

World Internal Security & Police Index

2016



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- World Internal Security & Police Index (WISPI)
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International Police Science Association IPSA

International Police Science Association (IPSA) is a non-profit organization founded in 2013 that brings under one roof of experts, researchers and scholars concerned with security work from all over the world. IPSA convene an annual conference and created an international award to honor the achievements and contributions of an organizations and working professional worldwide, and has 3 categories: (1) Police Practices and Community Relations, (2) Development and Police Researches and (3) Innovation in Policing. IPSA has three major projects and each with its own focus on (1) Security knowledge management through translating police sciences researches into various languages; (2) Sharing of experience and expertise through conferences, workshops, seminars and training; (3) Assessment of policing performance through the annual report of World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI).



The World Internal Security and Police Index was developed independently by the Institute for Economics and Peace (IEP). IEP was commissioned by the Sharjah Police Department and the International Police Science Association (IPSA), to develop this index.

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Foreword

Introducing the World Internal Security and Police Index

The International Police Science Association (IPSA) is proud to present the first iteration of the World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI). The WISPI adds to the relatively few indices dealing with peace at the global level, such as the Global Peace Index (GPI) and the Fragile States Index (FSI).

Most of the aforementioned indices only look at results and outputs like homicide, terrorism, and violent crime. They do not measure the ability of security bodies to render security services. To date there has not been a composite index that measures internal security. The WISPI takes a holistic perspective towards security, covering the general public's perception of the police and security as well as measuring the level of safety provided and the forces needed to provide that level of security.

The WISPI adopts a wide range of qualitative and quantitative data in order to classify countries' levels of internal security. It measures the ability of security institutions to maintain security, the effectiveness of those services, the public's trust in rendered services, and police operations and activities. The results of the Index provide a unique perspective on internal security. The WISPI stands apart from other measures of peacefulness and violence by providing an assessment of internal security outcomes, general public's perception of quality and the ability of police to respond to future internal security issues.

About IPSA

IPSA is a non-profit organisation dealing with police sciences. IPSA is registered in New Jersey State, USA. The key aim of IPSA is to study and promote police sciences with a view to boosting quality of security performance. IPSA is open for all individuals and companies concerned with security science and law enforcement. IPSA has three key projects: The exchange of police knowledge through holding of regular conferences, the transfer of knowledge through the promulgation and translation of research into many languages, and lastly the recognition and awarding of excellence in the security field, via the IPSA security award. The award has three categories: police practices and society, innovation and creativity in the security field, research on policing and promotion of security performance. For further information, visit www.ipsa-police.org

Why is WISPI unique?

As the world becomes increasingly data-driven, international organisations such as the UN and national governments rely on indices issued by internationally recognised organisations in order to understand the factors that are driving global policy issues. WISPI has been created to go beyond the existing measures of violence or peace, as an international index measuring the ability of police institutions worldwide to render

security services that establish security within society and achieve safety of its members. WISPI focuses on both effective rendering of security services and the outcome of rendered services. WISPI is considered the first international index to measure indicators of internal security worldwide; rank countries according to their ability to provide security services and boost security performance in general. WISPI was conceptualised and championed by the founder of IPSA and developed independently by the Institute for Economics and Peace (IEP) for IPSA.

This Index would not have been possible without the approval of my institution and colleagues. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the Sharjah Police, for their support and for allowing us to complete the development of the World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI). Also, I am grateful to our team for exemplary professionalism and encouragement.

Professor Mamdooh Abdelmottlep (PhD, JD)

Professor of Criminal Justice Management & Security Expert

Founder & Executive Chairman of International Police Science Association (IPSA)

1) Executive summary

This is the first edition of the World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI), commissioned by the Sharjah Police Department and the International Police Science Association (IPSA), and developed by the Institute for Economics and Peace (IEP). The Index measures the ability of the police and other security providers to address internal security issues in 127 countries, across four domains, using 16 indicators.

The WISPI looks at four domains of internal security: capacity, process, legitimacy, and outcomes. The capacity domain examines the resources that a nation devotes to internal security. The process domain looks at whether the resources devoted to internal security are used in an effective manner. The legitimacy domain is a measure of whether the public view security providers, particularly the police, in a favourable light. Finally, the outcomes domain assesses current threats to internal security.

In addition to ranking 127 countries across the above four domains, this report looks at internal security issues and trends, by examining how the 16 indicators in the Index have changed in the modern era. The report reinforces the fact that as external security concerns have waned, and as wars between nations have become less common, internal security has become the predominant concern of the nation-state. Resources devoted to internal security have increased significantly, but serious threats remain. Migration, regional contagion, civil unrest, corruption, and terrorism all remain serious threats to internal security in the 21st century. Countries with insufficient data, as well as countries currently involved in protracted internal conflict are not included in the Index.

Regionally, North America (Canada and the USA) and Europe are the areas with the highest level of police responsiveness to internal security issues, with sub-Saharan Africa having the most internal security issues on average. Many state security providers in sub-Saharan Africa are under-resourced, and stretched by terrorist organisations and insurgencies.

Other regions have much more variation between countries. The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region has seen serious internal security threats arise over the last decade, with the events of the Arab Spring, civil war in Syria, and the rise of the terrorist organisation the Islamic State in Iraq and Syria (ISIS). Despite this turmoil, several Middle Eastern countries have proven to be remarkably stable, showing few signs of regional contagion.

Different government types have varying levels of success in responding to internal security challenges. Full democracies and flawed democracies have the highest Index scores on average, but authoritarian regimes score better than hybrid regimes (which have both authoritarian and democratic elements). The transition from one government type to another is a crucial moment at which internal security issues often come to the forefront.

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Internal security is likely to remain a serious issue in the near future. The flow on effects from internal conflicts in Syria and Iraq continue to be felt around the world. The number of refugees and internally displaced people in the world is now higher than at any point since the end of World War II. Deaths from terrorism increased 80 per cent in the last calendar year, with over 32,000 people being killed in terrorist attacks in 2014. Thus, the security service response to internal security threats is arguably more crucial now than at any point in the last 60 years.

Highlights

- > Terrorism remains one of the greatest threats to internal security. Terrorism has increased dramatically over the last three years, with more than 62,000 people being killed in terrorist attacks between 2012 and 2014. The biggest rise in the last year occurred in Nigeria, the worst performing country on the WISPI.

- > Singapore performed best on the Index, followed by Finland, and then Denmark. There were only four non-European countries in the top 20. The United Arab Emirates was the highest ranked country from the Middle East and North African (MENA) region, and ranked 29th overall.

- > Nigeria performed worst on the Index, followed by the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, Uganda, and Pakistan. However, countries with protracted civil conflicts are not eligible for the Index.

- > North America and Europe were the two regions with the best average WISPI scores. Sub-Saharan Africa had the worst average score, followed by South Asia and then Central America and the Caribbean.

- > Despite the turmoil in the Middle East, many Middle Eastern countries performed well on the Index. The MENA region had the fourth best average regional score of the nine regions in the Index.

- > Countries with smaller populations performed better on the Index than larger ones. Only one country in the top ten had a population greater than 25 million, and conversely only one country in the bottom ten had a population of less than 25 million.

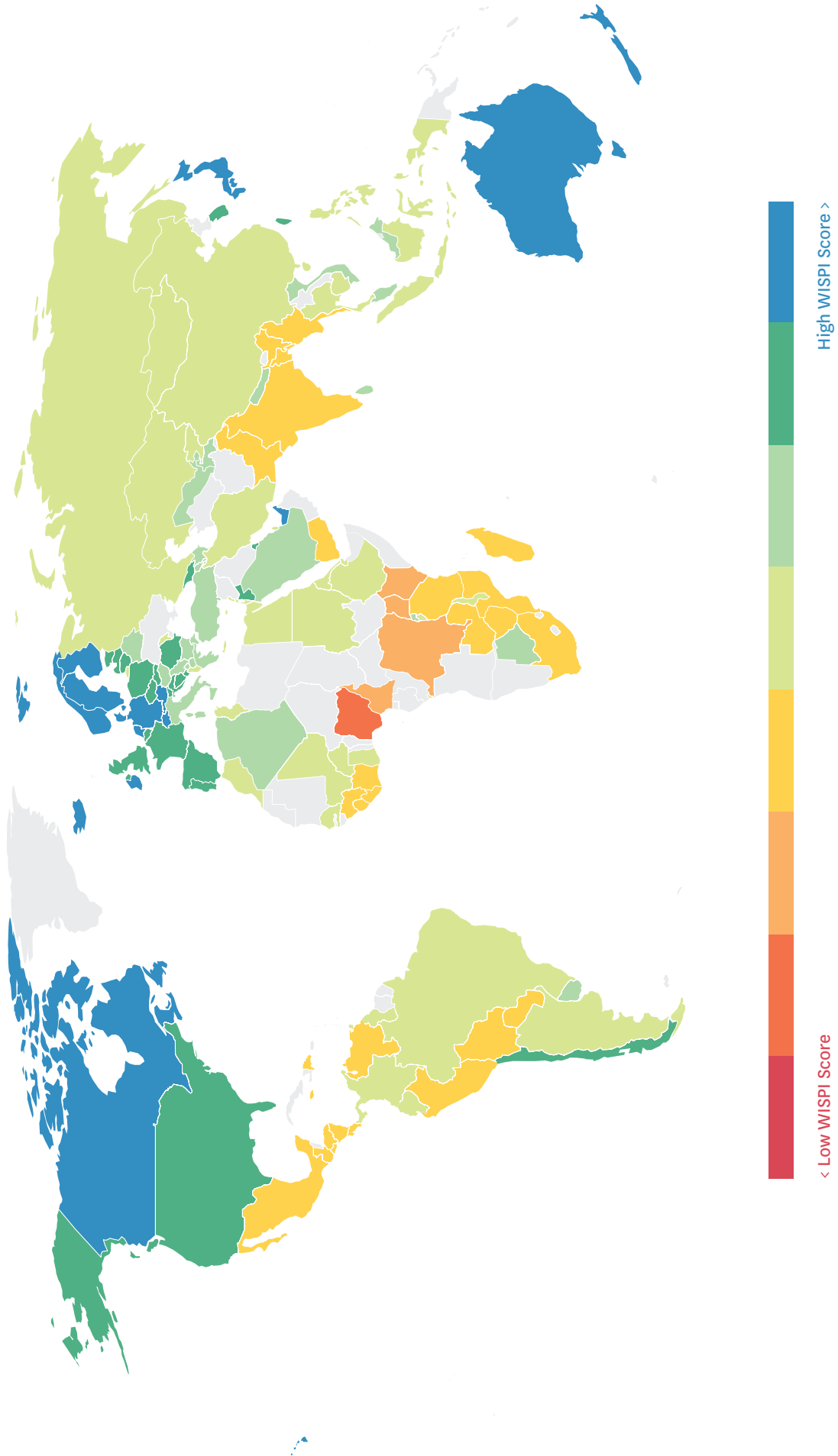
- > Full democracies had the best average score on the Index, followed by flawed democracies. Authoritarian regimes outperform hybrid regimes, despite the fact that the country with the best score in the Index (Singapore) is a hybrid regime.

- > Authoritarian regimes in sub-Saharan Africa had smaller police forces and militaries than their Middle Eastern counterparts. Overall, sub-Saharan African countries had the lowest capacity scores of any region.

- > The resources devoted to policing and the criminal justice system have increased dramatically over the past 50 years. In the US, GDP per capita increased 191 per cent from 1961 to 2015 (when measured in constant 2005 US dollars). Over the same period, local, state, and federal government spending on the police increased 484 per cent.

- > Corruption has been increasing around the globe in the last 20 years. In many countries, bribe payments to the police are still commonplace. The Index average for bribe payments to police was 30 per cent, with more than 50 per cent of respondents admitting to having paid a bribe to police in 33 of the 127 countries in the Index.

Map and Results Table



Peace and Internal Security

The aim of the WISPI is to, firstly, measure security provider performance across the four domains of internal security: capacity, process, legitimacy and outcomes.

Secondly, to see how these domains relate to each other and finally to track trends in these domains over time, and to inform the work of security providing agencies, researchers, and practitioners in the field of peace and conflict studies, criminology, and police studies.

IEP has been studying security, conflict and the drivers of peacefulness since 2007. The Global Peace Index, which will have its tenth iteration released in 2016, is the world's leading measure of peacefulness, and IEP has also released national peace indices, the Global Terrorism Index, and various other reports that examine the drivers of peace and its economic benefits.

Central to IEP's work has been an understanding that peacefulness can be divided into two aspects: *Negative Peace*, which is the absence of violence and the fear of violence, and *Positive Peace*, which consists of the attitudes, institutions, and structures which support peaceful societies. These two aspects are linked both statistically and theoretically. Societies with higher levels of Positive Peace have lower levels of interpersonal violence and are less likely to fall into conflict. Conversely, when conflict does break out, it can degrade or destroy the institutions and structures which drive Positive Peace, which can in turn lead to further violence and destruction. Changes in Negative and Positive Peace feedback upon each other in either a virtuous or vicious cycle of falling or rising violence.

Given the huge costs associated with deteriorations in peacefulness, preventing serious threats to internal and external security should be (and is) one of the highest priorities for governments, and

the highest priority for security providing institutions like the police and the military. Of course, there are trade-offs involved in all forms of government spending, and in a perfect world there would be no need for any type of security forces whatsoever. However, given the threats to internal security that almost every government faces, some level of security spending is not only understandable, but also necessary for maintaining and promoting peace.

IEP's existing research suggests that in the long run, promoting Positive Peace is the best, most reliable, and most consistent method of ensuring negative peace. However, in the short run strong security institutions are needed to prevent conflict, to allow for fast recovery after conflicts break out, and to promote stable environments in which the development of the attitudes, institutions, and structures associated with peaceful environments is a feasible goal. In order to do this, security forces need to have the necessary capacity to perform their job properly. They need to have effective methods and techniques of policing and conflict resolution. They need to be legitimate in the eyes of their own citizens. And they need to be able to reduce threats to internal security like violent crime, homicide, terrorism, and the fear of violence.

The Index

While ‘internal security’ is commonly conceptualised in terms of conflict between the state and insurgency groups within a nation’s borders, a broader definition encompasses any factor, process, or shock that destabilises or threatens the state. This broader definition allows for the inclusion of not only traditional internal security issues like insurgency, terrorism, and civil unrest, but also other areas of internal violence like violent crime, organised crime, riots, and citizen perceptions of safety, governance issues (particularly state effectiveness and corruption), and exogenous shocks such as natural disasters, climate change, and increased migration flows. In short, internal security as measured by the WISPI is the ability of police to realise security within society and safety of its members.

As the state has a monopoly on legitimate violence, responsibility for upholding and maintaining internal security falls upon those state agencies to whom the privilege of legitimate force is extended. The police, judicial, criminal justice, and intelligence services are the main institutions that deal with internal security, although in exceptional circumstances, the armed forces may also play a role. Furthermore, in most societies internal security is also informally or tacitly enforced by collection of social attitudes, informal institutions, and structures that combine to promote social stability. However, as the police (and similar institutions) are largely responsible for enforcing the state’s monopoly on legitimate internal violence, the task of

policing and enforcing internal security is their primary objective, and they are likely to be the first responders to violence and instability in times of social upheaval.

What is the World Internal Security and Police Index?

The World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI) should not be thought of as a measure of the level of ‘internal security’ at the country level. Rather, **the Index aims to measure the ability of the security apparatus within a country to respond to internal security challenges, both now and in the future.**

For the purposes of the Index, ‘security apparatus’ predominantly refers to the police, although a number of indicators also touch upon the ability of the military, the judicial system, and the private sector to address internal security issues. This means that a country that currently does not have many internal security issues, or relies upon tacit rather than explicit enforcement, may have a worse rank than a country that has more issues but has also devoted more police resources to keeping them contained.

The purpose of a composite index is to simplify a complex or abstract concept into a single quantitative measure (often with subcomponents) in order to compare performance across countries or states, and to track improvements or deteriorations over time. In order for an index to be useful, it must have a clear concept and a unit of account (for example, a country, state, or city) that will lead to meaningful comparisons.

As mentioned above, a broader definition of internal security includes a large number of concepts that are partially measured by tens if not hundreds of existing indicators, as well as many well-established composite indices. Given this broader definition, it is unlikely that a single index could adequately measure internal security in a meaningful way. Whilst it might be possible to incorporate all the areas by using more abstract indicators that look at the functioning of government processes, this would dramatically increase the overlap between this Index and other indices that measure the rule of law.

How is the Index Structured?

Accurately measuring and tracking how well the security apparatus in a country can respond to internal security concerns is not just a matter of totalling up existing police financial resources and human resources, nor is it only an exercise in comparing crime stats. A country with high numbers of police officers many not deploy these officers effectively, may not have a smoothly functioning criminal justice system to adequately capitalise on effective policing, and may act in an overly aggressive manner that actually increases societal tension. Conversely, a country with low crime rates and effective processes may not have enough police officers or police resources to deal with a serious shock like a series of terrorist attacks, a huge natural disaster, rioting, or a humanitarian crisis and consequent refugee movements.

“ The Index aims to measure the ability of the security apparatus within a country to respond to internal security challenges, both now and in the future.

To cover all of these issues related to internal security, the WISPI consists of 16 indicators across four different domains: capacity, effectiveness, legitimacy, and outcomes. The full list of indicators across the four domains is shown in Table 1. There are many potential indicators of police operations or internal security that were not included in the Index. Many potential good sources did not have enough data, or suffered from comparability issues across countries, or were general measures of internal security or the rule of law that were not related to the operations of security providers. For a full discussion of the indicators that were included, as well as a summary of the data collection and imputations issues, see the methodology in Appendix B.

In keeping with the purpose of the Index as a measure of police responses to internal security issues, every indicator that was chosen for the final Index can be influenced by changes in the role, funding, or operations of security providers (almost always the police, but sometimes the military, private sector, or broader criminal justice system). Each domain and indicator adds a piece of information that when combined into a single composite measure gives the fullest picture of police response to internal security.

Domain 1: Capacity

The purpose of the capacity domain is to assess whether the level of resources devoted to internal security in a country are sufficient to deal with existing internal security issues, and whether these resources are adequate to deal with any unexpected outbreak of civil unrest. To effectively deal with violent crime and civil unrest, the police must have enough resources to deal with crime on a day to day basis, enough presence to act as a deterrent for criminal activity and a

Table 01: World Internal Security and Police Index, Domains and Indicators

Domain	Indicator	Definition	Source
Capacity	Police	Number of Police and Internal Security Officers per 100,000 people	UNODC - Crime Trends Survey
	Armed Forces	Number of Armed Service Personnel per 100,000 people	IISS - Military Balance
	Private Security	Number of Private Security Contractors per 100,000 people	Small Arms Survey
	Prison Capacity	Ratio of Prisoners to Official Prison Capacity	World Prison Population Project
Process	Corruption	Control of Corruption	WB - World Governance Indicators
	Effectiveness	Criminal Justice effectiveness, impartial, respects rights	World Justice Project
	Bribe Payments to Police	% of Respondents who Paid a Bribe to a Police Officer in the Past Year	Global Corruption Barometer
	Underreporting	Ratio of Police Reported Thefts to Survey Reported Thefts	IEP Analysis
Legitimacy	Due Process	Due process of law and rights of the accused	World Justice Project
	Confidence in Police	% of Respondents who have Confidence in Their Local Police	Gallup World Poll
	Public Use, Private Gain	Government officials in the police and the military do not use public office for private gain	World Justice Project
	Political Terror	Use of Force by Government Against Its Own Citizens	Political Terror Scale
Outcomes	Homicide	Number of Intentional Homicides per 100,000 people	UNODC - Crime Trends Survey
	Violent Crime	% Assaulted or mugged in the Last Year	Gallup World Poll
	Terrorism	Composite measure of deaths, injuries, and incidents of terrorism	Global Terrorism Index
	Public Safety Perceptions	Perceptions of safety walking alone at night	Gallup World Poll

signifier of a stable rule of law, enough support from the military and private sector in the event of extreme social breakdown, and adequate infrastructure to allow for effective operations. Each of the four indicators in the domain addresses one of these factors.

The scoring system for the capacity domain is not solely concerned with comparing overall levels of police numbers and resources between countries. Beyond a certain point, increasing police numbers does little to impact the level of crime within a country,

general governance environment suffers from high levels of corruption, security measures and initiatives are likely to be less effective. If the criminal justice system in particular is corrupt, police operations will almost certainly be less effective, creating incentives for suboptimal police performance. Previous research by IEP has found that perceptions of corruption in the police and judicial systems is closely correlated with high levels of crime and high levels of civil unrest. Finally, the presence of high levels of underreporting is indicative of an inefficient police system,

“ The presence of high levels of underreporting is indicative of an inefficient police system, as it shows that citizens do not trust that involving the police will lead to a positive outcome.

and the existence of excess military capacity may even act as an incentive for the unnecessary use of force in some situations. Similarly, the appropriate level of policing will always be context specific; more police resources are needed in times of crisis than in relatively calm periods. Finally, a low score in the capacity domain does not necessarily mean that a country is at risk of suffering from unexpected civil unrest, only that in the case of some external shock or disturbance, the criminal justice system would have the optimal level of resources to respond appropriately.

Domain 2: Effectiveness

The purpose of the effectiveness domain is to measure how well police and criminal justice capacity is used. Having enough financial and material resources is not in itself a guarantee of internal security. If the

as it shows that citizens do not trust that involving the police will lead to a positive outcome, even if the police are generally seen as trustworthy or incorruptible.

The scoring system for the effectiveness domain is not absolute. It would be impossible for the police to effectively deal with every crime, and it is unlikely that every crime would be reported to the police even if they were perfectly trusted and had infinite resources. Similarly, the presence of police corruption or petty corruption in the governance system at large may actually work as an informal mechanism for increasing police responsiveness in countries where the police are under-resourced. Thus, the score in the effectiveness domain should be thought of as a measure of how close a police system is to the best performing and most effective police systems globally.

Domain 3: Legitimacy

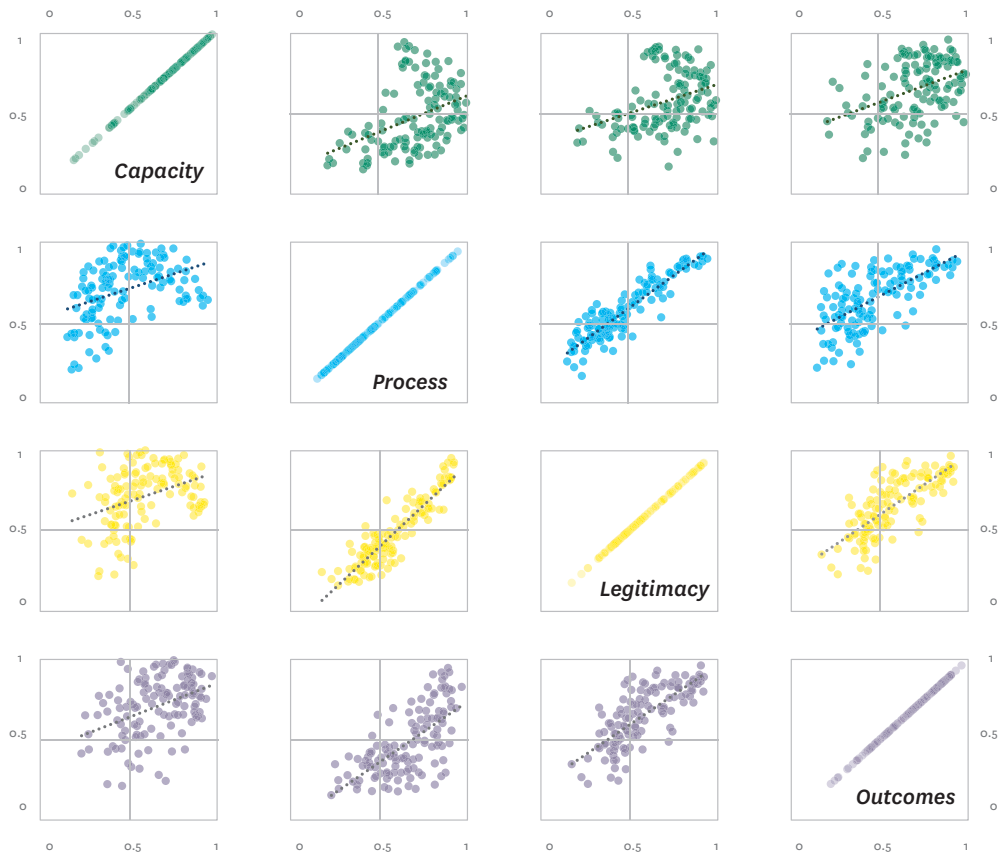
The purpose of the legitimacy domain is to measure whether the police and security services act in the best interest of the country and its citizens, measured by both expert assessment and by citizen perceptions. It is possible for a country to have both adequate police resources and an effective criminal justice system, but if security providers are not seen as legitimate then tensions between citizens and the police can fester or even increase to the point that civil unrest turns into rioting or prolonged disorder and distrust of the state.

Due process captures whether or not those in the criminal justice system are treated justly or adequately, as opposed to effectively. Confidence in local police captures whether or not citizens feel that they can trust police with everyday policing tasks, whilst the private gain indicator provides an expert assessment of police and military legitimacy at the national level, which survey data alone would not be able to capture. Lastly, the political terror indicator measures whether the state suppresses dissent by using excessive force and terror tactics against its own people.

The scoring system for the legitimacy domain is similar to that for the process domain, in that it is a measure of security force legitimacy against the best performing police systems globally. No state that tolerates unlimited dissent could ever be seen as being perfectly legitimate, and no citizenry would ever have the full amount of information required to properly assess the legitimacy of its security forces. However, a high score on the legitimacy domain is a good indication that civil unrest in a country is unlikely to be triggered by dissatisfaction with security forces, whereas a low score indicates that such dissatisfaction is a significant risk factor, even where security forces are adequately resourced and effective.

Figure 01: Scatterplot matrix of the four WISPI domains

The process and legitimacy domains are closely linked. Countries with good processes are more likely to be legitimate, and also more likely to have better internal security outcomes.



Domain 4: Outcomes

The purpose of the outcomes domain is to measure the size of existing threats to internal security, as they stand at the current time. High levels of violent crime are indicative of a lack of police control over public spaces. A homicide rate above the global average is not only an indication of general social breakdown and police ineffectiveness, but also usually a proxy for some underlying disturbance or conflict such as unchecked organized crime that threatens internal security. Whilst terrorism is uncommon, it provides a unique threat to internal security as terrorist attacks destabilize public life and change citizen behaviour and attitudes in ways unlike other forms of violence. Finally,

even if levels of police recorded crime are low, public fears may still be high, which indicates that there is some threat to internal security which is not being adequately dealt with by security forces.

A low score on the outcomes domain suggests that existing levels of internal violence and conflict pose a serious threat to the state and are not adequately being dealt with by security forces, whilst a high score suggests that current levels of internal violence are not a serious threat to internal security and public order, even if the police are under-resourced, ineffective, and seen as illegitimate. As with the capacity domain, the scoring system for the outcomes domain recognises that the presence of violence beyond a certain point does not add to

the threat to internal security in a linear fashion. Terrorist attacks receive relatively more attention when they are sporadic and unpredictable, and similarly once violent crime reaches a certain point, citizen and police behaviour begins to shift in order to reduce the likelihood of being a victim of violent crime.

Relationship Between the Domains

Every composite index will have a trade-off between robustness and uniqueness. If the indicators and domains of an index are strongly correlated, then the index is likely to be robust, meaning that the choice of weights for the domains will not greatly impact the final rankings of the index. This means that the index

“ This report divides government types into four categories, taken from the Economist Intelligence Unit’s Democracy Index: Full Democracies, Flawed Democracies, Hybrid Regimes and Authoritarian Regimes.

is more objective, and less a product of normative, qualitative decisions. However, an index that is perfectly robust is unlikely to be a true measure of some composite, unobserved variable, as the rankings would be exactly the same if all the indicators bar one were removed. By contrast, an index that is unique is more likely to properly capture the underlying phenomenon that the index aims to measure, but is also much more sensitive to the choice of weights and indicators, which places a greater importance on the qualitative aspects of index design. As illustrated in Figure 1, each of the four WISPI domains correlates at a statistically significant level ($p < 0.05$) with the other domains, although some of the domains are much more closely linked than others.

The capacity domain has the weakest correlation with the other domains. It is most weakly correlated against the legitimacy domain ($r=0.36$), followed by the process domain ($r=0.41$). Countries with the lowest process scores are much more likely to have either very high or very low capacity scores. This reflects either an overreliance on security forces to promote internal security at the expense of processes and legitimacy, or the absence of sufficient institutional resources and strength to allow security forces to operate in an effective manner.

The connection between capacity and legitimacy is very similar; a lack of capacity leads to a lack of trust in the ability of police, but too much can lead to an overreliance on force which may result in state repression of citizens, leading to a lack of trust in security

forces. The connection between capacity and outcomes is slightly stronger ($r=0.41$), suggesting that the presence of sufficient security force capacity is sometimes enough to produce good internal security outcomes.

The process and legitimacy domains have the strongest correlation with each other ($r=0.91$). Countries with more effective security force processes, with lower levels of corruption and underreporting, are much more likely to be seen as legitimate by both citizens and experts. Both process and legitimacy are also closely linked with outcomes ($r=0.66$ and $r=0.75$ respectively).

Geographical Regions and Government Types

Much of the analysis in this report looks at results not only for individual countries or the average Index score, but also by region and government type.

Regional analysis can highlight the way in which internal security issues are geographically distributed, and how certain factors that contribute to insecurity can spread beyond the borders of one country and into neighbouring countries. The existence of regional scoring clusters suggests that there are geographical or cultural factors that render ineffective security force strategies that work in other regions or countries. Conversely, if a region has a wide range of scores across indicators and domains, this suggests that regional or cultural factors are less likely to play a significant role with regards to internal security issues.

Examining internal security issues by government type is revealing because one of the most destabilising factors that leads to reduced internal security is regime change, or regime transition from more authoritarian forms of governance to democracy, or vice versa. As the primary function of most security forces is the maintenance of order, the potential disruption that stems from regime change or governance change can lead to security forces opposing, frustrating, disrupting, or even outright preventing democratic reform. Regime or governance change is perhaps the most powerful example in the modern world of an event which ripples throughout the entirety of society, with the potential for widespread violence and instability to take hold.

Thus, examining the Index results and general trends in internal security by governance type helps to illustrate how police forces in some countries rely on capacity at the expense of legitimacy and processes, and how this can lead to more instability in the long run. This report divides government types into four categories, taken from the Economist Intelligence Unit’s Democracy Index: Full Democracies, Flawed Democracies, Hybrid Regimes, and Authoritarian Regimes.

Highlights

- > High levels of police, armed forces and private security was not a guarantee of good internal security outcomes. Most of the best performing countries on the Index had average capacity scores.
- > However, a lack of security service capacity was a good predictor of poor internal security outcomes. The worst performing countries on the Index tend to have insufficient numbers of police, not enough private security, and overcrowded prisons.
- > The Asia-Pacific and sub-Saharan African Regions had the most variation between countries. Central America and the Caribbean, and North America had the lowest variance.
- > Countries with smaller populations perform better on the Index. The average population of a top ten country was just under 17 million, compared to 84 million for a bottom ten country.
- > Full democracies had the best average Index scores, followed by flawed democracies. However, authoritarian regimes scored better on average than hybrid regimes.

The best performing countries on the WISPI had excellent process, legitimacy, and outcomes scores, and average or slightly above average capacity scores. Only two countries (Singapore and Australia) ranked in the top ten countries had a top 50 capacity score. Conversely, the worst performing countries in the Index perform poorly across all four domains. This suggests that while the lack of security service capacity usually leads to poor internal security outcomes, beyond a certain level additional security service capacity does not necessarily lead to better processes, increased legitimacy, or better outcomes.

There is a weak but statistically significant correlation between the size of a country's population and its Index score ($r=-0.33$), as shown in Figure 2 (overleaf). Countries with smaller populations tend to have better security service responses to internal security challenges.

The ten best performing countries have an average population of just under 17 million, whereas the ten worst performing countries have an average population of over 84 million. Only three countries in the bottom 20 have a population of less than ten million people. In general, larger populations mean that coordination problems between security services are increased, processes are less likely to scale up effectively, and larger urban populations are usually associated with increased homicide, violent crime, and fear of violence.

Regionally, the best performing areas were North America, Europe, and the Asia-Pacific Region, with the worst performing regions being sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Central America and the Caribbean. However, there was a great deal of variation within regions, as shown in Figure 3. The two regions with the greatest variation are Asia-Pacific and sub-Saharan Africa. The Asia-Pacific region had the third highest

2) Results

“ Sub-Saharan Africa is home to seven of the ten worst performing countries.

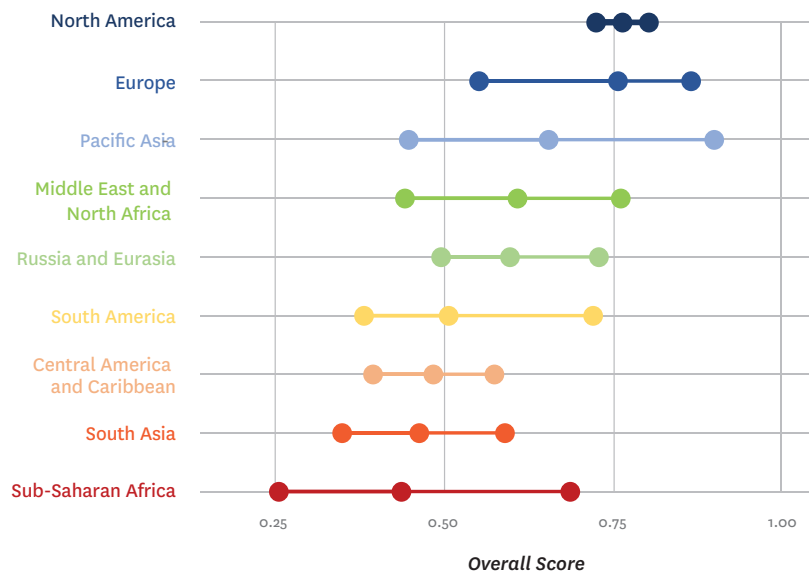
Figure 02: Overall Score vs Population

Smaller countries tend to have better security force responses to internal security issues ($r = -0.33$).



Figure 03: Index Overall Scores by Region (best, worst, average)

Sub-Saharan Africa has the worst index scores on average, followed by the Central America and Caribbean. The Asia-Pacific region has the greatest range of scores.



regional score overall, as well as the country with the best overall score (Singapore), and three other countries in the top 20 (Australia, New Zealand, and South Korea). However, the average Asia-Pacific score of 0.653 was well below the European and North America averages. The region is also home to several countries that had very poor internal security situations, most notably Myanmar, which ranked 101st overall. Thailand, Indonesia, Cambodia, and the Philippines also ranked in the bottom half of the Index.

Sub-Saharan Africa is home to seven of the ten worst performing countries, with Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Kenya, and Uganda all being ranked in the bottom five. These four countries performed poorly across all four domains. Perhaps the most noticeable deficit in the poorly performing sub-Saharan African countries was on the capacity indicator. Sub-Saharan African countries have police officer, armed forces, and private security rates well below the global average, and an average prison occupancy rate of 166 per cent, well above the global average. However, there are some sub-Saharan African countries that perform well on the Index, most noticeably Botswana, which ranked 47th, and Rwanda, which ranked 50th. Both Botswana and Rwanda perform strongly on the process and legitimacy domains, with Botswana in particular having low levels of reported bribe payments to police, and high levels of confidence in police at the local level.

At the domain level, there are large discrepancies between average scores across regions, as shown Figure 4.

Europe, North America, and the Asia-Pacific are the only regions where the capacity domain did not have the highest average score, with all three having higher outcomes scores on average. Asia-Pacific, MENA, Russia and Eurasia, and South

Asia all had similar domain score profiles: high levels of capacity, weak processes, average legitimacy, and above average outcomes. In contrast, South America and Central America and the Caribbean had very similar legitimacy and outcomes scores. This was largely due to high average homicide rates, as well as poor perceptions of public safety.

Figure 5 shows Index scores by government type. Full democracies had the highest average Index score, followed by flawed democracies. Authoritarian regimes had less variation and a higher average Index score than hybrid regimes, which is consistent with findings from

the Global Peace Index which show that authoritarian regimes are more peaceful than hybrid regimes. It is also consistent with the theory that political instability is one of the greatest challenges to internal security, and that governments with unstable or uncertain political processes are more likely to face severe internal security issues than governments with regime stability, even if these governments are undemocratic.

Hybrid regimes and authoritarian regimes had the greatest variance. Singapore, which is classified as a hybrid regime by the EIU, had the best overall Index score, with Georgia, Bosnia and Herzegovina,

and Armenia also being ranked in the top 50 countries on the WISPI. However, a number of hybrid regimes are also ranked near the bottom of the Index, with Uganda and Kenya being ranked 124th and 125th respectively. On average, hybrid regimes had roughly the same capacity as authoritarian regimes, but had lower effectiveness, lower legitimacy, and worse internal security outcomes.

Authoritarian regimes in the Middle East and North Africa, and the Asia-Pacific region score better than authoritarian regimes in sub-Saharan Africa. The five worst performing authoritarian regimes are all located in sub-Saharan Africa.

Figure 04: Domain Score by Region

The best score for every region other than North America and Europe is on the capacity domain.

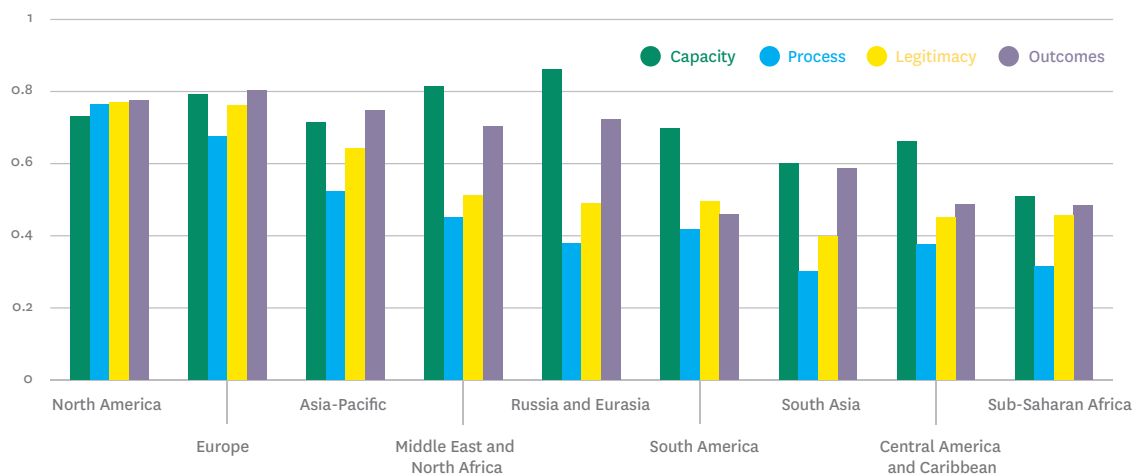
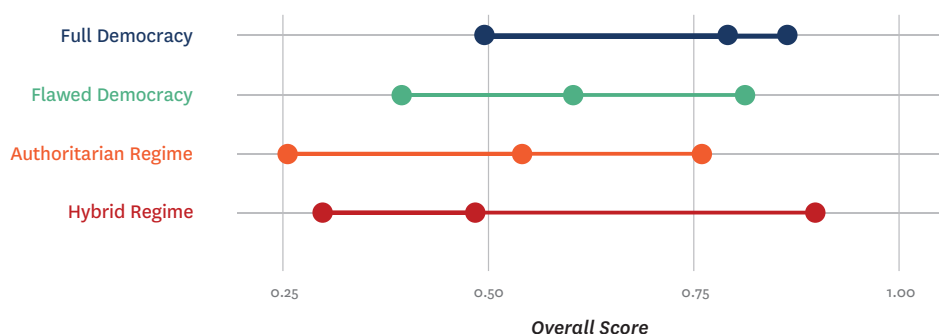


Figure 05: Index Overall Scores by Government Type (best, worst, average)

Full Democracies have the best index scores on average. Authoritarian regimes have a higher average score than hybrid regimes



“ Geographical or cultural factors play a relatively small role in determining legitimacy and process effectiveness in authoritarian regimes, whereas capacity and outcomes are much more likely to be influenced by the geopolitical environment, cultural factors, or informal institutions.

Figure 06: Domain Score by Government Type

Full Democracies score better on every domain other than capacity.

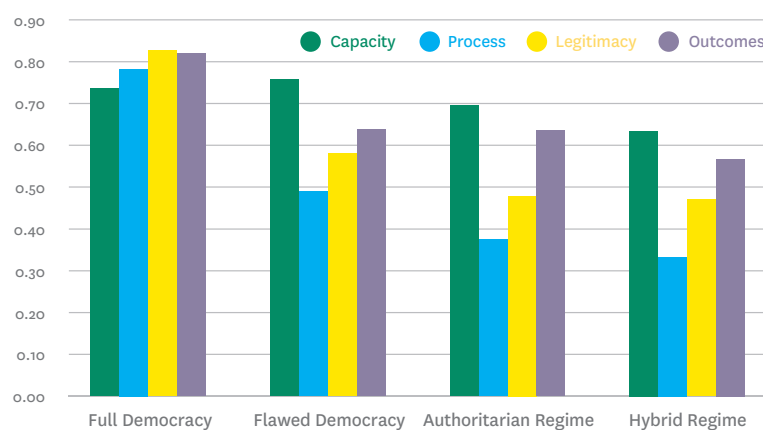
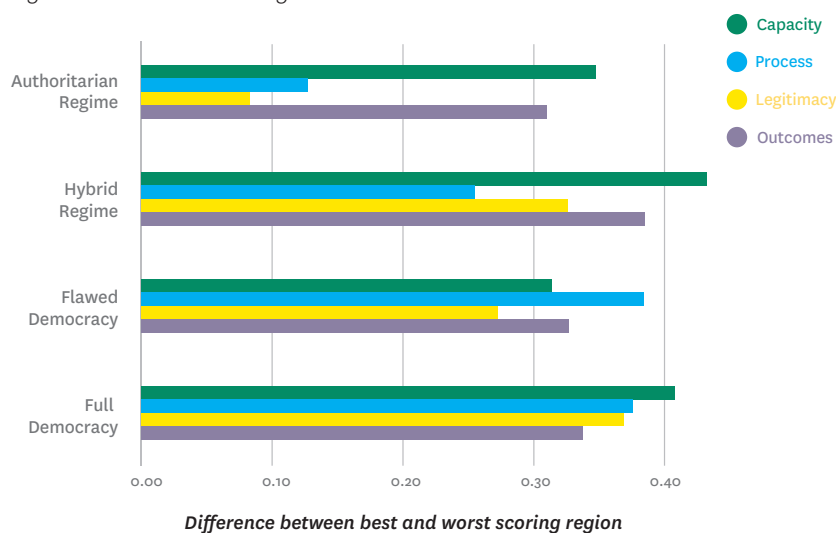


Figure 07: Scoring Range Between Best and Worst Regions, by Government Type and Domain

There is very little difference in process and legitimacy scores across regions in authoritarian regimes.



The highest ranking country from the MENA region was the United Arab Emirates, which ranked 29th on the Index. It scored highly on the capacity and outcomes domains, but only slightly above average on the process and legitimacy domains. Jordan, Kuwait, and Bahrain are all also ranked amongst the top 50 countries on the WISPI.

Flawed democracies, hybrid regimes, and authoritarian regimes all had similar domain score profiles: high capacity, poor processes, weak legitimacy, and average outcomes. Authoritarian regimes had almost identical outcomes to flawed democracies, and better outcomes than hybrid regimes. Perceptions of public safety are higher, and the average level of violent crime and homicide are lower, although terrorism is higher.

As shown in Figure 6, full democracies had by far the highest average legitimacy score, with a much better due process score, much higher levels of confidence in the police (75.7 per cent compared to 64.7 per cent in authoritarian regimes), and much lower political terror. Crimes were much more likely to be reported to the police, and reported bribe payments to police were much lower, as was corruption.

Figure 7 shows that when looking at average scores across both government type and region, one finding stands out. The difference between the best scoring region and the worst scoring region was consistent across each government type and domain, with all government types having large differences in capacity and outcomes between regions. However, for authoritarian regimes, there was a strong consistency in legitimacy and process scores across regions. This suggests that geographical or cultural factors play a relatively small role in determining legitimacy and process effectiveness in authoritarian regimes, whereas capacity and outcomes are much more likely to be influenced by the geopolitical environment, cultural factors, or informal institutions.

Five best and worst performing countries

Table 2 shows the scores and ranks for the five best and worst performing countries on the WISPI. The Index ranks 127 countries, with countries currently suffering from protracted civil conflict automatically excluded from the Index, as well as countries with insufficient data coverage. This means that the five worst performing countries are not the countries which currently had the worst internal security situation, but rather the five countries not in outright conflict that had the lowest level of security provider responsiveness to internal security challenges.

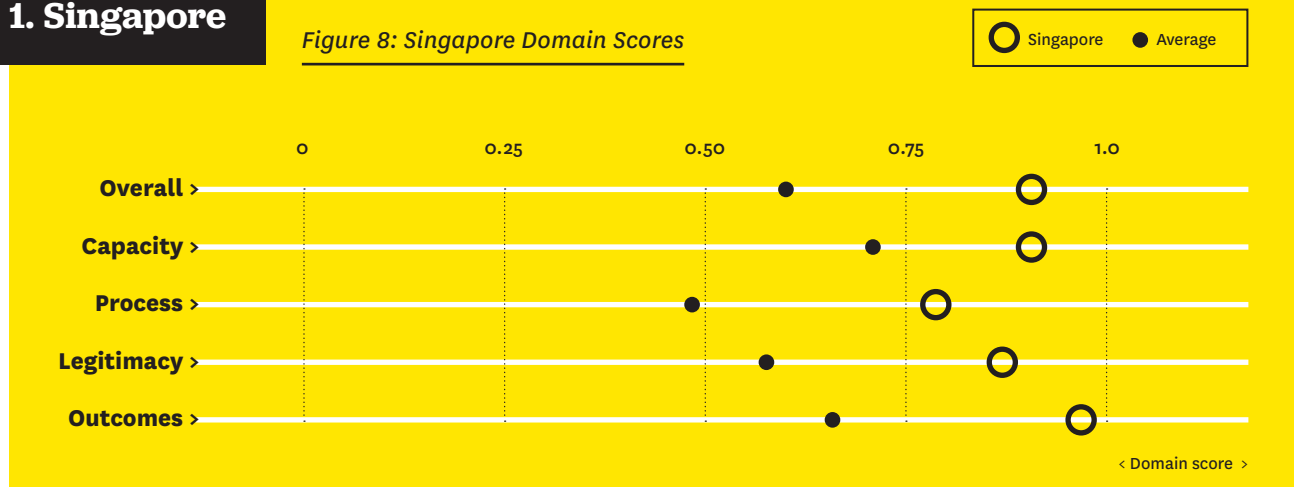
Table 02: Five Best and Worst Performing Countries, Scores and Ranks

	Country	Overall Score		Capacity		Process		Legitimacy		Outcomes	
↑	Five best performing countries										
	Singapore	0.898	1	0.897	21	0.829	8	0.903	4	0.963	1
	Finland	0.864	2	0.674	80	0.922	2	0.919	1	0.893	9
	Denmark	0.859	3	0.648	88	0.948	1	0.904	3	0.885	10
	Austria	0.850	4	0.770	58	0.817	12	0.899	6	0.894	7
	Germany	0.848	5	0.778	53	0.876	6	0.867	10	0.852	20
↓	Five worst performing countries										
	Pakistan	0.349	123	0.729	66	0.239	116	0.173	127	0.348	121
	Uganda	0.312	124	0.224	126	0.219	118	0.411	107	0.372	119
	Kenya	0.298	125	0.214	127	0.180	125	0.322	123	0.456	107
	Congo, DRC	0.272	126	0.440	115	0.195	122	0.227	126	0.268	124
	Nigeria	0.255	127	0.416	119	0.156	127	0.264	124	0.226	127

Five best performing countries

1. Singapore

Figure 8: Singapore Domain Scores



Singapore performed best on the WISPI, and was the only country not classified as a full democracy to feature in the top ten. Singapore scored well on every Index domain, with the best outcomes score, the eighth best process score, and the fourth best legitimacy score. Singapore was the only country other than Australia in the top ten that had a capacity score in the top 50, and arguably the only country that performed extremely well across every single indicator and domain in the Index.

Singapore had one of the highest police force and armed services rates in the world, partly due to a compulsory national service program that requires all male citizens to perform two years of service in the armed forces, police force, or civil defence force upon turning 18. It is the seventh least corrupt country in the world according to the World Bank's *Control of Corruption* indicator, although bribe payments to the police were higher in Singapore than in any other country in

the top five of the Index. Eight per cent of respondents in Singapore admitted to paying a bribe to a police officer in the last year, compared to one per cent in Denmark and Finland, two per cent in Germany and four per cent in Austria.

Singapore had some of the lowest crime rates in the world, with a homicide rate of just 0.2 per 100,000 in 2012. Only one per cent of Gallup World Poll respondents in Singapore stated that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year, the equal lowest rate in the world, and 91 per cent of Singaporeans felt safe walking alone at night, which was also the highest rate of any country in the Index. Singapore has not had a recorded terrorist incident since 1998, which is the earliest year that comparable data is available for on the Global Terrorism Index. Unsurprisingly, such low crime rates correspond with a high level of trust in police. Ninety-three per cent of Singaporean respondents to the Gallup Word Poll reported that they

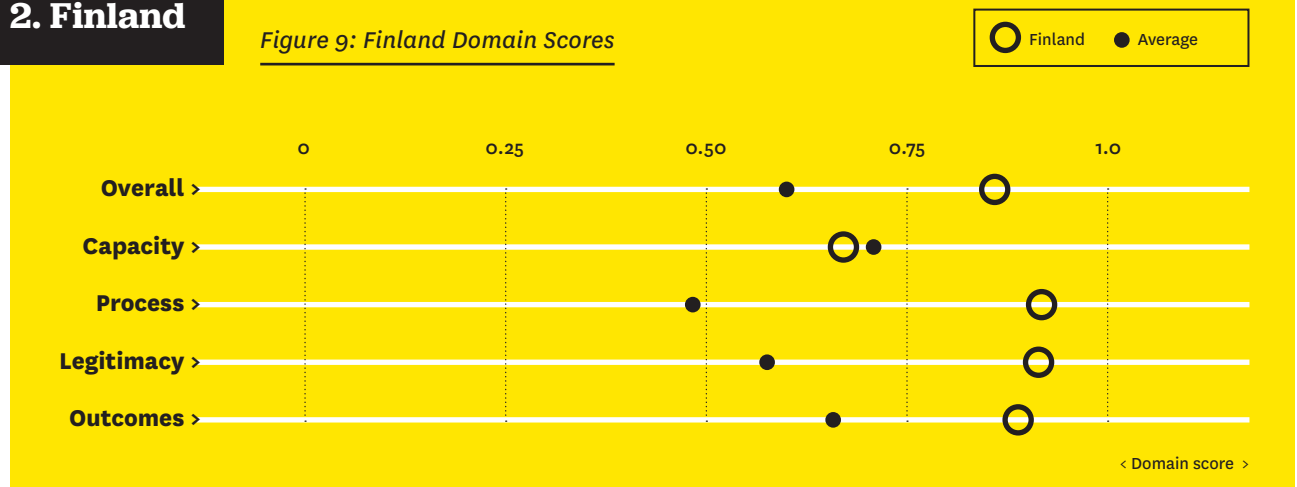
trust their local police force, the second highest rate of any country in the Index.

Internal security has been a special concern of the Singaporean government since its independence in 1965. Singapore suffered from race riots in 1964 (while still a state of Malaysia) in which 36 people died, with similar riots breaking out in 1969, leaving four dead. As such, keeping the peace between different ethnic groups was at the forefront of Singaporean governance in the 1960s. The Singaporean Internal Security Act allows for preventative detention, the banning of subversive documents, and the preservation of public security. Singapore still faces several strong internal security challenges, foremost of which is a shifting demographic structure and total fertility rate of 0.8, well below replacement levels.

“Eighty-five per cent of Finnish respondents to the *Gallup World Poll* reported that they have confidence in their local police, the tenth highest number in the world.

2. Finland

Figure 9: Finland Domain Scores



Finland, the second ranking country on the WISPI, was the highest ranked of the five Nordic countries. All five ranked in the top 15 of the Index, with an overall score of 0.863. Like the third ranked country Denmark, Finland had excellent scores on the process, legitimacy, and outcomes domains, but a below average score on the capacity domain. Finland scored the best of any country on the legitimacy domain with a score of 0.919, the second highest process domain score, and the ninth highest score on the outcomes domain.

Security provider capacity was below the Index average in Finland, owing to the small size of its police force. There were just 149 police officers per 100,000 people in Finland, which was one of the lowest police force rates of any country in the Index. The private security industry was also relatively small in Finland, although its military had more personnel than the Index average, with an armed

forces rate of 404 per 100,000 people, compared to the average of 384.

Finland performed particularly well on the legitimacy and process domains. It had the fifth lowest level of corruption, the best effectiveness indicator score, the equal third lowest level of bribe payments to the police, and the fifth lowest level of underreporting. Both citizens and experts have confidence in the police in Finland. Eighty-five per cent of Finnish respondents to the Gallup World Poll reported that they have confidence in their local police, the tenth highest number in the world, and the World Justice Project rated Finland as the second best country with regards to police and military officials not using their public office for private gain. State violence against citizens is virtually non-existent, with Finland having scored the lowest level on the Political Terror Scale since 1988.

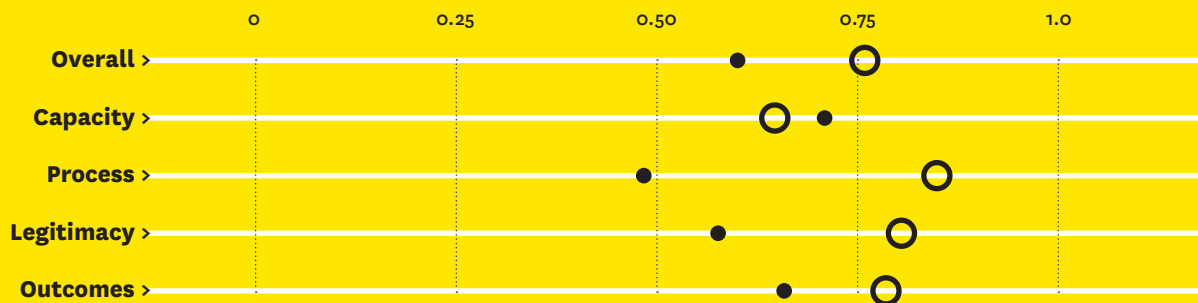
Violence and internal insecurity are rare in Finland. It has only had one recorded

instance of terrorism since 1998, although there was a mass shooting in a school in 2007, when a gunman at a high school in Jokela killed eight people and injured 13 others. Finland's homicide rate, while low by global standards, was noticeably higher than the rate in the other top five countries, with 1.6 homicides per 100,000 people in Finland, compared to 0.8 in Denmark and Germany, 0.9 in Austria, and 0.2 in Singapore. However, violent crime was very low in Finland, with just two per cent of respondents reporting that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year. Perceptions of safety were also very high in Finland, with 81 per cent of Finns reporting that they felt safe walking at night in their local neighbourhood or city.

Five best performing countries

3. Denmark

Figure 10: Denmark Domain Scores



Denmark ranked third on the WISPI, has a very similar score profile to its fellow Nordic country Finland with an overall score of 0.859. Denmark scored above average for three of the four Index domains, with the best process, the third best legitimacy, and the tenth best outcomes scores. However, Denmark had a lower than average capacity score of 0.667, which gives it a ranking of 88th on the capacity domain.

Denmark's below average capacity score was in a large part due to the size of its police force rate, which was one of the smallest in the world. Denmark had 192 police officers per 100,000 people, the second lowest rate of the top five countries in the Index, and the 105th highest police force rate in the entire Index. However, its armed forces rate was relatively high, with 301 armed service personnel per 100,000 people.

Denmark had the best process domain score of any country in the Index. It

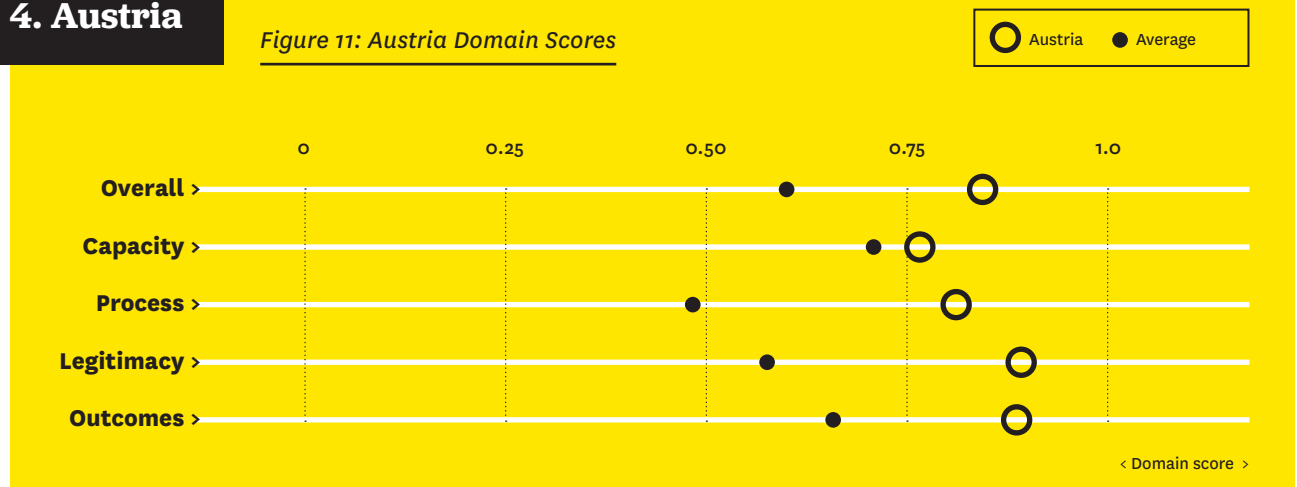
was ranked as having the lowest level of corruption in the world according to the World Bank's *Control of Corruption* indicator, and the third lowest level of bribes paid to the police according to Transparency International's *Global Corruption Barometer*. People in Denmark were also much more likely to report thefts to the police, with Denmark's underreporting rate being the third lowest in the world. Denmark's strength on the process domain was mirrored by its performance on the capacity domain, where it had the third best score of any country on the Index. Police and the military in Denmark were the least likely to abuse their public positions for private gain, according to the World Justice Project's *Rule of Law* Index, although this does not translate into high levels of confidence in the police. Seventy-seven per cent of Danish respondents reported that they trust their local police force, which although above average was only the 27th highest level on the Index.

Internal security outcomes are generally very good in Denmark, although the country has suffered from increasing fears about terrorism in recent years. In February 2015, two shootings by the same man in Copenhagen saw two people killed (along with the perpetrator), and five policeman wounded. Denmark had one of the lowest homicide rates in the world, with 0.8 homicides per 100,000 people in 2012. Violent crime was relatively higher, with four per cent of respondents reporting that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year. Eighty per cent of the Danish population felt safe walking alone at night in their city or neighbourhood, the 16th highest level in the world. This figure has remained steady in Denmark since 2006, the first year for which data is available.

“Denmark’s below average capacity score was in large part due to the size of its police force rate, which was one of the smallest in the world.

4. Austria

Figure 11: Austria Domain Scores



Austria had the fourth best overall score on the WISPI, with above average scores on all four of the Index domains. Austria has the 12th highest process score, the sixth highest legitimacy score, and the seventh highest outcomes score. Unlike Denmark and Finland, Austria had an above average capacity score, and ranked 58th on that domain.

Austria’s capacity score was the fourth highest of the ten best performing countries. It had a police force rate of 328 police officers per 100,000 people, second only to Singapore amongst the top five countries. However, its military was smaller than the Index average, with an armed forces rates of 270 per 100,000 people, lower than both Denmark and Finland. The size of its private security sector was also relatively small, with only Denmark having a lower private security personnel rate amongst the five best performing countries.

Austria’s process score was the lowest of any top five country, although still very high by global standards. The level of violence by the state against citizens was very low, although as recently as 2009 Austria scored a two on the Political Terror Scale, which corresponds to a limited amount of imprisonment for nonviolent political activity. Bribe payments to police were also relatively high in Austria, compared to other nations that perform well on the Index. Four per cent of Austrian respondents report that they paid a bribe to police officers in the last year. Corruption at a broader level was also an issue in Austria, which ranks 18th on the World Bank’s *Control of Corruption* indicator.

Austrian citizens reported high levels of confidence in law enforcement officials, with 86 per cent being confident about their local police force. This confidence in police was backed up by strong security provider respect for the due process of

law and the rights of the accused, on which Austria ranked fifth amongst all countries in the Index.

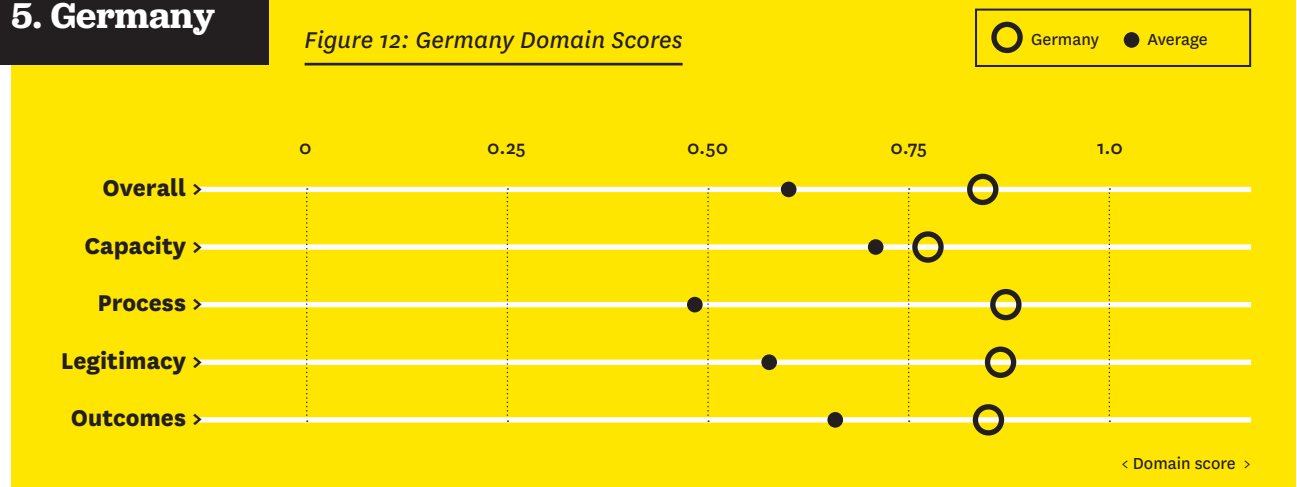
Crime and other internal security disruptions were limited in Austria. The country’s homicide rate of 0.9 per 100,000 people was one of the lowest in the world, and 81 per cent of Austrians felt safe walking in their city or neighbourhood at night. Only three percent of Austrian respondents reported that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year, compared to the Index average of seven per cent. However, there have been some terrorist incidents in Austria over the past five years. Three people have been killed in terrorist attacks between 2009 and 2014, with security officials raising concerns that Austria’s geographical location makes it a hub for European Islamic State recruits seeking passage to Syria or Iraq.

Five best performing countries

“ Germany’s score on the outcomes domain reflects the many internal security challenges that the country faces.

5. Germany

Figure 12: Germany Domain Scores



Germany was the fifth best performing country on the WISPI, and the only country with a population greater than ten million to be ranked in the top ten, and along with Japan, one of only two countries with a population greater than 50 million to be ranked in the top 20. Germany scored above average across all four Index domains, but did particularly well on the process domain, where it ranked sixth. However, Germany had the worst outcomes score of any country in the top five, and owing to its size, location, and economic strength, is facing a number of potential internal security challenges. Whilst Germany’s armed forces and private security force rates were below the Index average, it had a relatively high number of police officers compared to other high performing countries, with a rate of 295 police per 100,000 people. However, this rate was still below the Index average of 347, and below the European average of 339.

Germany had a higher process score than both Austria and Singapore, although it was still well below Denmark and Finland. Germany had the least effective police and judicial system of any top five country, as measured by the World Justice Project’s *Rule of Law* Index. However, bribe payments to the police are very rare, with only two per cent of respondents reporting that they had paid a bribe to the police in the last year. Germans were also much more likely to report crime to the police, with Germany having the fourth lowest underreporting rate of any country in the Index. On the legitimacy domain, Germany scored well across all four. It had very low levels of political terror, low corruption in the military and armed forces, and a strong due process score. Confidence in the security forces was also high, with 82 per cent of Germans feeling confident about their local police.

Germany’s score on the outcomes domain reflects the many internal security

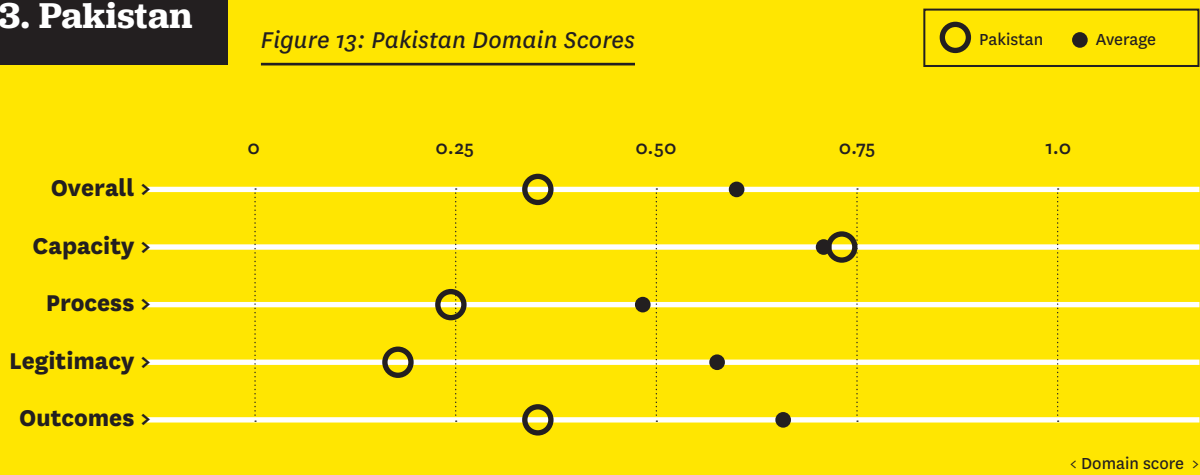
challenges that the country faces. Its homicide rate of 0.8 per 100,000 people was very low, well below the global average and less than half of the European average. However, the level of violent crime was equal to the European average, with four per cent of Germans reporting that they had been mugged or assaulted in the last year. This level of violent crime was reflected in public perceptions of safety, with 25 per cent of Germans not feeling safe at night whilst walking in their local neighbourhood or city. Terrorism is also a growing concern, with 12 recorded terrorist attacks in Germany in 2014 (albeit with no fatalities), seven recorded attacks in 2011, and four in 2012.

Five worst performing countries

Countries with insufficient data are excluded from the Index, as are countries currently embroiled in a sustained civil conflict, so the following five countries may not have the worst internal security situation globally. Rather, they had the weakest potential response to further outbreaks of internal disruption, and are thus more likely than other countries to fall into internal conflict.

123. Pakistan

Figure 13: Pakistan Domain Scores



Pakistan was the fifth worst performing country on the WISPI, with an overall score of 0.349. Pakistan is the only country in the bottom five not from the sub-Saharan Africa region. It had worse than average scores on three of the four Index domains, but had an above average score on the capacity domain. Pakistan ranks last out of all the countries on the Index on the legitimacy domain, and was ranked in the bottom ten countries for internal security outcomes.

Pakistan's police force and armed service personnel rates were slightly below the Index average, while its level of private security was well above the Index average. However, its prison occupancy rate sits at 177 per cent, well above the Index average of 133 per cent.

Pakistan performed poorly on the process and legitimacy domains. Sixty-five percent of Pakistani respondents to the *Global Corruption Barometer* reported paying a bribe to the police in the last year.

Unsurprisingly, confidence in the police was low, with just 34 per cent of Pakistanis indicating that they have confidence in their local police. Pakistan had the worst possible score of five on the political terror scale, indicating that state terror has expanded to the entire population. This reflects a regression of state behaviour over the past 30 years, as Pakistan had a score of three for much of the 1980s. Underreporting of crime was endemic, with just 0.32 per cent of thefts being reported to the police.

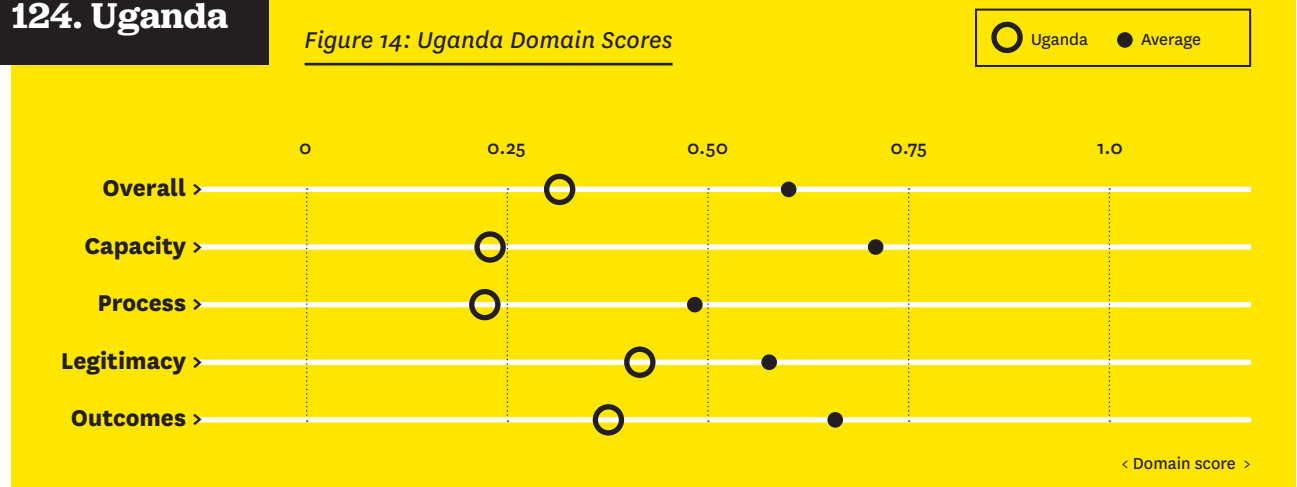
Instability arising from internal security issues is a serious concern for the Pakistani Government. Pakistan had one of the highest levels of terrorist activity in the world, with almost 9000 people being killed in terrorist attacks over the last five years, in over 6800 incidents of terrorism. In the last 15 years, terrorism has spilled over from neighbouring countries into Pakistan. Ninety-seven people died from terrorist attacks in Pakistan in the year

2004, a number that had risen to 2356 in 2013. Fear of terrorism was reflected in perceptions of safety amongst citizens. 50 per cent of Pakistani respondents to the Gallup World Poll stated that they did not feel safe walking at night in their own neighbourhoods and cities, with ten per cent of respondents saying that they had been mugged or assaulted in the last year.

Five worst performing countries

124. Uganda

Figure 14: Uganda Domain Scores



Uganda was the fourth worst performing country on the WISPI, with a score of 0.312. The average score across all countries was 0.6, and 0.436 in sub-Saharan Africa. Uganda scored poorly across all four Index domains, with a particularly low score on the capacity and outcomes domains. Uganda's capacity score of 0.224 was the second lowest in the Index, behind only Kenya, and both its process and outcomes scores are ranked in the bottom ten.

Uganda had a relatively small police force for its size, with a police officer rate of 110 per 100,000 people. This was a lower police force rate than most developed, full democracies, which typically have smaller police forces. Uganda also had a relatively small military, with 116 armed service personnel per 100,000 people, which was smaller than the Index average of 120. Uganda's prisons were also badly overcrowded with a 255 per cent occupancy rate according to the World Prison Population Project.

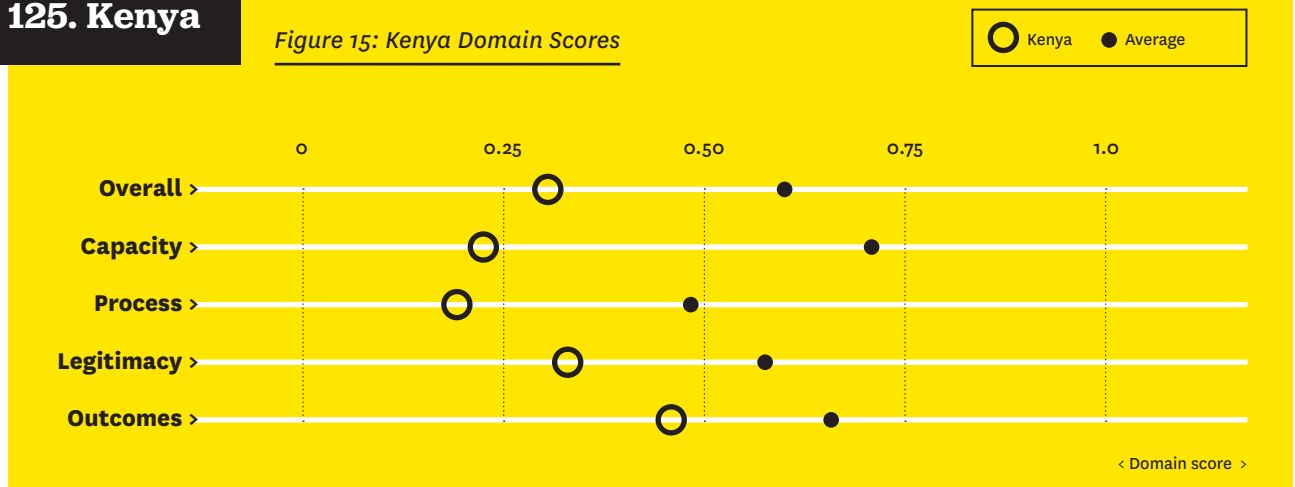
Corruption is widespread in Uganda. It scored poorly on the World Bank's *Control of Corruption* indicator, and 69 per cent of Ugandans admitted to paying a bribe to a police officer in the last year. Less than one per cent of incidents of theft were reported to the police. However, trust in police was relatively high for a country that scores so poorly on the Index, with 67 per cent of Ugandans saying that they have confidence in their local police force, which was above the Index average. Despite this trust in police, the World Justice Project's *Rule of Law* index rates Uganda very poorly on the *public use, private gain* indicator, which suggests that police and military officials in Uganda abuse their positions for private gain. Uganda had the best Political Terror Scale score of the five worst performing countries, a score that has improved by two points over the last 30 years.

Despite public confidence in the police, crime in Uganda was high. It had the 28th highest homicide rate in the Index, and the 11th highest level of violent crime. Seventeen per cent of Ugandan respondents to the Gallup World Poll said that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year. While Terrorism in Uganda was nowhere near as high as in Kenya, Pakistan, or Nigeria, there have still been several terrorist attacks in the last five years. There were six terrorist incidents in Uganda in 2014, in which 98 people lost their lives.

“ Political terror is on the rise in Kenya, as shown by its increase in *Political Terror Scale* score from 2 in 1989 to 4 in 2013.

125. Kenya

Figure 15: Kenya Domain Scores



Kenya was the third worst performing country on the WISPI, and one of six sub-Saharan countries to be ranked in the bottom ten countries. Kenya scored poorly across all four of the Index domains, but particularly poorly on the capacity and process domains, where it ranked last and third last, respectively. Kenya had a slightly better outcome score of 0.456, the highest of any country in the bottom five.

Kenya had a relatively small police force, with 99 police officers per 100,000 people, compared to the Index average of 347 and the sub-Saharan Africa average of 268. It also had a small private security industry, with 136 private security employees per 100,000 people, which was less than half of the Index average of 330. Kenya had one of the smallest militaries on a per capita basis, with only 53 armed forces personnel per 100,000 people. The size of Kenya's army has fallen dramatically over the last 20 years, as the rate was 106 in 1995.

Kenya performed poorly on both the process and legitimacy domains. Seventy-seven per cent of Kenyans reported paying bribes to the police, and only 0.11 per cent of instances of theft are reported to the police. In spite of these facts, confidence in the police at the local level remains relatively high, with 58 per cent of Kenyans expressing confidence in their local police. Corruption was high in Kenya, with the World Bank's *Control of Corruption* indicator ranking Kenya 115th for general government corruption. Political terror has also been increasing in Kenya, as shown by its increase in Political Terror Scale score from two in 1989 to four in 2013.

Despite performing poorly on the process and legitimacy domains, Kenya had a relatively good outcomes score, with Kenya having the best outcomes rank of any country in the bottom five. Kenya's homicide rate of 6.4 per 100,000 people was lower than the Index average of 8.05, and well below the sub-Saharan Africa

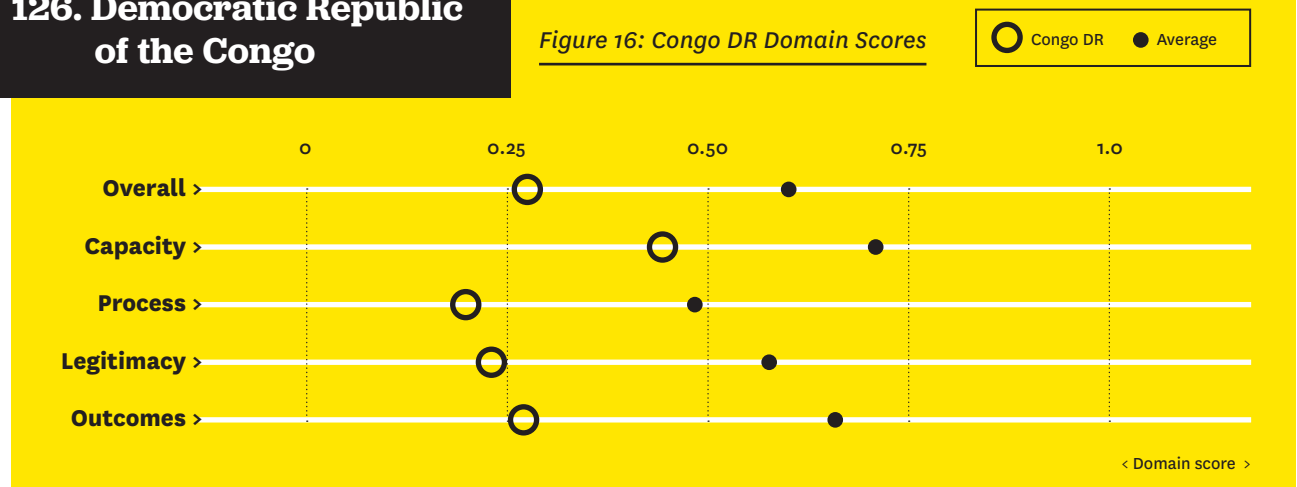
average of 11.53. Ten per cent of Kenyans reported being victims of an assault or mugging, far lower than the figure of 16 per cent in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and 19 per cent in Nigeria. 50-two per cent of Kenyans felt safe walking at night in their neighbourhoods or cities. However, Kenya has suffered from an increasing number of terrorist attacks in the last five years. In 2014, 291 people were killed in terrorist attacks, up from 19 in 2010.

Five worst performing countries

“ Only 30 per cent of Democratic Republic of the Congo’s population felt safe walking alone at night in their neighbourhood or city.

126. Democratic Republic of the Congo

Figure 16: Congo DR Domain Scores



The Democratic Republic of the Congo (henceforth Congo DR) suffers from a lack of available data on internal security issues. Congo DR scored 0.272, but it does have imputed data for six of the 16 WISPI indicators, and in theory could have an Index score as high as 0.50 or as low as 0.16. However, given its other indicator scores and similarity to other countries, it is likely that Congo DR’s score is very close to its imputed score of 0.272. The country scored poorly across all four domains, but particularly poorly on both legitimacy and outcomes.

Congo DR had one of the smallest police force rates of any country in the Index, with approximately 100 officers per 100,000 people. By comparison, the Index median rate was 300, and the sub-Saharan Africa average was 268. Congo DR had an armed forces rate larger than its regional average, with 193 armed services personnel per 100,000, versus 115 for sub-Saharan Africa on average. The size of Congo DR’s military

has fluctuated significantly over the past 30 years, ranging from a high of 262 in 2009 to a low of 98 in 1994.

Corruption remains a problem in Congo DR, particularly in the police force. It had the fourth worst score on the World Bank’s *Control of Corruption* indicator, and 78 per cent of respondents to the *Global Corruption Barometer* survey indicated that they had paid a bribe to the police in the last year. Confidence in the police was below the Index average. Only 46 per cent of the population in Congo DR have confidence in their local police. Congo DR scored five on the Political Terror Scale in 2014 having been a consistent poor performer on this indicator, scoring a five every year from 1996 onwards.

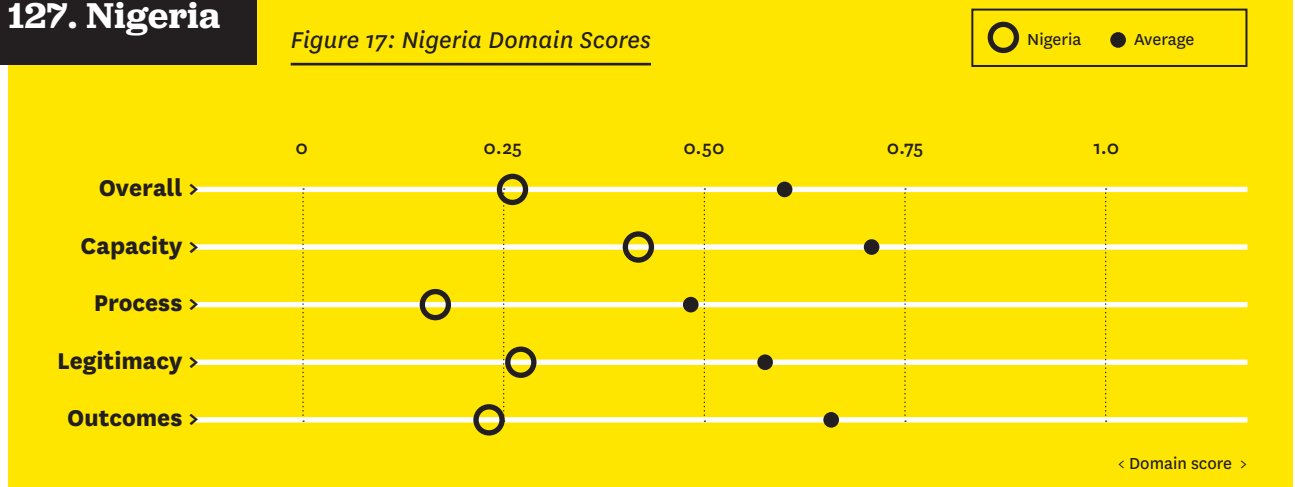
Congo DR suffers from some of the worst violence of any country in the Index. Only 30 per cent of the population felt safe walking alone at night in their neighbourhood or city, the second lowest percentage, and less than half of the Index

average of 61 per cent. The homicide rate of 28.30 per 100,000 people was also well above the global average 8.05, and one of the highest homicide rates outside of South America or Central America and the Caribbean countries that are plagued by drug-trade related violence. Sixteen per cent of respondents to the Gallup World Poll stated that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year. There has also been a resurgence of terrorist activity in the last year, with 96 incidents and 343 deaths from terrorism in 2014.

“Nigeria was the worst performing country on the WISPI, with a score of 0.255.

127. Nigeria

Figure 17: Nigeria Domain Scores



Nigeria was the worst performing country on the WISPI, with a score of 0.255. Nigeria scored poorly across all four domains, and had the worst score of any country in the Index on the process and outcomes domains. All of its domain scores were in the bottom ten countries.

Nigeria had an average sized police force, and a relatively small military and private security sector. There are 219 police officers for every 100,000 Nigerians, well below both the Index median of 300, and the sub-Saharan Africa region average of 268. There were an additional 71 private security workers per 100,000 people, which was one of the five lowest private security sector rates. However, while Nigeria's prison occupancy rate was about 100 per cent, it was still below the Index average of 133 per cent, and significantly lower than the regional average of 168 per cent.

Police and judicial system effectiveness is a serious issue in Nigeria. General

corruption was high, according to the *Control of Corruption* indicator, and 81 per cent of Nigerian respondents to the *Global Corruption Barometer* admitted to paying a bribe to a police officer in the last year. Only 0.06 per cent of thefts were reported to police. Unsurprisingly, the *Rule of Law* index found that military and police officials are likely to use their public positions for private gain. High levels of political terror have been an issue for Nigeria since 1993, with the country scoring a 4 on the Political Terror Scale every year since then.

Internal conflict in Nigeria has skyrocketed in the past decade, with a particularly noticeable increase in terrorism. Over 12,000 people have been killed in terrorist attacks since 2006, of which 7,512 occurred in 2014 alone. The terrorist group Boko Haram have been responsible for most of the attacks, but Fulani militants have also been responsible for hundreds of deaths in attacks against farms and

villages. Nigeria had an estimated homicide rate of 20 per 100,000 people, well above the Index average, and 19 per cent of Nigerian respondents to the Gallup World Poll stated that they had been assaulted or mugged in the last year.

Trends in Internal Security and Policing

The post-World War II era has brought about much greater efforts to reduce violent conflict between nations, and a subsequent focus on international organisations that seek to foster understanding, cooperation, and diplomacy between nations. This increased focus on diplomacy, coupled with the increases in destructive power brought about by advances in military technology, have made direct confrontations between nations less likely, particularly between the great powers. However, whilst violent conflicts between nations have become less common over the past 50 years, internal conflicts have become increasingly common.

Proxy conflicts within nations were a frequent occurrence during the Cold War, and whilst the number of internal conflicts has dropped slightly over the past 20 years, there were still an estimated 106 active internal conflicts in 2013. Of these 106 conflicts, 24 were classified as civil wars, with the rest being a mix of one sided conflicts, civil wars with some international actors, and conflicts between different non-state parties within a country. By contrast, there were no interstate conflicts in 2013 according to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program conflict dataset.

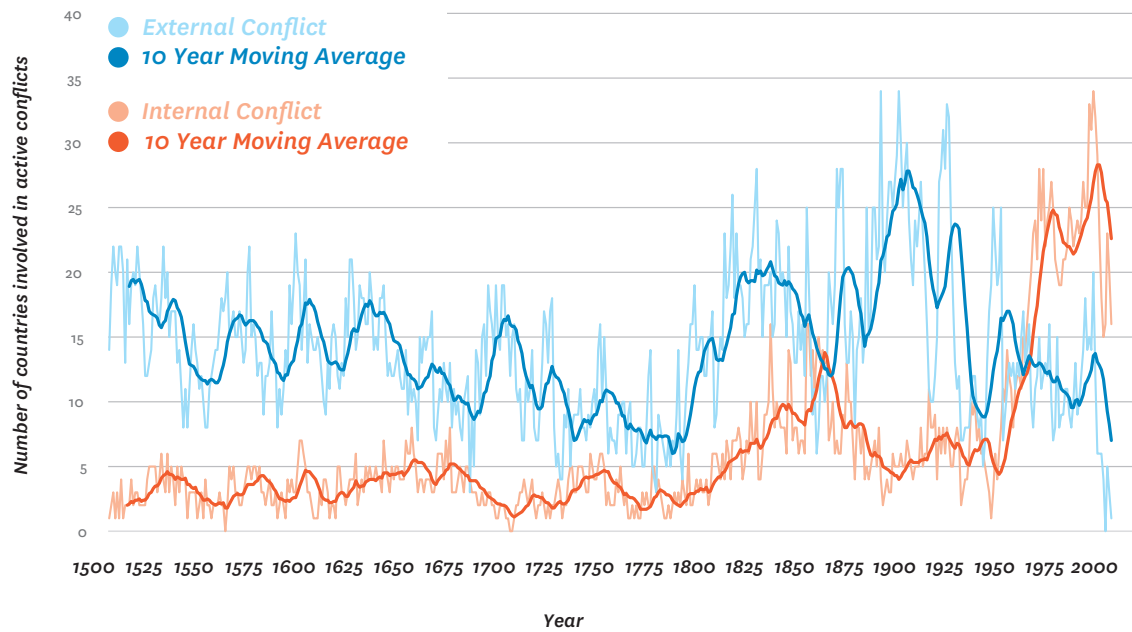
Figure 18 shows the number of countries involved in internal and external conflicts, going back 500 years. In the year 1500, there were an estimated 14 countries involved in an external conflict, with only one country involved in an internal conflict. The number of both internal and external conflicts began to increase sharply after 1775, however, it was not until the second half of the 20th century that the number of countries involved in internal violent conflicts clearly overtook the number

of countries involved in external violent conflicts. This long term trend clearly illustrates the shift from violence between nations, to violence within nations.

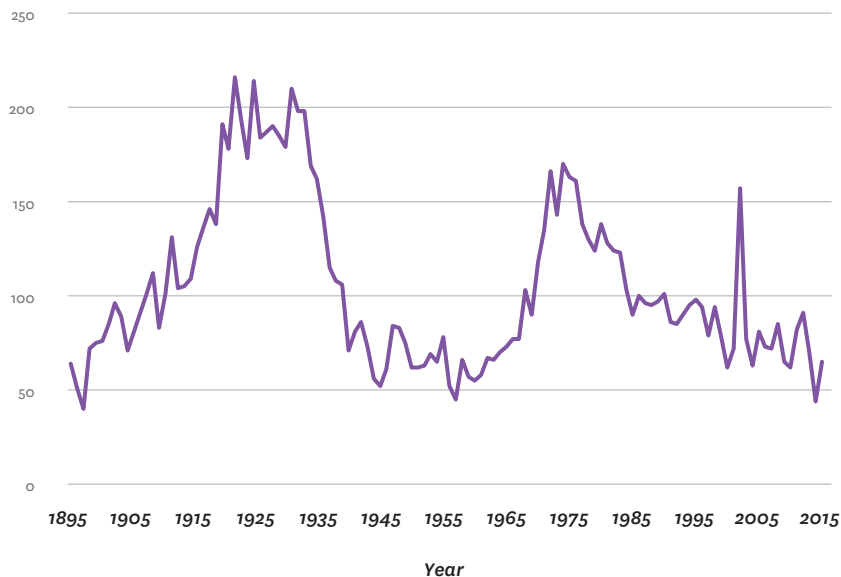
As the number of internal armed conflicts began to increase in the late 18th century, the modern understanding of the need for and functions of a police force began to coalesce. The use of private security agents or intelligence agents as a defacto secret police in the Hapsburg Empire made the public in other countries wary of the very concept of a police force. The nine Peelian Principles, drafted by the statesman Sir Robert Peel, were put in place to assuage the fears of Londoners about a police force upon the establishment of the Metropolitan Police in 1829. The Peelian Principles explicitly state that the purpose of the police is to prevent crime and disorder, in lieu of internal military action. Many of the other principals touch on the themes of effectiveness, legitimacy and good outcomes.

Figure 18: Countries Involved in Internal and External Conflicts (1500-2000)

In the last 50 years, the number of countries involved in internal conflict has overtaken the number of countries involved in external conflicts.

**Figure 19: US Police Officers Killed in the Line of Duty, 1895-2015**

Intentional violent deaths only, excludes accidental deaths.



The data that is available on the number of police deaths shows that while internal security has become a more pressing issue in many countries, policing has not become more or less risky. Figure 19 shows violent police deaths in the United States from 1895 to 2015. Police officer violent deaths peaked in the late 1920s and early 30s, before falling sharply during the Great Depression and Second World War. They remained low until the 1960s, when homicide and violent crime began to rise sharply, leading to a huge rise in the number of police officers killed. At the peak of this trend in 1973, 170 police officers were deliberately killed in the line of duty. However, this trend began to decline shortly after, falling for almost 30 years in a row. In 2014, 65 officers were deliberately killed in the line of duty. Data from the United Kingdom shows a similar trend with officer deaths peaking in the early 1980s, before falling sharply. Twenty police officers have been killed in the United Kingdom since 2006, far fewer than the 50 killed in the most dangerous period between 1975 and 1984.

“ The issue of internal security, particularly its process and legitimacy aspects, became more and more pressing for many countries as a result of the great wave of democratisation and liberalisation that occurred after the end of World War II.

The issue of internal security, particularly its process and legitimacy aspects, became more and more pressing for many countries as a result of the great wave of democratisation and liberalisation that occurred after the end of the Second World War, and again after the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989. Figure 20 shows the shifting composition of the Freedom House *Freedom in the World* report. Since 1973, Freedom House has been classifying

countries as either free, partially free, or not free, based on a seven point scale that measures political rights and civil liberties.

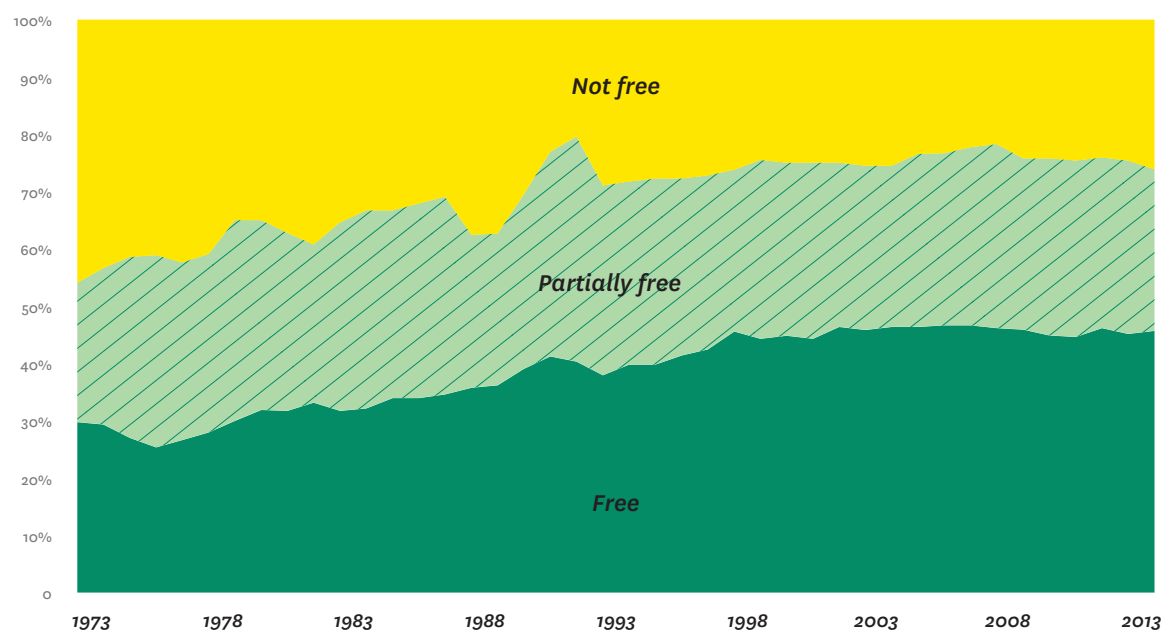
The *Freedom in the World* data shows a large increase in the number of countries classified as free from 1973 to 1998, however, since then there has been virtually no change in the percentage of classified free, partially free, or not free. This is consistent with another Freedom House dataset, which looks

at the number of countries which are electoral democracies. In 1989, 41 per cent of assessed countries were classed as electoral democracies, a number which had increased to 63 per cent when the 2015 data was released. However, there has been virtually no change in the percentage of electoral democracies since 1995. The trend of increasing liberalisation and democratisation that began after the end of World War II has not only slowed down, but seemingly stopped entirely.

Figure 20: Percentage of Countries by Freedom Rating, Freedom House (1973-2014)

After increasing steadily from 1973 to 1998, the percentage of countries ranked as free has barely changed in the last 15 years.

(Percentage of Countries)



Of the four WISPI domains, capacity is the least strongly correlated to the overall Index score ($r=0.61$), as shown in Figure 21. However, there is a close correlation between capacity and overall score for every government type other than full democracies.

Table 03: Five Best and Worst Performing Countries, Capacity

Country	Capacity	
↑ Five best performing countries, capacity		
Bahrain	0.996	1
Bulgaria	0.985	2
Russia	0.984	3
Belarus	0.975	4
Algeria	0.968	5
↓ Five worst performing countries, capacity		
Madagascar	0.321	123
Malawi	0.282	124
Bangladesh	0.244	125
Uganda	0.224	126
Kenya	0.214	127

Figure 21: Overall Score vs Capacity ($r=0.61$)



In fact, if Costa Rica is excluded from the set of full democracies, there is actually a negative correlation between capacity and overall Index score amongst this government type. When viewed as a single set of 127 countries, it appears that as capacity increases, the overall Index score increases up until a certain point. Beyond this point, excess capacity has no or even a negative impact on a country's overall score. This suggests that a certain baseline level of police capacity is necessary to achieve good processes, to be seen as legitimate, and to achieve good internal security outcomes. Beyond this baseline, however, excess capacity is detrimental to progress in the other three domains.

This dynamic can be seen when looking at the countries with the best capacity scores, none of which are full democracies, as shown in Table 3. Of the countries with the worst capacity scores, four are from sub-Saharan Africa, including Kenya and Nigeria, both of which are ranked in the bottom five countries overall.

Police

The police rate is the most heavily weighted indicator of the capacity domain, and theoretically the most important aspect of internal security capacity. Whilst the actual impact of increasing police numbers on crime is disputed, there is no argument in the criminology and internal security literature that the primary function of the police is crime prevention and supporting state security and stability.

Figure 22 shows the combined average police force, armed forces, and private security rates per 100,000 people, by both government type and region. There is far less variation across the four government types than there is regionally.

Looking just at government types, full democracies had the lowest overall rate, and the lowest rates for all three categories. The size of the armed forces does not differ greatly between government types, although flawed

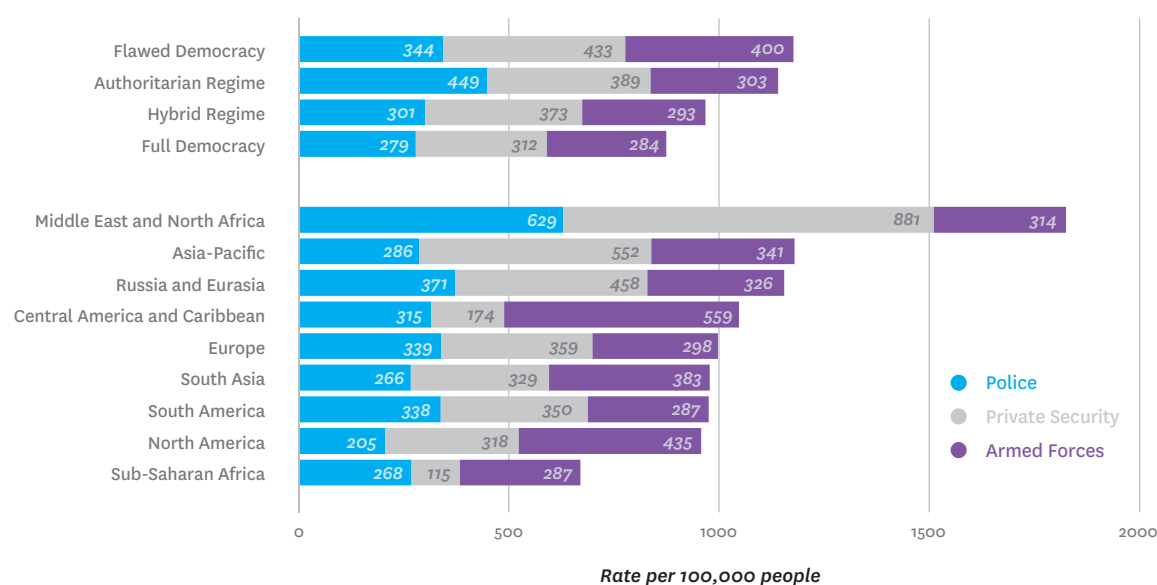
democracies had the largest armed forces rates on average. There is a significant difference between police force sizes across government types, with authoritarian regimes having an average police force rate that is 60 per cent higher than full democracies.

There is a significant difference between total security service provider rates at the regional level. MENA had by far the largest average police force rate, with 629 police officers per 100,000 people. This average is skewed by a number of smaller Gulf States that had particularly high police force rates, most noticeably Bahrain, which had almost 2,000 police officers per 100,000 people. However, even if the median regional rate is used rather than the average, MENA still has a far higher median rate than any other region.

In contrast, to the MENA region, sub-Saharan Africa had a security force provider rate that is noticeably lower than any other region. On average there are just over 500 security force providers in sub-Saharan Africa per 100,000

Figure 22: Police, Armed Forces and Private Security by Region and Government Type

Whilst there is little difference in security force provider rates by government type, there are much bigger differences regionally.



people, compared to nearly 2000 security force providers per 100,000 people in the MENA region. Despite this large discrepancy, both regions have the highest percentage of authoritarian regimes. Eighty-five per cent of MENA nations, and 41 per cent of sub-Saharan African countries are classified as Authoritarian regimes. Together, these two regions account for 75 per cent of all authoritarian regimes.

Comparable data showing changes in police force rates over time is only sporadically available, although a select cluster of countries do have data that goes back a century or more. Data taken from the *Handbook of the World's Police*, published in 1987, does provide an estimate of the size of police forces across the world 30 years ago, and how the size of those police forces has increased or decreased. The handbook has police force estimates for 101 of the 127 countries in the WISPI. Of these 101 countries, 25 saw a fall in the size of their police force rate from the early 1980s to 2012, with

increases in 76 countries. The median decrease was 18 per cent, far smaller than the median increase of 59 per cent.

Since the 1980s, countries have increasingly invested more resources in police forces. Figure 23 shows the change in police force rates in the top and bottom ten ranked countries on the WISPI.

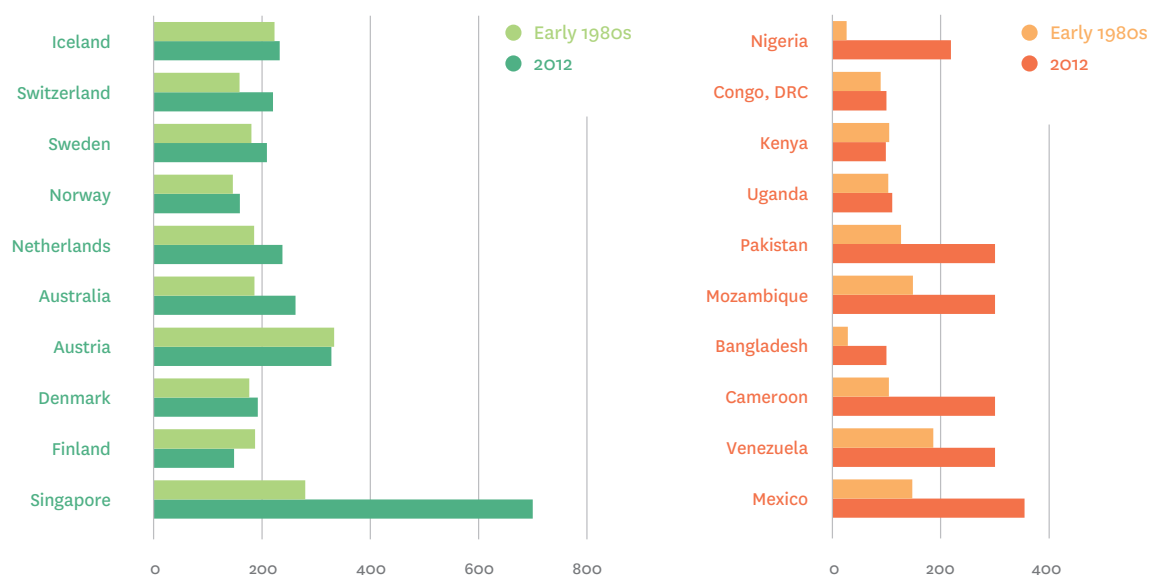
Estimates from the *Handbook of the World's Police* are taken from a range of years in the early 1980s, with 2012 data taken from the UNODC Crime Trends Survey. Almost every single country in the top and bottom ten saw an increase in their police force rate over approximately 30 years. Only Austria and Finland in the top ten, and Kenya in the bottom ten saw decreases in their police force rates. Both the best and worst ranked countries had large increases, with Singapore increasing its rate from 280 to 700, and Nigeria increasing its rate from just 26 police per 100,000 people, to 218. Overall the largest percentage changes occurred in those countries ranked in the bottom

ten. Mexico, Venezuela, Cameroon, Bangladesh, Nigeria, and Singapore all at least doubled the size of their police force rates over the past 30 years.

Tracking trends in the resources allocated to the police and criminal justice system is more difficult, as there is very limited data readily available. However, the data that is available suggests that the level of police and criminal justice system spending has increased greatly over the last 50 years. Figures 24 and 25 show the changes in police spending per capita in Australia and the US respectively. In Australia, the number of police officers per 100,000 people increased by 31 per cent between 1901 and 1978, with most of this increase coming in the period after 1960. This increase in police numbers is consistent with the global trend that saw the number of police officers rise in most countries over the last 50 years. Furthermore, the change in spending on police is even more striking, rising from eight dollars per capita (measured in

Figure 23: Increase in Police Force Rate, Top and Bottom Ten WISPI Countries (early 1980s to 2012)

Police force rates have increased in the majority of countries in the last 30 years.



constant price 1978 Australian dollars), to 27 dollars in 1978, a more than threefold increase. While data is not available from 1978 onwards, it is likely that this trend has continued over the past 30 years.

The data in the United States tells a similar story. In 1900, the combined local, state, and federal government system in the US spent 12 dollars per person on the police, and four dollars per person on the prison system (measured in 2009 constant US dollars). The level of both police and prison system spending exploded from around 1955 onwards, rising almost every for a 60 year period. By 2020, it is projected that the US will be spending 401 dollars per capita on police services, and 248 dollars per capita on the prison system, a 3,200 per cent and 6,100 per cent increase, respectively.

This increase in police and prison system spending is not just a product of increased economic growth over this period. To compare, from 1961 to 2015, GDP per capita in the US (in constant 2005 USD)

increased 191 per cent. Over the same time period, police spending rose by 484 per cent, and prison system spending by 1000 per cent, meaning that the increase in police and prison system spending is not just a product of increased economic growth over this period.

Whilst extrapolating a global trend from data for two countries is not possible, given the similarities between government type, economic growth, and political developments in Australia, the US, and many other countries globally, it seems likely that the trend of increased police numbers and police spending has occurred across Western Europe and most full democracies over the last 50 years. As internal security has become a more prominent concern than external security, more capital and labor has been devoted to government security services, with a parallel rise in the private security industry.

Armed Forces

The upward trend in police numbers and spending contrasts sharply with a

downward trend in the size of armed forces across many countries around the world. However, this downward shift in personnel has not been matched with an equivalent decrease in military spending. Most of the major military powers have increased military spending as a percentage of GDP while cutting personnel, reflecting a shift away from a traditional focus on infantry to an increased reliance on a more specialized, technologically advanced military.

Figure 26 shows the global trend in total armed forces personnel, as well as the increase in military expenditure globally, for the period 1995 to 2012 (comparable data was not available for years before 1995). Figure 26 also shows the same comparison for the four countries with the largest armed forces rates: the US, China, India, and Russia.

Globally, the number of armed services personnel fell significantly from 1995 to 2005, dropping from over 30 million to 27 million. This number then increased from 2005 to 2012, moving back up

Figure 24: Police Officers and Police Spending in Australia (1901-1978) Spending in 1978 AUD, police officers is the rate per 100,000 people.

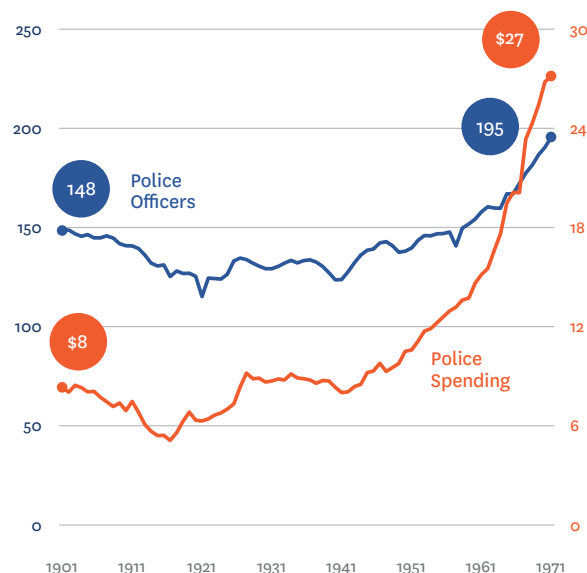


Figure 25: United States Government Spending per Capita on Police Services and Prisons (1900-2020) 2009 USD, federal, state and local spending

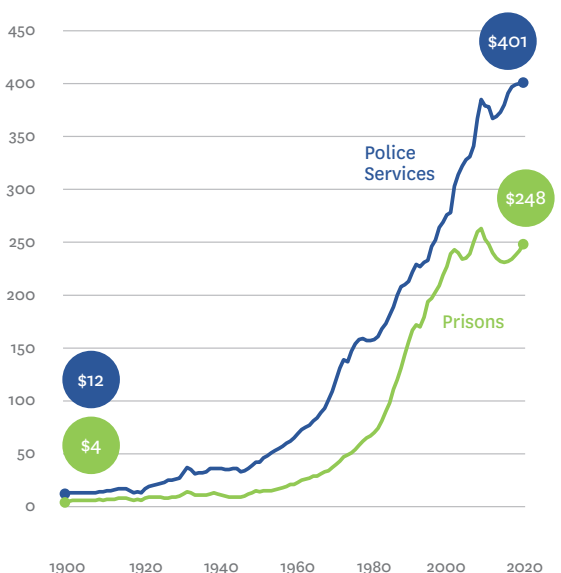
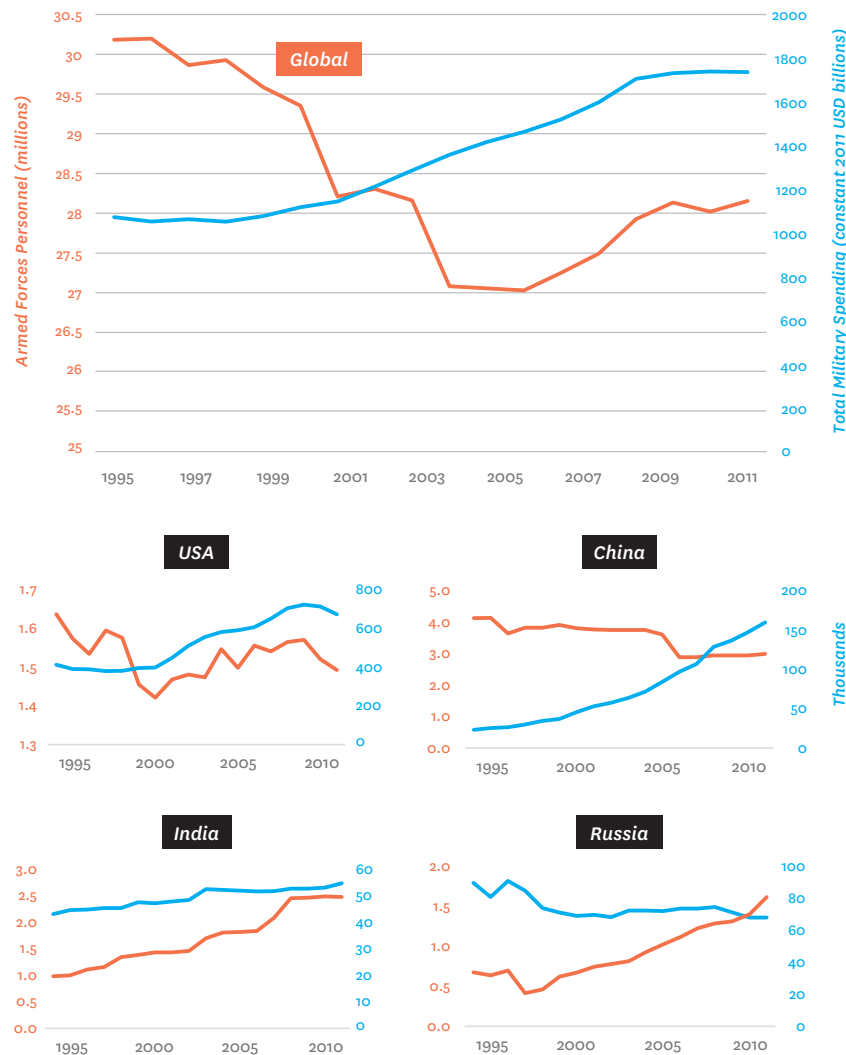


Figure 26: Military Spending and Armed Services Personnel (1995-2012)
— Global, USA, India, China, Russia.

As military spending has increased, the number of military personnel has declined globally.



“Globally, the number of armed services personnel fell significantly from 1995 to 2005.

to 28 million, although it is still 6.7 per cent lower than in 1995. Over the same time period, global military expenditure increased steadily, moving from just over one trillion dollars (measured in constant 2011 USD) to around 1.7 trillion dollars,

a 62 per cent increase. This pattern of decreasing numbers of armed service personnel but increasing military spending was echoed in Russia, China, and the US. China had both the largest percentage increase in spending and the largest fall in

the size of its military (a 592 per cent increase and 28 per cent decrease respectively). Only India had both an increase in the number of armed service personnel and an increase in total military spending, with a 152 per cent increase in military expenditure, and a 27 per cent increase in members of the armed forces.

Of the 127 countries in the WISPI, only 25 saw increases in the size of their armed forces rates from 1995 to 2012. The end of the Cold War saw many European countries drastically decrease the size of their armed forces. Sweden’s armed forces personnel rate fell 85 per cent from 1995 to 2012, with similarly large falls in Serbia (81 per cent), Slovakia (69 per cent), Austria (61 per cent), and the Netherlands (48 per cent).

Prison Capacity and Private Security

Unfortunately, reliable trend data for prison occupancy rates and private security employment is not available, and collection is too sporadic to make trend series analysis likely in the future. Incarceration rates have varied significantly over the last 20 years, with huge increases in the United States (although that trend has begun to slow and even reverse course), and smaller increases and decreases across most regions and government types. Collecting private security employment data and making data comparable across countries is challenging. However, given the increased emphasis on private security, strong economic growth globally since World War II, and the size of the private security industry today (private security companies are some of the largest employers globally), it is likely that the last 30 years saw enormous growth in the private security market.

Results and Trends by Domain:

Process and Legitimacy

Both the process and legitimacy domains correlate strongly with the overall Index score ($r=0.9$ and $r=0.92$ respectively). The strength of the correlation is consistent across all four government types for both domains. European countries make up all of the top five process best performers, and four of the five legitimacy best performers. The Nordic countries are well represented on both domains, with Denmark having the best overall process score, and Finland having the best overall legitimacy score.

Table 04: Five Best and Worst Performing Countries, Process

	Country	Process	
↑	Five best performing countries		
	Denmark	0.948 1	
	Finland	0.922 2	
	Sweden	0.920 3	
	Norway	0.908 4	
	Netherlands	0.898 5	
↓	Five worst performing countries		
	Cameroon	0.195 123	
	Venezuela	0.191 124	
	Kenya	0.180 125	
	Sierra Leone	0.179 126	
	Nigeria	0.156 127	

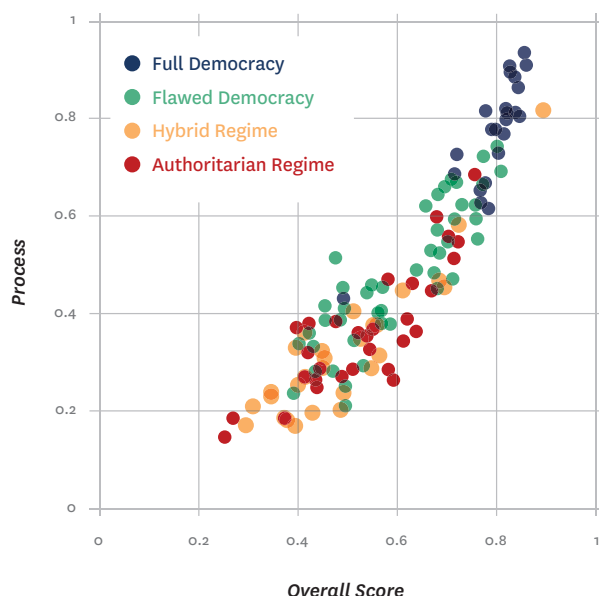
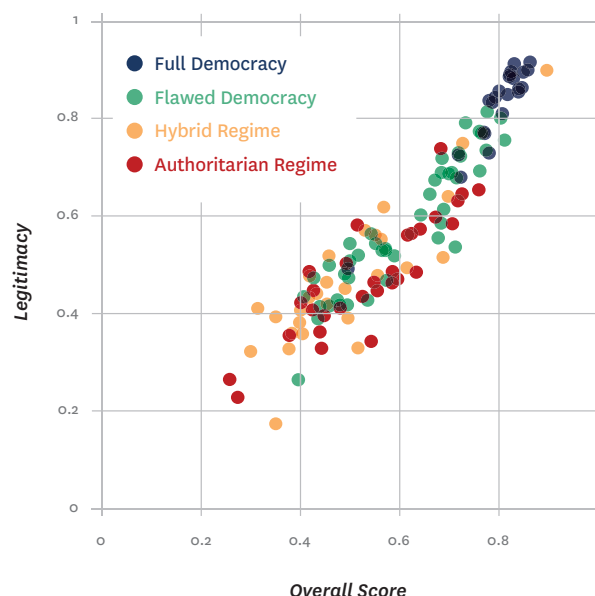
Table 05: Five Best and Worst Performing Countries, Legitimacy

	Country	Legitimacy	
	Five best performing countries		
	Finland	0.919 1	
	Norway	0.916 2	
	Denmark	0.903 3	
	Singapore	0.904 4	
	Switzerland	0.900 5	
	Five worst performing countries		
	Kenya	0.322 123	
	Nigeria	0.264 124	
	Mexico	0.264 125	
	Congo, DRC	0.227 126	
	Pakistan	0.173 127	

Of the bottom five countries on the process domain, four are from sub-Saharan Africa, two of which (Nigeria and Kenya) are also ranked in the bottom five countries of the Index as a whole. Both Nigeria and Kenya are ranked among the bottom five countries on the legitimacy domain as well, alongside the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Pakistan.

Finding trend data for the process and legitimacy domains is tricky, as many of

the surveys and other instruments set up to measure governance, police processes, and corruption were only established in the last five years, or have inconsistent coverage across countries and regions. For example, three of the indicators from the process and legitimacy domains are taken from the World Justice Project’s *Rule of Law* index, which has only two years of data. However, there are a few indicators from these domains which have long term trend data.

Figure 27: Overall Score vs Process ($r=0.90$)Figure 28: Overall Score vs Legitimacy ($r=0.92$)

“Corruption is closely correlated with internal peacefulness, and corruption in the police force, judiciary, and military is the best predictor of poor internal peace outcomes.

Political Terror Scale

Figure 29 (overleaf) shows the trend in Political Terror Scale scores for the 127 WISPI countries. The Political Terror Scale is a measure of state violence and repression against its own people, with a score of one reflecting a country with a strong rule of law and virtually no politically motivated violence from the state, and a score of five reflecting a situation where terror is widespread, the use of torture is commonplace, and state authority is supreme. The scores are based on expert assessment of reports from Amnesty International and the US State Department.

The Trend in Political Terror Scale scores somewhat mirrors the trend in the level of freedom as measured by the Freedom House *Freedom in the World* reports. While the number of countries with scores of four or five has declined since the early 1990s, the percentage of countries scoring a 1 has also decreased, from 32 per cent in 1976, down to 26.8 per cent in 2014. There has been a convergence from both the top and bottom scores into the middle, with the number of countries with scores of two or three increasing from just under 50 per cent in 1976, to 63 per cent in 2014. This suggests that while the widespread and indiscriminate use of terror tactics

by the state has become less common, there is a willingness on the part of a far greater number of states to use small scale or occasional political terror on opponents of the state.

Corruption

Corruption in both the governance structure at large of a country, as well as in the police force specifically, is a crucial factor that undermines internal security. Corruption is closely correlated with internal peacefulness, and corruption in the police force, judiciary, and military is the best predictor of poor internal peace outcomes, as well as deteriorations in

peacefulness in the long run. Corruption reduces the quality of the civil service, increases inefficiency, and is closely correlated with wasteful government spending. Countries in the WISPI are more likely to have higher rates of bribes paid to the police, less trust in police, and higher levels of underreporting if they have levels of corruption. Prior research by IEP has found that once corruption reaches a certain level, poor internal security outcomes become much more likely.

The average level of corruption in the world has increased in the last 20 years. The World Bank's *Control of Corruption* indicator, which is one of six world governance indicators, shows an upward trend in corruption from 1996 to 2013, as show in Figure 30 (opposite page).

The increase in corruption has not been equally distributed across the 127 countries in the WISPI. Figure 31 illustrates the fact that 74 countries had increases in corruption from 1996 to 2013, but only two countries had increases of more than 20 per cent of the possible indicator scoring range. By contrast, fewer countries had decreases in corruption (scores improved in 61 countries), but more countries had had larger improvements, with six countries having decreases in corruption of more than 20 per cent of the possible scoring range. Although the overall global trend showed a higher average level of corruption, the average improvement was actually higher than the average deterioration.

“ The average level of corruption in the world has increased in the last 20 years.

Figure 29: Political Terror Scale, WISPI Countries By Score (1976-2014)

The percentage of countries with both the best and the worst Political Terror Scale scores has decreased since 1976.

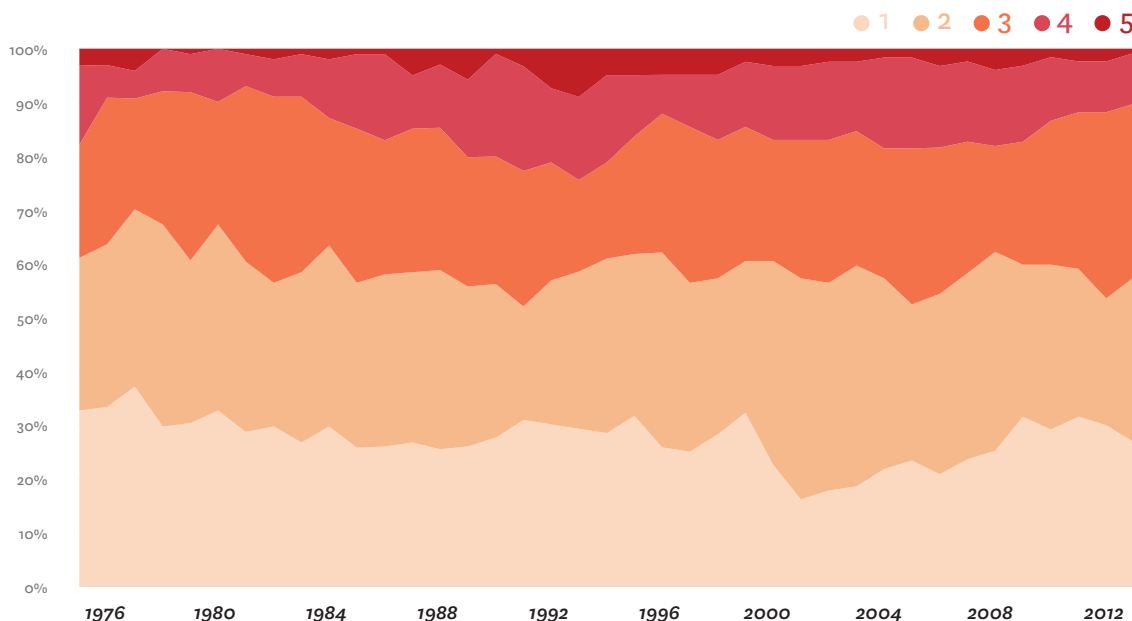
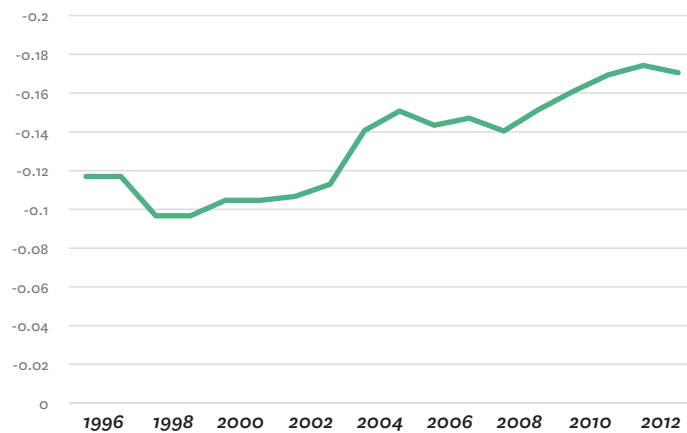


Figure 30: Index Average Corruption Score (1996-2013)

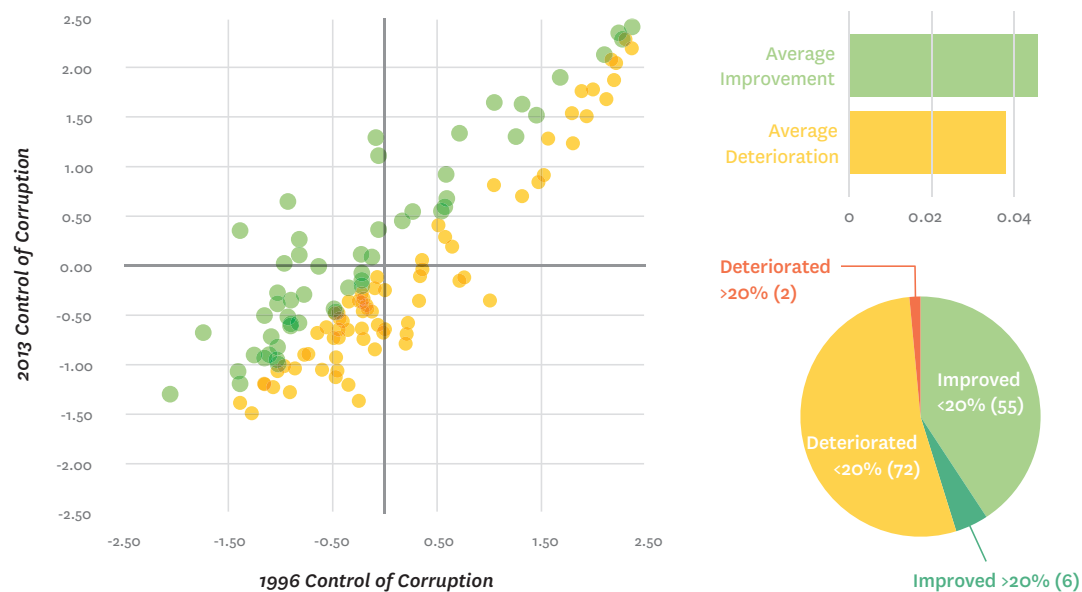
Corruption has increased since 1996.



“ Although the overall global trend showed a higher average level of corruption, the average improvement was actually higher than the average deterioration.

Figure 31: Control of Corruption, 1996 vs 2013

Of the 127 WISPI countries, 74 had decreasing levels of corruption from 1996 to 2013.



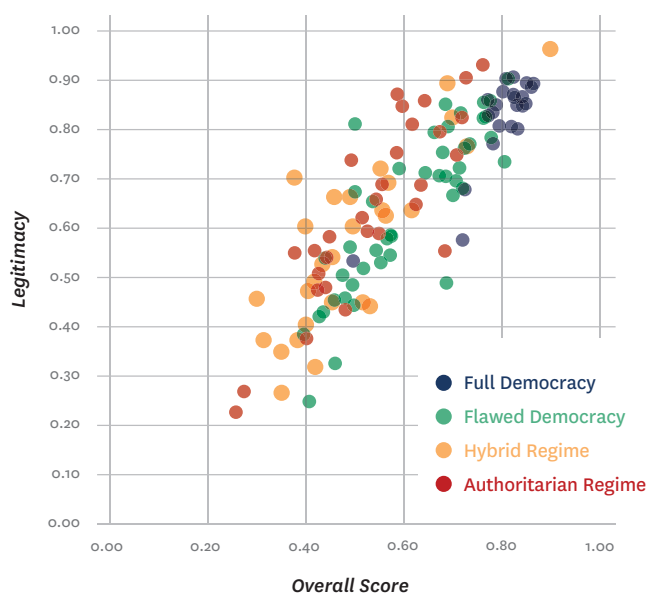
Outcomes

Internal security outcomes are closely correlated with the overall results of the WISPI, as shown in Figure 32. The strength of the correlation is almost identical across all four government types, with the overall correlation ($r=0.87$) being stronger than the correlation for any one government type. Notably, of the five countries with the best outcomes scores, only two are from Europe, and only one (Iceland) is a full democracy. Singapore is a hybrid regime, and tops the outcomes domain. At the other end of the scale, only Paraguay is not from the sub-Saharan African region.

Table o6: Five Best and Worst Performing Countries, Outcomes

Country	Outcomes	
Five best performing countries		
Singapore	0.963	1
United Arab Emirates	0.930	2
Iceland	0.906	3
Kuwait	0.904	4
Slovenia	0.903	5
Five worst performing countries		
Tanzania	0.317	123
Congo, DRC	0.268	124
Mozambique	0.265	125
Paraguay	0.247	126
Nigeria	0.226	127

Figure 32: Overall Score vs Outcomes ($r=0.87$)



Homicide

Homicide is in and of itself necessarily a reflection of worsening internal security problems. When a country's homicide rate is low, police forces have adequate resources to investigate and prosecute homicide cases, in spite of the large amount of time, money, and expertise such cases require. Furthermore, when homicide rates are low, it is highly likely that the cases that do occur will involve people who are known to each other, usually in a family or domestic setting. However, an increasing homicide rate is often a strong indicator of the breakdown of the rule of law, an under-resourced, inefficient, or corrupt police and judicial system, or the presence of some underlying factor such as drug-trade related violence. If these factors are left unchecked, they can become serious threats to internal security and the stability of the state.

Figure 33 shows the countries with the five highest and five lowest homicide rates at the national level for 2012, using data from the UNODC's *Crime Trends Survey*. The chart shows the tremendous variance in homicide rates

“ Estimates taken from the 2015 Global Peace Index report suggest that there has been an increase in the global homicide rate in the past seven years.

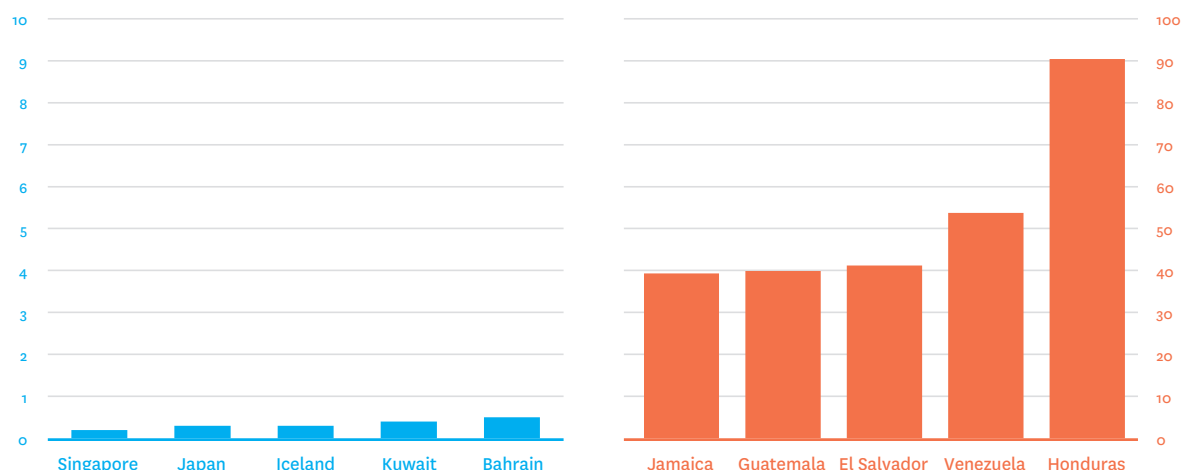
between countries, with the lowest rate being 40 times lower than the Index average, and the highest rate being 11 times higher than the Index average. The five countries with the lowest homicide rates had remarkably low figures, both in comparison to other countries in 2012, and to historical homicide levels. It would be unprecedented for a state to reduce the homicide level any lower than 0.2, which was Singapore's homicide rate in 2012. By contrast, the countries with the highest homicide rates are well above the Index average, and well above their own historical average levels. All of the five countries with the highest rates are from either South America, Central

America and the Caribbean. These regions have been plagued by political instability and drug-trade related violence over the last decade, leading to a situation in many countries where police are almost powerless to prevent drug-trade related killings.

The trend in the homicide rate globally, and also at the national level for many countries, is much more difficult to discern. While there is a general consensus that homicide rates have fallen significantly in most countries over the very long run, making an assessment of trends in the post-World War II era is much more difficult. Many countries do

Figure 33: Five Highest and Lowest Homicide Rates (2012)

Countries in South America, Central America and the Caribbean have the highest homicide rates in the world.



not have police recorded homicide figures for all but the last few years, and there are large discrepancies between estimates made by police and estimates made by public health organisations like the World Health Organisation (WHO). Thus, putting an accurate figure on the total number of homicides globally is difficult, and constructing a global homicide trend is even more so. Estimates taken from the 2015 Global Peace Index report suggest that there has been an increase in the global homicide rate in the past seven years, from 5.46 in 2005, to 6.37 in 2012. According to those figures, over 450,000 people were murdered in 2012, an increase of almost 26 per cent from 2005.

Harmonised data over a longer time period is difficult to assemble, given the shift in many countries from public health organisation records to police recorded data. However, data is available for many countries over a 50 year period. Figure 34 shows an index of homicide rates in selected WISPI countries, from 1955 to 2010. In an index chart, the first year of data takes a value of one for every country, so the chart shows the relative change in the homicide rate from the first year onwards.

The homicide rate in Singapore and Japan in 2010 was less than 20 per cent of the level it was in 1955. Austria, Germany, and Switzerland all also had big reductions in their respective homicide rates over this period. Noticeably, only Japan had a steady downward trend in its homicide rate. Every other country shown that had a reduction first saw an increase that peaked around 1980 or slightly after, followed by a sharp if steady decline. Of the countries that suffered large increases, Ireland's was the worst. The homicide rate in Ireland in 2010 was five times higher than in 1955. The Netherlands, Norway, Spain, and Belgium all had large increases as well, and all had homicides rates in 2010 that were at least twice as high as their homicides rates in 1955.

Terrorism

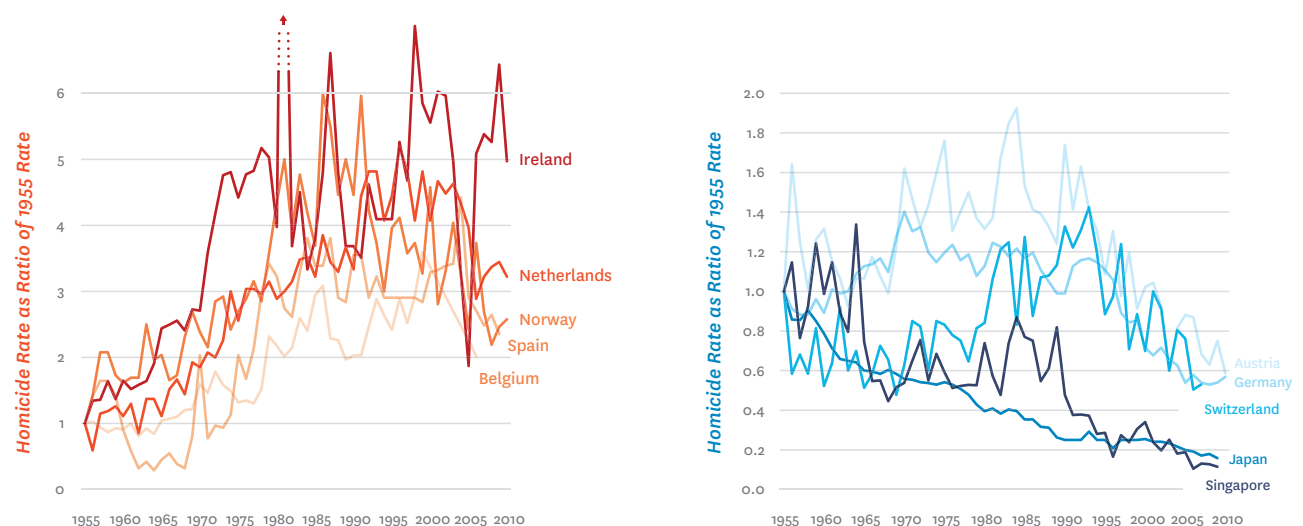
Terrorism is one of the biggest threats to internal security that a country can face. The police response to terrorism is thus a crucial element in ensuring state stability and security. Whilst deaths from terrorism are far fewer in number than deaths from homicide, and terrorist incidents are far less common than violent crimes like assault and robbery,

the unpredictable and horrific nature of terrorist violence means that it has a far greater social impact. Media coverage of terrorist incidents and terrorist threats is disproportionately large. Terrorist groups can use this coverage to drive support, funding, and awareness. Terrorist incidents often occur in 'bursts', where acts by one group lead to similar acts by other groups or copycat lone wolves. Counterterrorism efforts are much more resource intensive than everyday policing, as they require intensive surveillance and a costly intelligence infrastructure.

In recent years, organisations that began as terrorist groups have morphed or grown into full-fledged insurgencies. In the Middle East, the terrorist organisation Jama'at al-Tawhid wal-Jihad became al-Qa'ida in Iraq in 2004 before rebranding and ultimately splitting from al-Qa'ida altogether. After participating in the Syrian civil war, the group grew significantly acquiring firepower, financial resources, and recruits from across the world. In mid-2014 the group returned to Iraq and controlled territory in both Iraq and Syria. Boko Haram, a terrorist organisation that operates in Nigeria, also evolved into a group with territorial control. After

Figure 34: Homicide Index (1955-2010, 1955 = 1)

Of the 32 countries with available data, 17 have seen homicide rates increase since 1955.



beginning as a fundamentalist sect in 2002, Boko Haram grew until a violent uprising in 2009 almost completely wiped them out. They regrouped in the following years, starting a campaign of violence that grew in scope and size, culminating with an attack on the town of Baga that left as many as 2,000 people dead (although this figure is disputed by Nigerian authorities).

There are also examples of long-standing political and religious groups who have conducted terrorist attacks. For example, in 2012 in Egypt the Muslim

Brotherhood were a democratically elected political party in Egypt, but more recently have conducted some terrorist attacks. They are coded as one of the 3,000 different terrorist actors in the Global Terrorist Database and are considered to be a terrorist organisation by some governments.

There has been a shift in the last 30 years from ideological terrorism to nationalist and religious terrorism, with the majority of terrorist deaths now occurring as part of an existing internal conflict. Figure

35 shows deaths from terrorism for the period 1998-2014.

There has been an enormous increase in deaths from terrorism over the past five years. In 1998, there were 3,332 deaths from terrorism. After the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, the onset of the Iraq war saw a surge in terrorist activity. At the height of the Iraqi insurgency in 2007, just under 11,000 people were killed globally in terrorist attacks, the majority of those in Iraq or Afghanistan. The next few years saw a fall in terrorist activity,

“ There has been a shift in the last 30 years from ideological terrorism to nationalist and religious terrorism, with the majority of terrorist deaths now occurring as part of an existing internal conflict.

Figure 35: Deaths from Terrorism and Year on Year % Change (1998-2014)

Deaths from terrorism have increased greatly over the last three years. More than 30,000 people were killed in terrorist attacks 2014, an 80% increase from 2013.

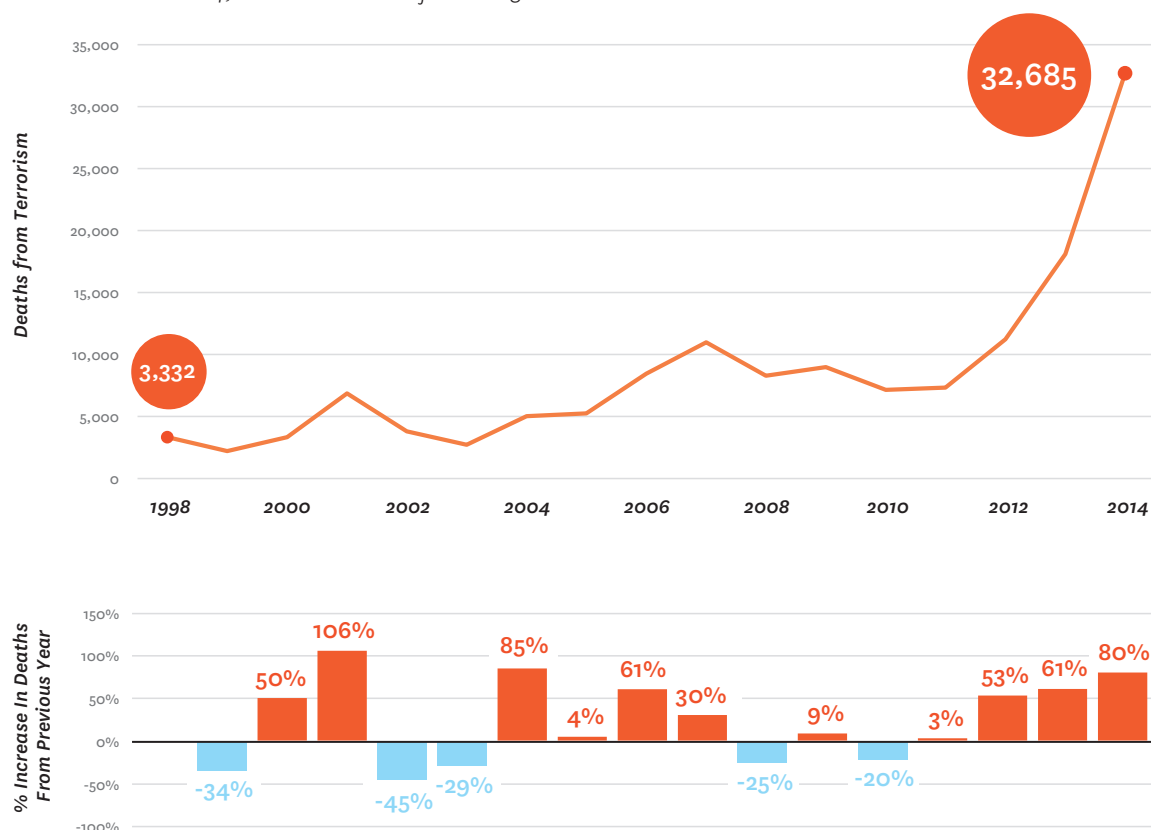
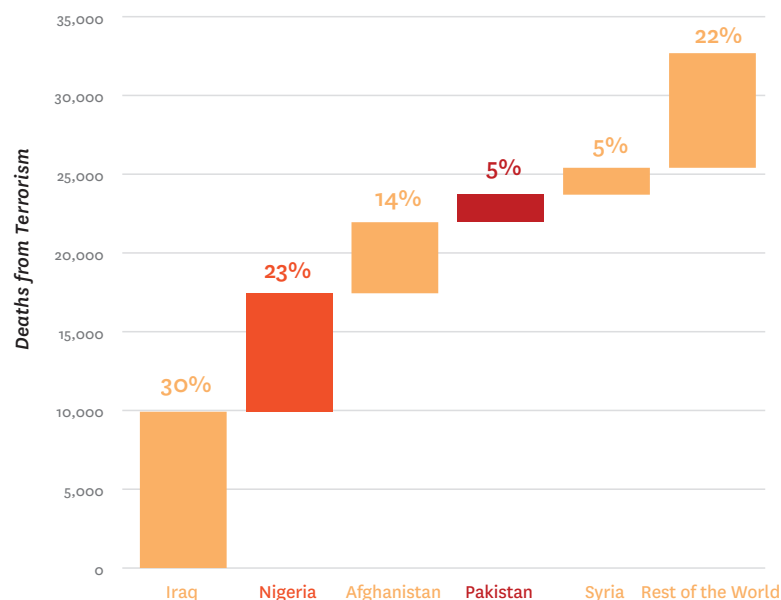


Figure 36: Deaths from Terrorism, Five Most Affected Countries and Rest of the World

Nigeria accounted for 23% of all deaths from terrorism in 2014.



“ For females, only 54 per cent felt safe walking alone at night in 2014.

with year on year declines of 25 per cent in 2008 and 20 per cent 2010. However, in the last three years terrorist activity has surged once again, with year on year increases of 53 per cent, 61 per cent, and 80 per cent in 2012, 2013, and 2014 respectively. In 2014, 32,685 people were killed in terrorist attacks.

Figure 36 shows the distribution of terrorist deaths by country in 2014. Of the five countries with the highest number of total deaths from terrorism, two are ranked in the bottom five of the WISPI. The other three countries are not ranked in the Index, owing to ongoing internal conflicts.

Nigeria accounted for 23 per cent of all deaths from terrorism in 2014. Of these deaths, the majority were the responsibility of Boko Haram, a terrorist and insurgency group that came to widespread global attention after they kidnapped nearly 300 young girls from a boarding school in Chibok. Fulani militants

have also been responsible for thousands of deaths, although they have received less press coverage than Boko Haram. Over five per cent of all terrorist deaths occurred in Pakistan. The number of deaths per year has remained relatively constant in Pakistan since 2007, but as terrorism has increased around the world, these deaths have represented a smaller and smaller percentage of the global total.

Violent Crime and Perceptions of Safety

Not enough comparable violent crime data is available to conduct any meaningful trend analysis. Assault data from the Gallup World Poll is only available for a handful of years, and UNODC data on assault, robbery, and rape has serious comparability issues, and only goes back to 2003. Of the 38 countries that do have assault data for every year from 2003 to 2013, 15 experienced increases in the police

recorded assault rate, with the assault rate improving in the other 23 countries.

Perceptions of safety data is only available back to 2006. There have been fluctuations in perceptions of safety over this period, with the global aggregate level falling from 65 per cent of total respondents feeling safe walking at night in their neighbourhood or city, to 60 per cent in 2014. The gap between male and female perceptions has remained almost identical, although male perceptions of safety fell slightly more. Sixty-six per cent of male respondents felt safe walking alone at night in 2014, down from 73 per cent. For females, only 54 per cent felt safe in 2014, a fall of four percentage points from 58 per cent in 2006.

Full Results Table

Appendix A.

Country	Overall Score	Capacity	Process	Legitimacy	Outcomes	Imputed Data
Singapore	0.898	0.897	0.829	0.903	0.963	6%
Finland	0.864	0.674	0.922	0.919	0.893	0%
Denmark	0.859	0.648	0.948	0.904	0.885	0%
Austria	0.850	0.770	0.817	0.899	0.894	0%
Germany	0.848	0.778	0.876	0.867	0.852	0%
Australia	0.841	0.825	0.824	0.865	0.847	0%
Netherlands	0.840	0.707	0.898	0.858	0.866	0%
Norway	0.832	0.658	0.908	0.916	0.801	0%
Sweden	0.830	0.611	0.920	0.886	0.848	6%
Switzerland	0.825	0.674	0.824	0.900	0.864	19%
Iceland	0.823	0.635	0.810	0.893	0.906	25%
New Zealand	0.822	0.654	0.833	0.890	0.870	6%
Ireland	0.818	0.841	0.780	0.852	0.805	19%
Slovenia	0.812	0.910	0.703	0.758	0.903	0%
Japan	0.808	0.763	0.741	0.813	0.902	0%
Estonia	0.805	0.967	0.754	0.804	0.734	0%
Canada	0.801	0.639	0.790	0.860	0.876	6%
Belgium	0.793	0.710	0.790	0.847	0.807	0%
Spain	0.787	0.854	0.627	0.837	0.849	0%
United Kingdom	0.781	0.654	0.828	0.840	0.771	0%
Portugal	0.781	0.909	0.679	0.732	0.834	0%
France	0.777	0.773	0.734	0.817	0.783	0%
Poland	0.775	0.848	0.676	0.738	0.858	6%
Czech Republic	0.772	0.875	0.638	0.772	0.827	0%
South Korea	0.771	0.787	0.665	0.775	0.860	6%
Slovakia	0.766	0.945	0.564	0.773	0.825	19%
Croatia	0.762	0.939	0.605	0.695	0.854	0%
Taiwan	0.761	0.829	0.634	0.777	0.822	31%
United Arab Emirates	0.760	0.756	0.697	0.656	0.930	19%
Cyprus	0.733	0.736	0.634	0.794	0.770	19%
Georgia	0.727	0.823	0.593	0.752	0.766	6%
Kuwait	0.726	0.818	0.558	0.647	0.904	38%
United States	0.724	0.821	0.738	0.682	0.677	0%
Italy	0.723	0.724	0.681	0.725	0.761	0%

Country	Overall Score	Capacity	Process	Legitimacy	Outcomes	Imputed Data
Uruguay	0.719	0.926	0.698	0.728	0.575	6%
Lithuania	0.719	0.903	0.605	0.733	0.680	19%
Jordan	0.718	0.949	0.524	0.633	0.824	6%
Montenegro	0.715	0.914	0.481	0.681	0.833	25%
Israel	0.712	0.967	0.687	0.538	0.721	25%
Kosovo	0.709	0.590	0.627	0.859	0.732	19%
Bahrain	0.707	0.996	0.570	0.586	0.747	38%
Latvia	0.705	0.934	0.558	0.691	0.695	19%
Chile	0.699	0.794	0.672	0.689	0.665	0%
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.698	0.916	0.465	0.642	0.824	6%
Romania	0.689	0.835	0.535	0.616	0.805	0%
Armenia	0.688	0.921	0.479	0.516	0.893	25%
Botswana	0.685	0.941	0.656	0.721	0.488	13%
Greece	0.684	0.783	0.583	0.691	0.704	0%
Serbia	0.684	0.886	0.462	0.587	0.851	0%
Rwanda	0.683	0.876	0.610	0.741	0.553	31%
Bulgaria	0.678	0.985	0.494	0.556	0.753	0%
Saudi Arabia	0.673	0.894	0.457	0.600	0.795	44%
Malaysia	0.671	0.793	0.540	0.676	0.705	6%
Hungary	0.661	0.541	0.632	0.647	0.793	0%
Macedonia (FYR)	0.642	0.791	0.500	0.604	0.711	0%
Tajikistan	0.641	0.798	0.374	0.575	0.858	31%
Belarus	0.633	0.975	0.472	0.486	0.686	6%
Algeria	0.623	0.968	0.400	0.566	0.647	25%
Vietnam	0.616	0.778	0.353	0.562	0.810	19%
Turkey	0.615	0.955	0.458	0.495	0.636	0%
Uzbekistan	0.595	0.855	0.273	0.472	0.847	19%
Sri Lanka	0.589	0.774	0.389	0.520	0.720	6%
Azerbaijan	0.585	0.723	0.295	0.487	0.871	25%
China	0.584	0.658	0.481	0.464	0.752	13%
Jamaica	0.573	0.846	0.465	0.469	0.583	0%
Mongolia	0.572	0.850	0.390	0.530	0.585	6%
Trinidad and Tobago	0.571	0.860	0.417	0.535	0.544	25%
Senegal	0.567	0.655	0.324	0.620	0.691	6%

<i>Country</i>	<i>Overall Score</i>	<i>Capacity</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Legitimacy</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Imputed Data</i>
<i>Thailand</i>	0.564	0.795	0.412	0.531	0.578	6%
<i>Nepal</i>	0.562	0.725	0.386	0.554	0.624	6%
<i>Lebanon</i>	0.555	0.774	0.386	0.479	0.635	6%
<i>Tunisia</i>	0.554	0.755	0.378	0.447	0.688	13%
<i>Panama</i>	0.551	0.700	0.469	0.545	0.529	6%
<i>Albania</i>	0.551	0.647	0.297	0.562	0.720	6%
<i>Kazakhstan</i>	0.548	0.885	0.337	0.465	0.588	6%
<i>Egypt</i>	0.542	0.891	0.364	0.343	0.658	13%
<i>Argentina</i>	0.542	0.615	0.453	0.565	0.554	0%
<i>Moldova</i>	0.535	0.830	0.303	0.428	0.653	0%
<i>Ecuador</i>	0.530	0.820	0.358	0.572	0.441	6%
<i>Iran</i>	0.524	0.756	0.371	0.436	0.593	19%
<i>Guyana</i>	0.516	0.722	0.355	0.521	0.518	38%
<i>Russia</i>	0.515	0.984	0.415	0.330	0.449	6%
<i>Burkina Faso</i>	0.514	0.570	0.296	0.583	0.620	19%
<i>Indonesia</i>	0.499	0.441	0.221	0.509	0.811	6%
<i>Ghana</i>	0.499	0.522	0.261	0.545	0.673	13%
<i>El Salvador</i>	0.497	0.699	0.421	0.474	0.443	0%
<i>Costa Rica</i>	0.495	0.518	0.442	0.493	0.533	25%
<i>Kyrgyzstan</i>	0.495	0.820	0.247	0.391	0.603	6%
<i>South Africa</i>	0.494	0.646	0.464	0.418	0.484	6%
<i>Morocco</i>	0.492	0.428	0.281	0.504	0.737	0%
<i>Cambodia</i>	0.489	0.676	0.212	0.452	0.662	13%
<i>Mali</i>	0.489	0.524	0.397	0.482	0.560	38%
<i>Sudan</i>	0.480	0.746	0.394	0.412	0.433	31%
<i>Brazil</i>	0.479	0.527	0.525	0.418	0.457	0%
<i>Dominican Republic</i>	0.473	0.736	0.292	0.429	0.503	6%
<i>Colombia</i>	0.458	0.774	0.397	0.416	0.324	0%
<i>Philippines</i>	0.457	0.446	0.426	0.500	0.453	6%
<i>Malawi</i>	0.457	0.282	0.319	0.519	0.663	13%
<i>Nicaragua</i>	0.453	0.587	0.298	0.420	0.540	6%
<i>Burundi</i>	0.452	0.597	0.333	0.465	0.448	31%
<i>Myanmar</i>	0.447	0.535	0.297	0.396	0.582	25%
<i>Yemen</i>	0.441	0.705	0.258	0.329	0.540	38%

<i>Country</i>	<i>Overall Score</i>	<i>Capacity</i>	<i>Process</i>	<i>Legitimacy</i>	<i>Outcomes</i>	<i>Imputed Data</i>
Zimbabwe	0.438	0.705	0.274	0.363	0.479	6%
India	0.438	0.532	0.291	0.415	0.539	0%
Peru	0.434	0.622	0.343	0.390	0.429	0%
Liberia	0.432	0.596	0.206	0.441	0.526	13%
Guatemala	0.426	0.444	0.370	0.474	0.420	6%
Guinea	0.425	0.331	0.390	0.448	0.507	38%
Cote d'Ivoire	0.423	0.500	0.330	0.408	0.474	13%
Tanzania	0.418	0.655	0.280	0.478	0.317	13%
Madagascar	0.416	0.321	0.280	0.487	0.554	13%
Zambia	0.416	0.353	0.371	0.434	0.490	13%
Paraguay	0.405	0.653	0.348	0.435	0.247	25%
Bolivia	0.403	0.557	0.264	0.359	0.472	0%
Ethiopia	0.400	0.427	0.382	0.423	0.375	19%
Honduras	0.399	0.461	0.340	0.407	0.403	25%
Sierra Leone	0.397	0.436	0.179	0.382	0.603	0%
Mexico	0.394	0.780	0.246	0.264	0.384	0%
Venezuela	0.381	0.676	0.191	0.360	0.372	13%
Cameroon	0.376	0.414	0.195	0.356	0.549	6%
Bangladesh	0.375	0.244	0.195	0.328	0.701	6%
Mozambique	0.349	0.534	0.249	0.394	0.265	25%
Pakistan	0.349	0.729	0.239	0.173	0.348	13%
Uganda	0.312	0.224	0.219	0.411	0.372	6%
Kenya	0.298	0.214	0.180	0.322	0.456	0%
Congo, DRC	0.272	0.440	0.195	0.227	0.268	38%
Nigeria	0.255	0.416	0.156	0.264	0.226	0%

The World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI) ranks 127 countries based on 16 indicators across four domains. The core aim when developing the Index was to be able to rank as many countries as possible on their level of police responsiveness to internal security. This meant that indicators with minimal data coverage had to be removed, replaced, or modified to allow for the broadest level of country coverage.

Table B1: Domain and Indicator Weights

Domain	Weight	Indicator	Weighting	% Domain	% Index
Capacity	1.5	Police	3	33%	6.67%
		Armed Forces	2	22%	4.44%
		Private Security	2	22%	4.44%
		Prison Capacity	2	22%	4.44%
Process	2	Corruption	3	27%	7.27%
		Effectiveness	3	27%	7.27%
		Bribe Payments to Police	3	27%	7.27%
		Underreporting	2	18%	4.85%
Legitimacy	2	Due Process	2	25%	6.67%
		Confidence in Police	2	25%	6.67%
		Public Use, Private Gain	2	25%	6.67%
		Political Terror	2	25%	6.67%
Outcomes	2	Homicide	2	25%	6.67%
		Violent Crime	2	25%	6.67%
		Terrorism	2	25%	6.67%
		Public Safety Perceptions	2	25%	6.67%

Selection Criteria and Issues

Countries with either a population of less than one million people or a land size of less than 10,000 km squared were not considered for selection in the Index. Countries were also excluded from the Index if they were currently in a state of severe internal conflict (for example, Syria) as measuring internal security and police responsiveness in such countries would not produce meaningful results. Severe internal conflict was defined as having the maximum score of 5 on the Global Peace Index *Intensity of Internal Conflict* indicator.

Although data was imputed for some countries, all countries with less than 55 per cent of data were automatically excluded from the Index, as were some countries that had no data for all the indicators in a single domain.

With regards to indicators, where multiple data sources were available, comparability was prioritized over data coverage. For example, the violent crime indicator could have been a qualitative indicator (for example, the violent crime indicator from the Global Peace Index), a police recorded quantitative indicator (the UNODC rape, robbery, and assault figures) or a quantitative survey figure (Gallup World Poll data on assault). Ideally the indicator would have been based on police recorded data, but comparability issues across countries and regions meant that the UNODC data would have given misleading results. Firstly, there were definitional differences that led to vastly different total counts (stemming from whether a person who was the victim of multiple crimes would be counted once or for every single crime). Secondly, there were issues around police recording methods (often centring on whether a crime was recorded upon suspicion or upon conviction). Finally, underreporting rates varied vastly from country to country, making valid comparisons between police recorded data difficult.

Data Imputation

Indicators from the Global Peace Index used expert assessment by the Economist Intelligence Unit (EIU) to fill in any data gaps. The EIU has country experts in the majority of countries around the world. These experts liaise with local officials, journalists, and experts in order to make estimates for missing data. For indicators that were not taken from the Global Peace Index, the Index used the k-nearest neighbor method of imputation.

Table B2: Indicator Tables

Capacity	
Police Officers	
Full Name	Number of Police and Internal Security Officers per 100,000 people
Source	UNODC - Crime Trends Survey
Weight (% of Domain)	33%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0
Score Maximum	350
Measurement Period	2012
Notes	The Economist Intelligence Unit supplied estimates for countries which are not covered by the Crime Trends Survey
Armed Forces	
Full Name	Number of Armed Service Personnel per 100,000 people
Source	IISS - Military Balance
Weight (% of Domain)	22%
Weight (% of Index)	4.44%
Score Minimum	0
Score Maximum	350
Measurement Period	2013
Private Security	
Full Name	Number of Private Security Contractors per 100,000 people
Source	Small Arms Survey
Weight (% of Domain)	22%
Weight (% of Index)	4.44%
Score Minimum	0
Score Maximum	350
Measurement Period	2010
Notes	The Economist Intelligence Unit supplied estimates for countries which are not covered by the Crime Trends Survey
Prison Capacity	
Full Name	Ratio of Prisoners to Official Prison Capacity
Source	World Prison Population Project
Weight (% of Domain)	22%
Weight (% of Index)	4.44%
Score Minimum	0.9
Score Maximum	1.5
Measurement Period	2013

Process	
Corruption	
Full Name	Control of Corruption
Source	WB - World Governance Indicators
Weight (% of Domain)	27%
Weight (% of Index)	7.27%
Score Minimum	-2.50
Score Maximum	2.50
Measurement Period	2013
Effectiveness	
Full Name	Criminal Justice effectiveness, impartial, respects rights
Source	World Justice Project
Weight (% of Domain)	27%
Weight (% of Index)	7.27%
Score Minimum	0.00
Score Maximum	1.00
Measurement Period	2014
Bribe Payments to Police	
Full Name	% of Respondents who Paid a Bribe to a Police Officer in the Past Year
Source	Global Corruption Barometer
Weight (% of Domain)	27%
Weight (% of Index)	7.27%
Score Minimum	0%
Score Maximum	80%
Measurement Period	2014
Underreporting	
Full Name	Ratio of Police Reported Thefts to Survey Reported Thefts
Source	IEP Analysis
Weight (% of Domain)	18%
Weight (% of Index)	4.85%
Score Minimum	0.00%
Score Maximum	25.00%
Measurement Period	2010-2013

Legitimacy

Due Process

Full Name	Due process of law and rights of the accused
Source	World Justice Project
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0.00
Score Maximum	1.00
Measurement Period	2014

Confidence in Police

Full Name	% of Respondents who have Confidence in Their Local Police
Source	Gallup World Poll
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	20%
Score Maximum	100%
Measurement Period	2014

Public Use, Private Gain

Full Name	Government officials in the police and the military do not use public office for private gain
Source	World Justice Project
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0.00
Score Maximum	1.00
Measurement Period	2014

Political Terror

Full Name	Use of Force by Government Against Its Own Citizens
Source	Political Terror Scale
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	1.00
Score Maximum	5.00
Measurement Period	2013

Outcomes

Homicide

Full Name	Number of Intentional Homicides per 100,000 people
Source	UNODC - Crime Trends Survey
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0.00
Score Maximum	10.00
Measurement Period	2013

Violent Crime

Full Name	% Assaulted or mugged in the Last Year
Source	Gallup World Poll
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0%
Score Maximum	25%
Measurement Period	2010-2012

Terrorism

Full Name	Composite measure of deaths, injuries, and incidents of terrorism
Source	Global Terrorism Index
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0
Score Maximum	10
Measurement Period	2013

Public Safety Perceptions

Full Name	Perceptions of safety walking alone at night
Source	Gallup World Poll
Weight (% of Domain)	25%
Weight (% of Index)	6.67%
Score Minimum	0%
Score Maximum	100%
Measurement Period	2014

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International Police Science Association: **Response to the World Internal Security and Police Index**

2016



General Guidelines for the reform of police and internal security

After having reviewed results of World Internal Security and Police Index (WISPI), seeing the contrast in police performance and police services in general, the following are some guidelines for reforms. They are intended to improve police work which the International Police Science Association (IPSA) deemed important following WISPI. With this end in view, the concept of professional police should be adopted replacing current police procedure.

With a lack of strategic thinking and disregard of professionalism, iron grip policing trends like torture, repression against citizens have prevailed. As a result, security has weakened and the gap widened between people and regime. Moreover police have become an embodiment of the gloomy face of some regimes and increased attention directed to political security at the expense of social security.

In my opinion with regard to modernisation of the police and police reform in general, seven major themes or stages should be followed:

- 1 Developing policing strategies
- 2 Promoting the concept of civilized policing
- 3 Reform of internal organisational structures and enhancing human resources in police
- 4 Reform of the police education system
- 5 Reform of police training
- 6 Increased reliance on use of technology in police work
- 7 Privatisation of some police services

Stage One

Developing policing strategies

1. A strategy for the Ministry of Home Security

Police work should stand on a scientific, professional and legal basis with a clear vision of their mission, goals, values, strategic objectives and measures for strategic results. Vision should be known and understood by all personnel within the police service and must be based on achieving security and safety for all those living in the country. Values required of police personnel should include honesty, truthfulness, integrity, just protection of human rights, creativity, excellence, team spirit and support of social security of all community segments.

Strategic objectives should focus on:

- > **The best investment in human resources**
- > **Effective use of financial and technological resources**
- > **Working with community partners**
- > **Ensuring readiness and preparedness**
- > **Providing security and safety**
- > **Maintaining public confidence**

Finally there must be established standards for achieving strategic objectives in order to measure levels of police performance on a scientific basis.

2. Building a culture of excellence in police institutions

Developing a culture that embraces the goals and objectives stated above should be coupled with a conceptual model based on international standards where they exist, and incorporate sound principles of management and leadership in the various divisions and units of the police service.

Strategic concepts involve the adoption of security bodies to ensure quality and excellence based on international standards of policing. Policing has its own standards governing performance with the use of discretion on a limited scale. Major operations for each police department should be clearly defined as well as authorities and personnel assigned with their implementation. Review and continuous improvement systems should also be defined and effective channels of communication with all police personnel should be created. Developing a culture of excellence among police personnel is of great importance in developing police work.

3. Providing an encouraging environment for creativity

Providing and encouraging an environment supportive of creativity in security work is one of the most important motivators for police personnel. This can be increased by providing the resources necessary to encourage innovation. Civil community institutions should be urged to bring forward ideas and suggestions that can contribute to developing security work, encouraging the exchange of information and enhancing constructive debate. Creativity in security work can also be achieved through focusing on scientific security research and entering into partnership with universities and think tanks for the study of different security issues, and hence apply the outcome of such studies to the existing security problems. By providing opportunities for researchers to study the police environment the beneficiaries will be both the community and the police.

“ With a lack of strategic thinking and disregard of professionalism, iron grip policing trends like torture and repression against citizens have prevailed.

Stage Two

Promoting the concept of civilized policing

The concept of civilized policing consists of two major elements namely: the way in which the police serve the public and the measurement of police services. The first element requires concepts of community policing and neighbourhood policing being applied, and successful theories adopted. The “broken window” theory, and intelligence led policing are two examples, as are the formation of community partnerships with the public, and the formation of security councils in the neighbourhoods. These should include representatives of the public who can present their views on the way in which police operate. Memoranda of Understanding (MOU’s) and cooperation with civil community institutions can help establish offices to assist victims and security centres for social support. The second element includes the measurement of police services in terms of public satisfaction, response times to call for service, and other standard measures of police performance. This includes the use of technology in police investigations including cameras for interviewing and interrogations to minimise dependence on physical force to gain confessions; and to increase the use of information technology to aid in investigations.

Stage Three

Reform of the internal organisational structure and enhancing human resources in police

Security institutions, or ministries of interior, should be re-structured in order to support the concept of police specialisation, and establish a system for police personnel that ensures job security. The aforementioned system should be established in a way that eradicates the caste system, minimises job and financial differences and ensures fair distribution of police resources and allocations. There should be no discrimination among police departments as all are within the same police organisation.

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Stage Four

Reform of the police education system

1. Modifying the education structure of police colleges, academies, institutes and schools

Currently, most police colleges and institutes are similar to faculties of law with security studies. Law studies represent 70% of the total curriculum while police studies represent 30%. These percentages do not align with crime development. For example, in the area of crime control and investigation, crimes like money laundering require a thorough awareness of business and computer sciences while crimes like antiquities smuggling require both archaeology and security awareness. With the increase of community awareness and the increasing role of the police in the development of countries, police performance has not met public expectations.

The problem can be solved in two phases, the first through expanding the training of specialised officers to more effectively support the specialisation system that has become more common in police work. The graduates of law colleges could be employed as investigators in police stations; the graduates of physical education colleges, for example, might be assigned to order maintenance; the graduates of the colleges of medicine would work in the police hospitals, and graduates of biology and chemistry would work in forensic science laboratories or forensic medicine; graduates of the colleges of engineering in physical security and infrastructure protection; and graduates of colleges of information and media in the fields of public information and media relations.

The second phase would be the establishment of a university for police science that would include the study of general and basic police sciences in the first year, and then the student would specialise in the second year in one of the areas available in the university, where

colleges for the different specialisations would be established. These might include the Criminal Investigation & Interrogation College, Traffic & Roads College, Civil Defense, Safety and Fire-fighting College, Order Maintenance & Public Security College and the Forensic Laboratories & Forensic Medicine College and so on. In the third year a student might further specialise in disciplines within specific branches. For example, if he is in the Criminal Investigation & Interrogation College, he could specialise in the crimes against persons or in financial crimes. In the final year, a student could further expand his knowledge in one or more areas.

The advantage of such change would be to place more attention on the study of police science, which has developed throughout the world. Progress in this has been hindered by a lack of knowledge by many involved in police education indicates that many police educators are unaware of how much the field has expanded, with greater emphasis on crime investigation, human rights, community policing, and the use of technology. Unfortunately the inability of police officers to detect crimes has become a justifiable reason for them to adopt illegal methods of detention, torture and oppression.

Another advantage would be to promote professionalism in police work which is similar to any other profession, such as engineering, science and medicine. Professionalism requires a high degree of education and training. The concept of having officers who can work everywhere and do everything is no longer acceptable.

2. Establishing colleges of Criminal Justice

The criminal justice system involves the police, public prosecution, the judiciary system and corrections or prisons. These organisations are supposed to complement each other. The failure to develop assistants for senior police officers, public prosecutors and judges indicates that we are paying more attention to senior staff rather than executive personnel.

Criminal Justice Colleges are found everywhere around the world. In the United States of America there are more than 2200 colleges and universities with Criminal Justice programs, and the graduates of these colleges are working in almost all aspects of the criminal justice programs and criminal justice system. They are involved in policing and law enforcement, supervision of judgments, court management, as clerks for the judiciary and as managers of prisons. They also play a role in private security, the military and national security sectors. Countries should be encouraged to establish such colleges.

Stage Five

Reform of police training

Police work should be supported by specialised training for all those working in the field, whether inside or outside the work environment. Specialised training should focus in particular on developing positive relationships with the public on human rights, police technologies and public security. These areas of training may already be offered by the training authorities but training involves more than a focus on the subject area. It should also focus on the content of the training, the qualifications of the instructor, the training environment and the evaluation methods that measure the outcomes of the training. We observed that most of the instructors are experienced police leaders whose experience is valuable but does not automatically mean that we should rely on them as the pillars of training. The importance of specialisation in the field of training and the ability to develop training curricula is particularly important as a means of exchanging knowledge in the security field.

Stage Six

Increased reliance on use of Technology in police work

Police organisations should increase their reliance on technology especially in the fields of:

- > Police management
- > Infrastructure protection
- > Security operations
- > The sharing of security information
- > Criminal investigation
- > Resource allocation
- > Traffic control
- > Crime prevention

Technology can help develop professionalism and minimise the use of the traditional policing practices associated with torture and intimidation to obtain confessions or extract information.

“ Specialised training should focus on developing positive relationships with the public on human rights, police technologies and public security.

Stage Seven

Privatisation of some police services

Police worldwide are assigned with tasks of utilities police, the traffic police, prisons, civil defence and civil safety. This includes tasks such as firefighting and rescue, issuing of ID cards and travel documents. This has led to the increased diversity and complexity of police work being done across multiple areas.

Privatisation of some police work is one solution which would lead to:

- > Authorised civil entities carrying out the work of utilities, licensing, defense, and civil safety. This would be under the supervision of the police organisation allowing services to be offered by private companies with the State’s control over fees and charges of these services.
- > Prisons being under the total supervision of the Ministry of Justice, and guard of private companies. Police should only be responsible for security supervision.
- > The big economic establishments, e.g. jewellery and gold stores, companies and private enterprises appointing special and well trained guards, under the supervision of the police.
- > Development of legal guidelines and procedures for the issuance of licenses to private guard firms. This would coordinate organisation with economic establishments specialised in security and guarding.
- > Expansion of the role of the private security sector to carry out some of the traditional tasks that take up the time of the police and do not contribute to public safety.

Privatisation of many services will greatly assist in freeing up time for sufficient forces of officers, warrant officers and policemen to carry out the fundamental tasks of the police work.

These are only some ideas, and there are many more of the same. For those who wish to go into more depth in the field of police work development many books and research articles have been published. The above recommendations are based on my long experience in the field of police work and on my experience in areas of police concepts studies and research.

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