but project partners report a decrease in local disputes, and an augmentation in the number of reported offences, as well increased demand for Community Peace Workers from residents. Former Community Peace Workers are found to behave in a more positive and responsible manner, and as many as 80% of them are working or self-employed. These are all indications of the projects' impact. In 2005, 50 volunteers were recruited in Khayelitsha and plans made for a qualitative study using performance indicators.

The GTZ⁷³ report on the project to March 2006 suggests that, based on police statistics, the number of burglaries, thefts and attacks has been dramatically reduced in the project areas. They attribute this to the patrolling of peace workers. A large number of provinces and communities in South Africa have now expressed an interest in introducing or continuing the project.

Practical and Political Considerations

At the local level people's expectations about improved and efficient delivery of service can be high. This may not be easy to achieve in South Africa at this time, due to capacity limitations, poor government support, or corruption. These may have an impact on people's perceptions and feelings of safety and security, and thus affect evaluation findings. In terms of the partnership between the national governments and organizations such as GTZ, the 2005 Progress Report stresses that consensus on motives and effective coordination is necessary, in order to reach a shared understanding and recognition of the responsibilities of each partner. These may take time and require constant communication.

⁷² Co-operation: Republic of South Africa and Federal Republic of Germany. Progress report (2005). *Focal Area: Local Governance and Development*.

⁷³ *Urban conflict management project*. Retrieved November 7, 2006, from <http://www.gtz.de/en/praxis/11629.htm>

Community Patrol Officers (CPO)

Other South African examples include Community Patrol Officer (CPO) schemes found in cities such as Cape Town.

Public policy context

In Cape Town, the Community Patrol Officer Scheme was established in 1995 by the City Community Patrol Board (CCPB), the Western Cape Provincial Government, and the National Department of Safety and Security. Its goal was to provide visible policing in the central business district (Dugmore, 2003), as well as to create jobs (Palmary, 2002).

Job description and structure

CPOs are civilian volunteers with police reservist status. They provide patrolling services at a local level with the South African Police Service (SAPS), handling equipment and operational and disciplinary matters, and with the City Community Patrol Board in charge of labour relations⁷⁴. The Board's annual budget for the scheme in 2001-2002 was approximately R19.2 million⁷⁵. Of the 702 CPOs recruited by the Board in Cape Town at that time, 338 were employed by the City, 50 by the public transportation system, and 315 by the private sector (Dugmore, 2003).

Roles, responsibilities and training

CPOs' roles and responsibilities include supplementing police personnel, and contributing to local policing and crime prevention by performing patrols and enforcing by-laws, including conduct in public spaces and noise control, protecting businesses, and offering security services⁷⁶. CPOs received three months training at a SAPS college (Dugmore, 2003).

Evaluation

These schemes do not appear to have been evaluated. They were popular because they were easy to establish, and they gained public approval, since visibility leads to a decrease in fear of crime (Palmary, 2002). While the scheme was due to be terminated with contracts ending in June 2004 (Dugmore, 2003), it has provided a job creation role in the Western Cape, with many CPOs subsequently joining the South African Police Service as public servants or constables⁷⁷. It has been noted, nevertheless, that their absence has left a void in policing that was crucial to its functioning⁷⁸.

Practical and political considerations

There are continuing discussions about overall responsibilities for policing at national and local levels in South Africa, and some of the factors affecting the demise of CPO services appear to relate to difficulties in managing and providing sustaining funding for the programme⁷⁹.

⁷⁴ Palmary (2002)

⁷⁵ Approximately U.S \$2, 74 million.

⁷⁶ Memeza, M. (2000) *By-law Enforcement in South African Cities*. Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. Retrieved November 7, 2006, from <http://www.csvr.org.za/papers/papmzi4.htm>

⁷⁷ Ministry of Community Safety (June 2004). *Community patrol officers' contract coming to an end on 30 June 2004*. Retrieved November 7, 2006, from

<http://www.capegateway.gov.za/eng/pubs/news/2004/Jun/76400>

⁷⁸ *ibid*

⁷⁹ *ibid*

Synthesis Discussion

Overall findings

The case studies presented in this report illustrate the range of 'new' community safety professions which have been created to address fear and insecurity about crime, often in disadvantaged and crime-prone communities, or in high-use public spaces. The examples, from five countries, all involve partnerships between the police, various levels of government, and community organizations and businesses. They aim to prevent crime and promote safety, act as a link between institutions and the community, mediate disputes, create greater social cohesion, and increase people's trust in the police.

The notion of visibility is widely accepted as a key component in reducing fear of crime and reassuring residents. In the countries examined, community safety workers are uniformed or otherwise identifiable. They perform patrolling, provide a presence, and try to facilitate community involvement and participation. They encourage communication among residents and between them and official services, in order to address the gaps in police or service provision, especially for those in high crime neighbourhoods. Police officers in such areas are not always seen as approachable, may be regarded with suspicion and associated with repression rather than assistance. The main goals of the community safety workers are to be accessible to the public, build trust, prevent the escalation of violence, enable people to report incivilities, and intervene before the police need to be involved. They perform services, therefore, which have not been provided systematically by existing public authorities or organizations. This frees police time, allowing them to focus on more serious criminal activities.

These positions **often recruit from among the unemployed, and act as job-training and job-creation avenues for local residents**. They are usually supervised or coordinated by the police or other authorities, and funded by a variety of sources. In all cases examined, there appears to be more diversity among community safety worker personnel than among police officers, whether in terms of age, gender, ethnicity or prior work experience. This makes them more representative of an area's population and, therefore, more approachable.

Community safety workers provide a link between residents and official services. Many administrative systems are difficult to navigate, especially for residents who are socially, culturally or geographically isolated, and have few resources and limited access to information on services. Community safety workers in all areas, whether attached to police stations, local government services, or social organisations, can help to bridge the gap between the official sector and the private citizen.

Community safety workers use negotiation and mediation. As auxiliary workers they rely primarily on persuasion and mediation, having limited powers to coerce and enforce actions. In some cases they can perform citizens' arrests or issue tickets for minor violations relating to damage or disturbances. Certain positions, such as those in France, specifically promote the use of mediation as a technique for dispute resolution, and train workers in mediation techniques.

Safety workers encounter a number of difficulties which can lead to job dissatisfaction. These include limited powers of enforcement compared with other actors, and **lack of legitimacy** in the eyes of other actors with whom they work in partnership. This reflects the fact that these professions are in the developmental stages in terms of structure and implementation, and their roles tend to be ill-defined. While they have often been created with a relatively clear mission, and creative new funds, their

specific functions tend to have been left to the interpretation of local police, local authorities or even neighbourhoods. As a result, there are often many different perspectives on the roles of these practitioners, and an absence of an agreed-upon, clearly communicated identity for the profession, and its relationship to other crime prevention actors.

The training given to community safety workers varies, therefore, usually consisting of prior sessions on their powers and role, conflict management techniques, knowledge of the legal and justice system, issues affecting victims of crime, and the role of other types of workers within their jurisdiction. In the case of the South African youth recruits who have experienced long time unemployment, they receive continuing training on leadership and life skills to develop their job competency and build longer term capacity. Training may be made more pertinent by monitoring and adjustment based on feedback on the obstacles encountered on the job.

The recruitment of community safety workers is not necessarily based on prior education or experience in law enforcement, but on the person's ability to work independently in dealing with problematic situations, and to work in partnership as part of a multi-agency's prevention strategy. The capacity to communicate, to be resourceful and approachable, to relate and understand residents' needs, and to build trust is also important, as is the commitment required to ease tensions and resolve conflicts rather than control them.

Evaluation of programmes, while limited, suggests that communities generally value the presence of community safety workers and feel more secure. In some countries, such as England and Wales, there is evidence that levels of insecurity and crime have decreased compared with other areas, following the introduction of warden programmes. However, evaluation of the impact of programmes based on measurement of the pre- and post-implementation situation is rare. Most evaluations are based on observations by workers, measures of service use or numbers of interventions, and occasionally local crime statistics. Many are undertaken by project staff, and the results used internally for project development rather than published. In part this is because internal evaluations performed by project staff and using in-house data are cheaper and easier to perform than external and outcome evaluations. Some programmes are hard to evaluate without an *a priori* assessment of the situation, or because they have dual functions of providing security and creating jobs.

Challenges and Issues

The first issue raised by this review of the new community safety professions concerns **the implications of these new positions for the police, social workers and other security actors.** Do they replace or complement their work? Many police officers appear to value the new role of the community safety professional, since it lightens their work load, allows them to focus on more serious crimes, and provides assistance in gathering intelligence which they would not ordinarily have access to. Others feel the new workers create more work, with an increase of cases reported to police, and because of confusion over the workers' role and duties. This emphasizes the need for community safety workers' roles to be more clearly defined. In most cases, the functions of the different positions do not overlap, but there is a tendency to assume they do. **The role of the community safety worker is separate from others, in that they create a link between residents and local services**, at times acting as an outreach to such facilities. They also deal with issues that are not serious enough for the police to handle, but that may still be the cause of much insecurity and disorder. They often act to diffuse situations before they become criminal, or deal with alcoholism or young people to avoid

often stigmatising and harmful contact with the criminal justice system. On the whole, community safety positions provide services where none were previously offered.

The second issue concerns **the implications for local partnerships** involving local government agencies, social services, the police and other prevention actors. The job of the community safety worker should not be seen as marginal but as complementary to other safety professionals, forming part of a team addressing the community's safety needs, and a way to bridge gaps in service. For this, community safety workers need a clear idea of their duties, powers, and the confines of their physical and legal jurisdictions. This also has **implications of the training of the police and other local services**. Police training needs to include clear information on the role of the community safety worker, to demonstrate how the actions of both actors can complement each other, training on working in partnerships, and on when it is necessary for the police to step in.

Thirdly, the issue of **sustainability, and how new community safety roles can be effectively embedded in the public security apparatus of a locality is crucial**. The case studies show that community safety positions are not always sustained beyond the pilot stage. This is the case for the Community Safety Officers in South Africa, although their presence was valued by the police and the public, and they have left an identifiable gap in service. Similarly, in Australia, the loss of key Night Patrol personnel can lead to the disintegration of the programme itself, and sustaining funding is difficult to obtain. In England and Wales, the pilot Neighbourhood Wardens programme has ended. Many local authorities have taken on funding for the positions (as originally intended), but there is also some restructuring with Wardens being replaced by the more police-identified Community Safety Officer. In France, funding for the youth employment programme was ended in 2003.

The major constraint to sustaining these positions is financial, therefore. The case studies suggest that funding issues have in some cases been addressed by using volunteers, or by combining the position with job creation and development programmes, but such solutions have repercussions on the role's permanent status and definition.

The fourth issue concerns **the impact that community safety workers have on insecurity, crime and social cohesion**, as small scale agents of change. While the evaluation of projects in most countries is often conducted internally, and primarily as process rather than impact evaluations, there are indications that the role of the community safety worker is seen in a positive light, helps reduce insecurity and in some cases crime, contributes to social cohesion, and provides employment and job training and experience.

Given that they often form part of a range of local safety initiatives, however, and that they are small scale agents, it is also perhaps unrealistic to expect the new professions to have a clear and visible impact on crime levels in a neighbourhood.

It is **important to consider a range of indicators of impact**, including changes in perceptions of security, and not just in terms of reduction in actual crime levels even though this is desirable. Indicators of local social conditions such as levels of poverty, unemployment, isolation, and language and cultural barriers need to be taken into account, as well as measures of use of services, and community relations. Improving the monitoring and evaluation of these programmes, including the use of pre and post-implementation measures, a range of qualitative and quantitative measures, and in some cases external evaluation, will all help to strengthen the cases for funding and sustainability. The longer a programme is in place, the greater the opportunity to

evaluate and adjust the programme to local conditions, and to demonstrate impact and outcomes.

In terms of social cohesion, community safety workers play a role in strengthening social ties, be it interpersonal or between the people and the system, and as a more informal non-authoritarian presence, they help to **build more harmonious relationships and community cohesion**. **Visibility** is an important factor in their success, as well as **familiarity**. A well-known presence is important for building trust, and helps clarify the community safety worker's role and the services that he/she may provide.

They can act as role models, inspire and provide support for those in high risk communities, and among those who have previously been under-represented within local services. This includes youth, women, ethnic minorities or indigenous populations who have experienced problems with, or lack trust in the police or local authorities. This may provide those reluctant to report crime, eg. because of fear of reprisals, or not wanting a perpetrator to be formally charged, with an opportunity to seek help, and referral to appropriate services.

Finally, there need to be **long-term strategies in programme development which help to ensure that community safety workers stay in their posts**. There are a number of challenges to programme sustainability stemming from multiple programme objectives which are not always compatible, or from the expectations of those recruited. Some programmes privilege job-creation, and hire from the long-term unemployed or for a fixed period of time. In other cases, recruits hope to gain work experience and use the job as a stepping stone to becoming a police officer for example. In such cases there can be considerable job-turnover, reducing the extent of knowledge and familiarity between recruits and their communities - key aspects of their role - as well as the prospects for the development of good local partnership relationships.

An opportunity to give feedback on the role should be given to other actors such as the police, and those working for social organizations and associations, to optimize understanding and enhance the development of these jobs. Professionalization of the positions may bring about uniformity in training, duties, wages, structure and references. Such standardization may also help to establish a permanent status of these positions, the development of a technical language and values, and contribute to their greater legitimacy and authority.

In the case of nationally funded programmes, coordination is needed at the national level for policy, the regional level for supervision, and the local level for strategic and operational functioning. Community safety workers require support, guidance, information on pertinent resources, advice, and help in intervening in difficult situations, and to be empowered to adapt to their role.

Thus an important requirement for the future development of this type of position is better definition of the community safety worker's role, both at national or local authority levels. **Community safety workers need to be publicly recognized as having a 'real' job** and to be seen as **part of a crime prevention team**, in regular contact with social workers, the police and other actors. This will help to create more job stability, and clarify the roles of other safety and security actors, and foster better partnership collaboration and integration into the overall strategy for crime prevention and the promotion of well-being within the community.

Conclusion

This report highlights the creation of 'new' community safety professions, which have emerged in a number of countries in local crime prevention strategies, and since the early 1990s. The case studies examined from Australia, Belgium, England and Wales, France, and South Africa, have a number of similarities in terms of their objectives and goals, which include reducing insecurity about crime, reassuring the public and mediating disputes, but also in terms of the challenges they present for national and local governments in terms of their effectiveness and sustainability.

The report suggests that culture, traditions, and assessments of changes in guardianship, social controls and social cohesion are significant factors determining how the profession is conceptualized. Many target disadvantaged communities or those at high-risk of crime and victimization, some focus on high-risk or vulnerable public spaces. Community safety professions encompass a variety of structures and personnel, from voluntary employees to those who are virtually police personnel, they are uniformed or visibly identified and receive various levels of training. They have limited powers to coerce, and use negotiation and mediation extensively. They are often seen as fulfilling auxiliary or temporary functions by other actors, those who implement the programmes, or the community safety workers themselves. There are some paradoxes in the way they are created which significantly impact their performance; while community safety positions are created to reassure the public, by providing a visible, familiar presence in the neighbourhood, in many cases, there is high staff turn-over.

The case studies suggest that the most significant challenge to the viability and longevity of such programmes is their position within national and local safety strategies, and responsibility for, or the ability to finance, the initiatives. Creative and dual-purpose initiatives such as job-creation and *emploi jeunes* approaches have been successful in getting programmes started, but sustainability has proved to be difficult.

These professions are relatively new initiatives in all cases, and in spite of limited attempts to evaluate their impact, some have demonstrated a positive impact on levels of fear, crime and social cohesion. Many community safety workers, and local residents and services, believe they make a difference in the community they serve. While they face many current and future challenges, community safety professions appear to show enough promise to be considered as desirable and permanent occupations supporting high risk communities and public spaces, as part of local crime prevention strategies. Coordination, job definition, legitimization and support all need to be clarified as these positions continue to grow and expand, and more in-depth analysis is needed to assess their value and contribution to prevention strategies, and their adaptation in different communities and contexts around the world.

Glossary

Adultes-relais: Associations in France that promote social inclusion using forms of social intervention such as mediation.

Agent d'ambiance dans les transports: Transport control workers in France who patrol public transport vehicles and areas to ensure passenger safety and proper use of services.

Agents de prévention et de médiation présent dans les espaces publics et/ou ouverts au public: Mediation and prevention agents in public spaces and/or places open to the public in France, who patrol to enhance perceptions of security, strengthening social ties, and mediate disputes.

Agents locaux de médiation social: Local social mediation agents in France

Anti-Social Behaviour Orders (ASBO): England. These are civil orders prohibiting a person from performing anti-social acts such as causing harassment, alarm or distress. Breach on the conditions of an order is a criminal offence.

Assistants de prévention et de sécurité: Prevention and security assistants in Belgium who provide visible patrols and a presence in neighbourhood shopping and commercial districts, social housing, sports centers, outside schools, and high-risk areas.

Centrex: Central police training and development authority in England, funded by the Home Office.

Charte de référence de la médiation sociale: Social mediation charter (France). It provides the guidelines for social mediation professions and a code of ethics.

Community Patrol Officers: Civilian volunteers with police reservist status providing local level patrol services in South African cities.

Community Peace Workers: South Africa. Volunteers recruited from a pool of young people living in disadvantaged areas, who perform patrol services while obtaining work experience and training in various fields.

Concierge/responsables/gardien d'immeubles: Building Guard or Caretaker in Belgium who uses mediation to deal with problems between tenants and prevent incivilities.

Correspondants de nuit: Night patrollers in France who ensure safety, security, and respond to personal and emergency needs of residents.

Gardiens d'espaces publics: Public Spaces Guards in Belgium who circulate in areas open to the public providing a presence, security and assistance and ensuring respect for green spaces.

Médiateur de la république: Mediator of the Republic in France, an ombudsman working within each ministerial department, whose function is to help those contesting administrative decisions or actions.

Médiateur social et culturel: Social and cultural mediator in France who works in organizations to facilitate access to services and promote civil rights.

National Intelligence Model: England and Wales. Policy offering the best practices for intelligence-led policing upon which the development of strategies and tactics for promoting and maintaining law and order can be based.

Neighbourhood Renewal Strategy: Strategy to counter deprivation in targeted disadvantaged neighbourhoods in England and Wales with the aim of improving local services and increasing community capacity. Improvements in levels of housing, health, the environment, employment and crime are prioritized.

Neighbourhood Wardens: Uniformed semi-official patrollers in targeted disadvantaged neighbourhoods in England.

Night Patrols: Foot or vehicle patrol services in Aboriginal communities in Australia, undertaken by community members. They aim to prevent the escalation of harm and anti-social behaviour, using traditional dispute resolution approaches, and divert cases away from the police and justice system.

Reassurance Policing: England and Wales. Forms of policing which offer reassurance to the public including through visible patrols.

Stewards: Fan coaches in Belgium who provide extra security at sporting events and ensure appropriate fan behaviour.

Street Beat Programmes: Night patrol services in Australia whose main target is at-risk youth.

Street Crime Wardens: Uniformed semi-official patrollers to combat street crime in high-risk areas of England.

Street Wardens: Uniformed semi-official patrollers in England who work primarily in public spaces, commercial districts in city centres rather than residential neighbourhoods.

Vigiles/surveillants municipaux: Municipal Supervisors or Guards in Belgium who offer supervision outside schools, in parking or bicycle lots, and on public transport.

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Appendixes

A – Warden Key Facts

DCLG⁸⁰ and other UK Warden Programmes

- ✚ 93m ODPM pilot warden programme which funded 250 3 year warden programmes between 2000-2006.
- ✚ 50% match funding provided. Schemes expected to mainstream at the end of the pilot phase- initial condition of pump-priming grant.
- ✚ 80% pilot schemes local authority led, 20% led by housing associations and residents' organisations.
- ✚ 84% have been sustained or mainstreamed. Many expanded eg Southwark 100 wardens, Knowsley 120, Hull 160, Middlesbrough 70.
- ✚ 500+ warden schemes in England funded by NDC, NM, NRF and local authority and housing association mainstream funds.
- ✚ All local authorities in Scotland have warden services. Around 10 warden services operate in Wales.

Evidence of Impact

- ✚ SDD⁸¹ evaluation of the DCLG Neighbourhood Warden Programme (2003) reported a 28% reduction in crime in areas with wardens and a reduction in fear of crime.
- ✚ It also found 10% reduction in fear of street robbery and mugging and fear of bogus callers reduced by 6%. 25% residents reported increased satisfaction with their neighbourhoods, particularly with reductions in levels of graffiti, litter, fly-tipping, abandoned cars and dog fouling
- ✚ SDD evaluation stated that *Wardens*
"are a new generation of neighbourhood officials that know the problems, face the people, and take the action."
And following environmental improvements, wardens
"create an investment environment for other agencies" and
"wardens are a value for money intervention."
- ✚ Matrix evaluation of the Street Warden Programme(2006) found that wardens were more appropriate than PCSOs where an area's problems were mainly to do with environmental management, where residents were disaffected with the police or where there was a need to foster closer working with the local authority.
- ✚ NDC evaluation reported that wardens were seen as an appropriate response to community demand for a visible patrol to reduce fear of crime and ASB

⁸⁰ The Department of Communities and Local Governments incorporated the former office of the Deputy Prime Minister in May, 2006.

⁸¹ Social Development Direct, a company that completed the evaluation of national Warden Schemes.

- ✚ MORI survey commissioned by the Housing Corporation(2005) found that 74% of housing association tenants felt wardens were the most effective response to ASB
- ✚ Wardens can help deliver year- on- year efficiency savings for housing associations and local authorities, can help housing associations meet the DCLG Respect Standards and assist them in carrying out their duty of care to their tenants. Wardens also help reduce and prevent ASB.
- ✚ Recent Audit Commission inquiry into neighbourhood crime (2006) found 60% of Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships (CDRPs) and police Basic Command Units(BCUs) were using warden-supplied information.

Wardens delivery of key Government Policies

- ✚ Wardens, especially when part of wider neighbourhood management, can empower local communities to build mutual respect, reduce crime and anti-social behaviour and deliver against all key government floor targets. They are a successful element of the cross Government National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal.
- ✚ Wardens empower residents to play a greater role in neighbourhood improvements so support the DCLG paper Citizen Engagement: Why Neighbourhoods Matter and therefore the Neighbourhoods Agenda and key priorities in the Local Government White Paper.
- ✚ Neighbourhood wardens can help deliver the Respect Agenda by fostering greater respect between people and for the places where they live.
- ✚ Wardens help housing associations meet the DCLG Respect Standards.
- ✚ Wardens help deliver the Cleaner Safer Greener agenda and liveability improvements thus contributing to the Sustainable Communities Plan.
- ✚ Wardens support the aims of the HO Anti- Social Behaviour Strategy.
- ✚ Wardens are a key element of neighbourhood policing teams therefore help deliver the National Community Safety Plan.
- ✚ Wardens work with hard- to- reach groups in all communities eg young people, older people, asylum seekers and refugees, BAME groups and disabled people so support Government's Social Inclusion and cohesion Agendas.
- ✚ By being present on streets, around schools and public open places, wardens are helping children stay safe – one of the five outcomes of DfES Every Child Matters and Youth Matters.
- ✚ Wardens should form a key part of Housing Market Renewal. Angus Kennedy OBE, former Chief Executive of Castle Vale Housing Action Trust, says

“A feeling of fear and lack of safety can begin or hasten the spiral of decay within a community. Neighbourhood Wardens provide the visible reassurance to residents that can be the first sign of the recovery of the neighbourhood and persuade

them to commit their future to the area rather than move out at the first opportunity"

- ✚ Wardening offers a new career in regeneration so supports the aim of the Egan Skills Review which is to drive up regeneration skills in the regions.

Neighbourhood Resource Centres

- ✚ ODPM funds Neighbourhood Resource Centres to support existing and new warden services through training, warden NVQ assessments, warden practitioner networks, study visits, good practice sharing, awarding of DCLG Warden Quality Standard. Warden Resource Centres quality assure wardening for Government and help minimise the risks of service implementation failure.
- ✚ Resource Centres also help build capacity amongst residents to bring about neighbourhood improvements, provide training and support to regeneration practitioners and provide greater opportunities for youth engagement via junior warden schemes, neighbourhood apprenticeships and through the training of Young Renewal Advisors.
- ✚ Resource Centres provide evaluation services that include training residents to undertake participative methods of evaluation.

Sue King
Neighbourhood Resource Centres November 2006

B- Circulaire Adulte-Relais

MINISTÈRE DE L'EMPLOI ET DE LA SOLIDARITÉ
MINISTÈRE DÉLÉGUÉ À LA VILLE
MINISTÈRE DE L'ÉCONOMIE, DES FINANCES ET DE L'INDUSTRIE
SECRÉTARIAT D'ÉTAT AU BUDGET
MINISTÈRE DE L'ÉDUCATION NATIONALE

Circulaire DIV/DPT-IEDE n° 2002-283 du 3 mai 2002 relative à la mise en oeuvre du programme adultes relais NOR : MESC0230656C (Texte non paru au Journal officiel)

Références :

Code du travail, article L. 12-10-1 ;

Décret n° 2002-374 du 20 mars 2002 portant application de l'article L. 12-10-1 susvisé ;

Décret 2000-540 du 16 juin 2000 relatif à la gestion des conventions conclues dans le cadre du dispositif adultes relais ;

Circulaire DIV/DPT/IEDE n° 2000-231 du 26 avril 2000 relative à la mise en oeuvre du dispositif des adultes relais dans le cadre de la politique de la ville.

La ministre de l'emploi et de la solidarité, le ministre délégué à la ville, le ministre de l'économie, des finances et de l'industrie, la secrétaire d'État au budget, le ministre de l'éducation nationale à Madame et Messieurs les préfets de région ; Mesdames et Messieurs les préfets de département ; Mesdames et Messieurs les trésoriers-payeurs généraux ; Mesdames et Messieurs les directeurs départementaux du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle La présente circulaire a pour objet de préciser les nouvelles modalités de mise en oeuvre du programme des adultes relais décidé par le comité interministériel des villes du 1er octobre 2001. Elle complète le décret n° 2002-374 du 20 mars 2002 susvisé portant application de l'article L. 12-10-1 du code du travail. Elle annule et remplace la circulaire DIV/DPT/IEDE n° 2000-231 du 26 avril 2000, sous réserve des dispositions visées au 7 de la présente circulaire, et la circulaire du 4 juillet 2001 du ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité et du ministère délégué à la ville.

1. Les missions des adultes relais

1.1. Définition des missions

L'article L. 12-10-1 du code du travail définit les activités exercées par les adultes relais comme visant « à améliorer, dans les zones urbaines sensibles et les autres territoires prioritaires des contrats de ville, les relations entre les habitants de ces quartiers et les services publics ainsi que les rapports sociaux dans les espaces publics ou collectifs ».

Les missions des adultes relais donnent lieu à un ensemble d'activités qui peuvent varier d'un contexte local à un autre. Elles ont le plus souvent en commun d'entrer dans le champ de la médiation sociale ou culturelle.

A cet égard, les principes généraux de l'exercice des missions de médiation sociale définis dans la charte adoptée par le comité interministériel des villes du 1er octobre 2001 pourront servir de référence.

Elles visent notamment à :

- accueillir, écouter, exercer toute activité qui concourt au lien social dans une association ou un équipement de proximité ;
- informer et accompagner les habitants dans leurs démarches, faciliter le dialogue entre services publics et usagers, et notamment établir des liens entre les parents et les services qui accueillent leurs enfants ;
- contribuer à améliorer ou à préserver le cadre de vie ;
- prévenir et aider à la résolution des petits conflits de la vie quotidienne par la médiation et le dialogue ;
- faciliter le dialogue entre les générations, accompagner et renforcer la fonction parentale par le soutien aux initiatives prises envers ou par les parents ;
- contribuer à renforcer la vie associative de proximité et développer la capacité d'initiative et de projet dans le quartier et la ville.

Les adultes relais ne peuvent pas être affectés à des tâches relevant des compétences traditionnelles des personnes morales de droit public ou des personnes morales de droit privé chargées de la gestion d'un service public. Par exemple, un adulte relais ne peut pas exercer des activités de gardiennage, de maintenance ou d'entretien technique, de surveillance d'un établissement d'enseignement, d'assistance sociale, d'animation sportive ou culturelle, de gestion d'équipements publics.

Les missions des adultes relais « école/quartiers » et « prévention/sécurité » sont précisées en annexe 1 et 2 de la présente circulaire.

1.2. Les employeurs

Les employeurs susceptibles de bénéficier de ce programme sont :

- les régions ;
- les communes et les établissements publics de coopération intercommunale (syndicats, régies, communautés urbaines, de communes et d'agglomération) et leurs établissements publics ;
 - les départements ;
 - les établissements publics locaux d'enseignement ;
 - les établissements publics de santé (les hôpitaux publics ou recevant la dotation globale hospitalière) ;
 - les associations ;
 - les offices publics et organismes d'habitation à loyer modéré (HLM) ;
 - les offices publics d'aménagement et de construction (OPAC) ;
 - les personnes morales de droit privé chargées de la gestion d'un service public.

2. Les conditions d'accès à la fonction d'adulte relais

Les personnes susceptibles d'être embauchées au titre des adultes relais doivent :

- résider dans une zone urbaine sensible ou, à titre dérogatoire, dans un autre territoire prioritaire des contrats de ville. Les territoires prioritaires des contrats de

ville sont ceux qui sont désignés comme tels et énumérés dans les contrats de ville.

Lorsque l'employeur envisage de recruter un adulte relais habitant un territoire prioritaire autre qu'une ZUS, il doit déposer une demande motivée de dérogation avec la demande de convention. Vous apprécierez l'opportunité de l'embauche en fonction du contexte local.

- être âgées d'au moins trente ans à la date de signature du contrat de travail ;
- être sans emploi, à l'exception des personnes bénéficiant d'un contrat emploi solidarité ou d'un contrat emploi consolidé. Cette condition s'apprécie à la date de signature du contrat de travail. Il n'est pas obligatoire d'être inscrit sur la liste des demandeurs d'emploi de l'ANPE.

L'ensemble de ces conditions sont récapitulées dans l'annexe statistique (annexe 4 de la présente circulaire) qui vous est envoyée par l'employeur après le recrutement. Ce document vous permet de vérifier le respect des conditions d'éligibilité du salarié au poste d'adulte relais.

S'agissant des établissements scolaires, la convention devra prévoir le respect des principes de laïcité et de neutralité politique et commerciale.

Par ailleurs, le responsable de l'établissement devra être en mesure de vérifier que les postulants à un poste d'adulte relais n'ont pas été condamnés à une peine leur interdisant d'exercer dans un établissement scolaire (bulletin n° 2 du casier judiciaire).

3. Les procédures d'attribution de l'aide

3.1. L'instruction

Le préfet de département fait procéder à l'instruction du dossier par les services déconcentrés. Le directeur départemental du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle est obligatoirement consulté. L'inspecteur d'académie est consulté pour les projets relevant de l'éducation nationale.

En cas de difficultés rencontrées dans l'exécution de la convention et lors du renouvellement, le préfet peut solliciter le conseil économique et financier du trésorier général de département, notamment sur la situation de l'organisme bénéficiaire. Il est demandé aux préfets de tenir au niveau local un rythme d'examen des dossiers permettant d'apporter une réponse dans un délai qui ne doit pas excéder un mois à compter du dépôt du dossier à la préfecture.

Dans l'instruction des dossiers, la plus grande attention sera accordée à la qualité des dispositions prévues, d'une part, pour la formation des salariés et, d'autre part, pour leur encadrement. La nature des missions confiées suppose en effet que le salarié ne soit pas laissé isolé face aux problèmes à résoudre. Le dossier devra expressément préciser et désigner nommément la personne responsable du suivi de l'adulte relais. La formation à l'emploi d'adulte relais incombe à l'employeur. Les moyens permettant d'en assurer la réalisation effective relèvent des moyens de droit commun.

3.2. La convention

Les projets retenus font l'objet de conventions, une par poste d'adulte relais créé suivant le modèle joint en annexe 3 de la présente circulaire. Cette convention est signée entre l'organisme employeur et l'État représenté par le préfet de département qui en adresse un exemplaire à la trésorerie générale de la région. Cet envoi déclenche le processus de paiement du premier versement de l'aide. La convention, qui ne peut être rétroactive, est conclue pour une durée maximum de trente-six mois à compter de sa date d'effet. L'employeur qui souhaite le renouvellement de la convention doit en faire la demande expresse auprès du préfet au plus tard six mois avant l'expiration de la convention. Cette demande s'accompagne d'un bilan détaillé de l'action conduite au cours des deux premières années et des perspectives d'évolutions. L'avenant de prolongation devra être signé au plus tard deux mois avant l'échéance et transmis au trésorier payeur général de région.

3.3. La procédure de versement de l'aide

Le montant annuel de l'aide par poste à temps plein est fixé à 15 551,32 euros. Pour les établissements publics locaux d'enseignement, l'aide annuelle par poste à temps plein peut aller jusqu'à 17 495,20 euros ou 19 439,15 euros. L'aide est versée au début de chaque trimestre civil et d'avance selon les conditions définies par l'annexe 5 de la présente circulaire. Le premier versement constitue une avance et sera versé sur simple transmission de la convention. Par la suite, l'employeur devra justifier du recrutement par la production du contrat de travail et du versement des salaires afférents à chaque trimestre par la présentation des bulletins de salaires à la trésorerie générale de la région. L'employeur dispose d'un délai de cinq mois à compter de la date de signature de la convention pour recruter l'adulte relais. L'absence de production des pièces justificatives entraînera la suspension du versement de l'aide. La suspension du versement de l'aide pour ce motif ne pourra pas être supérieure à trois mois. Au-delà, sauf cas de suspension du contrat de travail prévue au code du travail, la convention est résiliée d'office. En cas d'interruption ou de suspension du contrat de travail, l'employeur doit avertir la trésorerie générale dans les meilleurs délais et au plus tard à la fin du trimestre civil. En cas d'interruption ou de suspension, l'employeur qui recrute un salarié pour pourvoir au remplacement pourra continuer à bénéficier de la subvention sous réserve :

- qu'il transmette dans les mêmes conditions le contrat de travail et les justificatifs trimestriels prévus à la convention ;
- que le salarié recruté en remplacement satisfasse aux conditions définies par l'article L. 12-10-1 susvisé (notamment l'âge et la résidence en ZUS ou, par dérogation, dans un autre territoire prioritaire des contrats de ville).

Cependant, concernant le remplacement de salariés en contrat à durée déterminée, vous appellerez l'attention des employeurs sur la nécessité de prévoir une durée de contrat correspondant à la durée de la convention restant à courir.

4. Le contrat de travail

Les employeurs publics (collectivités territoriales et établissements publics), à l'exception des établissements publics à caractère industriel et commercial, ayant signé une convention avec le préfet en application de l'article L. 12-10-1 du code du travail, ne

peuvent recruter des adultes relais que dans le cadre d'un contrat de travail à durée déterminée (CDD) de trois ans maximum renouvelable une fois.

Les personnes morales de droit privé ont le choix entre ce CDD et un contrat à durée indéterminée (CDI).

La loi précise que les CDD de trois ans de l'article L. 12-10-1 sont pris en application de l'article L. 122-2 du code du travail. Cette disposition a notamment pour effet d'éviter, à l'issue du CDD, le versement de l'indemnité de précarité prévue par l'article L. 122-3-4 pour les CDD relevant de l'article L. 122-1-1. L'article L. 12-10-1 précité offre également la possibilité d'une rupture du CDD par les parties avant l'échéance du terme, à chaque date anniversaire. Lorsque le CDD est rompu à l'initiative de l'employeur, dès lors que celui-ci justifie d'une cause réelle et sérieuse, le salarié bénéficie alors d'une indemnité de précarité dont le taux est identique à celui prévu à l'article L. 122-3-4. Par ailleurs, les dispositions des articles L. 122-6 et L. 122-14 sur l'ouverture des droits du salarié et sur les règles et procédures à respecter par l'employeur s'appliquent.

5. L'animation du dispositif

La réussite du dispositif des adultes relais nécessite qu'une attention particulière soit portée à son animation. Vous pourrez la confier au sous-préfet chargé de mission pour la politique de la ville ou à un fonctionnaire d'autorité qui en assurera la responsabilité. Pour ce faire, le responsable de l'État s'appuiera sur les dispositifs d'animation des contrats de ville, et sur les délégués de l'État le cas échéant. L'expérience a montré l'efficacité de la création d'un comité de pilotage et/ou d'animation dédié au programme adultes relais.

Par définition, l'action des adultes-relais se situe dans un territoire proche de la vie des familles. C'est donc à ce niveau que s'élaborent les projets, au plus près des besoins des habitants, dans un souci de cohérence et de clarté à l'égard des services publics et des travailleurs sociaux intervenant sur ce même territoire avec lesquels les adultes-relais seront en relation régulière. C'est pourquoi il est fortement recommandé de les associer à la construction des projets le plus en amont possible.

6. Le suivi statistique et l'évaluation

6.1. Évaluation locale

Le préfet est destinataire de la fiche statistique, que l'organisme employeur doit remplir et obligatoirement joindre au contrat de travail transmis aux services de la trésorerie générale de région. Cette fiche statistique est jointe en annexe 4 de la présente circulaire.

Le préfet est responsable de l'évaluation des projets d'adultes relais engagés dans son département. L'évaluation locale s'attachera notamment à apprécier l'impact du dispositif auprès des territoires et des habitants au bénéfice desquels il se met en place. Chaque année, il adresse à la délégation interministérielle à la ville (DIV) un bilan récapitulatif des actions menées et une appréciation sur les conditions de mise en oeuvre du dispositif.

6.2. Évaluation nationale

Au niveau national, le bilan et l'évaluation sont réalisés par la DIV. Les données statistiques nécessaires à ces travaux sont adressées mensuellement par les trésoreries générales de région à la direction générale de la comptabilité publique (DGCP) qui en fournit également mensuellement un état agrégé à la DIV et à la direction de l'animation de la recherche des études et de la statistique (DARES).

7. Les conventions « adultes relais » signées avant le 1er janvier 2002

Les conventions « adultes relais » conclues avec l'État avant la date d'effet de la présente circulaire se poursuivent jusqu'à leur terme. Elles ne sont pas renouvelées. Les organismes employeurs bénéficiaires de ces conventions ainsi arrivées à leur terme peuvent déposer une demande de convention au titre de l'article L. 12-10-1 susvisé conformément aux dispositions du décret n° 2002-374 du 20 mars 2002 et de la présente circulaire

Dans le cas où l'adulte relais était recruté en contrat à durée indéterminée, ce contrat vaut contrat de travail pour la nouvelle convention et le versement de l'aide.

Pour le ministre de l'économie,
des finances et de l'industrie :
Le directeur général
de la comptabilité publique,
J. Basseres

Pour la ministre de l'emploi
et de la solidarité :
La déléguée générale à l'emploi
et à la formation professionnelle,
C. Barbaroux

Pour le ministre de l'éducation nationale :

Le directeur de l'enseignement scolaire,
J.-P. De Gaudemar

Pour le ministre délégué à la ville :
La déléguée interministérielle à la ville,
C. Brevan

Pour la secrétaire d'Etat au budget :
La directrice du budget,
S. Mahieux

ANNEXE I LES ADULTES RELAIS « ÉCOLE/QUARTIERS »

Les postes d'adultes relais intitulés « école/quartiers » sont prioritairement créés au bénéfice des écoles et des établissements publics locaux d'enseignement. Les établissements scolaires concernés peuvent géographiquement ne pas être situés en zone urbaine sensible ou dans un territoire prioritaire d'un contrat de ville. Il est nécessaire toutefois que ces établissements soient les établissements d'accueil des élèves issus de ces territoires ou de la zone urbaine sensible. 10 % des postes ouverts auprès des préfets de région sont réservés à la création de postes d'adultes relais « école/familles/quartier ». Les adultes relais « école/quartiers » peuvent également être créés à l'initiative des associations. En ce cas, les projets seront élaborés en étroite collaboration avec les responsables des établissements scolaires des territoires d'intervention. Il est recommandé que des conventions soient établies entre l'(s) établissement(s) scolaire(s) concerné(s) et les associations. Les adultes relais recrutés au titre d'un projet « école/quartiers » exerceront leurs activités dans le but général du renforcement et de l'amélioration des liens entre les parents et l'institution scolaire. Selon les contextes locaux, ces activités peuvent être diverses. Néanmoins, la nature même des missions de médiation sociale des adultes relais implique qu'ils puissent exercer leurs activités dans l'ouverture la plus large sur le quartier où résident les familles, et en lien avec les autres structures, sociales, de service public ou associatives qui y interviennent. Les adultes relais, et en particulier les adultes relais « école/quartiers », quels que soient leurs employeurs, peuvent également constituer un moyen d'action utile et adapté aux objectifs définis par la circulaire du 21 janvier 2002 du Premier ministre et celle du 11 décembre 2001 du ministère de l'éducation nationale et du ministère délégué à la ville relatives à la veille éducative.

ANNEXE II LES ADULTES RELAIS « PRÉVENTION/SÉCURITÉ » (DÉCISION DU CONSEIL DE SÉCURITÉ INTÉRIEUR DU 30 JANVIER 2001)

Le conseil de sécurité intérieur du 30 janvier 2001 a décidé de réserver au plan national 4 000 postes d'adultes relais à des actions de prévention. Les préfets s'attacheront en conséquence à réserver en priorité les postes ouverts dans leurs région et département à des projets s'inscrivant dans ce cadre.

L'action des ces adultes relais se situera dans le cadre de la mise en oeuvre du volet « prévention/sécurité » des contrats de ville, que celui-ci s'inscrive ou non dans un contrat local de sécurité. Les activités des ces adultes relais « prévention/sécurité » peuvent varier en fonction des contextes locaux, de la nature et de la qualité du partenariat. Elles seront utilement définies au regard du diagnostic local de sécurité. Toutefois, leur intervention vise principalement à prévenir et à réguler les conflits de la vie quotidienne par le dialogue, la négociation et l'explication entre la population, les usagers et les institutions et entre les habitants eux-mêmes. Elle s'exerce notamment en rapport avec les conflits d'usage et d'appropriation des espaces publics et/ou ouverts au public, en cherchant à garantir l'égalité dans l'accès et l'usage de ces espaces. Par leur présence active de proximité, les adultes relais contribuent à une tranquillisation des espaces et lieux sensibles (transports collectifs, espaces publics, partie communes des immeubles d'habitat social, centres commerciaux) de jour et/ou de nuit. Leurs missions peuvent notamment s'inspirer des expériences réussies de « correspondants de nuit » portées par des associations, des régies de quartier, des bailleurs sociaux,

voire des municipalités. Les missions exercées pourront s'adosser à des activités de veille sociale et technique, d'accueil, d'information, d'orientation, d'animation de services, et à la mise en place d'actions de prévention. Elles pourront contribuer au soutien à la parentalité.

Les adultes relais recrutés dans ce cadre ne pourront accomplir aucun acte relevant du maintien de l'ordre public et d'une intervention d'autorité, même si leur action doit s'appliquer en référence à la règle procédant soit de la législation pénale ou civile, soit du respect des règlements ou de la vie collective. Comme l'ensemble des adultes relais, ces médiateurs sociaux dédiés au dispositif de « prévention/sécurité » n'ont pas à faire à la place des autres professionnels. Ils exercent en particulier une activité nouvelle et originale distincte du travail sociale ou de la sécurité. Ce faisant, ils doivent développer leur intervention en articulation, complémentarité avec les autres intervenants dans des logiques partenariales et territorialisées. Il pourra être utilement recherché une articulation locale avec les structures employant des agents locaux de médiation sociale sous contrat emploi jeune.

ANNEXE III MODÈLE DE CONVENTION

Convention n° AR
Année département numéro séquentiel
Nature des fonctions :

- adulte relais
- adulte relais école/quartiers
- adulte relais prévention/CLS

Entre : le préfet (nom du département)

Et : l'organisme (nom)

Statut juridique :

Adresse :

représenté par (nom et fonction, qualité) :

ci-après dénommé « le titulaire »

Vu le code du travail et notamment son article L. 12-10-1 ;

Vu le décret n° 2002-374 du 20 mars 2002 pris en application de l'article L. 12-10-1 du code du travail ;

Vu le décret n° 2000-540 du 16 juin 2000 relatif à la gestion des conventions conclues dans le cadre des adultes-relais ;

Vu la circulaire n° 2002-283 du 3 mai 2002 relative à la mise en oeuvre du programme adultes relais ;

Vu la demande présentée par le titulaire, le (date).

Article 1er

Le projet visant à recruter un adulte relais a pour objectifs (préciser objectifs et missions envisagés) :

Il concerne le quartier (préciser s'il s'agit d'une zone urbaine sensible) de la ville de code postal

Le titulaire désigne comme correspondant (monsieur, madame, nom, prénom, coordonnées téléphoniques) : qui est chargé(e) de transmettre les informations au préfet de département et au trésorier-payeur général de région.

Article 2

Pour la réalisation de cette action, le titulaire s'engage à recruter une personne à temps plein/à temps partiel (rayer la mention inutile) répondant aux conditions prévues par les textes susvisés.

Il est (il n'est pas) (rayer la mention inutile) accordé au titulaire une dérogation prévue à l'article L. 12-10-1 du code du travail l'autorisant à recruter une personne ne résidant pas en zone urbaine sensible mais dans un territoire désigné comme prioritaire dans le contrat de ville.

Si le recrutement est à temps partiel, indiquer la quotité par rapport à 35 heures hebdomadaires (entre 50 et 90 %). Tout changement dans la quotité de travail devra faire l'objet d'un avenant à la convention. Il ne pourra prendre effet rétroactivement.

Article 3

Le titulaire s'engage à ce que l'action entreprise concerne les zones urbaines sensibles (ZUS) ou les autres territoires prioritaires du contrat de ville et leurs habitants et soit conforme aux missions dévolues aux adultes relais telles qu'elles sont définies dans les textes législatif et réglementaires susvisés.

Article 4

Le titulaire s'engage à mettre en place le dispositif de formation et d'accompagnement suivant (indiquer les mesures de formation et d'accompagnement prévues) :

Article 5

La date d'effet de la convention est fixée au (date prévisionnelle d'embauche, qui ne saurait être antérieure à la date de signature de la convention). Le recrutement de l'adulte relais concerné par la présente convention ne peut être antérieur à cette date et doit être réalisé dans un délai de cinq mois, au plus, à compter de la signature de ladite convention. Pour la réalisation de cette action, l'État s'engage à accorder une aide d'une durée de trois ans, sous réserve de l'ouverture en loi de finances des crédits correspondants. La durée de trois ans court à compter de la date prévisionnelle d'embauche.

Article 6

Le titulaire s'engage à présenter un bilan de son action un an après cette date, ainsi qu'aux termes de la 2e et de la 3e année, accompagné des documents comptables habituels (compte de résultat, budget prévisionnel).

Article 7

Le montant annuel de l'aide par poste à temps plein est fixé à :

- 15 551,32 euros (1) ;
- 17 495,20 euros (1) (2) ;
- 19 439,15 euros (1) (2).

Ce montant est revalorisé annuellement au 1er juillet proportionnellement à l'évolution du salaire minimum de croissance depuis le 1er juillet de l'année précédente et arrondi au dixième d'euro le plus proche. Il est établi au prorata du temps de travail prévu à l'article 2.

La date ouvrant droit à cette aide est celle qui est portée sur le contrat de travail de la personne recrutée.

Article 8

Cette aide sera versée de manière fractionnée, par trimestre civil et d'avance par le trésorier-payeur général de région sous réserve du respect par le titulaire des obligations à sa charge ainsi que de la production du bilan annuel demandé à l'article 6.

Le 1er versement sera réalisé sur production par le préfet de département de la convention signée, et, lorsque cela est possible, d'une copie du contrat de travail et de son annexe statistique. Son montant est calculé en fonction du temps restant à courir entre la date prévisionnelle d'embauche et la fin du trimestre civil en cours.

Pour le deuxième versement, le titulaire devra obligatoirement produire le contrat de travail et son annexe statistique (modèle joint à la convention), si celui-ci n'a pu être remis à l'appui de la convention, et justifier du versement des salaires afférents.

A cet effet, il produira une copie des bulletins de salaires du trimestre écoulé qu'il adressera directement au trésorier-payeur général de région sous le timbre « Service dépense - opération adultes relais » au plus tard le 5 du premier mois de chaque trimestre civil.

Pour faciliter cette formalité, il sera admis que les 3 bulletins de salaires produits pour le versement de l'aide du trimestre T soient, d'une part, celui du dernier mois du trimestre T - 2, et d'autre part, ceux des deux premiers mois du trimestre T - 1.

L'absence de production de ces pièces suspend le versement de l'aide. A l'issue d'un délai de 3 mois, la non-régularisation, par la transmission de fiches de paye, entraîne la résiliation d'office de la convention.

Article 9

Les versements seront effectués sur le compte n° ouvert par le titulaire bénéficiaire auprès de l'agence bancaire ou postale (nom et adresse de l'établissement bancaire, joindre un RIB).

Article 10

Dans le cas où le poste d'adulte relais viendrait à être vacant avant l'échéance de la convention, l'employeur devra en informer le préfet du département et le trésorier-payeur général de région chargé du paiement de l'aide dans les meilleurs délais. Le préfet de département procédera alors à la suspension de l'aide (qui ne peut être supérieure à trois mois) jusqu'au remplacement effectif de l'adulte relais. Ce remplacement donnera lieu au versement de l'aide pour la période restant à courir au titre de la présente convention. Si le remplacement n'est pas effectué dans les trois mois, la résiliation de la convention intervient d'office.

Article 11

En cas de non-respect des clauses de la convention, le préfet peut, après avoir entendu les explications du titulaire, résilier la convention et demander le reversement des avances correspondant à des périodes non effectivement rémunérées. Dans les cas où l'attribution résulte de fausses déclarations ou lorsque la convention est détournée de son objet, le préfet doit résilier la convention et demander le reversement des sommes indûment perçues. Le reversement sera effectué par le titulaire à réception du titre de perception émis par l'Etat.

Article 12

Le titulaire peut demander la résiliation de la présente convention à condition d'en aviser le préfet et le trésorier-payeur général un mois avant la fin du trimestre civil qui précède cette résiliation.

Article 13

Le titulaire pourra demander le renouvellement de la convention au plus tard six mois avant son expiration. Il fournira à l'appui de sa demande un bilan détaillé de l'action conduite et des résultats obtenus au cours des deux premières années d'exécution de la convention ainsi que les perspectives d'évolution.

Article 14

Le bénéficiaire s'engage à informer le préfet de tout événement qui modifierait le contrat de travail conclu avec l'adulte relais (quotité, durée, résiliation, etc.). La présente convention sera alors reconsidérée au vu des argumentaires fournis. Le contrôle de l'exécution de la présente convention est exercé par le préfet.

Article 15

Le titulaire s'engage à tenir une comptabilité selon les normes comptables en vigueur et à conserver les pièces comptables dix ans à compter de la fin du paiement de cette aide.

Il s'engage à se soumettre à tout contrôle, sur pièces ou sur place, effectué par le service instructeur ou toute autorité mandatée par le préfet, par les corps d'inspection et de contrôle.

Article 16

L'organisme signataire s'engage :

- d'une part, à informer chaque personne recrutée dans le cadre du dispositif adulte relais de l'existence de traitements informatiques la concernant au sein de la délégation interministérielle à la ville, du ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité et des services du Trésor public ;
- d'autre part, à préciser que l'ensemble des informations ainsi collectées a pour but d'évaluer l'efficacité du dispositif et de permettre une gestion de celui-ci au regard de la réglementation applicable à l'opération ;
- enfin, à informer l'adulte relais des droits d'accès et de rectifications qui lui sont reconnus par la loi du 6 janvier 1978, notamment en son article 27. Ces droits s'exercent auprès de la délégation interministérielle à la ville qui transmettra en tant que de besoin la demande à ses administrations partenaires.

Fait à,
Le préfet

Le représentant du titulaire (organisme employeur)
(nom et fonction)

ANNEXE IV

Tableau de codage des niveaux de formation

CODES	LIBELLÉS
0	Non précisé
1	Niveau I et II Bac + 3 ou + 4 (titulaire d'un diplôme de 2e ou 3e cycle ou des grandes écoles)
2	Niveau III Bac + 2 ans (titulaire de DUT, BTS, DEUG, instituteurs, écoles de santé)
3	Niveau IV Bac ou équivalent BTN BT BP (niveau des jeunes sortant des classes terminales ou abandonnant la scolarisation post-baccalauréat avant d'atteindre le niveau III)
4	Niveau V BEPC BEP CAP (niveau des jeunes sortant de l'année terminale des cycles de détermination de la voie professionnelle)
5	Niveau V bis CEP SES (niveau des jeunes sortant de 3e ou sortant en cours de formation professionnelle)
6	Niveau VI (niveau des jeunes sortant de 1er cycle du 2nd degré, 6e à 4e)

1. La zone « bénévole sur un emploi similaire » concerne des personnes ayant occupé à titre bénévole, avant d'intégrer le dispositif, des fonctions de médiation similaires à celles

qu'elles occuperont en tant qu'adulte relais. C'est le cas, par exemple de certaines actions faisant appel à des « femmes-relais ».

ANNEXE V
ANNEXE FINANCIERE
1. Gestion des crédits

Les crédits sont ouverts au chapitre 46-60 article 80 de la section 39 « ville » du budget de l'État.

Ces crédits sont limitatifs.

Les aides relatives au dispositif adultes relais sont liquidées et payées par les comptes du Trésor public sans ordonnancement préalable.

1.1. Répartition des postes et mise à disposition des crédits

Un engagement visé du contrôleur financier central est effectué en début d'année en administration centrale.

Il est justifié par un état, ventilé par région, établissant la correspondance entre l'engagement comptable et les autorisations de recrutement des adultes relais établies en « mois - équivalent temps plein ».

1.1.1. Répartition des postes

Chaque ventilation régionale des autorisations de recrutement fait l'objet d'une notification, au bureau 5 C de la DGCP, au préfet de région, qui effectue une sous-répartition entre les départements, et au contrôleur financier en région.

Ces autorisations peuvent être ajustées en cours d'année :

- soit pour augmenter les autorisations de recrutement dans la limite du plafond défini annuellement ;
- soit pour redéployer les sous-utilisations éventuelles des autorisations de recrutement dans certaines régions.

Par ailleurs, dès que le nombre agrégé des postes équivalent temps plein créés dans l'ensemble des régions atteint 80 % du plafond annuel autorisé, la DIV présente au visa du contrôleur financier central une ventilation régionale des postes équivalent temps plein restant à pourvoir. De nouvelles conventions ne peuvent être conclues que dans la limite des postes restant à pourvoir. Tous les états modificatifs sont notifiés aux préfets de région et aux contrôleurs financiers en région, après visa du contrôleur financier central.

1.1.2. Mise à disposition des crédits

Des délégations de crédits de paiement, correspondant aux autorisations régionales de recrutement, sont adressées en début d'année ou de gestion (et éventuellement en cours d'année en fonction des besoins) à chaque préfet de région qui les transmet au trésorier-payeur général de région. Ces délégations sont enregistrées au niveau régional. Cet « enregistrement comptable » constitue l'enveloppe financière mise à la

disposition de l'ensemble des préfets de département de la région, sans qu'une sous-délégation des crédits par département soit effectuée. Cette information est transmise aux trésoriers-payeurs généraux de départements. Cette enveloppe financière pourra être ponctuellement dépassée, tout en respectant l'enveloppe financière annuelle. Début septembre, une préliquidation est assurée en vue d'ajustements des crédits avant la fin de l'année.

1.2. Suivi des crédits

Un code ordonnateur spécifique est créé afin de suivre les crédits alloués au dispositif adultes relais (code 68).

Le suivi de la consommation des crédits est effectué par le trésorier-payeur général de région qui informe régulièrement le préfet de région.

2. L'instruction des dossiers

2.1. L'instruction des dossiers

Le préfet de département fait procéder à l'instruction du dossier par les services déconcentrés. Le directeur départemental du travail, de l'emploi et de la formation professionnelle est obligatoirement consulté. L'inspecteur d'académie est obligatoirement consulté pour les projets relevant de l'éducation nationale. En cas de difficultés rencontrées dans l'exécution de la convention et lors du renouvellement, le préfet peut solliciter le conseil économique et financier du trésorier général de département, notamment sur la situation de l'organisme bénéficiaire.

2.2. Les conventions

Chaque convention signée par le préfet de département est transmise par ce dernier à la trésorerie générale de région. Le service chargé du contrôle financier déconcentré signale les éventuelles irrégularités au préfet. Ce dernier tiendra compte de ces observations pour les conventions à venir. Toute convention ne correspondant pas à la convention type doit être présentée au visa préalable du contrôle financier déconcentré. Par ailleurs, le service chargé du contrôle financier déconcentré enregistre de manière extra-comptable la consommation des autorisations de recrutement et avertit le préfet des risques de dépassement. La convention est ensuite transmise par le service chargé du contrôle financier déconcentré au service de la dépense de la trésorerie générale de région. Ce dernier est chargé de la saisie informatique en vue de la liquidation, du contrôle, de la validation et du paiement de l'aide.

2.3. Le paiement de l'aide

Pour le premier versement, la convention signée détermine la date de mise en paiement de la première avance et permet de calculer le montant de l'aide. Dans cette convention, la date ou la date prévisionnelle de recrutement de l'adulte relais ainsi que le type de contrat (temps plein, temps partiel) sont définis. Ce premier versement est effectué vers le 10 du mois au cours duquel l'embauche est envisagée ou réalisée. Son montant est calculé en fonction du temps restant à courir jusqu'à la fin du trimestre civil en cours. Pour le deuxième paiement, effectué vers le 10 du premier mois du trimestre civil

suivant, le service doit obligatoirement disposer du contrat de travail de l'adulte relais recruté et de la (ou des) première(s) fiche(s) de paye. Pour les paiements suivants, la trésorerie générale devra disposer tous les trimestres des fiches de paye adressées directement par l'employeur (conformément aux indications de la convention).

3. Les restitutions d'informations

Les restitutions d'informations proposées aux autorités nationales et locales chargées de la mise en oeuvre du dispositif des adultes-relais constituent un élément essentiel pour le suivi du dispositif.

3.1. Au niveau central

Les données comptables et extra-comptables enregistrées au niveau local sont centralisées à la direction générale de la comptabilité publique. Des situations comptables sont établies par la direction générale de la comptabilité publique et transmises au contrôleur financier central, à la délégation interministérielle à la ville et à la direction du budget. Ces données portent sur la consommation des crédits, le nombre de conventions signées et d'emplois créés. Par ailleurs, les éléments figurant à l'annexe statistique feront également l'objet de restitutions.

3.2. Au niveau local

Le préfet de département est informé par son trésorier-payeur général du comptage des postes. Le trésorier-payeur général de région adresse au préfet de région des états récapitulatifs retraçant, par département, le nombre de conventions signées et d'emplois créés par employeur ainsi que les paiements correspondants. Des états trimestriels détaillés par convention et par employeur permettront le suivi des paiements effectués pour chaque emploi ainsi que les ajustements avec les bordereaux sommaires qui seront cosignés par le préfet de région.

4. L'évaluation

Le trésorier-payeur général, comme pour d'autres dispositifs d'aides publiques (contrats de plan, politique de la ville...), contribue au dispositif d'évaluation mis en oeuvre au plan régional.

Les services de la trésorerie générale de région peuvent être associés à l'organisation du dispositif d'évaluation et contribuer aux travaux d'analyse.

5. Les indus

Lorsque la convention est dénoncée par l'employeur ou par le préfet, ce dernier demande le reversement de l'avance perçue. Il émet le titre de perception. Les sommes ainsi recouvrées ne pourront pas faire l'objet d'un rétablissement de crédits au plan local.

Lorsque la convention est rompue à la suite de fausses déclarations ou d'une utilisation non conforme à son objet, le reversement des sommes perçues à tort est demandé. Si le recrutement n'intervient pas dans les cinq mois qui suivent la signature de la

convention, les services de la trésorerie générale en informent le préfet qui procède à l'émission d'un titre de perception correspondant aux aides indûment versées.

Lorsque la convention est résiliée d'office en raison de l'absence de production des fiches de paye, le reversement des sommes perçues à tort est également demandé.

(1) Rayer la mention inutile.

(2) Possibilité offerte aux seuls EPLE.Délégation interministérielle à la ville 14/09/2004

C- Charte de référence de la médiation sociale

Document établi et adopté par le groupe de travail interministériel et interpartenarial sur les emplois dits « de médiation sociale », visé par le comité interministériel des villes en date du 1er octobre 2001

Depuis plusieurs années, des initiatives multiples se développent sous le terme générique de « médiation ». Ces démarches répondent à une volonté commune de promouvoir un mode d'intervention dans les relations sociales basé sur la philosophie du dialogue et de la négociation. Elles tendent à s'établir comme un mode spécifique de régulation sociale. Dans le domaine judiciaire, la médiation familiale et la médiation pénale disposent à présent d'un encadrement codifié. Hors mandat judiciaire, différentes initiatives ont également vu le jour tendant à une résolution des conflits de la vie quotidienne ou plus largement à susciter davantage de lien social, à améliorer les relations entre les institutions, les groupes sociaux et les personnes, ainsi que les relations des personnes entre elles. Ce foisonnement d'expériences faisant appel à l'intervention d'un tiers s'est développé sous l'appellation générique de « médiation sociale ». Qu'elles soient d'initiative citoyenne ou institutionnelle, ces pratiques occupent une place de plus en plus importante, en particulier au sein des quartiers de la politique de la ville et participent, notamment, de la volonté de réinvestissement et d'humanisation de l'espace public. Ces pratiques génèrent souvent de véritables dynamiques locales, contribuent à conforter le lien social, à améliorer la cohésion sociale et à faciliter une meilleure prise en compte des conflits de la vie quotidienne. Elles tendent à établir une plus grande égalité des chances au sein de la société, à favoriser une plus grande proximité des institutions avec les publics, à expérimenter de nouvelles formes de relations sociales et à développer une plus grande humanité dans les rapports entre les gens.

La démarche de la médiation sociale répond à un objectif de pédagogie citoyenne qui constitue le coeur de son utilité sociale : en privilégiant l'écoute et le dialogue, en facilitant une meilleure compréhension des situations, des normes, des points de vue d'autrui et des conséquences sociales des comportements de chacun, elle contribue à faire émerger des solutions nouvelles et adaptées à l'évolution de la société et à favoriser l'autonomie des individus.

Les activités de médiation sociale concernent des catégories d'intervenants très variées (annexe 1), aux statuts divers et pour lesquels la médiation sociale constitue parfois une fonction spécifique et le plus souvent une fonction parmi d'autres.

Il faut souligner que la médiation entendue au sens de ce texte prend en compte l'ensemble des personnes dont l'activité vise à intervenir en qualité de tiers ou d'intermédiaire entre deux parties.

De nombreux métiers existants – gendarme, conducteur d'autobus, enseignant... – peuvent développer des activités de médiation, mais celles-ci ne constituent pas leur objectif principal.

La médiation intervient dans les interstices, en amont ou en aval d'autres intervenants notamment dans les champs de la prévention, de la sécurité, de l'intégration ou du travail social, et particulièrement des services publics. L'émergence de la médiation sociale doit donc également conduire à une redéfinition de ces métiers traditionnels, mais le cadre de référence proposé ci-après n'a pas vocation à se substituer aux règles et déontologies propres à chaque profession.

Par-delà la diversité des appellations, des statuts et des missions, le besoin d'un cadre de référence par rapport aux pratiques relevant de la médiation sociale se fait ressentir et est exprimé bien souvent par les intervenants eux-mêmes. Ce besoin de clarification participe également d'une fréquente demande de reconnaissance professionnelle vis-à-

vis des employeurs. Ce besoin a conduit d'ores et déjà à la production de textes de référence, couvrant soit un statut particulier (circulaire Intérieur, Emploi et Solidarité sur les ALMS, emplois jeunes), soit une activité particulière (correspondant de nuit, femmes-relais), soit des employeurs déterminés (OPTIMA, RATP, SNCF...).

Il nous a paru nécessaire de parvenir aujourd'hui à la production d'un cadre d'ensemble, recueillant l'adhésion des différents ministères et partenaires concernés et servant de base à la définition plus précise des métiers, de leurs conditions d'exercice et d'articulation avec les autres métiers. Il ne s'agit pas de rigidifier des pratiques qui ont fait la preuve de leur pertinence et dont l'intérêt réside le plus souvent dans leur spontanéité, leur faculté d'adaptation, leur inventivité et leur non-assujettissement à des normes institutionnelles. Il s'agit en fait de répondre à une demande largement exprimée d'élaborer un cadre de référence de la médiation sociale qui offre une série de points de repère aux intervenants pour guider leurs pratiques, à leurs employeurs, ainsi qu'aux pouvoirs publics.

I - Les objectifs et la définition des missions

La médiation sociale est définie comme un processus de création et de réparation du lien social et de règlement des conflits de la vie quotidienne, dans lequel un tiers impartial et indépendant tente à travers l'organisation d'échanges entre les personnes ou les institutions de les aider à améliorer une relation ou de régler un conflit qui les oppose.

D'autres pratiques se sont développées, parfois sous le terme de médiation sociale, poursuivant ces mêmes objectifs, en recourant à l'intervention d'un tiers, mais sans remplir les conditions de son impartialité ou de son indépendance. Ces pratiques généralement portées par des institutions, même si elles renvoient à des interrogations spécifiques liées à l'externalisation de certaines missions, posent des questions similaires en ce qui concerne les principes de référence et conditions de leur mise en oeuvre.

Si les objectifs de ces pratiques sont variés – règlement des conflits de la vie quotidienne, prévention de la délinquance, intégration des populations en difficulté... –, elles ont fréquemment comme dénominateur commun leur participation à un réinvestissement collectif des espaces publics.

II - Le cadre déontologique d'intervention

Les médiateurs sociaux doivent se conformer dans leur intervention à un certain nombre de règles juridiques et éthiques délimitant ce qui leur est autorisé et ce qui leur est interdit dans le cadre de la loi. Ces règles, qui constituent en quelque sorte les droits et devoirs des médiateurs sociaux, sont la garantie d'une protection tant pour les usagers et les publics que pour les intervenants et les partenaires eux-mêmes. Elles constituent aussi une garantie de leur efficacité et de leur pérennité.

1. Principes généraux

La neutralité et l'impartialité

La neutralité et l'impartialité doivent être des principes généraux guidant l'intervention des médiateurs sociaux, qui ne doivent pas favoriser l'une ou l'autre des parties. En tout état de cause, l'application de ces principes dépend de la reconnaissance d'un statut du médiateur et suppose une formation adaptée. L'intervention en binôme peut contribuer à un meilleur respect de ces principes.

La négociation et le dialogue

L'action de médiation se situe dans le cadre de la négociation et du dialogue : à aucun moment elle ne se situe dans le cadre d'une intervention d'autorité qui serait imposée,

même si elle s'applique en référence à la règle procédant soit de la législation pénale ou civile, soit du respect de règlements ou de la vie collective.

Le libre consentement et la participation des habitants

La médiation sociale repose sur le libre consentement des parties. A tout moment, il est possible pour l'une ou l'autre des parties de revenir sur ce consentement. La médiation doit reposer sur la recherche constante de l'adhésion des parties aux objectifs de ses interventions. Elle doit viser à obtenir la participation des habitants à la résolution du différend qui les oppose ou à l'amélioration de la communication et du lien social entre elles. Cet objectif impose en contrepartie pour la personne médiatrice un devoir d'explication sur les conditions de son intervention et sur les limites de celle-ci.

La mobilisation des institutions

En favorisant la citoyenneté et en servant de révélateur de dysfonctionnements des institutions, la médiation sociale contribue à la modernisation des institutions, à une plus grande proximité de celles-ci avec les habitants et les usagers de services publics ainsi qu'à leur adaptation aux besoins nouveaux. La médiation sociale contribue ainsi au bon exercice des missions de service public sans s'y substituer et sans faire écran entre les institutions et les publics.

La protection des droits des personnes

La médiation sociale tend à une protection des personnes et de leurs droits. Elle ne peut pas se substituer aux prestations ou aux droits garantis à chacun. Elle conduit à une amélioration des relations sociales sans jamais obliger quiconque à renoncer à ses droits.

Le respect des droits fondamentaux

La médiation sociale doit offrir toutes les garanties énoncées par la convention européenne des droits de l'homme et la jurisprudence y afférente, tant dans les mécanismes qu'elle met en oeuvre que dans les solutions dont elle favorise l'émergence.

Elle doit être conduite dans le respect des libertés publiques et des règlements qui protègent la vie privée.

2. Les attitudes du médiateur

La discrétion et les obligations du médiateur vis-à-vis de la loi

La discrétion et le respect de l'anonymat s'imposent au médiateur, dont la reconnaissance repose sur la confiance qu'il inspire aux parties. Le médiateur ne peut utiliser les informations recueillies lors de la médiation (qu'elles relèvent de la confiance ou de l'observation) qu'avec l'accord des parties, dans le respect des lois existantes.

Dans l'exercice de leurs activités, les médiateurs sociaux sont confrontés à des situations complexes qui ne les exonèrent pas pour autant de leurs responsabilités de citoyens au regard de la loi (obligation de porter assistance à personne en péril, obligation de dénoncer les crimes et les violences faites aux personnes particulièrement fragiles...).

Au regard de ces éléments, il est de la responsabilité de l'employeur de rappeler au médiateur la nature des informations qui doivent être transmises et les conditions de la transmission de celles-ci, qui doit se faire selon des modalités garantissant leur protection.

Le désintéressement et la liberté du médiateur

La médiation est désintéressée : hormis la rémunération qu'il peut recevoir de son employeur, le médiateur ne doit pas utiliser son influence ou sa situation pour obtenir quelque avantage de la part des habitants, des usagers ou des structures auprès desquels il intervient.

En fonction de la situation, de la nature spécifique du conflit ou du problème, du lieu concerné ou des personnes impliquées, le médiateur a la possibilité de refuser une intervention dont il est saisi.

Dans certaines circonstances particulières, il peut également être conduit à interrompre une action qu'il a engagée. Il ne doit cependant pas prendre seul cette décision et, si les conditions sont réunies, il devra alors passer le relais.

III - Les conditions d'un bon exercice de la médiation sociale

D'ores et déjà, les principales conditions d'exercice de la médiation sociale peuvent être recensées.

Elles seront précisées dans le cadre des différents supports professionnels ou partenariaux qui seront élaborés par le présent groupe de travail.

1. Les aptitudes

Les fonctions de médiation sociale nécessitent des aptitudes ou pré-requis qui sont de deux sortes :

- qualités et potentialités relationnelles, d'ouverture, d'analyse de situations ;
- expérience de la vie sociale, de ses problématiques et de son évolution.

2. La formation

La formation doit en particulier permettre l'acquisition de véritables compétences professionnelles de la médiation sociale. Elle doit pour une large part reposer sur l'alternance, les mises en situation, l'analyse des pratiques, l'intervention d'acteurs professionnels. Elle doit être régulièrement actualisée et intégrer en particulier des éléments relatifs à la déontologie et à l'éthique. Elle doit favoriser l'approche partenariale et pluridisciplinaire des situations.

3. L'encadrement

La mise en place d'un véritable encadrement au sein de la structure employeuse, disposant des qualifications nécessaires et d'une reconnaissance institutionnelle, est une condition de la mise en oeuvre dans la durée d'un service de qualité. Cet encadrement est un garant de cette qualité, à la fois contrôle et soutien pour les médiateurs. Il peut être utilement complété par un travail de supervision. L'encadrement est également le signe concret de l'engagement de la structure ou de l'institution à porter, soutenir et intégrer ces services de médiation sociale dans leurs propres organisations et fonctionnement.

4. Le partenariat

Les médiateurs n'ont pas à faire à la place des autres professionnels. Ils exercent une activité nouvelle et originale, distincte du travail social ou d'activités éducatives ou de sécurité. Ils doivent développer leur intervention en articulation, concertation et complémentarité avec les autres intervenants. L'inscription dans des logiques partenariales et territorialisées est un principe essentiel de la médiation sociale et une des conditions de sa réussite : sa réussite dépend notamment de la capacité des autres acteurs à prendre le relais. En ce sens, des protocoles de collaboration interpartenariaux peuvent être utilement conclus localement.

Annexe 1 de la charte

LES DIFFERENTES CATEGORIES D'INTERVENANTS CONCERNEES

Il est ainsi possible d'identifier :

- des médiateurs sociaux employés dans un cadre associatif dont le statut répond à une exigence d'indépendance ;
- l'intervention de tiers recrutés auprès d'institutions ou d'opérateurs urbains dédiés à de la médiation sociale ;

- des professionnels recrutés dans le cadre de l'emploi partagé ;
 - des bénévoles souvent porteurs d'initiatives innovantes participant activement au confortement du lien social et à la citoyenneté sur les quartiers en difficulté.
- Dans le même temps, la fonction de médiation met au jour la nécessité de faire évoluer les métiers traditionnels, dont certains enrichissent leurs missions par la prise en compte de ce nouveau mode opératoire.
- Ces différents cas de figure dessinent la diversité des statuts et des appellations :
- Agents locaux de médiation sociale, recrutés sous contrats emplois jeunes et contractualisés dans le cadre des contrats locaux de sécurité (environ 7 000 en poste, 15 000 prévus).
 - Délégués du médiateur de la République.
 - Correspondants de nuit (au moins 500 sous divers statuts, employés par des régies de quartiers, des organismes HLM ou encore des municipalités).
 - Femmes-relais (environ un millier de bénévoles, vacataires ou emplois aidés, employées par des associations).
 - Adultes-relais (10 000 postes prévus en trois ans au titre de ce programme dans le cadre de la politique de la ville).
 - Plusieurs milliers d'emplois jeunes ou personnes employées sous divers statuts par des collectivités locales, des sociétés de transport public, des organismes HLM, de grandes entreprises publiques (La Poste, EDF...) ou encore des associations, hors le label ALMS et exerçant des missions de médiation sociale.
 - Médiateurs citoyens bénévoles.

Annexe 2 de la charte

LES ACTIVITES DE MEDIATION SOCIALE

Dans le domaine de la prévention de la violence et de la délinquance, le coeur de l'intervention du médiateur social repose sur l'écoute et la médiation, le dialogue, entre la population et les institutions et entre les habitants eux-mêmes, et vise à réduire les tensions et à prévenir les petits conflits de la vie quotidienne.

- Assurer une présence humaine rassurante et garantir l'égalité dans l'usage de l'espace public.
- Permettre une meilleure compréhension réciproque de deux parties et aider à la recherche de solutions aux conflits qui les opposent.
- Écouter, secourir et soutenir.
- Participer à l'amélioration ou à la préservation du cadre de vie.

Dans le champ social et culturel

- Être, à la demande des institutions ou des personnes, un intermédiaire, voire un facilitateur entre différents interlocuteurs.
- Permettre à la personne de faire connaître ses droits et d'accéder à l'exercice de ses droits.
- Favoriser la reconnaissance de la personne.
- Faire connaître aux populations concernées les exigences et contraintes des institutions.
- Sensibiliser les institutions aux spécificités, et notamment aux approches culturelles différentes de certains publics.

L'organisation du travail, la nature et la qualité du partenariat pour l'exercice des différentes activités peuvent varier et peser sur l'articulation de ces deux champs.

Un certain nombre d'activités types communes aux deux champs d'application peuvent être repérées :

- Une activité d'établissement de relation et d'accueil dans un contexte visant à raccourcir une distance (d'un point de vue temporel, spatial, social ou culturel) par rapport à un public.
 - Une activité d'orientation et d'accompagnement par rapport à des institutions ou des structures.
 - Une activité de services aux publics.
 - L'organisation d'activités supports visant à faciliter les rencontres avec les publics et les mises en relation avec les institutions et les structures.
- Ces différents types d'activités peuvent s'exercer à des niveaux différents de qualification.

3. LISTE DES MEMBRES DU GROUPE DE TRAVAIL INTERMINISTRIEL ET INTERPARTENARIAL SUR LES EMPLOIS DITS DE « MEDIATION SOCIALE » AYANT PARTICIPE A LA REDACTION DE CETTE CHARTE DE REFERENCE

Groupe de travail présidé par Yvon ROBERT, maire de Rouen, sur mandat de M. le Ministre délégué à la Ville.

Travaux animés par le ministère délégué à la Ville (Valérie SAGANT, Dominique VERNAUDON) et la délégation interministérielle à la Ville (Eric LENOIR, Michel DIDIER).

Participants

Directions ministérielles

Direction générale de l'action sociale (François FASSY, Isabelle KYTTEL, Sylvie MOREAU).

Direction de la population et des migrations (Fabienne LAPORTE-HIEGEL).

Délégation aux droits des femmes et à l'égalité (Fériel KACHOUKH).

Délégation générale à l'emploi et à la formation professionnelle (Françoise AMAT, Françoise

BOUYGARD, Anne-Marie CHARRAUD, Richard SABATE, Roland SMOLAR).

Direction de l'enfance et de la jeunesse, ministère de la Jeunesse et des Sports (Renée AYMA,

Patrick CHOROWICZ).

Direction des affaires criminelles et des grâces (Jacqueline FARGE, Georges-Olivier STRATIGEAS).

Direction générale des collectivités locales (Jean-Luc FRIZOL).

Direction générale de la police nationale (Michel DEBOST).

Direction générale de la gendarmerie nationale (Eric DARRAS).

Ministère de l'Education nationale (Jean-Pierre BELLIER, Sonia HENRICH).

Elus et associations d'élus

Pierre CARDO (député-maire de Chanteloup-les-Vignes).

Christine LAZERGES (députée de l'Hérault).

Bruno LEROUX (député-maire d'Epinay-sur-Seine).

Assemblée des départements de France (Cécile CHAUMIN).

Association des maires de France (Jean-Marc GILONNE).

Association des maires de villes et banlieues de France (Philippe NAVARRO).

Forum français pour la sécurité urbaine (Michel MARCUS).

Autres participants

Fonds d'action sociale (Christine CANDIDE).

Conseil supérieur du travail social (Jacques LADSOUS).

Centre national de la fonction publique territoriale (Françoise GAUTIER-ETIE, Philippe MOUTON).

Association pour la formation professionnelle des adultes (Jacques FAUBERT).
Union nationale des fédérations d'organismes HLM (Jean-Paul GUISLAIN, Jean ROGUE).
Union des transports publics (Philippe HOANG-VAN, Sylvette MOUGEY).
SNCF, Mission des politiques urbaines (Marie-France HAU-ROCHARD).
RATP, délégation à la politique de la ville (Pierre MADER, Gwenaëlle QUILLEROU).
Fédération nationale des sociétés d'économie mixte (Pierre MASSINI).
Moderniser sans exclure (Bertrand SCHWARTZ).
Comité national de liaison des régies de quartier (Clotilde BREAUULT, Jean-Jacques DEVILLERS).
Fédération interassociations interservices migrants (Adole ANKRAH).
OPTIMA (Bertrand BERNICOT).

D - Community safety workers in selected countries

Canada

Social Mediation⁸²

In three at-risk neighbourhoods in **Montreal, Quebec**, social mediation projects were put in place in 2004 through a partnership between local government, community organizations, police stations, and public transportation services. The goal of the projects was to increase security and the perception of safety, counter social isolation and exclusion, facilitate relations in public spaces, and inform individuals and groups of their rights and responsibilities. Mediators do this by listening and encouraging communication between conflicting parties, and giving referrals to appropriate services and suggestions for activities. They are identifiable by jackets and caps and are recruited from the neighbourhoods in question, so they are familiar with the neighbourhoods and are approachable. They are trained by a local center specializing in mediation, and are followed and supported by a committee of members of the partnership. These pilot projects have been evaluated by a research team at the School of Criminology of the University of Montreal, who found a decrease in social tensions and conflicts in public spaces and incivilities towards property and people, and a general increase in the perception of security among residents.

Parent Parking Patrol⁸³

In **Edmonton, Alberta**, parents volunteer to help eliminate accidents and other safety problems caused by traffic and unsafe pedestrian practices outside elementary schools. Patrol services are led by the school principal and involve the participation of parents, students, and teachers, the city transportation department for appropriate signage, and the police for follow-up. Volunteers wear a reflective safety vest with the P.P.P emblem on it. They hand out warning notices for drivers and pedestrians in violation of safety rules for acts such as jay-walking, illegal parking or U-turns, and failing to stop. The volunteers may also record the license plate of habitual violators and pass this information on to the police for proper enforcement. Pilot patrol programmes initiated in 5 areas resulted in the discernible improvement in parents' driving.

United States of America

The Safety Patrol⁸⁴

This service is part of **New York City's** Official Civilian Observation Patrol Programs, where patrollers on foot, bicycle, roller skates, etc. patrol in Central Park to ensure safety, and report any suspicious behaviour to the police. Volunteers are trained, work in pairs, and are provided with an orange vest and an Interwatch radio that is linked to the Central Park Police Precinct. A group of volunteers who jog in the park while on patrol call themselves «the New York Road Runners». Performing these patrol services serves

⁸² Guité, L., Jaccoud, M., & B. Dupont (2006) *Projet de médiation sociale Duff-Court*, Rapport d'évaluation (phase 2), soumis à la ville de Montréal, mars 2006, 30p.

Guité, L., Jaccoud, M., & B. Dupont (2006) *Projet de médiation sociale Sainte-Marie*, Rapport d'évaluation (phase 2), soumis à la ville de Montréal, mars 2006, 87p.

Tremblay, C., Jaccoud, M., & B. Dupont (2006) *Projet de médiation sociale Petite-Bourgogne*, Rapport d'évaluation (phase 2), soumis à la ville de Montréal, mars 2006, 44p.

⁸³ Edmonton Police Service. *Parent Parking Patrol*. Retrieved November 3, 2006, from

<http://www.police.edmonton.ab.ca/Pages/TrafficSection/ParentParkingPatrol/ParentParkingPatrol.asp>

⁸⁴ *New York Road Runners*. Retrieved November 11, 2006, from

<http://www.nyrrc.org/nyrrc/org/info/safety.html>

to remind people that community crime prevention is a responsibility that should be shared with the police and park personnel. Park patrols take place all day on Monday to Friday and on Saturday and Sunday mornings.

Public Safety Assistants (PSA)⁸⁵

Public safety and security on university campuses has become a growing concern in the United States, as in other parts of the world. Patrol services, as in the one offered at the Catholic University of America in **Washington, D.C.**, have been initiated to address this concern. At this campus, regular students, work-study students, and part-time temporary employees act as Public Safety Assistants. This programme is part of the Department of Public Safety crime prevention section. PSAs have no police authority; they wear uniforms to be identifiable and have two-way radios that allow them to relay information to the Department of Public Safety's dispatcher and officers. They work at an information kiosk, in the resident halls and other public buildings on campus. Their duties include: providing escort services to students at night, observing and reporting suspicious activity as well as violations of university policies and regulations or the criminal code, and providing assistance and information. Their work helps make students feel safer and their extra surveillance work enables Department of Public Safety officers to deal with other crime prevention tasks.

Village Public Safety Officer (VPSO)⁸⁶

This programme exists in rural and remote areas of the United States where responses from the police or State Troopers may take too long, such as **Alaska**. VPSOs are trained to provide extra local public safety services, and they are first responders to safety emergencies such as search and rescue, fire protection, and emergency medical assistance, while they also provide crime prevention and basic law enforcement services, such as handling misdemeanours, minor felonies, and protecting crime scenes until State Troopers can arrive. Funding for the programme is provided by the State, managed by State Troopers, and awarded to regional Native non-profit organizations that are aware of and can determine the needs of the community and be responsible for VPSOs daily activities. The presence of VPSOs has been said to have a significant impact on residents' quality of life and perception of safety.

Community Service Officer (CSO)⁸⁷

In **West Jordan, Utah**, CSOs are non-sworn police workers who perform extra patrols and see to other needs of the community; while they have no authority to arrest, they do have a uniform and vehicle that allows them to be identified as CSOs. They respond to non-emergency situations thus freeing police officers' time to deal with more serious issues.

⁸⁵ *Services to the campus community*. Retrieved November 4, 2006, from <http://publicsafety.cua.edu/service.cfm>

⁸⁶ *Village Public Safety Officer Program*. Retrieved November 4, 2006, from <http://www.dps.state.ak.us/ast/vpso/>

⁸⁷ *Community Service Officer Program*. Retrieved November 4, 2006, from <http://www.ci.west-jordan.ut.us/index.cfm?objectid=621A32A6-802E-03C3-375E457456B814FB>