

Criminal Victimisation in Eleven Industrialised Countries

162

Onderzoek en beleid

Key findings from the 1996
International Crime Victims
Survey

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Errata

Page 6, Attitudes to punishment

In referring to support for community service orders: '... It had the strongest support in France, ~~Australia~~ *Austria* and Switzerland.'

Page 18, 2nd paragraph

'... It was felt ~~realistic~~ *unrealistic* to assume sufficient countries would participate ...'

Page 44, paragraph 3.3

The reference to Table 7 should be to *Table 8*.

Page 52, last line

'... but much less ~~uncommon~~ *common* elsewhere.)'

Page 56, Table 10

The figures for the Netherlands have been omitted. They are:

	Fine	Prison	CSO
1989	9	26	46
1992	9	26	48
1994	9	31	42

Page 66, Switzerland

'... The number of addicts is now estimated to be 5.4 per million 1,000, ...'

Appendix 4, Table 14

The figures in the bottom half of the table refer to those who felt help from a specialised victim support agency would *not* be helpful (The figures in Table 8, page 46 are correct.)

Preface

The serial publication '*Onderzoek en beleid*' (Research and Policy) was developed some years ago to publish results of the research conducted at the WODC (Research and Documentation Centre).

As a centre of expertise of the Ministry of Justice the WODC considers it its task to make public the results of relevant, policy-oriented research conducted by others/ elsewhere. One of the ways to do so is to publish work by authors outside the WODC in the serial publication Research and Policy. The present report, produced by professor Jan van Dijk and Pat Mayhew, with the results of the Third International Crime Victims Survey, is the first example of this policy.

Just like the other publications of the WODC acceptance into the serial does not necessarily mean that it represents the views of the Minister of Justice of the Netherlands. The authors of this publication are solely responsible for the research results published here.

Acknowledgements

Many different organisations and individuals have played a part in the International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS). Thanks are due first to the Ministry of Justice of the Netherlands for its overall funding and administrative support. Criminal Justice ministries and research centres in other participating countries have also made the ICVS a success.

The surveys in participating countries were overseen by national coordinators who were involved in the preparation and translation of the questionnaire, and who carried the brunt of the administrative work in getting the survey into the field locally. Their support was invaluable.

We are greatly indebted to InterView BV (the Netherlands), the overall contractor for the 1989, 1992 and 1996 surveys. In 1996, the InterView research team was headed by Aad van der Veen. The ICVS involved them in a great deal of work preparing the computer-programmed questionnaires, supervising the performance of sub-contracted local firms, overseeing data preparation and preparing technical reports. Their competence was a major factor in bringing the survey to fruition.

A number of colleagues in various countries generously offered their help and advice. We should like to mention in particular Professor Martin Killias of Lausanne University who helped us enormously during various stages of the project. Special thanks are also due to Ugljesa Zvekic and Anna Alvazzi del Frate of UNICRI in Rome. Much of the data analysis for the 1996 survey was carried out by John van Kesteren and Leo Toornvliet of the University of Leyden. In England, Philip White and Andrew Zuraman of the Research and Statistics Directorate of the Home Office also helped. We are very grateful for the work they did. Others who have also played a valuable part in preparing this report are Huub Simons and Sjaak Essers of the Research and Documentation Centre of the Dutch Ministry of Justice.

Jan van Dijk

Pat Mayhew

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Summary

The International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) is the most far-reaching programme of fully standardised sample surveys looking at householders' experience of crime in different countries. The first ICVS took place in 1989, the second in 1992, and the third in 1996. Surveys have been carried out in over 50 countries since 1989, including a large number of city surveys in developing countries and countries in transition. This report deals with eleven industrialised countries which took part in the third sweep.

The reason for setting up the ICVS was the inadequacy of other measures of crime across country. Figures of offences recorded by the police are problematic due to differences in the way the police define, record and count crime. And since most crimes the police know about are reported by victims, police figures can differ simply because of differences in reporting behaviour. It is also difficult to make comparisons of independently organised crime surveys, as these differ in design and coverage.

For the countries covered in this report, interviews were mainly conducted by telephone (with samples selected through variants of random digit dialling). There is no reason to think results are biased because of the telephone mode. Response rates varied but we show that there is no overriding evidence that this affects the count of victimisation. Samples were usually of 1,000 or 2,000 people which means there is a fairly wide sampling error on the ICVS estimates. The surveys cannot, then, give precise estimates of crime in different countries. But they are a unique source of information and give good comparative information.

The results in this report relate mainly to respondents' experience of crime in 1995, the year prior to the 1996 survey. Those interviewed were asked about crimes they had experienced, whether or not reported to the police. The main results follow.

Overall victimisation

- The ICVS allows a measure of the percentage of people victimised in the past year by *any* of the eleven crimes covered by the survey. This is a simple but robust indicator of overall proneness to crime. The countries fall into three bands
 - Above 30% (victim of any crime in 1995): The Netherlands, England and Wales.
 - 24%-27%: Switzerland, Scotland, France, Canada, the USA.
 - Under 20%: Sweden, Finland, Austria, and Northern Ireland.
- For countries in previous sweeps of the ICVS, the present results generally mirror previous ones as regards relative rankings.

- In terms of the *number* of crimes experienced per capita, Switzerland, Scotland and France fared better than Canada and the USA, compared to the pattern from the above prevalence risks. On this incidence measure, there was again most crime in the Netherlands, and England and Wales.

Thefts of cars

- The risk of having a car stolen was highest in England and Wales (3% of owners had a theft), Scotland (2.2%), and the USA (2.1%).
- Those in Austria, Switzerland, and the Netherlands were least likely to get their cars back – indicating proportionately more professional theft. Recovery rates were highest in Sweden, Finland, and the USA – indicating more thefts for ‘joyriding’. In the eight countries in Europe with surveys prior to 1996, the proportion of stolen cars recovered has fallen in six.
- In countries where bicycle ownership is high, bicycle thefts are high too, while cars stolen for joyriding in particular tend to be low.

Thefts from cars

- Thefts from cars (luggage, radios, car mirrors etc) were highest in England and Wales (10% of owners had one or more theft), Scotland (9%), France (8%) and the USA (8%). Risks were lowest in Northern Ireland, Switzerland, Finland and Austria.

Burglary

- The proportion of households who had a completed or attempted burglary was highest in England and Wales (6%), Canada, the Netherlands, and the USA (all 5%).
- The pattern of relative risk is very similar whether the focus is on burglary with entry or attempts. Where burglars are successfully gain entry, they are also more active in trying to do so.
- Nonetheless, the proportion of burglaries which involved attempts varies somewhat by country. More burglaries were attempts in Scotland, England and Wales, the Netherlands, the USA, and Finland. The ICVS evidence suggests that homes in these countries are better protected by security devices. This may explain why burglars more often fail to gain entry.

Contact crime

- Contact crime comprises here robbery, assaults, and sexual assaults (against women only). The highest risks were in England and Wales and the USA: over 3% were victimised – double the level in Northern Ireland, Austria and the

Netherlands. Sweden and Finland also had relatively high levels of contact crime, echoing previous ICVS results.

- There was a higher than average use of knives in robberies in Scotland, Switzerland, Austria, France, and the Netherlands, and a higher than average use of guns in the USA and Northern Ireland.

Other crime

- There was a residual category of other crimes: vandalism to cars, thefts of motorcycles and bicycles, theft of personal property, offensive sexual behaviour, and threats. They are pooled together since most are seen as not very serious.
- Taken as a whole, those in the Netherlands were hardest hit (26% experienced one or more incident in 1995), followed by those in England and Wales (23%) and Switzerland (21%). In the Netherlands, risks of all the sub-categories were comparatively high. In Switzerland, risks were increased most by bicycle thefts and thefts of personal property. In England and Wales, vandalism to cars increased risks most.

Country profiles of crime

- The make-up of crime differs across country. In Scotland, France, Northern Ireland and England and Wales, half of the crimes reported in the ICVS were targeted at cars. But a third or less crimes in Finland, Switzerland, Sweden, and the Netherlands involved cars. Rather, thefts of two-wheelers formed a much bigger part of the national crime picture in these countries than elsewhere – in the region of a quarter of all crimes.
- In the USA and Canada, burglaries comprised a bigger proportion of all crimes than elsewhere. Figures were lowest in Finland, Sweden and Austria.
- Contact crime, together with threats and offensive sexual behaviour, made up nearly a quarter of crime incidents on average. But proportionately more crime incidents in Finland, the USA, and Austria were of this type.

Crime seriousness

- Victims are asked to assess the seriousness of what happened to them. The mean scores for different offence types did not differ much by country – perhaps indicating similar thresholds of seriousness and patterns of crime. The *ranking* of offences in seriousness terms also showed marked similarity, indicating a high degree of consensus about the import of conventional crimes.
- We applied an international consensus measure of offence seriousness to people's victimisation experiences in 1995 to see how countries fared on a crime count taking seriousness into account. It did not greatly alter the 'burden of crime' picture from other measures. The Netherlands and England and Wales

still remain most pressured by crime. However, Switzerland and Scotland fall back in the relative order when seriousness is taken into account, while the USA goes higher up the list.

Trends in crime

- England and Wales, the Netherlands, Finland, the USA and Canada have entered all three sweeps of the ICVS. The trend in overall victimisation since 1988 was compared with offences recorded by the police. There is some symmetry in the two measures.
- On both, crime levels rose between 1988 and 1991, the USA being an exception on both police and surveys figures, and the Netherlands on police figures. Between 1991 and 1995, police figures have fallen in all countries except the Netherlands, with the fall in Finland fairly marginal. On ICVS figures, risks in the USA, Canada and Finland have fallen, and stabilised somewhat in England and Wales and the Netherlands. Where police and survey trends differ most, changes in reporting levels may help explain why.
- What explains this interesting picture of recent crime trends is hard to say. It may be to do with increased police or sentencing effectiveness, better economic conditions, improved security against property crime, or possibly complicated demographic and cultural changes. The ICVS itself cannot provide evidence for or against these explanations, although the results, as regards burglary at least, lend some credence to the possibility that improved security has had a beneficial effect.

Explaining crime levels

- Results from the 1996 ICVS covered here were combined with those from eight other industrialised countries in previous sweeps, and seven countries in the Eastern bloc, economically in transition, which took part in 1996. The two main determinants of property crime were urbanisation (which increased risks) and affluence (which decreased them). But risks were higher than would be predicted in England and Wales, the USA, New Zealand and Estonia. In contrast, risks were lower than predicted in Austria, Finland, and Norway.

Reporting to the police

- Nearly all cars and motorcycles stolen were reported, as were burglaries with entry. About two-thirds of thefts from cars and bicycle thefts were reported, but on average only about half of attempted burglaries and robberies were. Figures for other crime types were lower
- More victims in Sweden reported to the police than elsewhere. But those in Scotland, England and Wales, the USA, the Netherlands and Switzerland all

shared high reporting rates. Crimes were least often reported in Northern Ireland and France.

- That the incident was 'not serious enough' or there was 'no loss' was by far the most common reason for not reporting in all countries. The idea that the police could do nothing about what happened featured in just over one in ten incidents overall, and it was a more common response in Northern Ireland. That the police would not help was mentioned most often in France, England and Wales, the Netherlands and Switzerland.
- When victims *did* report, insurance requirements weighed more with those in Switzerland, France and Sweden. The obligation to report weighed most with those in England and Wales, Scotland, and the USA. Retributive motives were most evident in Northern Ireland and the USA. More in the USA than elsewhere wanted compensation from the offender.
- Some victims were asked whether they got help from a specialised victim support agency. When a burglary had occurred, the greatest proportion (one in five) received help in England and Wales, with higher figures than elsewhere in Scotland and Northern Ireland too. For interpersonal crimes, more support was given in general – the highest level in Sweden, the USA and England and Wales. Support from specialised agencies had generally increased since previous rounds of the ICVS.
- In most countries, around three to four in ten victims would have welcomed more help after having experienced a crime.
- The majority of victims were satisfied with how the police responded to their crime report. Those in Finland held the most favourable views, though not far behind were victims in Scotland, Sweden, Canada, England and Wales and the Netherlands. The police response was considered least good in France and Austria.
- People were asked to say whether or not the police did a good job in controlling crime in their area. Police performance was most favourably judged in Canada (80%), the USA (77%), Scotland (69%), and England and Wales (68%). By far the least satisfied were those in the Netherlands (45%). In most countries, attitudes have become less favourable since 1988.

Anxiety about burglary

- One in ten of those in England and Wales felt they were very likely to be burgled in the coming year. Those in France were the next most pessimistic (6%). There was least concern in Sweden, Austria and Finland.
- Whereas more people felt a burglary was likely in 1992 than in 1989, fewer did so in 1996 – generally speaking. Public perceptions of risk are tracking crime trends to an extent then.

Safety on the streets

- When asked how safe they feel walking alone in their area after dark, those in England and Wales were most anxious (32% felt a bit or very unsafe). Concern was also high in Scotland, Canada, and the USA – about 25%. Feelings of vulnerability were lowest in Sweden, Finland and Switzerland.
- Whereas anxiety about burglary matches national risks, feelings about street safety are not consistently related to levels of 'street trouble'. The lack of much relationship between anxiety and risks of street crime has been evident in previous ICVS results. It may mean that fear of street crime is determined by specific 'cultural' pressures.

Home security

- Taking a summary measure of home security, the most security conscious were those in England and Wales, the Netherlands and Scotland.
- New questions in the ICVS have been able to confirm the effectiveness of burglar alarms. Those who had an alarm installed less often had a burglar get in

Attitudes to punishment

- People were asked about the most appropriate sentence for a recidivist burglar aged 21. A community service order was most favoured in seven out of twelve countries in the 1992 and 1996 surveys. It had the strongest support in France, Australia, and Switzerland.
- Support for imprisonment in 1996 was greatest in the USA, England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland (all with about half choosing it). For the ten countries for which change in sentencing preferences can be examined, support for imprisonment has increased in eight. The most marked switch in opinion has been in England and Wales and Scotland. The trend was not evident in France and Sweden, where community service orders now find more favour. Whether sentencing policies follow public attitudes, or public attitudes follow sentencing practice is difficult to say.

Introduction

1.1 Background to the International Crime Victims Survey

The International Crime Victims Survey (ICVS hereafter) is the most far-reaching programme of standardised sample surveys to look at householders' experience of crime in different countries. This chapter summarises first the development of the ICVS. It then explains the methodology of the surveys conducted in 1996 in the eleven industrialised countries with which this report deals. We address the technical limitations of the ICVS, arguing that these need to be set against the unique information it has provided.

There were two main reasons for setting up the ICVS. The first was the inadequacy of offences recorded by the police for comparing crime in different countries. The second was the absence of any alternative standardised measure.

Police figures are problematic for comparative purposes because the vast majority of incidents the police know about are notified by victims, and any differences in propensity to report in different countries will undermine the comparability of the amount of crime counted by the police. Moreover, official police figures vary because of differences in legal definitions, recording practices, and precise rules for classifying and counting incidents. These limitations are well-established. A number of countries have independently mounted crime or 'victimisation' surveys to assess national crime problems – and the ICVS mirrors their approach. Such surveys ask representative samples about selected offences they have experienced over a given time. They are interested in incidents whether or not reported to the police, and indeed in the reasons why people do and do not choose to notify the police. They thus provide both a more realistic count of how many people are affected by crime and – if the surveys are repeated – a measure of trends in crime unaffected by changes in victims' reporting behaviour, or administrative changes in recording crime. By collecting social and demographic information on respondents questioned, crime surveys also allow analysis of how risks of crime vary for different groups, in terms of age, income levels etc.

The independent national and local surveys looked promising for comparative purposes, and a few attempts were made to use them (earlier reports on the ICVS have described these – see Van Dijk *et al.*, 1990, and Van Dijk and Mayhew, 1992). However, the number of countries with appropriate surveys was limited, and the surveys used different methods, making comparisons far from straightforward.¹

It was inevitable, then, that as more was understood about the effect of methodology on how much and what is counted, a case would be made for a fully standardised survey in different countries which would use the same questionnaire, similar methods of sample selection, consistent survey procedures, and the same methods of data analysis. A few standardised questionnaires were developed as a result, although they tended to be restricted in offence coverage, and not always identically administered. Again, these have been reported on in earlier ICVS reports.

1.1.1 *The ICVS to date*

There have been three rounds of the ICVS. The first was developed by a Working Group set up in 1987, leading to fieldwork early in 1989. Thereafter the Working Group reformed, consisting of Jan van Dijk (Ministry of Justice/University of Leyden, the Netherlands; overall coordinator), Pat Mayhew (Home Office, United Kingdom), and Ugljesa Zvekic of the United Nations Interregional Criminal Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in Rome.

The second ICVS took place in 1992, and the third in 1996. In the main, each country has met its own survey costs, although much of the administrative overheads of the ICVS programme has been borne by the Dutch Ministry of Justice. Oversight of the surveys has been managed by the Working Groups, but a coordinator in each country has been responsible for the conduct of fieldwork, and where necessary for ensuring a sound translation of the questionnaire. The technical management of most of the surveys in industrialised countries has been carried out by InterView, a Dutch survey company. InterView sub-contracted fieldwork to survey companies in the participating countries, maintaining responsibility for the questionnaire, sample selection and interview procedures. The data from the surveys have been integrated and processed by John van Kesteren of the Criminological Institute, Faculty of Law of the University of Leyden in the Netherlands. Professor Martin Killias of the University of Lausanne translated the English version of the questionnaire into French and German.

Fifteen countries took part in the first (1989) ICVS, including the cities of Warsaw (Poland) and Surabaya (Indonesia). The second (1992) ICVS covered thirteen industrialised countries, including Poland (as a whole) and Czechoslovakia. Eight of the countries had taken part in 1989. Full details of the 1989 and 1992 surveys in industrialised countries are reported in Van Dijk *et al.*, (1990) and in Van Dijk and Mayhew (1992). They are not repeated here.

1 Differences in survey design and administration influence both the amount and the type of victimisation measured. The technical differences at issue include: the number of people interviewed in the household; sampling frame and age range; mode of interviewer, 'screening' methods and number of 'screeners'; 'recall' period; and response rates.

Table 1: Industrialised countries in the ICVS

	1989	1992	1996
Austria			*
Australia	*	*	
Belgium	*	*	
Canada	*	*	*
England & Wales	*	*	*
Germany (West)	*		
Finland	*	*	*
France	*		*
Italy		*	
Japan	*	*	
Netherlands	*	*	*
New Zealand		*	
Northern Ireland	*		*
Norway	*		
Scotland	*		*
Spain	*		
Sweden		*	*
Switzerland	*		*
USA	*	*	*

1 Warsaw (Poland) and Surabaya (Indonesia) also took part in 1989; Poland and Czechoslovakia also had national surveys in 1992. Results from these have been reported in Van Dijk *et al.*, 1990, and Van Dijk and Mayhew, 1992.

The second (1992) round of the ICVS expanded to include standardised surveys in twelve developing countries, mainly at city level. These were taken forward largely by UNICRI which was keen to sensitise governments of developing countries and countries in transition to the dimensions and extent of crime in their urban areas – especially as police data on crime were often poor. Results are reported in del Frate *et al.* (1993). After the second ICVS, a programme of standardised surveys of crime against businesses was also mounted in nine countries. Comparative results are in Van Dijk and Terlouw (1996)

1.2 The 1996 ICVS

The third ICVS took place at the beginning of 1996. Eleven industrialised countries took part, and they are the focus of this report (see Table 1). A further 28 surveys were conducted in developing countries and countries in transition under UNICRI direction (UNICRI, 1997). Outside the management of the Working Group, the ICVS questionnaire has also been used in several other countries – albeit with possible changes in sampling procedures, survey administration, and precise wording of the

questions.² Some items of the ICVS questionnaire have also been included in the Eurobarometer in 1996, at the request of the European Commission's Secretary General (INRA, 1996).

1.3 Survey methods

1.3.1 *The count of crime*

The ICVS is similar to most crime surveys of households with respect to the crime it covers. It is confined to counting crimes against clearly identifiable individuals, excluding children. (Crime surveys cannot easily cover organisational victims, or victimless crimes such as drug abuse.) For the crimes it covers, the ICVS asks about incidents which by and large accord with legal definitions of offences, though in essence it accepts respondents' accounts of what happened – or at least the accounts they are prepared to give to interviewers. In this respect, it applies a broader definition of crime than the police who, if incidents are reported to them, are likely to filter out those which may not be felt to merit the attention of the criminal justice system, or meet organisational demands for reasonable evidence. Respondents are asked about eleven main forms of victimisation, three of which allow further subdivision (see below). Household crimes are those which can be seen as affecting the household at large, and respondents reported on all incidents known to them. For personal crimes, they reported on what happened to them personally.

Household property crimes	Personal crime
- theft of car	- theft of personal property
- theft from cars	pickpocketing
- vandalism to cars	non-contact personal thefts
- theft of motorcycles	- sexual incidents
- theft of bicycles	sexual assaults
- burglary with entry	offensive behaviour
- attempted burglary	- assaults/threats
- robbery	assaults with force
	assaults without force

2 The surveys in Japan (1989 and 1992) used the ICVS questionnaire, though with some small changes and differences in sampling. The Polish surveys (1989 and 1992) were also done independently of InterView, as were those in Czechoslovakia (now the Czech and Slovak republics), and in Estonia (1992 and 1995). So, too, were the 1992 and 1996 Finnish surveys, although there was very close collaboration with the Working Groups. Other countries which have conducted surveys outside the Working Group are, for example, Korea (1989), Germany (1990), Russia (1990), Papua New Guinea (1992), Argentina (1996), Malta (1996) and Belgium (1997).

In the surveys in developing countries and countries in transition, consumer fraud and corruption have also been covered. Consumer fraud was asked about in industrialised countries in 1992 and 1996, and corruption in 1996. No results are reported here (although see Appendix 4, Tables 4 and 5). For corruption, there were generally very low risks relative to non-industrialised countries (cf. Zvekic, 1996). Consumer fraud was experienced more often, although the degree to which certain types of 'cheating' contravene the law is unclear because of difference in consumer legislation across countries.

Respondents are asked first about their experience of crime over the last five years. Those who mention an incident of any particular type are asked when it occurred, and if in the last year, how many times. All victims reporting incidents over the past five years are asked some additional questions about what happened.

1.3.2 The 1996 ICVS

The ICVS also shares many other features of crime surveys with respect to how adequately it measures victimisation, and these are discussed more fully later. First, though, we describe the technical details of the surveys in industrialised countries in the 1996 ICVS sweep.

Samples

To keep costs in check and encourage as full participation as possible, samples in all sweeps of the ICVS have been relatively modest. In the 1996 surveys in industrialised countries, samples were usually of between 1,000 and 2,500 respondents (see Table 1 in Appendix 1). In each country, a regionally well-spread sample of households was taken. Within each household, one randomly selected respondent aged 16 or more was questioned.³

Fieldwork and weighting

Inter/View were appointed as overall contractor for the 1996 surveys, as was the case in 1989 and 1992. Fieldwork was sub-contracted to survey companies in the countries taking part. Interviews began in January 1996, and lasted six to seven weeks. An average interview lasted about 15 minutes depending mainly on the extent of victimisation experience reported.

Results in this report are based on data which have been weighted to make the samples as representative as possible of national populations aged 16 or more in terms of gender, regional population distribution, age, and household composition. The weighting procedures in the 1996 surveys are the same as those used previously and details can be found in Van Dijk and Mayhew (1992: Annex B).

³ The respondents was generally selected by the Troidahl-Carter method. No substitution of the selected respondent was allowed.

Computer assisted telephone interviewing

In all countries except Northern Ireland, interviews in the 1996 survey (as was usually the case in previous sweeps) were done by telephone. Interviewers used computers from which they read the questions and recorded answers – a procedure known as computer assisted telephone interviewing (CATI). The issue of telephone interviewing is returned to.

In 1996, as in 1989, interviews in Northern Ireland were face-to-face, since it was felt that the response to telephone interviews might be low because of the security situation. A random sample was taken from the Electoral Register.

Response rates

In the eleven industrialised countries in the 1996 ICVS taken as a whole, 67% of the respondents selected for interview agreed to take part. This was an improvement on the overall response rate of 60% for the twelve countries in the 1992 sweep for which response details are available, and on the 43% response rate in 1989 (fourteen countries with details).⁴ In 1996, response rates varied from 40% (in the USA) to 80% or more in Austria, Finland, and Northern Ireland.

For the six countries which took part both in 1992 and 1996, the response rate was about same or better in five, but fell slightly in two (the Netherlands and the USA). For the three countries which had surveys in 1996 and 1989, and for which response details are available, response was higher in 1996 in two, but lower in Switzerland. The response rates in the 1996 surveys (and those in earlier sweeps) are shown in Table 1 in Appendix 1. Again, the question of how response affects the ICVS results is returned to.

1.4 A methodological overview

While many of the methodological features of the ICVS relate to crime surveys in general, some have particular pertinence because of the comparative nature of the ICVS, and the possibility of *differential* effects. The main issues for the ICVS are as follows.

1.4.1 Survey company performance

Although survey administration was in the main centrally organised, the performance of the individual survey companies in different countries could have differed,

4 To try and improve response after the first sweep, three pilot studies were carried out in 1991 to test whether people who initially refused to cooperate could be persuaded to participate when approached again after two to three weeks. In a second phase of fieldwork, then, all initial refusals and those not contacted the first time were called back. All exercises resulted in the response rate being substantially increased (by 10-22 percentage points). This procedure was used in most countries in the second and third sweeps of the ICVS.

affecting what respondents were (and were not) prepared to tell interviewers. This problem applies to any survey conducted in different sites, or at different times. In the case of the ICVS, InterView tried to standardise company performance as far as possible.

1.4.2 Response rates

Getting an adequate representative cross-section of the population is always difficult, and it is problematic to the extent that those who are not successfully interviewed may differ from those who are. Not all ICVS surveys have produced high response rates – although they have generally improved over time. The effect of response levels on measured victimisation is important for the ICVS. The main question is whether *variability* in response levels upsets comparability insofar as when there is a low response rate, the count of victimisation is likely to differ from where there is a good response. The issues are complicated however. First, good (or poor) response may simply reflect survey company performance, saying little about the nature of those who are (or who are not) interviewed in terms of crime risks. Second, response rates may also reflect the willingness of those in different countries to be interviewed by phone – and certainly field experience suggests that the acceptability of phone interviews differs. Again this may be of little relevance in terms of the characteristics those who are or who are not interviewed. Third, though, there is the possibility that when response is low, this introduces real bias into the results on account of the nature of the resulting samples. To consider this third issue, analysis was carried out for the large number of surveys in industrialised countries in three sweeps of the ICVS. We compared incidents of crimes measured in the survey with information on (i) overall response levels, (ii) the proportion of eligible contacts who refused to be interviewed, and (iii) the proportion who were not contacted for interview. In terms of overall response levels (for which 37 surveys in industrialised countries could be examined), there was no statistically robust correlation between victimisation risks and the proportion of eligible contacts who responded.⁵ The pattern of results illustrates this in any case. In the 1989 ICVS, for instance, risks were high in three countries with poorer response (e.g., the USA, Spain, West Germany). However, in Belgium, response was also poor, but risks low. And in Holland, response was comparatively good, but risks high. In the 1992 survey, several countries with relatively *good* response yielded higher than average victimisation rates (particularly Poland, Canada and New Zealand), but victimisation was relatively low in Finland and Sweden, where response was also good. As said, response rates

5 The correlation between response rates and overall 'last year' victimisation rates suggests that high response rates were associated with lower victimisation, but the result was not statistically robust ($r = -0.200$; $n = 37$; ns).

in the 1996 surveys were generally higher than in 1992, without any general increase in risk (Chapter 2). Since a 'real' levelling-off may have occurred, this does not add much to the question of the effect of response levels.

This result is not out of line with other tests looking at response levels in relation to victimisation counts. They have provided some support for the notion that surveys with poorer response have higher counts, although the differences in risks have been generally modest, or differences in other test conditions (e.g., mode of interview) have made sound comparisons difficult.⁶

The lack of association in the ICVS between overall response levels and victimisation counts, however, leaves open the possibility that low response in surveys *does* matter, but that this depends on whether it is due to high refusals rates, or high non-contact rates. The two positions are that:

- Surveys with low response rates due to high rates of *refusals* simply pick up people 'with more to say' (refusers having 'less to say'). Victims therefore are overrepresented, with the effect that victimisation risks in countries where refusal rates are higher are overestimated.
- Where there is a low response rate due to high rates of *non-contact*, people are omitted with whom it is harder to achieve an interview – people who may be more liable to victimisation because they are residentially more unstable, or simply away from home more. Victims therefore are underrepresented, with the effect that victimisation risks in countries where non-contact is high is understated.

Looking at 34 ICVS surveys for which refusal levels could be examined, there was no good statistical evidence to suggest that when refusals were higher, victimisation risks increased.⁷ The ICVS, however, does not allow a good test of the relationship between contact rates and measured victimisation, since with random digit dialling the meaning of non-contact is diverse. Studies outside the victimisation field, though, indicate that non-respondents to telephone surveys register higher on 'negative' social indicators such as ill-health (e.g., Groves and Lyberg, 1988). Sparks

6 Some early research in the Netherlands (Fiselier, 1978) and Switzerland (Killias, 1989) on the basis of mail questionnaires lends support to the first 'more to say' position: both showed that victimisation rates were slightly higher among those who first responded than among those who did not initially do so – though the differences were small. A similar result was evident in a re-contact test in Belgium and the USA in 1991 in the context of the ICVS, though again differences were marginal (InterView, 1991). The ICVS survey in Malaga (Spain) had a split sample design, with some respondents interviewed by phone and some face-to-face. Telephone interviews conducted later with about half of those who had initially refused to participate in a personal interview produced an overall victimisation rate slightly lower than the main telephone sample – again suggesting that they had 'less to say' (Stangeland, 1995). In an independently organised victimisation survey in Germany in 1990 – response was higher than in the 1989 ICVS, and the overall victimisation rate lower (Kury, 1991).

7 For instance, splitting the surveys into three roughly equal groups according to refusal levels, there was an average of 44 victimisation incidents per 100 for the group with the highest refusal rate, 44 for the group with medium refusal rates, and 36 for the group with the lowest refusal rate. The overall correlation between refusals rates and victimisation incidence was -0.005; $n = 34$; ns.

et al.'s (1977) London crime survey, too, found that those who had reported crimes to the police were more difficult to locate for interview.

In sum, there is no overriding evidence from the ICVS that countries with low response levels have either inflated or deflated counts of victimisation relative to other countries. It cannot be ruled out, though, that response effects work differently in different countries (such that a low response rate in one country influences the victimisation count in a way that does not occur in another), but the overall burden of the ICVS evidence does not indicate substantial bias due to variable response rates.

1.4.3 *Sample sizes*

Sample sizes in the ICVS are small by the standards of most 'bespoke' national crime surveys. However, the decision to accept relatively modest samples was carefully made. It was considered simply unrealistic to assume sufficient countries would participate if costs were too high (especially as some countries had their own 'bespoke' surveys). The value of the ICVS rests on the breadth of countries which have participated; this would have been considerably reduced if costs had been higher.

Modest sample sizes produce relatively large sampling error, but for straightforward comparisons of national risks, samples of 1,000 or more suffice to judge broad variations in levels of crime across country. (The statistical significance of differences between the various national victimisation rates and other key findings can be determined on the basis of the nomogram given in Appendix 2). Modest samples, however, restrict the scope for analysing issues about which a small proportion of the sample would provide information.

1.4.4 *Telephone interviewing*

Telephone interviewing, and in some instances the specific computer assisted (CATI) variant of it, has been increasingly used in victimisation surveys – in Canada, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the USA, for example. For the ICVS, CATI was accepted as a sound technique for industrialised countries where telephone penetration is high. Cost was a major consideration, since central telephoning avoids the costs of getting interviewers to a large number of households across the country. As important, though, is that CATI allows much tighter standardisation of questionnaire administration. It also enables samples to be drawn which are geographically unclustered, and because some variant of random digit dialling is used, based on full coverage of telephone owners, including those with unlisted numbers.

There are two main issues for the ICVS. The first is whether telephone interviews produce different results than would be the case with face-to-face (personal) interviews. Methodological work has generally shown little difference in responses

to telephone and face-to-face interviews (see Leeuw and Zouwen (1988) for a review of 28 studies). With respect to crime victimisation, the general consensus also is that the two modes produce similar results, as long as the same standards of fieldwork are applied, although Smith (1989) has argued that telephone interviews provide a higher degree of confidentiality and minimize interviewer effects for more sensitive topics, such as sexual victimisation. Tests in the context of the ICVS have produced mixed results about the 'productivity' of telephone versus personal interviews, but they have not provided any overridingly strong evidence that victimisation counts are affected by interview mode.⁸ It cannot entirely be discounted, however, that some differences in results across country reflect differences in the acceptability of being questioned by phone.

The second issue is whether there is bias in the results because non-telephone owners are omitted. At the time of the first ICVS, telephone penetration was lower in some countries than it was in 1996, thus allowing the possibility of bias both as regards counting victimisation and measuring attitudes. While it is impossible to say conclusively whether this was the case, levels of telephone ownership in the 1989 ICVS did not relate to the experience of different crimes in any consistent way (Van Dijk *et al.*, 1990). It is also the case that the characteristics of non-telephone owners (most of which will be related to income) may be more akin to those of respondents with whom it is harder to achieve a personal interview (cf. Aye Maung, 1995).

1.4.5 Response error

It is well-established that crime surveys are prone to various response errors. For one, certain groups (e.g., the better educated) seem more adept at remembering and articulating incidents of victimisation. Second, and more important, is that respondents' memories are imperfect, and they may fail to report all relevant incidents that happened in the period asked about, or may 'telescope in' incidents

8 One test was in the Netherlands. Three ICVS questions were used in an experimental test of the CATI technique and self-assisted telephone interviewing through a modem – which allows the respondent to answer questions at his/her own pace (more similar to face-to-face interviewing). No significant differences in victimisation rates emerged (Saris and Scherpenzeel, 1992). In a second test, Pavlovic (1994) used the ICVS questionnaire in a survey in Ljubljana, capital of Slovenia, using split samples of 700 telephone interviews, and 300 personal interviews. Refusal rates were very low in both modes, and no differences were found as regards victimisation levels, bearing in mind the relatively small samples. The split sample design used in the ICVS survey in Malaga, Spain, had rather larger samples (Stangeland, 1995). The overall victimisation rate in the personal interviews were higher than in the telephone interview, but the response rate was appreciably lower. The difference in response rates in the two modes complicates conclusions about which mode is more 'productive' in terms of victimisation counts. Finally, in an experiment by Kury *et al.*, (1991), mailed interviews using the ICVS questionnaire produced significantly higher overall prevalence rates than personal interviews. Here, again, the lower response rate of the mailed questionnaire complicates the interpretation.

outside this period.⁹ Some people may also fail to realise an incident is relevant, or may be reticent to talk about some incidents, for instance sexual incidents, or those involving people they know. These factors probably mean, on balance, that the ICVS undercounts crime. It certainly means that it only measures those crimes that respondents are prepared to reveal to interviewers.

A critical issue is whether response errors are constant across country. There is little way of knowing for certain. The tendency to forget more trivial incidents of crime may be relatively universal, as may 'forward telescoping' of more salient incidents. Some types of differential 'response productivity' may also be constant, at least within the industrialised world. Whether respondents differ across countries in their preparedness to talk to interviewers about victimisation is difficult to say. Cultural sensitivity may possibly apply most to some forms of assaults, and to sexual incidents (where the ICVS has been particularly criticised (Travis *et al.*, 1995; Koss, 1996)).

A criticism of the ICVS has been that respondents in different countries may have different cultural thresholds for defining certain behaviours as crime, thus differentially 'defining in' or 'defining out' certain sorts of anti-social behaviour in response to the questions put to them (Bruinsma *et al.*, 1992). For industrialised countries, this may have been overstated to the extent that common cultural and legal backgrounds, as well as the globalisation of markets and mass media information, lead to fairly universal definitions about most conventional crimes (e.g., Gottfredson and Hirschi, 1990). Certainly, what is now known from the ICVS is that victims across Western countries hold strikingly similar views about the relative seriousness of different offence types about which they are asked. In a study of ICVS results for fourteen countries using a question to victims about how they judged the seriousness of what had happened, Van Dijk and Van Kesteren (1996) showed that there was high consensus. Results on seriousness assessments in the 1996 ICVS are covered in Chapter 2.

1.4.6 Summary

The ICVS results cannot give definitive estimates of crime in different countries. Nonetheless, the survey is a unique source of comparative information and its results deserve closer inspection on this basis alone. The results from the eleven industrialised countries featured here need to be set in the context of the ICVS

9 In a study in the Netherlands, based on a check of victimization survey data against police data (a forward record check), respondents tended to 'telescope in' incidents into the last year reference period which have actually taken place in the previous year (Van Dijk, 1991a). In the ICVS, the initial screening question reference period of five years is meant to reduce the forward time telescoping that can occur when respondents are asked about the last year. In a test of the screening questions used in the ICVS it was found that the omission of the five year reference period screener produced significantly higher one year rates (Saris and Scherpenzeel, 1992)

programme as a whole, the main strength of which is the large number of countries it has covered. By 1997, some 58 countries or cities around the world have taken part in the ICVS at least once under the management of the Working Group, or have used the ICVS questionnaire. Moreover, the ICVS has provided a wealth of new information about the patterns and correlates of criminal victimisation (some of which are taken up in Chapter 5), as well as the 'league tables' which have attracted most attention.

The main criticisms of the ICVS have centred on sample sizes, response rates, the use of telephone interviews, and the insensitivity to cultural heterogeneity that is implied by issuing the same questionnaire to those in very different communities. These criticisms have been addressed above, but a final word is in order. The Working Group responded to demand for a standardised survey and the lack of criminological energy for the formidable logistical exercise involved. It was felt realistic to assume sufficient countries would participate if costs were increased by large samples, and the choice of telephone interviews can be well-defended.

1.5 Outline of the report

This report gives an overview of the key findings of the 1996 ICVS surveys in eleven industrialised countries. Reference is made to results for these countries from earlier sweeps, if available and where appropriate. Results from other industrialised countries not participating in 1996 are generally omitted in the interests of space and readability. Some details, though, can be found in the tables in Appendix 4. Chapter 2 presents, for each of the eleven countries, rates of victimisation for four main categories of crime: thefts of cars, burglary, theft of cars, contact crime (covering robbery, assaults and sexual assaults), and the residual offences. There is some discussion of how the picture of victimisation experience changes when offence seriousness is taken into account. Trends over time are also examined, in tandem with the picture from offences recorded by the police.

Chapter 3 looks at the extent to which victims reported crime to the police. It also shows why victims did not report, and why they did. Satisfaction with the police response when a crime was reported is also considered, as is whether victims got help from a specialised support agency, and if they did not, whether they would have liked support. Some mention is made of general attitudes to the police.

Chapter 4 deals with results on anxiety about street crime, and perceptions of the risk of being burgled. It also presents some findings about the precautions people take against crime, and about how those in different countries vary in the sentence they recommend for a 21 year old recidivist burglar.

Chapter 5 makes some general points about what the ICVS programme has achieved in the way of understanding criminal victimisation better. It also draws out some notable aspects of the present results.

Victimisation rates

2.1 The indicators

Risks of victimisation can be expressed in various ways. *Personal prevalence rates* are the percentage of those aged 16 or more who experienced a specific form of crime once or more. *Incidence rates* express the number of crimes experienced by each 100 in the sample, counting *all* incidents against victims, who may have experienced more than one incident. Use is made of both incidence and prevalence rates in this chapter, but the latter are mainly chosen to compare levels of victimisation across country. Although they do not reflect the number of times people are victimised, they are a sound measure of the 'spread' of crime across national populations. The ICVS allows estimates for both the calendar year preceding the survey, and for the last five years.¹⁰ Findings about the last year will be most accurate, because less serious incidents which took place some time ago tend to be forgotten.¹¹

The ICVS allows assessment of eleven main types of crime, with sub-divisions possible for some. This chapter focuses first on prevalence risks of victimisation for four groups of offences (see below). It then looks at measures of overall risk in 1995. Next, we look at the profile of crime in different countries, seeing what contribution different types of offences make to the whole picture. Results are then presented on how people in different countries vary with respect to the amount of crime they experience taking into account the seriousness of what happened, as judged by victims. Finally, some assessment is made of trends in crime as measured by the ICVS since the first survey.

The four crime groups covered are:

- *Burglary*: incidents in which offenders entered the home, and attempted burglaries.
- *Thefts involving cars*: thefts of and from cars and privately owned vans and trucks.
- *Contact crime*: robbery, assaults with force and sexual assaults.
- *Other crime*: bicycle and motorcycle thefts, vandalism to cars, thefts of personal property, offensive sexual behaviour and threats.

¹⁰ Respondents are asked in the initial 'screening' questions about their experience over five years. Later follow-up questions deal with the timing of the incidents – e.g., whether what happened had been in the current year (1996), in the last year (1995), or longer ago. Details are also asked about what happened in the 'last incident' if there had been more than one of a particular type.

¹¹ This memory loss explains the fact that victimisation rates over five years are much less than five times higher than calendar year rates: five year victimisation rates are on average three times higher.

Full details of the prevalence rates for the offences measured in the 1996 ICVS are given in Appendix 4, Table 1. These also show victimisation prevalence levels registered in the industrialised countries which have taken part in the 1989 and 1992 sweeps of the ICVS. Table 2 (Appendix 4) shows the number of incidents of different types by country, in each of the three sweeps.

The sample sizes involved mean that it is often a matter of statistical chance which country, among those with high levels, emerges with the *highest* rate on any particular type of crime. However, it is almost always the case that countries with the highest rates of victimisation have rates which are statistically significantly higher than countries with the lowest rates. As a broad indication of which countries have relatively high or low rates of victimisation, then, the graphs which follow provide a sound enough guide. It is unlikely to be a coincidence, for example, that England and Wales and the Netherlands emerge as having the highest rates of victimisation for several types of crime. Sampling error is discussed in Appendix 2.

2.2 Risks of burglary

The proportion of households subject once or more to a completed burglary ('burglary with entry' hereafter) or an attempted burglary in 1995 ranged from 6% in England and Wales to just over 1% in Austria and Finland (Figure 1).

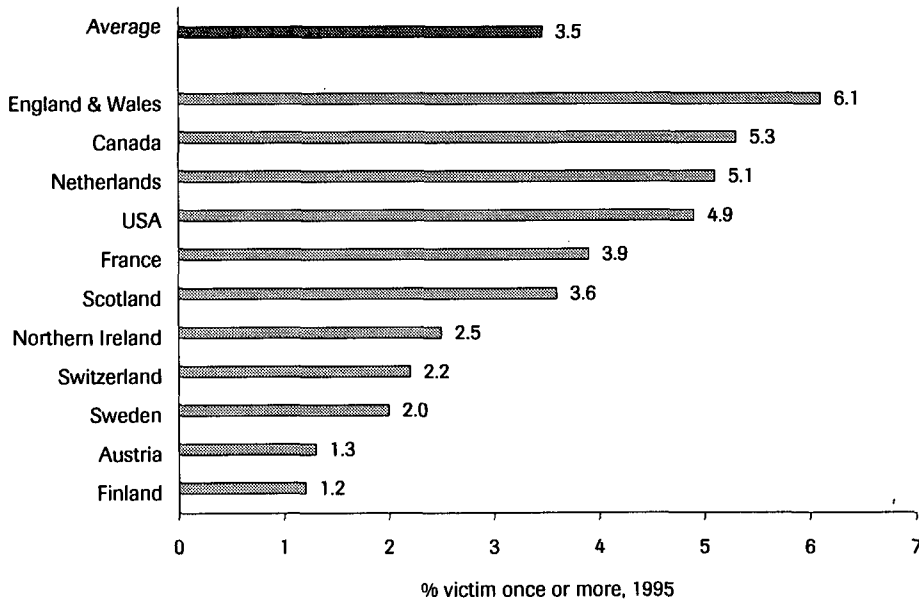
Relative positions in terms of incidents per 100 households were very similar, though incidence risks in the USA were somewhat higher, relatively.

The pattern of relative risk across country is very similar whether the focus is on burglary with entry or attempts.¹² The main difference is that Canada fares relatively rather worse in terms of burglary with entry than attempts, which was also evident in previous sweeps.

Nonetheless, the proportion of burglaries which involved attempts varied somewhat by country. On average half did so, but the figures were higher in Scotland (65%), England and Wales (56%), the Netherlands (55%), the USA (53%) and Finland (52%). This may suggest that householders here are better protected by security devices, so that burglars more often fail to gain entry. The ICVS results lend some support to this. In five countries where less than half of burglary incidents involved entry, 88% said the house was protected in some way, as against 65% of those where entry was more common.¹³

12 Countries with a higher rate of burglary with entry tend to have a higher rate of attempted burglaries also ($r = 0.888$; $p < 0.05$; $n = 11$).

13 This draws on questions which ask householders about burglar alarms, special door locks, special grilles, ownership of a watchdog, etc. The correlation between the proportion of attempts and better security coverage was 0.729; $p < 0.01$; $n = 14$, with Belgium, Italy, New Zealand and Australia included from the 1992 sweep. Data from Finland was unavailable for 1996.

Figure 1: Burglary and attempts

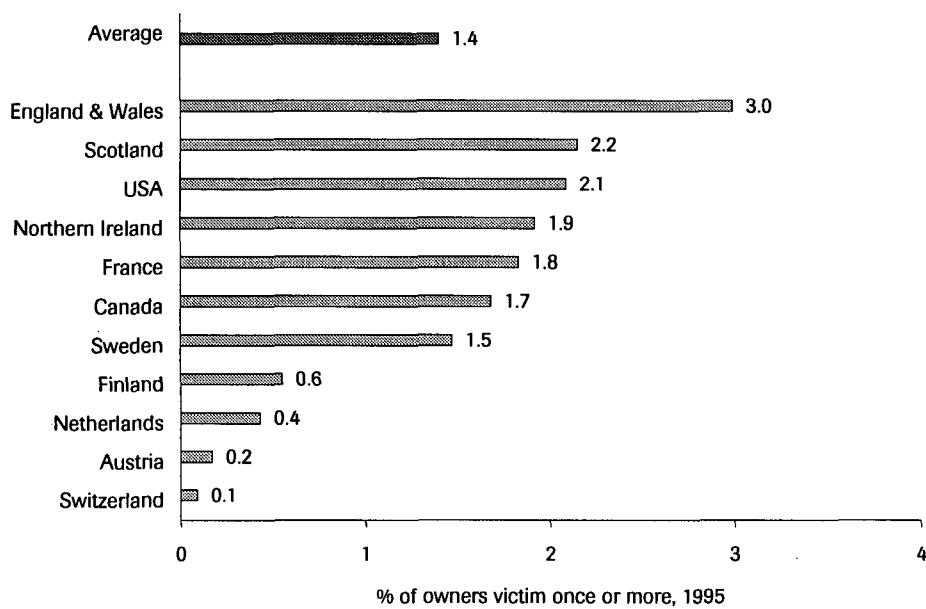
2.3 Thefts involving cars

Householders were asked whether, over the past five years, they had access to a car, van or truck (cars hereafter for simplicity). Ownership levels in these eleven industrialised countries were high, though there was some variation. Ownership was highest in the USA (91%) and Canada (90%), and lowest in Scotland (78%). Because of these variations, relative risks of thefts involving cars are more reliably based on owners only, although the picture was not dissimilar on a full population base.¹⁴ We start by looking at thefts *of* cars, and then move onto thefts *from* cars. (Full details of owner-based prevalence and incidence risks across three sweeps of the ICVS are in Appendix 4, Table 3.)

2.3.1 *Thefts of cars*

Risks for owners were highest in England and Wales, where 3.0% had a car stolen in 1995, – a figure much in line with results for that year from the national crime survey (see Mirrlees-Black *et al.*, 1996). Risks were next highest in Scotland (2.2%) and the

¹⁴ $r = 0.996$; $p < 0.001$; $n = 11$.

Figure 2: Thefts of cars

USA (2.1%). Relatively few victims had a car stolen more than once, so the picture for incidence risks is very similar. Figure 2 shows details.

Recovery rates

Cars are usually thought to be stolen for two main reasons: either for 'joyriding' (when the car is usually recovered), or for extended personal use, resale or stripping (e.g., Clarke, 1991). On average, just over three-quarters of stolen cars were eventually recovered. Those in Austria (50%), Switzerland (54%) and the Netherlands (54%) were least likely to get their cars back. Although the number of cars stolen in the first two countries is small, more than a third were stolen abroad, perhaps suggesting deliberate targeting of foreign cars by more professional offenders. Recovery rates were highest in Sweden (91%), Finland (85%) and the USA (80%), indicating more thefts for 'joyriding'

In the eight European countries with surveys prior to 1996, the proportion of stolen cars recovered has fallen in six (Scotland and Switzerland are exceptions). This is consistent with a trend towards more 'professional' theft which some have suggested may have been spurred by demand for second-hand cars in Eastern Europe since the opening of borders (Heuni, 1997). Certainly other ICVS results indicate that generally few victims of car theft in countries in transition in Eastern Europe get their cars back (e.g., Zvekic, 1996).

Thefts of cars and thefts of bicycles

Previous analysis of ICVS results have shown a strong inverse relationship between rates of car theft and rates of bicycle theft, even when multivariate analysis has taken account of urbanisation, GDP, and levels of other crime for instance (Van Dijk, 1991b; Mayhew, 1991). Thus, in countries where bicycle ownership is high and bicycle theft common, stealing cars occurs less often.

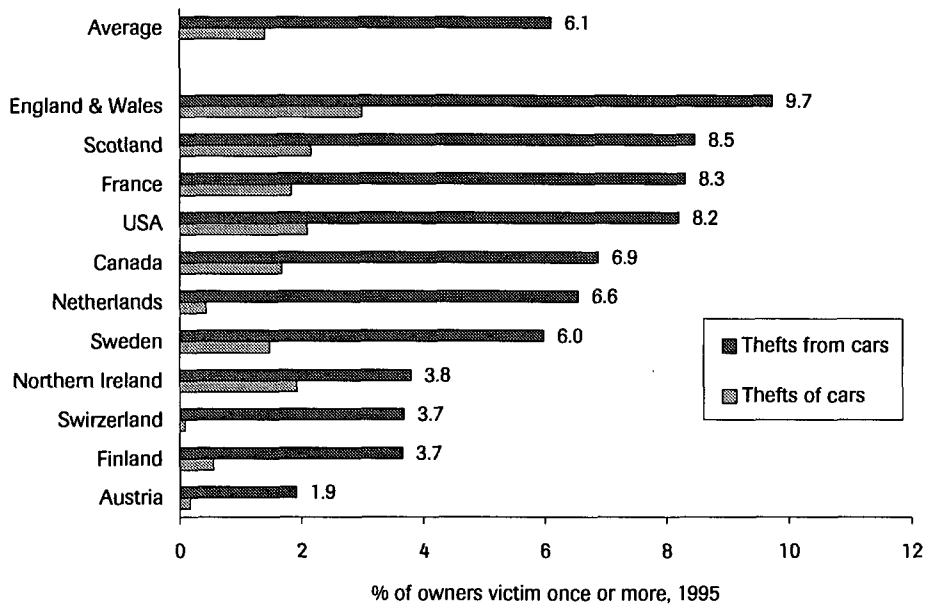
The same pattern is evident in the 1996 ICVS results. The Netherlands, Sweden, Finland, Austria and Switzerland had the five highest levels of bicycle ownership and they registered the five lowest levels of car thefts, and four of the five highest levels of bicycle theft. (Austria's bicycle theft rate was very slightly lower than in England and Wales and Canada, where bicycle ownership was less common). There are a number of possible reasons for this. One is that when thieves want temporary transportation or a means of making money from theft they make do with bicycles if they are in plentiful supply. At the same time, the relationship may reflect interacting factors which result in particular 'cultures' of vehicle theft. These theft cultures may be underpinned not only by the absolute supply of different targets, but also by the types, accessibility and security of the targets available. Youth culture may also be implicated, such youngsters brought up in a bicycle- or moped-oriented environment may possibly be less inclined to steal cars for joyriding in their teens, partly because they have less experience of driving cars. With regard to bicycle theft in particular, it may be too that well-developed fencing operations arise when theft is common, and/or that wide availability could itself set up a process of opportunist thieving. It has also been suggested that some people who have their bikes frequently stolen compensate their losses by stealing bicycles themselves (Van Dijk, 1996).

2.3.2 Thefts from cars

Respondents were also asked about thefts from a car, van or truck, covering items left in the car (such as coats), equipment from within the car (such as car radio and cassette players), and parts taken off the car (such as wing mirrors and badges). Having something stolen from a car was a much more common experience than having the car itself stolen. Those in England and Wales were most at risk: nearly one in ten owners had something stolen. Risks were also comparatively high in Scotland, France and the USA (about 8% of owners were victimised). Those in Austria were at the lowest risk by far (less than 2%).

The pattern of relative risks of thefts of and from cars across countries is fairly similar, although there are some differences.¹⁵ For instance, while car owners in Northern Ireland faced slightly worse than average risks of thefts of their cars, thefts from them were lower than average. In contrast, risks for Dutch owners of having their car taken was relatively very low but, thefts from their cars were rather higher

¹⁵ The correlation between prevalence risks of theft of cars and thefts from them was 0.828 ($p < 0.001$; $n = 11$).

Figure 3: Thefts from and of cars

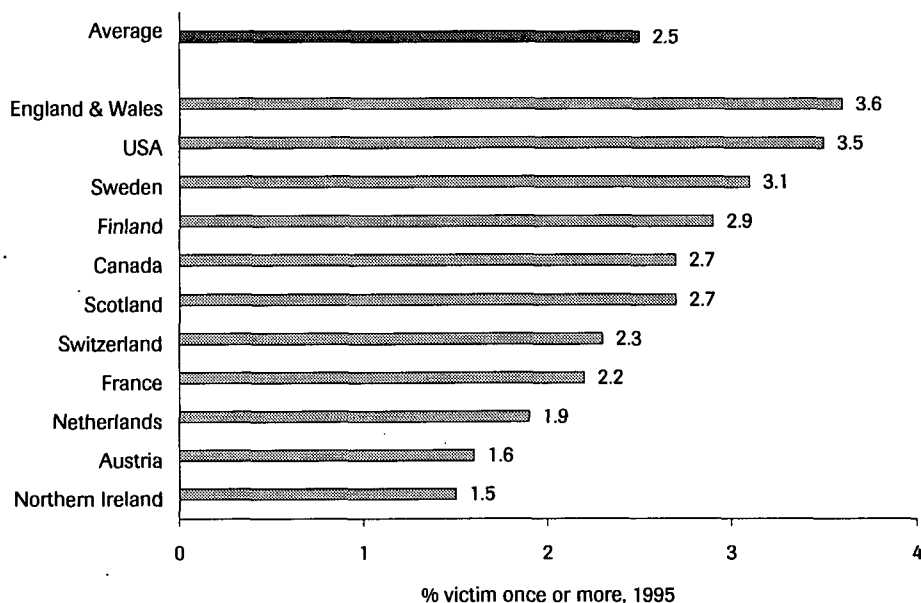
than average. Figure 3 shows details of risks of thefts from car, contrasting them with risks of thefts of cars.

2.4 Contact crime

We take as our summary measure of aggressive contact crime: robbery, sexual assaults and assaults with force. Figure 4 shows the risk by country in 1995. The highest risks were in England and Wales and the USA – double the level in Northern Ireland, Austria and the Netherlands. Risks of contact crime in Sweden and Finland were also relatively high – unlike the picture for burglary and thefts involving cars. This reflected comparatively high rates of sexual assaults and assaults with force; robbery risks were low.

2.4.1 Robbery

For each of the constituents of this measure of contact crime, risks are relatively low, which makes firm conclusions about relative vulnerability hard to draw. On the face of it, though, risks of robbery were highest in 1995 in England and Wales (1.4%), the USA (1.3%) and Canada (1.2%) – levels which will be statistically indistinguishable. Robberies not infrequently happened while their victims were abroad. This was most often the case for those in Switzerland, Belgium, Sweden and Austria.

Figure 4: Contact crime

Often there was more than one offender (in about two-thirds of robberies overall). In about a quarter of robberies, the victim either knew the offender by name or sight, although the figure was lower in urban areas. In about six in ten robberies something was stolen. One third of the victims of robbery were women. Overall, offenders had a weapon in about four in ten of the robberies identified in the ICVS, and in the same proportion of cases the weapon was actually used, rather than threatened. About half the weapons carried were knives.

The numerical base makes it difficult to draw out differences between countries, although in general patterns did not vary much. The main deviations were that there was a higher than average use of knives in Scotland, Switzerland, Austria, France, and the Netherlands, and a higher than average percentage of robberies with guns in Northern Ireland and the USA.¹⁶

16 The numerical base of robberies in Austria was particularly small. The same was true of Northern Ireland, although the use of guns was also higher than average in the 1989 ICVS sweep. The use of guns in the Netherlands and Sweden in the 1996 sweep was also higher than average, though not in earlier sweeps. The use of guns in Canada was relatively high in the 1996 and 1992 sweeps, but not in 1989. Looking at 23 industrialised countries and countries in transition in which the ICVS was done at national level in at least one of the three sweeps, there was a strong relationship between the level of handgun ownership and the percentage of people who were victims of robbery in which a gun of some sort was used ($r=0.70$; $n = 23$; $p<0.0001$).

2.4.2 *Sexual assaults*

The question put to female respondents to examine their experience of sexual crimes and offensive sexual behaviour is shown below. Interviewers were instructed to include domestic sexual assaults.

'First, a rather personal question. People sometimes grab, touch or assault others for sexual reasons in a really offensive way. This can happen either at home, or elsewhere, for instance in a pub, the street, at school, on public transport, in cinemas, on the beach, or at one's workplace. Over the past five years, has anyone done this to you? Please take your time to think about this.'

Measuring sexual offences is extremely difficult in victimization surveys, since definitions of sexual incidents may differ as well as readiness to report them to an interviewer. The ICVS measure must, then, be interpreted with great care.

The question allows two types of sexual incidents to be distinguished: (i) sexual assaults (incidents described as rape, attempted rape or indecent assault), and (ii) offensive sexual behaviour. The focus here is on the former.¹⁷ The picture of risks differs from that for most other offences. Women in Austria, Sweden and Switzerland mentioned sexual assaults most often (about 2% had one or more incident in 1995). Risks were lowest in Scotland, France and England and Wales. Table 6 in Appendix 4 shows full results.

Offensive sexual behaviour, which is included in the 'other crime' category discussed below, was generally more common. The pattern of relative risks across country was fairly similar, though women in Canada, the Netherlands and England and Wales were somewhat more at risk, relative to sexual assaults.

Looking at what women said about the 'last incident' that had occurred, and taking all countries together since numbers are small, offenders were known in about half the incidents described both as sexual assault and offensive behaviour. In sexual assaults, partners, ex-partners, boyfriends, relatives or friends were involved in one in five incidents, but in a smaller proportion of incidents of offensive behaviour – about one in ten.

17 Risks of sexual assault as against offensive behaviour are derived from the information given on the nature of the last incident that had happened over five years. The rates were derived as follows. First, for those who were victimised once only, and only in 1995, the ratio of sexual assaults to offensive behaviour was applied to the prevalence rate for sexual incidents. Next, for 'double' victims whose last incident was not a sexual assault, an estimate was made of the chance that the previous victimisation was such an assault. In the same fashion, the number of sexual assault victims was estimated among triple and other multiple victims. The methods used mean that the prevalence risks for sexual assault and offensive sexual behaviour, when added together, can total a higher figure than the prevalence rate for sexual incidents (since multiple victimisation is taken into account). The same procedures were applied to distinguish assaults with force as against threats from the overall category of assaults and threats. The method of estimating offence sub-categories is slightly different (and more reliable) to that used in 1988 and 1992. Some figures therefore differ very marginally from those previously published.

2.4.3 Assaults with force

The question asked of respondents to identify assaults and threats was:

'Apart from the incidents just covered, have you over the past five years been personally attacked or threatened by someone in a way that really frightened you, either at home or elsewhere, such as in a pub, in the street, at school, on public transport, on the beach, or at your workplace?'

For the sub-set of incidents which were described as amounting to more than a threat of force, risks were highest in England and Wales, the USA, Finland, Scotland, and Sweden. As with sexual incidents, differences in definitional thresholds cannot be ruled out in explaining the pattern of ICVS results. However, this should not be overstated. When asked to assess the seriousness of what had happened, there was fair consistency across country in how seriously incidents were viewed (see Table 9 in Appendix 4). The general similarity of responses suggests that the incidents mentioned in various countries possess roughly similar characteristics.

Threats of force are included in the 'other crime' category along with offensive sexual behaviour, but a word about them is in order. The pattern of relative risks across country was fairly similar, although those in the Netherlands were more at risk, relative to assaults, while those in Finland were less.

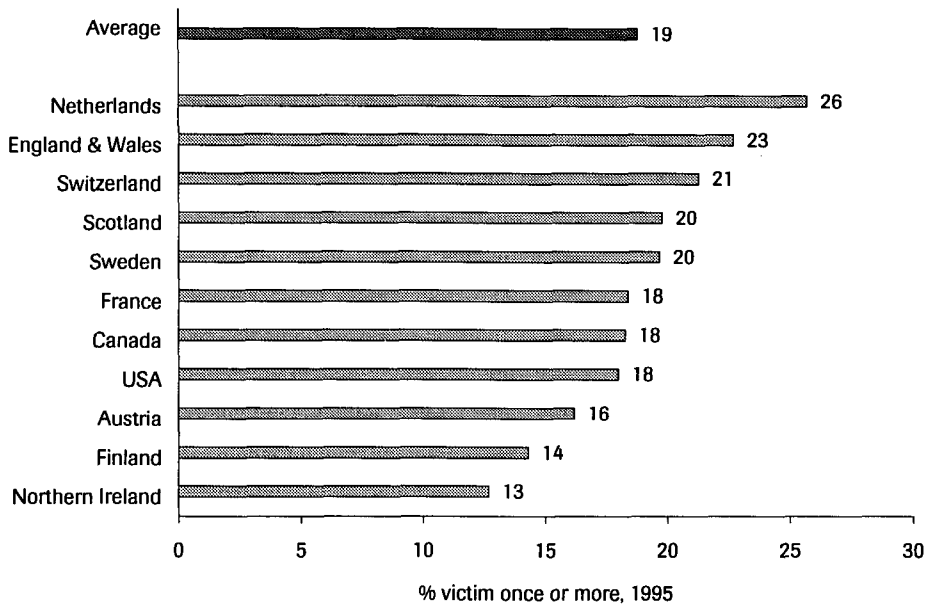
Looking at what was said about the 'last incident', and again taking all countries together, offenders were known in about half the incidents of both assaults and threats. Men, though, were less likely to know the offender(s) (about four in ten knew them), than women (about six in ten).

Taking assaults *and* threats together, for all countries combined again, weapons were reported to have been used (if only as a threat) in just under a quarter of incidents, but more when men were involved than women. In nearly a third of incidents in which a weapon was used, victims mentioned a knife. Offenders with guns were used about half as frequently as knives, although about a third of incidents in the USA, Switzerland and Northern Ireland involved guns.

2.5 Other crime

The residual crimes covered comprise vandalism to cars, thefts of motorcycles and bicycles, and theft of personal property (such as a purse, wallet, clothing, sports or work equipment). It also includes offensive sexual behaviour, and threats, about which some mentioned has been made above. While these, then, cover a miscellany of victimisations, there is justification for pooling them together insofar as they are typically seen as not very serious in nature, a point which will be returned to. Taken as a whole, those in the Netherlands were hardest hit (26% experienced one or more incidents in 1995), followed by those in England and Wales (23%) and Switzerland (21%). Figure 5 shows details. In the Netherlands, risks of all the sub-categories were comparatively high. In Switzerland, risks were increased most by bicycle thefts and thefts of personal property. In England and Wales, vandalism

Figure 5: Other crimes

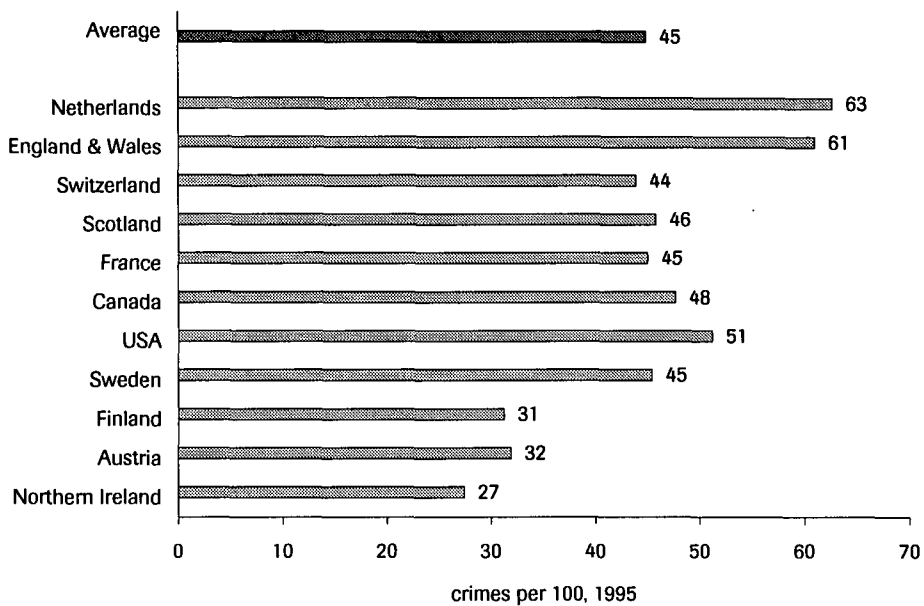
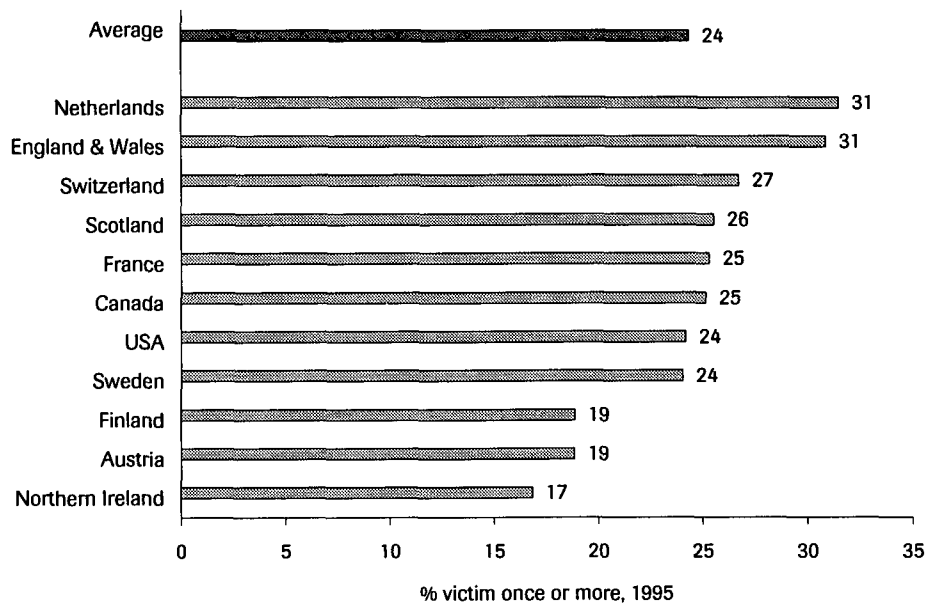


to cars increased risks most. The picture from incidence rates is similar for this residual group of property crimes, although those in the USA and Canada fared slightly worse relatively in terms of the number of crimes experienced, and those in France slightly better.

2.6 Overall risks

We offer here two measures of the overall impact of crime in the eleven countries. The first is the percentage of people victimised once or more in the past year by *any* of the eleven crimes covered – a prevalence measure. The second is the number of crimes of all types per 100 respondents (an incidence measure). They are complementary measures of risk, and are presented in Figure 6.

The two countries with the highest overall prevalence victimisation rates are the Netherlands and England and Wales. They have significantly higher overall victimisation rates (in a statistical sense) than any other country except Switzerland. Countries in the second highest band, Switzerland, Scotland, France and Canada have significantly higher victimisation rate than Finland, Austria, and Northern Ireland – and with the exception of Switzerland – significantly lower rates than the Netherlands and England and Wales, of course. The USA and Sweden have significantly lower victimisation rates than the Netherlands or England and Wales, but significantly greater rates than Austria, Finland or Northern Ireland. Those in Finland, Austria

Figure 6: Overall victimisation risks

and Northern Ireland reported significantly lower prevalence rates than any other country. All other differences could have occurred by chance in samples of this size and distribution (probability level <0.05).

The picture, however, varies somewhat on the basis of the *number* of crimes experienced. Here, Switzerland, Scotland and France fared better, relative to the pattern from prevalence risks, than Canada or the US. The changing positions of the USA and Switzerland are of most note.

On the face of it, the two measures indicate that where incidence is high relative to prevalence, there is more concentration of crime among those who are victimised. In Northern Ireland, Switzerland, Austria and Finland, the gap between prevalence and incidence risks is narrowest, suggesting a more even spread of crime. In the USA, the Netherlands, and England and Wales in particular, when people are victims, they are more prone to repeated victimisation. A more geographical concentration of crime may be a factor.

2.7 Country profiles of crime

The 'make-up' of crime in different countries will reflect the pattern of victimisation risk of course, but it is also a useful way of highlighting how the burden of crime differs across country.

Table 2 summarises some main patterns. An extended group of contact crimes is taken here, including offensive sexual behaviour and threats, along with robbery, sexual assaults and assaults with force. These are called 'other personal crimes'. For this analysis, the number of incidents of crime is used. (A fuller breakdown of all offences types is in Appendix 4, Table 7).

- *Thefts involving cars.* In France, Scotland, England and Wales and the USA, over a fifth of crimes reported in the ICVS involving thefts of and from cars. They comprised the smallest amount of the crime totals in Austria and Switzerland.
- *Car vandalism.* Car vandalism made up another quarter of crimes in England and Wales and France, and an even greater proportion in Scotland and Austria. In the latter, *risks* were still relatively low, but not as markedly so as with thefts involving cars.
- *Thefts of bicycles and motorcycles.* For the countries as a whole, these comprised 14% of all crime on average. Bicycle thefts was by far the most common, but countries with more bicycle thefts by and large had more motorcycle thefts too. In Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands, and Finland, thefts of two-wheelers formed a much bigger part of the national crime picture than elsewhere – in the region of a quarter of all crimes. Ownership patterns will explain this in part, as discussed earlier.
- *Burglary.* For the eleven countries as a whole, burglaries comprised about one in ten of all crime incidents measured, split equally between burglary with entry and attempted burglary. In the USA and Canada, burglaries comprised a bigger proportion of all crimes than elsewhere. Figures were lowest in Finland, Sweden,

Table 2: The profile of crime in different countries: 1996 ICVS (% of all offences: total = 100%)

	Theft of and from cars	Car vandalism	Bicycle and motorcycle thefts	Burglary and attempts	Thefts of personal property	Other personal crime*
England & Wales	23	26	7	13	9	21
Scotland	24	30	5	10	12	20
Northern Ireland	18	31	5	12	11	23
Netherlands	12	22	22	12	14	18
Switzerland	8	21	27	7	16	22
France	25	25	10	11	11	18
Finland	13	16	21	5	12	34
Sweden	16	14	27	6	13	24
Austria	7	30	13	5	18	27
USA	22	17	8	16	9	28
Canada	20	16	9	16	15	24
Average	18	22	14	11	12	23

* 'Other personal crime': robbery, assaults with force, threats, sexual assault and offensive sexual behaviour.

Austria and Switzerland. The range of figures across countries was relatively narrow (from 16% in the USA and Canada to 5% in Finland and Austria).

- *Thefts of personal property.* These comprised 12% of all crime incidents on average. They include cases of pickpocketing, as well as thefts taking place at work or while shopping for instance. Again, the range of figures across countries was relatively narrow (from 18% in Austria to 9% in the USA and England and Wales).
- *Other personal crimes.* These offences comprise what we have earlier called 'contact crime' together with threats and offensive behaviour. They made up nearly a quarter of crime incidents on average. Proportionately more crime incidents in Finland, the USA, and Austria were of this type. The lowest figures were in France, and the Netherlands. The picture, of course, reflects different patterns of risk *across* crime types, in particular the dominance of car-related crime in some countries. In Finland, for instance, the proportions of the total crime count which were burglaries and incidents involving cars were below average, thus making the figure for other personal crimes higher.

2.8 Crime seriousness

In assessing the burden of crime, overall victimisation rates take no account of the nature of what happened. Serious crimes such as robbery are accorded the same weight in counting experience of victimisation as a bicycle theft for instance. This section draws on an ICVS question which asks victims to assess the seriousness of

the incidents they reported to interviewers. It uses the answers given to see how countries differ with respect to the amount of crime experienced, taking seriousness into account.

Seriousness scaling started most earnestly with the work of Sellin and Wolfgang (1964) who were concerned to assess the relative seriousness (from homicide downwards) of different offences which make up the overall measure of crimes recorded by the police. The scale they developed has been widely used by other researchers. A few studies have also assessed how public attitudes to offence seriousness differs across country. They show a broader consensus than might be imagined – though the number of countries and offences examined have been relatively limited (Newman, 1976; Scott and Al-Thakeb, 1980; Pease *et al.*, 1975). In the 1992 and 1994 sweeps of the ICVS, all victims were asked to assess the seriousness of their own victimisation on a three-point scale (very serious, somewhat serious, not very serious). Van Dijk and Van Kesteren (1996) report results from the 1992 ICVS in detail, and draw two main conclusions:

- The mean scores for each offence did not differ much by country. This result is also evident in relation to 1996 ICVS results (Table 9 in Appendix 4 shows results). Where there are differences, the small number of cases in some categories needs to be borne in mind. So also does the fact that there could be different connotations to the term 'serious' in certain languages.
- The *ranking* of offences in seriousness terms showed even more marked similarity, indicating a high degree of consensus about the import of conventional crimes.¹⁸ The most serious crimes were robberies with a weapon, car theft, sexual assault, joyriding, and burglary with entry. Car vandalism, theft from garages, theft from a car and offensive sexual behaviour were considered least serious. Without drawing here on the sub-divisions of offences allowed in the ICVS (between joyriding and other car theft for instance), the 1996 results show a similar picture. They confirm the underlying assumption of the ICVS that the definitions, perceptions and normative judgements about conventional crimes are fairly universal in industrialised countries.

In analysing 1996 ICVS results, we adopt Van Dijk and Van Kesteren's approach with regard to weighting the seriousness of crime incidents reported in each of the eleven industrialised countries. It involves two basic steps. First, the sum is taken of all 1995 victimisation prevalence rates for different types of crime (i.e., the sum of those victimised once or more by car theft, theft from car, burglary etc). Second, the sum of the prevalence rates for each crime category are weighted according to their seriousness score, as judged by the means scores from fourteen countries in the 1992 ICVS (see Van Dijk and Van Kesteren (1996) for details). In this weighting

18 In considering rankings, differences between the mean seriousness scores per country are secondary to their relative position

Table 3: Overall victimisation rates without and with a correction for seriousness: 1996 ICVS (industrialised countries)*

	Summed prevalence rate, uncorrected for seriousness index = 100	Weighted rate, corrected for seriousness
Netherlands	136	114
England & Wales	134	115
USA	113	99
Canada	108	95
France	105	89
Scotland	103	86
Sweden	101	87
Switzerland	100	85
Finland	71	61
Austria	68	56
Northern Ireland	62	52
Average	100	86

procedure, 'very serious' incidents are given a weight of 1.75, 'serious' incidents a weight of 1, and 'not very serious' incidents a weight of 0.25.

Table 3 shows the results of applying, so to speak, the international consensus about offence seriousness to people's victimisation experiences in the eleven industrialised countries in the 1996 ICVS. The first column of figures shows the overall summed prevalence rates indexed to the mean of the eleven countries, which is set at 100. Thus, for instance, the Netherlands (136) and England and Wales (134) have much higher than average rates, and Austria (68) and Northern Ireland (62) much lower ones. Although the summed prevalence rate is slightly different from the overall prevalence rate used in Figure 6, the results are very similar, as one would expect.

The second column is based on risks adjusted for seriousness in the way described above. The corrected rates are lower for all countries. For the countries taken together, the mean adjusted rate (86) is fourteen percentage points lower than the unadjusted rate (100). Because of the weighting structure, this indicates that more victimisations are viewed 'not very serious' than are viewed 'very serious'.

Do the corrections for crime seriousness alter the 'burden of crime' picture we saw on the basis of the number of people victimised once or more (the overall prevalence risk), or the number of crime incidents per 100? In general, these still stand as reasonable indicators. Comparing overall prevalence risks with risks adjusted for crime seriousness, the Netherlands and England and Wales still remain most pressured by crime. However, Switzerland and Scotland fall back in the relative order of countries when seriousness is taken into account. In contrast, the USA goes

higher in the list. The picture is generally similar, too, when unadjusted incidence risks are compared with a crime count taking seriousness into account.

2.8 Trends in crime

The ICVS has been carried out more than once in ten of these eleven countries. Countries have re-entered the survey in order to align with others in the ongoing sweep rather than to provide any solid indicator of trends over time. What the ICVS shows in terms of trends nonetheless merits inspection nonetheless. We look first at the five countries which have taken part in three sweeps. We then turn to the other four countries which have measures from the 1989 and 1996 ICVS sweeps only, and to Sweden which took part in 1992 and 1996 only. As explained, the risk levels measured are for the year prior to the survey.

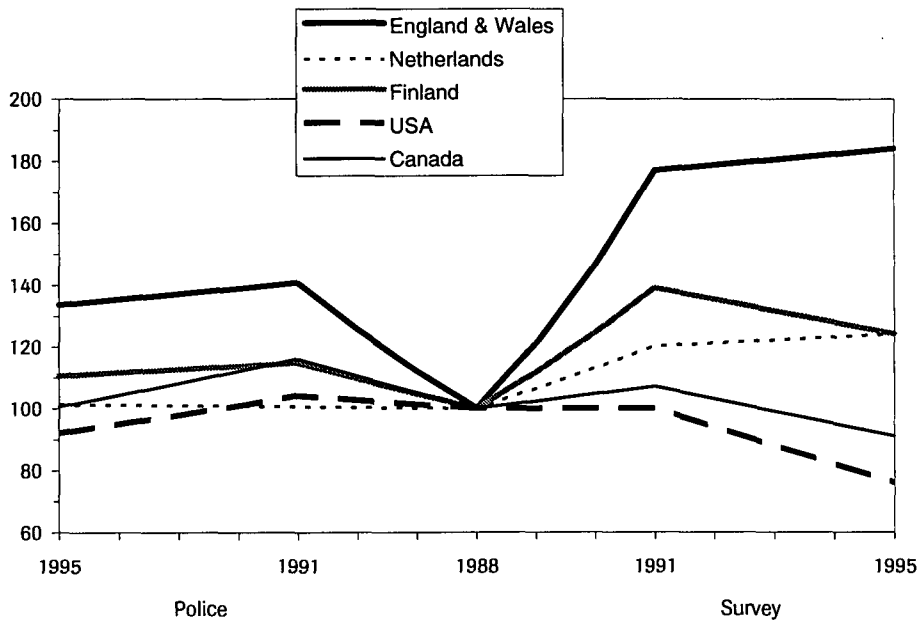
Five countries: 1988, 1991 and 1995

Figure 7 presents changes in crime between 1989 and 1995 in England and Wales, the Netherlands, Finland, the USA and Canada. It also sets them against police figures using the per capita rate of all offences recorded by the police. The constituents of this rate will vary by country, but for considering trends this is not important as long as one can assume that the constituent parts have not changed over time. The ICVS figures are incidence risks since they are a more complete measure of all crimes experienced. They cover ten crimes covered by all three sweeps.¹⁹ It is sensible, too, to leave aside in the ICVS count threats (from within the assaults and threats category) and offensive sexual behaviour (from within the sexual incidents category). This is because (i) these are unlikely to be counted as 'crimes' by the police, and (ii) they are more likely to be susceptible to changes in the propensity to report to interviewers over time. This has involved some estimation.²⁰

There is some symmetry in the trends since 1988 in these five jurisdictions. On both measures, crime levels rose between 1988 and 1991, the USA being an exception on both police and surveys figures, and the Netherlands being an exception on police figures only. The steepest rise was in England and Wales, according to both measures. Between 1991 and 1995, police figures have fallen in all countries except the Netherlands (where crime started to drop too in 1995). The fall in Finland too was

19 Attempted burglaries are excluded as there is no measure of the number of incidents in the 1988 ICVS; garage thefts are also excluded as they were only measured in the 1992 survey.

20 The ICVS does not allow for precise 'last year' *incidence* risks of sexual assaults (i.e., sexual incidents less offensive sexual behaviour) or assaults with force, (i.e., assaults, less threats). Results on the ratio of the *prevalence levels* for (i) sexual assaults to all sexual incidents, and (ii) assaults with force to all assaults and threats were applied to incidence level risk for the two categories taken as a whole. Some additional estimation has also been applied for the USA in 1992, for which incidence level data was not available. The results in Figure 7 are not dissimilar to those without adjustments to omit threats and offensive sexual behaviour. Moreover, if an ICVS *prevalence* risk measure is taken, the trends since 1988 in police and survey figures are even more similar.

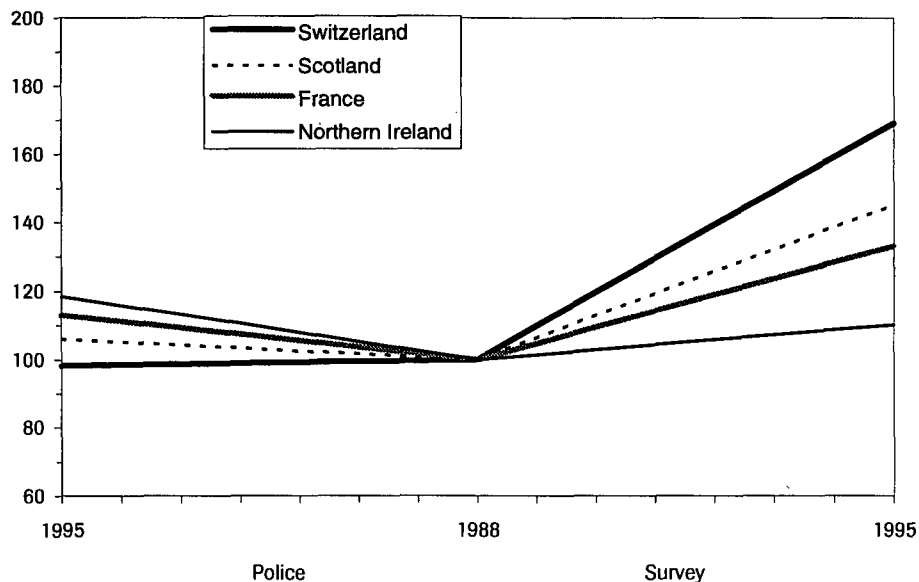
Figure 7: Police and survey trends, five countries, 1988-1991

fairly marginal. On ICVS figures, risks in the USA, Canada and Finland have fallen, and stabilised somewhat in England and Wales and the Netherlands.

One would not necessarily expect any exact correspondence between the two sets of figures. For one, the ICVS profile of offences will be rather different from that in police figures, including more less serious and less often reported offences. Also, the rather less marked swings in police figures may reflect some degree of change in reporting behaviour by victims.

In this respect, it is worth noting that the ICVS showed a drop in reporting to the police between 1991 and 1995 in the Netherlands, which is consistent with the much flatter trend in police figures – i.e., the police may have fewer crimes known to them to record. Reporting levels have also fallen in England and Wales since 1991. In the USA, in contrast, reporting to the police has increased since 1988, and again this is consistent with the police figures increasing more than survey ones. (There has been little change in reporting in Canada and Finland since 1988.)

The pattern of trends asks for explanation. A few suggestions can be considered. First, it could be that police performance in tackling crime has improved markedly since the beginning of the decade – although one would expect that new police initiatives would have emerged in response to the rising crime of the 1980s, rather than later. Second, many European countries have increased their use of imprisonment, possibly acting as a deterrent to offending. But imprisonment rates have fallen in Finland, alongside only a modest increase in recorded crime, while Canada's

Figure 8: Police and survey trends, four countries, 1988-1995

record on crime mirrors that of the USA, without an equivalent increase in prisoner levels. Thirdly, there may be a broad economic effect at work, such that the generally more favourable economic conditions since 1991 have dampened property crime – in line with Field's (1990) evidence that in times of increasing consumption, property crime declines. Fourthly, since most crimes recorded by the police and registered by the ICVS are property crimes, the influence of better security cannot be ruled out. Again, though, the challenge to this argument is that one would have expected security consciousness to have increased as much before 1991 as after it, given the increasing crime levels of the late 1980s. Finally, it is conceivable that the results may reflect a demographic 'ageing' of populations, and/or intricate cultural change which is leading to crime simply becoming a less fashionable pursuit for high-risk age groups.

Four countries: 1988 and 1995

There are two ICVS measures for Scotland, Northern Ireland, Switzerland and France – for 1988 and 1995. Figure 8 shows the trends, with figures for 1988 indexed at 100. Again, police figures are per capita rates for all recorded offences; the ICVS figures are incidence rates adjusted to exclude offensive sexual behaviour and threats.

The rise in police figures is of the same order for the five countries considered previously. Northern Ireland showed the biggest increase in recorded crime since 1988 (18%), with the ICVS evidence suggesting a rise in reporting to the police.

Recorded crime rates in Switzerland were fractionally lower in 1995 than in 1988, and a *drop* in reporting is evident from the ICVS. The increase in risks registered by the ICVS is highest for Switzerland (69%), with survey risks in Northern Ireland having increased least (10%).

Sweden: 1991 and 1995

Between 1991 and 1995, recorded crime in Sweden rose by 7%. ICVS risks increased more, by 26%. A drop in reporting evidenced by the ICVS is consistent with the shallower rise in police figures.

Reporting crime and the police

3.1 Reporting to the police

The frequency with which victims (or their relatives and friends on their behalf) report offences to the police is strongly related to the type of offence involved. In most countries, almost all cars and motorcycles stolen were reported, as were burglaries with entry. About two-thirds of thefts from cars and bicycle thefts were reported, but on average only about half of attempted burglaries and robberies, and fewer than that of thefts of personal property and car vandalism. Reporting of assaults/threats was less common (about a third were reported), while the sexual incidents mentioned to interviewers were very infrequently brought to police attention (less than one in five on average).

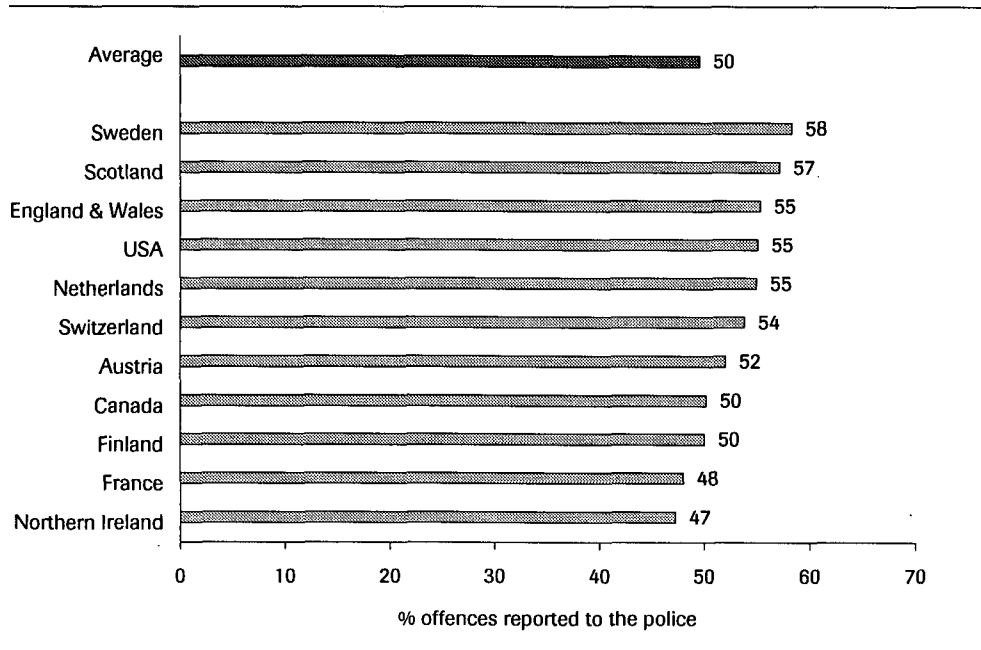
It is difficult to get a sound single indicator of relative propensities to report, although in the past we have used the percentage of crimes reported to the police by those victimised in the last year (summing responses about the 'last incident' of each crime type experienced). However, since reporting levels vary by crime type, this summary measure reflects the profile of crimes experienced in each country. Figure 9 offers a compromise in showing reporting levels by country for six offences for which levels of reporting are most variable and/or experience of victimisation comparatively high.²¹ The offences are thefts from cars, car vandalism, bicycle theft, burglary with entry, attempted burglary, and thefts of personal property. The reporting rates relate to incidents experienced by those victimised in the last year.²² (A fuller breakdown of reporting rates is in Table 9 in Appendix 4).

The highest reporting rates were in Sweden (where 58% of offences were reported). But Scotland, England and Wales, the USA, the Netherlands and Switzerland all shared high reporting rates – very close in value. These results are generally in line with those from earlier sweeps of the ICVS, although the figures are much closer than from comparisons including some industrialised countries with low reporting (for instance, Spain, Japan and Italy).

21 Omitted are car and motorcycle thefts (which are usually reported and are relatively uncommon), and robbery (for which numbers per country are small). Also, omitted are sexual incidents and assaults/threats. Here, the proportion reported will be influenced by the ratio of sexual assaults to offensive sexual behaviour, and assaults to threats, respectively, which tend to vary by country.

22 The picture for all eleven types of offences was slightly different. Reporting rates were highest in the USA, and there was more reporting, relatively, in Northern Ireland. The nature of the additional four crimes could explain this. Reporting levels in Sweden on the basis of the eleven crimes were lower relative to the picture in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Percent of offences reported to the police: overall figure for six types of offences



Reasons for not reporting to the police

The 1996 ICVS somewhat changed its approach to asking additional questions about reporting to the police. Previously, these were asked about the 'last incident' the respondent had experienced over the previous five years – allowing for one incident only to be covered. To obtain more information, the follow-up questions in 1996 were asked about five crime categories: thefts from cars, burglary with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats. Table 4 shows reasons for not reporting for all five categories combined; more than one reason could be given. (There is more detail in Table 10 in Appendix 4.)

That the incident was 'not serious enough' or there was 'no loss' was by far the most common reason given for not reporting in all countries, but it was particularly dominant in Northern Ireland, Finland and Austria. Victims also often felt it was inappropriate to call in the police, or that they or the family solved the matter themselves. This was particularly the case in Switzerland, Austria, and Sweden. The idea that the police could do nothing about what happened featured in just over one in ten incidents overall, and it was a more common response in Northern Ireland (in particular for contact crimes). That the police would not help was mentioned most often in France, England and Wales, the Netherlands and Switzerland. Few victims mentioned fear or dislike of the police, and few failed to report because of

Table 4: Reasons for not reporting to the police (1996 ICVS): all countries, five crimes (percentages)

	Not serious enough/no loss	Solved it ourselves/policy in-appropriate	Reported to other authorities	No insurance	Police could do nothing	Police wouldn't do anything	Fear/dislike of police	Fear of reprisals
England & Wales	39	18	3	1	18	12	3	1
Scotland	36	29	3	<1	14	8	5	<1
N. Ireland	51	22	5	-	26	7	6	<1
Netherlands	44	21	1	3	13	11	1	1
Switzerland	40	34	<1	1	13	11	1	1
France	45	19	1	3	10	15	2	1
Finland	51	22	2	1	13	7	<1	4
Sweden	46	29	<1	3	8	4	4	-
Austria	52	30	1	1	17	5	-	<1
USA	38	27	7	<1	11	9	4	1
Canada	38	23	3	1	6	5	4	1
Average	44	25	3	1	13	8	2	1

1 'Other reasons' and 'don't know' responses are omitted. Based on last incident that happened in the previous five years. Multiple responses allowed.

2 The five crimes covered are: thefts from cars, burglary with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats.

fear of reprisals – though this was more often mentioned in relation to contact crime (Table 10, Appendix 4). The slightly higher figure for fear of reprisals in Finland is due to proportionately more offences overall being contact crimes.

Some response categories are rather close in meaning. In particular, an incident considered (or at least coded) as 'inappropriate for the police' might be one which the victim felt was not worth troubling the police about, or in which someone known to the victim was involved. There is also some ambiguity in some of the reasons for not reporting. For instance, "the police could do nothing" might mean that the harm, loss or damage cannot be rectified; that there is insufficient proof of what happened; or that it seems impossible that an offender could be apprehended.

For the five types of offences for which the more detailed reporting questions were asked, victims who had not reported to the police were asked if they had reported what happened to "someone else in authority who could deal with it". This was new question in the 1996 ICVS. Numbers are small in many categories, but a few patterns are evident. (Details are in Table 11 in Appendix 4.) Generally, more sexual incidents and assaults/threats were reported to someone else than robberies, thefts from cars, or burglaries with entry (most of the latter being reported to the police anyway). Comparisons between countries need to be treated with care, but victims in the USA, Canada, Sweden, England and Wales, and Scotland seemed rather more inclined to bring in other authorities than elsewhere.

Table 5: Reasons for reporting to the police (1996 ICVS) : all countries (percentages)

	Thefts from cars	Burglary	Robbery with entry	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
To recover property	32	29	27	na	4
For insurance reasons	47	37	11	na	4
Crime should be reported/serious	34	45	39	28	36
Want offender caught/punished	19	30	36	38	34
Stop it happening again	10	17	19	47	36
To get help	5	9	14	20	22
Compensation from offender	3	3	2	6	3

1 'To recover property' and 'for insurance reasons' were not options given for sexual incidents. 'Other reasons' and 'don't know' responses are omitted. Based on last incident that happened in the previous five years. Multiple responses allowed.

Reasons for reporting to the police

A new question in the 1996 ICVS was why the police *were* informed. Again, respondents could give more than one reason. Table 5 shows the results for all countries combined.

The reasons why sexual incidents and assaults/threats were reported differed somewhat from those for other offences. Victims here were especially concerned to stop what happened being repeated. Some also wanted help. For the offences involving property, about a third were reported because assistance was sought in recovering property. When a burglary or theft from a car was involved, an even greater number reported for insurance reasons. Many victims referred to the obligation to notify the police, either because a crime such as their own *should be* reported, or because it had been serious. This was particularly so with burglary and robbery. Retributive motives – the hope that offenders would be caught and punished – weighed with about a third of victims, though this was less evident when thefts from cars were involved.

The patterns across country are *broadly* in line with the overall picture, although one would expect some variation, not least because of small number of incidents involved in some cases. A summary picture is in Table 6, which looks at the five crimes combined.

Recovery of property was a more dominant concern, relatively speaking, in France, Austria and the USA. Reporting because of insurance requirements was most common in Switzerland, France and Sweden. The obligation to report weighed most with those in England and Wales, Scotland, and the USA. Retributive motives were most evident in Northern Ireland and the USA. And in these countries, too, more victims than elsewhere hoped to stop what happened being repeated, and wanted help from the police. To some degree the overall picture for a country will be influenced by its

Table 6: Reasons for reporting to the police (1996 ICVS) (percentages)

	To recover property	Insurance	Should be/ serious	Retribution	To stop it	To get help	Compensation
England & Wales	23	30	52	24	15	8	2
Scotland	24	22	53	21	14	8	1
Northern Ireland	30	24	28	43	31	17	3
Netherlands	18	41	35	27	14	7	3
Switzerland	21	56	18	15	14	7	3
France	35	49	30	23	20	6	5
Finland	30	41	13	29	14	9	-
Sweden	27	49	26	22	12	9	3
Austria	35	26	33	29	18	20	9
USA	34	27	45	40	40	23	11
Canada	20	25	35	22	17	8	2
Average	27	36	34	27	19	11	4

1 Based on theft from cars, burglary with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults and threats. 'Other reasons and 'don't know' answers omitted. Based on last incident that happened in the previous five years. Multiple responses allowed.

'crime mix'. Table 12 (Appendix 4) shows details for the two property offences combined and the three contact crimes.

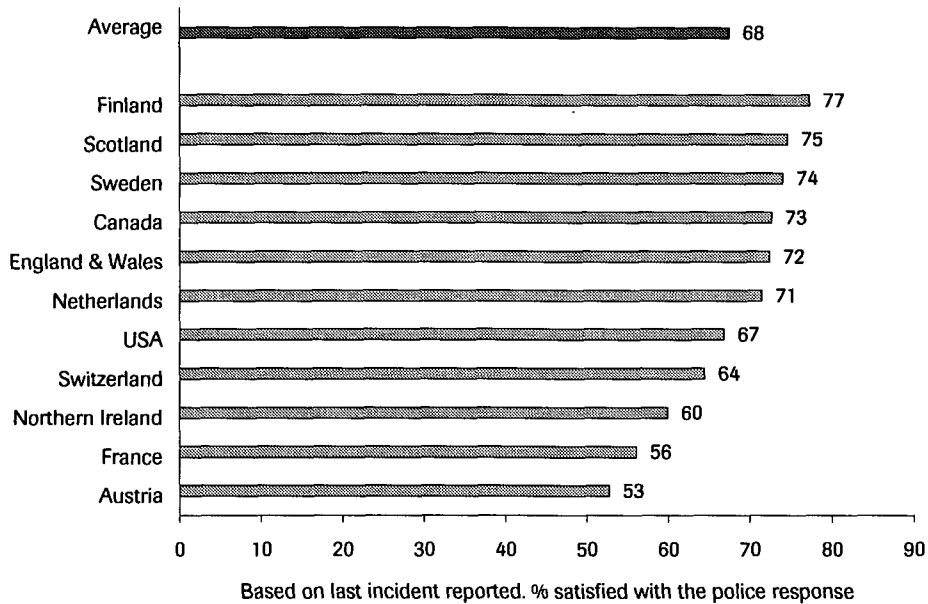
3.2 Victim's satisfaction with the police response

If they had reported to the police, victims were asked whether they were satisfied with the police response. Figure 10 shows the results for all five crimes combined. The most satisfied were those in Finland, though not far behind were victims in five countries with fairly similar figures (Scotland, Sweden, Canada, England and Wales, and the Netherlands). The police response was considered less good in the other countries, particularly so in France and Austria.

Although the format of this question has changed somewhat, for the ten countries with a measure from an earlier ICVS sweep, the picture in 1996 was similar in terms of relative levels of satisfaction with the police on reporting. (Assessment of change over time is difficult because of changes to the question.)

Table 13 in Appendix 4 shows results for the crimes individually, although it should be borne in mind that the number of offences reported to the police in some categories is small; thefts from cars and burglaries with entry probably provide the soundest set of figures for comparison, as the number of incidents reported was highest.

Those who were dissatisfied with the police response were asked why they felt this. The main reasons for dissatisfaction were that the police "did not do enough" (37%), or "were not interested" (29%). Table 7 shows the results the results by country, for all five crimes combined. Those in Finland and the USA were particularly to feel that

Figure 10: Satisfaction with police response on reporting crime

the police had not done enough. Those in Northern Ireland were generally more likely than those in most other countries to be unhappy about lack of interest from the police, the fact that they had not caught an offender, did not recover any property, and gave insufficient information. Those in the USA were also more likely to be dissatisfied that no-one had been caught, that no property was retrieved, and that information feedback was poor. Those in Finland and Sweden were more likely than those in other countries to find the police impolite.

3.3 Victim assistance

Victims of four crime types who had reported to the police were asked in the 1996 survey whether they had received support from a specialised victim support agency.²³ The figures were variable across country, and across offence type. Table 7 shows the results for burglary, and then for robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats combined. (Further details by each of the four crimes are in Table 14 in Appendix 4.)

23 In the 1992 ICVS, victims who had reported to the police were asked whether they had been helped by anyone. The most common providers of help were relatives/friends/neighbours, as well as the police themselves.

Table 7: Reasons for dissatisfaction with the police having reported among who were dissatisfied (1996 ICVS) (percentages)

	Did not do enough	Were not interested	Did not find offender	Didn't recover property	Gave no information	Impolite	Slow to arrive
England & Wales	39	35	18	10	17	5	7
Scotland	31	25	17	7	12	4	10
Northern Ireland	38	46	35	22	22	14	12
Netherlands	35	26	6	3	17	16	4
Switzerland	35	30	9	15	14	2	26
France	38	35	17	18	11	7	6
Finland	55	36	15	7	1	18	8
Sweden	24	16	9	11	8	26	16
Austria	33	16	15	17	2	3	5
USA	45	29	26	21	21	14	16
Canada	32	19	10	11	11	9	7
Average	37	29	16	13	12	11	11

¹ Based on theft from cars, burglary with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults and threats. 'Other reasons and 'don't know' answers are omitted. Based on last incident that happened in the previous five years. Multiple responses allowed.

When a burglary had occurred, the greatest proportion receiving help were those in England and Wales (21%), with higher figures than elsewhere in Scotland and Northern Ireland too – a testimony to the energy of the Victim Support movement in the UK. For the interpersonal crimes, the figures were generally higher, with the highest level of support given to victims in Sweden, the USA and England and Wales. The level of support from specialised agencies evidenced by the 1996 ICVS is generally a good deal higher than in previous sweeps, although exact comparisons are undermined by the change in question format.

Table 8 shows the proportion of victims who had not received any help from a victim support agency but who said they would have appreciated help in getting information, or practical or emotional support. In most countries, around three to four in ten victims would have welcomed more help after a burglary, although fewer said they wanted help in the Netherlands, Switzerland and Canada. For the interpersonal crimes, again generally three to four in ten would have appreciated help, but with higher figures in Northern Ireland and (this time) Canada.

3.4 General satisfaction with the police

All respondents were asked to give a judgement on the overall performance of the police. The question asked was:

Taking everything into account, how good a job do you think the police do in your area in controlling crime. Do you think they do a good job or not?

Table 8: Percentage of victims who received, or would have appreciated receiving help from a specialised agency (1996 ICVS)

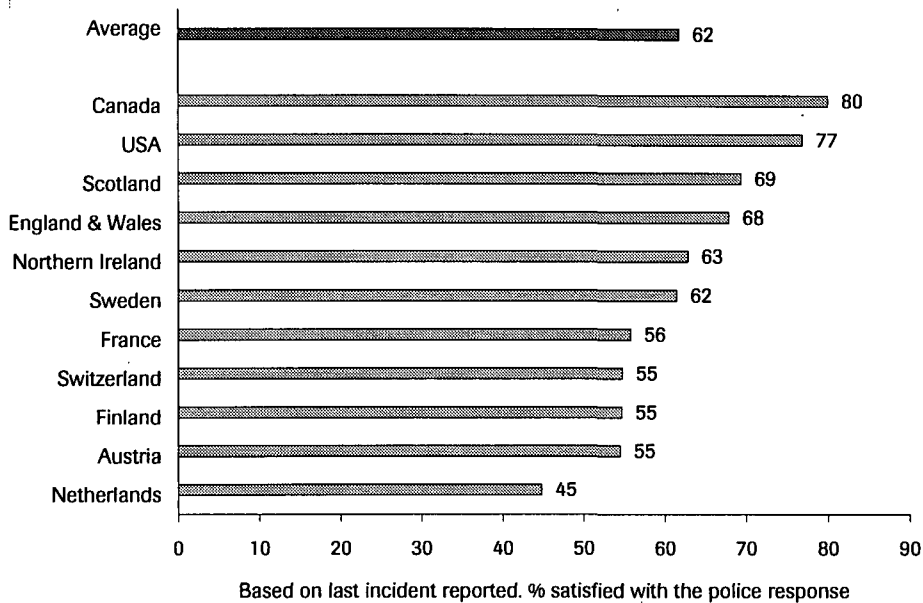
	Burglary with entry	Robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats
<i>Received help:</i>		
England & Wales	21	18
Scotland	11	9
Northern Ireland	11	11
Netherlands	6	14
Switzerland	5	9
France	-	9
Finland	4	7
Sweden	1	21
Austria	6	8
USA	-	18
Canada	3	14
<i>Help would have been useful:</i>		
England & Wales	40	42
Scotland	36	34
Northern Ireland	33	53
Netherlands	17	29
Switzerland	24	44
France	33	20
Finland	45	35
Sweden	41	42
Austria	35	39
USA	44	37
Canada	21	47

1 The first question asked was: 'In some countries, agencies have been set up to help victims of crime by giving information, or practical or emotional support. Did you get help from such a specialised agency?' The second question was: 'Do you feel the services of a specialised agency to help victims of crime would have been useful for you?'

2 Based on those who had reported to the police.

Figure 11 shows results. General judgements of police performance were most favourable in Canada (80% were satisfied), the USA (77%), Scotland (69%), and England and Wales (68%). By far the least satisfied were those in the Netherlands (45%).

For countries with measures from previous sweeps, the picture is similar in terms of differences in attitudes to police performance. But there have been shifts in satisfaction over time (see Table 15 in Appendix 4). More people judged police performance favourably in Switzerland in 1996 than they did in 1989, and between

Figure 11: Percentage thinking police do a good job in controlling crime in their area

1992 and 1996 rather more in Sweden did so. In contrast, attitudes have become a good deal less favourable in most other countries. The shift has been most marked in the Netherlands since 1989 (when 58% were satisfied). This is perhaps the result of public disquiet about a substantial reorganisation of the police, and the attention drawn to the them by a Parliamentary Inquiry on police investigation of organised crime.²⁴ Those in Canada, the USA, Finland and France were also less happy about police performance in 1996 than in 1989 – all shifts being statistically robust. (The small decline in satisfaction in England and Wales and Scotland since 1989 was not, however, statistically sound.)

24 A Dutch national crime survey – the so-called Police Monitor – carried out in 1997, shows a similarly low level of satisfaction with local police performance (only 43% were satisfied).

Reactions to crime

4.1 Anxiety about burglary

The ICVS includes a limited number of questions related to peoples' anxiety about crime and how this affects their precautionary behaviour. The first question, used in previous sweeps, tapped anxiety about burglary by asking respondents how likely they think it is they will be burgled over the coming year.

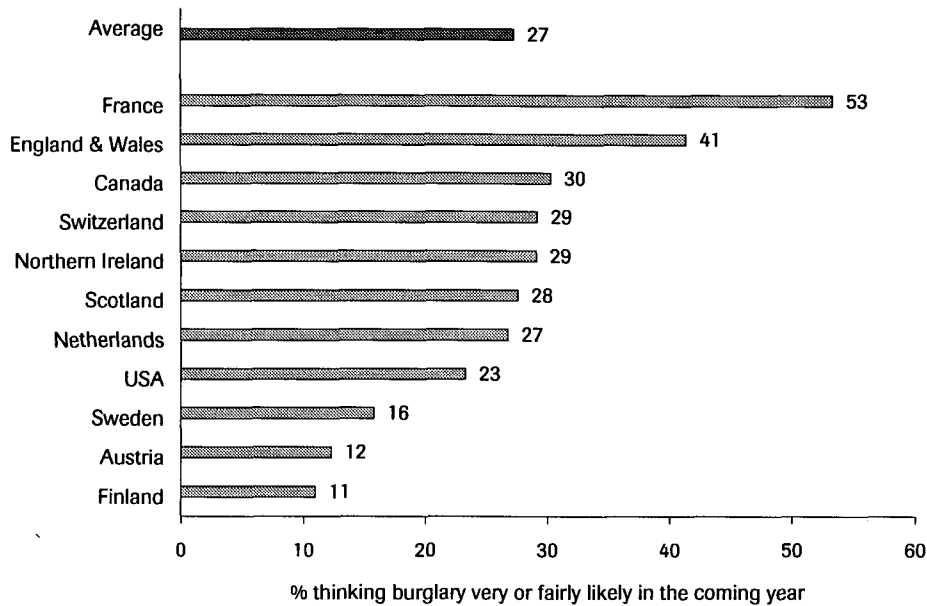
Figure 12 shows the percentage of people who rated the chance of a burglary as 'very likely' or 'likely' (see Table 16 in Appendix 4 for details across the survey sweeps). Those in France were most pessimistic (53% felt a burglary likely), then those in England and Wales (41%). There was least concern in Sweden, Austria and Finland. Taking those who thought burglary to be 'very likely' gives a fairly similar picture, although on this measure, England and Wales had a higher value than France, and concern in Switzerland dropped relatively. In contrast, those in Scotland emerged as more concerned, again relatively speaking.

As has been found before in the ICVS, perceptions of risk at national level are strongly related to national risks of burglary as measured in the ICVS: countries where the highest proportion feel vulnerable to burglary are those where risks are highest.²⁵ This does not, however, bear directly on the question of whether the results show undue wariness in countries where perceptions of risk are highest. First, one cannot translate what people mean by "very likely" or "likely" into a quantified risk. Thus, for instance, the ICVS indicates that, in 1995, 6.1% of households in England and Wales had a burglar get in, or try to get into the home, which represents an annual odds for the (albeit elusive) 'typical' household of one in sixteen. But whether this would equate with an assessment of "very likely" is simply unknown. Moreover, the proportion thinking that there is a fair chance that they will be burgled is an overall national figure. At an individual level, there is no reliable way of assessing risks for the most anxious. The ICVS has identified a number of factors that influence risks of burglary (Van Dijk, 1994), but it cannot accurately predict the likelihood of risk for particular individuals, whose circumstances will vary in ways that might heighten their vulnerability, or reduce it.

The ICVS results indicate some drop in perceptions of burglary risk since 1992. In all five countries for which results were available, the proportion who felt they were very likely or likely to be burgled fell (from 31% to 25% overall).²⁶ Risks of burglary

25 The correlation between national (prevalence) risks of burglary with entry and attempted burglary and perceptions of a high probability of burglary was $r = 0.840$ ($p < 0.001$; $n = 11$).

26 The five countries are: England and Wales, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and Canada. (No results on perceptions of burglary risks in the USA are available for 1992). In each of the five countries the

Figure 12: Perceptions of the risk of burglary in the coming year

according to the ICVS did not consistently fall in these countries, although in all cases offences of domestic burglary recorded by the police did so between 1993 and 1995. In contrast, between 1989 and 1992 (for which there are results from six countries to draw on), the likelihood of being burgled was generally seen to have increased, and this is consistent with the picture of changes in risks according to both the ICVS and police figures.²⁷ In sum, then, there is an interesting responsiveness in public perceptions about risk to trends in crime, for burglary at least.

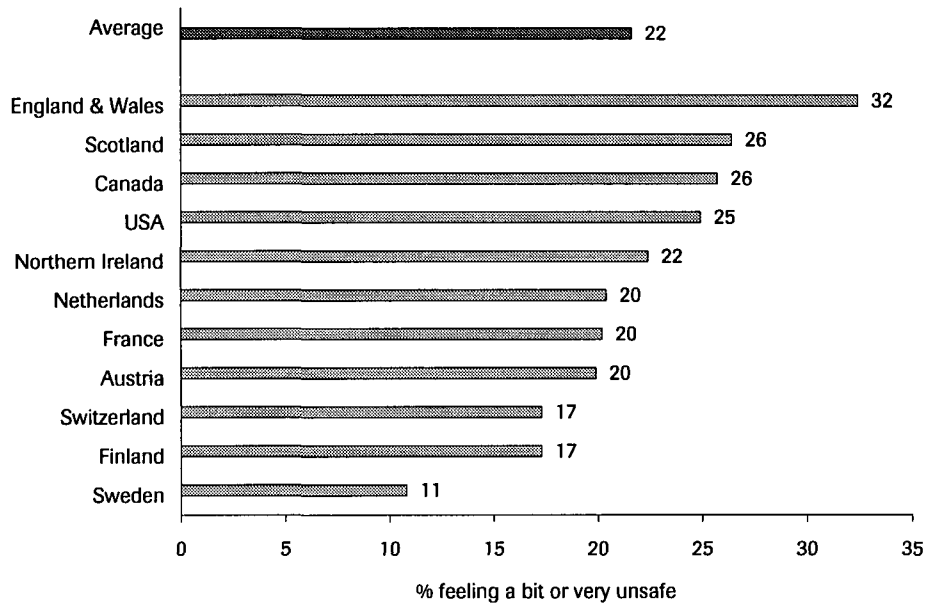
4.2 Fear of street crime

The survey repeated a 1992 ICVS question, often used in other crime surveys, to measure vulnerability to street crime:

'How safe do you feel walking alone in your area after dark? Do you feel very safe, fairly safe, a bit unsafe or very unsafe?'

proportion feeling burglary was both 'very likely' or 'likely' fell, though the result was not statistically robust for the Netherlands.

²⁷ The six countries are England and Wales, the Netherlands, Belgium, Finland, Canada and Australia. The proportion who felt burglary was 'very likely' or 'likely' was 30% in 1989 and 33% in 1992 (p.05).

Figure 13: Concern about being out alone after dark

This question has typically been shown to paint a different picture of 'fear of crime' to that from questions which, for instance, ask about perceptions of risk, or about how worried people are about the possibility of falling victim to certain crimes. Typically, on this 'street safety' question, women and the elderly emerge as most fearful. This may be because for some people it evokes anxiety about a greater range of mishaps (e.g., accidents as well as crime). The question is also hypothetical for those who are rarely alone outside after dark – although interviewers were instructed to ask 'how safe *would you feel ...*'

For cross-country comparisons, though, exactly what the 'street safety' question measures is secondary insofar as it is likely to be similarly interpreted. On average, roughly one in five felt very or a bit unsafe (Figure 13). Those in England and Wales (32%) were most anxious, followed by those in Scotland (26%), Canada (26%), and the USA (25%). By contrast, feelings of vulnerability on the streets at night was lowest in Sweden (11%), Finland (17%) and Switzerland (17%).

Unlike the picture for burglary, this measure of street safety is not consistently related to levels of 'street trouble' (robbery, sexual incidents, and assaults and threats).²⁸ In Sweden, for instance, anxiety is relatively low, though risks are higher than in Northern Ireland, where anxiety is more marked. The lack of much relationship between anxiety and risks has been evident in previous ICVS results. One

implication of this is that fear of street crime may be determined by specific 'cultural' pressures, for instance the way in which the media deal with violent crime. There are five countries for which trends can be examined between 1996 and 1992, when the 'street safety' measure was introduced into the ICVS (see Table 17 in Appendix 4). In three countries (England and Wales, the Netherlands, and Finland), there was no statistically significant change in levels of unease about street safety. In Sweden, unease fell (from 14% feeling very or a bit unsafe in 1992 to 11% in 1996). In Canada, unease increased (from 20% to 26%). There is little merit in relating these changes to ICVS risks of contact crimes since feelings about street safety do not relate to measured risks.

Precautionary behaviour

People were also asked about the precautions they took the last time they went out in the evening, either by avoiding risky areas, or by staying clear of certain people. The picture was similar to that from the 'street safety' question. Those in the USA (29%), Scotland (29%) and England and Wales (28%) were the most likely to take evasive action. Those in Sweden (17%), Austria (18%), Northern Ireland (18%) and the Netherlands (19%) were least likely to do.

Over time, changes in levels of precautionary behaviour have been mixed. For the nine countries with measures for 1989 and 1996, people took more precautions in 1996 in five countries, but fewer did so in the USA, Switzerland and France.²⁹ In Sweden, where there are measures for 1992 and 1996 only, there was no change. Again, there is little merit in relating these changes to ICVS risks of contact crimes.

4.3 Security precautions

The questions on household security have changed somewhat over the ICVS sweeps and for some of the items asked about it is clear that residential differences play a bigger part than deliberate precautionary behaviour. (For instance, in some countries very few homes have high fences, whereas these are quite common in others.) Having a caretaker or security guard on the premises was highest in France, Canada, the USA and the Netherlands, but much less uncommon elsewhere.)³⁰ For

28 This is a broader measure of 'contact crime' than used in Chapter 2, but captures behaviour (offensive sexual behaviour and threats of assault) which might well be thought to prompt anxiety about street crime. The correlation between the current measure of contact crime and the proportion feeling a bit or very unsafe on the streets is low ($r = 0.213$; $p.05$; $n = 15$, including countries with measures from 1992).

29 Between 1989 and 1996, precautionary behaviour increased in England and Wales, Finland, Canada, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The increase in Northern Ireland however, was not statistically robust. Levels of precautions taken in the Netherlands in 1989 and 1996 were statistically indistinguishable.

30 In 1989, respondents were asked about burglar alarms, whether they kept lights on while they were out, and whether they asked neighbours to watch the house if they were away. In 1992, the question about lighting was dropped (as the majority answered affirmatively). Instead, respondents were asked whether they had a burglar alarm, special (higher-grade) door locks, special grilles on doors or win-

these reasons, we focus here on three items to assess the 1996 ICVS results: whether a burglar alarm was installed, whether special (high-grade) door locks had been installed, and whether special grilles had been put on windows or doors. The figures given are often high (see Table 18 in Appendix 4), and it cannot be ruled out that some people claimed they had the security measures on account of residual mistrust about the credentials of the survey, or at least a wariness about admitting to unknown interviews that their homes were vulnerable.

At the beginning of 1996, 14% overall claimed to have a burglar alarm, 46% said they had special door locks, and 17% said they had window or door grilles. For alarms, the figures were highest in England and Wales (27%), Scotland (25%), the USA (21%) and Canada (20%). Less than one in ten homes had alarms in Sweden, Austria, Switzerland and Finland. For special door locks, the picture was fairly similar, although on this measure as many households in the Netherlands had locks as those in England and Wales. Having special grilles on doors and windows may reflect 'architectural culture', and they were uncommon for instance in the Netherlands and Sweden.

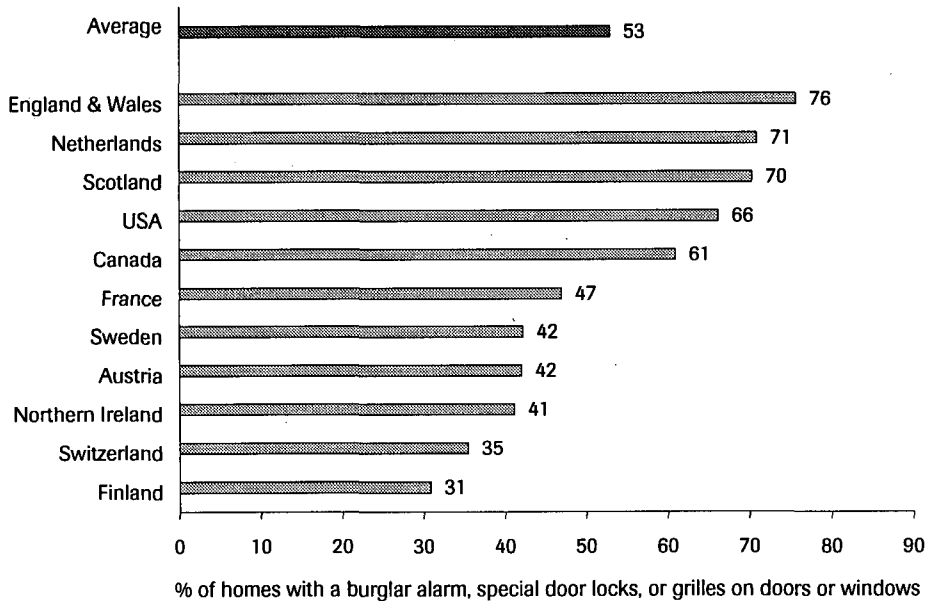
As a summary measure of home security, Figure 14 shows the proportion of homes with at least one of the three measures (an alarm, special door locks, or grilles on doors or windows). The most security conscious were those in England and Wales, the Netherlands and Scotland. Levels of precaution at national level were positively related to national burglary risks: i.e., those in countries facing higher risks were generally most likely to take precautions.³¹

The effectiveness of burglary alarms

Burglar alarms are still at the top end of the security market, promising to act as a deterrent to intruders, and a noisy warning to nearby tenants if they do not. Price is still a major factor limiting more widespread ownership, though some household may be put off by the inconvenience of setting alarms, some may think an alarm simply advertises the fact that there is 'something worth stealing', and some – inconvenienced by false alarms themselves – may be reluctant to inflict them on others. Nonetheless, it is evident from the ICVS, in which the question about alarms has been included in all three sweeps, that alarm ownership has increased. In nine countries for which ownership can be assessed in 1989 and 1996, the overall proportion of homes protected by alarm has increased from 13% to 16%. Whether alarms are effective in preventing burglaries in homes which have them is harder to judge than might be imagined. First, it is not adequate to look at *present*

dows, a dog to deter burglars, and a high fence around the house. Respondents were also asked whether there was a caretaker or security guard on the premises, and whether they asked neighbours to keep an eye on their property when they were away. The 1992 questions were repeated in 1996. A new question in 1996 was about involvement in community initiatives against crime, not reported here.

31 The correlation between the percentage who had a burglary with entry or attempt and the proportion who had at least one of the three security measures was 0.886; $p < .01$; $n = 11$.

Figure 14: Percentage of homes with one or more of three security measures

alarm ownership levels in terms of past risks of burglary, simply because many people install an alarm in response to a burglary. This 'victimisation effect' means that current alarm owners will appear *more* at risk. Rather, one needs to take into account the level of security at the time of a burglary. Secondly, a really stringent test would look at individual properties, with and without alarms, which share similar features in terms of environmental layout, attractiveness to burglars, occupancy levels, and so on. Thirdly, one should ideally take account of the 'length of exposure to risk' – i.e., the amount of time a house has had, and had not had, an alarm.

The ICVS cannot meet all these conditions by any means, but a new set of questions in the 1996 survey allows some tests to be made. These involved asking victims whether an alarm had been installed at the time of a burglary or attempt.³² The analysis needs to be restricted to those who had been victim in their present home, and in the last year only. Table 9 shows the results. Current alarm owners appear by

32 The questions allow those who had a burglary at a previous address to be identified. These are deleted from the analysis since it is not known whether an alarm was installed at those premises. A further simplification was to restrict analysis to those who had one burglary or attempt only, since to ascertain an 'alarm condition' for each victimisation would have been complex.

Table 9: Burglary victimisation and ownership of burglar alarms: 1996 ICVS

		% victim once or more	
		Burglary with entry	Attempted burglary
1	Current alarm owners	2.7	3.3
2	Alarm owner at time of offence	1.1	2.1
3	Non alarm owner	1.8	1.8
Statistical significance 2,3		p<0.01	ns

* Based on 11 countries. The number of respondents for whom victimisation was assessed was in excess of 17,000.

far the most heavily victimised – no doubt reflecting the fact that they had installed alarms because of what had happened. For those with alarms installed at the time of the offence, 1.1% had a burglar enter the house, as against 1.8% of those without alarms – a statistically robust difference. For attempted burglaries, the picture was different. The level of risk for those with alarms at the time of an attempt was higher (2.1%) than for those without alarms (1.8%). While this difference could be explained by sampling error, it is not implausible. The types of houses with alarms could appear to offer more rewards to burglars and be targeted on that account, but with entry thwarted. Thus, reworking the figures in Table 9 shows that for those with an alarm at the time of the offence, entry was achieved in 35% of incidents, whereas for those without alarms the figures was higher, at 50%.

While this ICVS evidence is not entirely conclusive for reasons given, it usefully adds to other survey evidence that alarms can provide protection against burglary. Similar results are evident from the British Crime Survey (Mirrlees-Black *et al.*, 1996) and the Dutch Police Monitor surveys (Willhemse, 1996).

4.4 Attitudes to punishment

A question used in all three sweeps of the ICVS has asked people which sentence they considered most appropriate for a recidivist burglar – a man aged 21 who is found guilty of burglary for the second time, having stolen a colour television. Table 10 show the percentage opting for either a fine, prison or a community service order. Results from countries in sweeps to 1996 are included.

Conventional wisdom would have it that there is strong public demand for imprisonment in industrialised countries. Yet, in fact, a community service order was seen as the most appropriate sentence in eleven out of sixteen countries.³³ It had the

33 The latest information is taken for countries in the 1996 sweep. The results for Belgium, Italy, Australia and New Zealand are from the 1992 survey.

Table 10: Sentence preferences for a young recidivist burglar (percentages)

	Fine	Prison	Community Service order		Fine	Prison	Community Service order
England & Wales				Sweden			
1989	11	38	38	1992	14	26	47
1992	9	37	40	1996	13	22	50
1996	8	49	39				
				Norway			
Scotland				1989	23	14	47
1989	14	39	34				
1996	13	48	27	Italy			
				1992	10	22	47
Northern Ireland							
1989	9	45	30	Austria			
1996	15	49	28	1996	14	10	60
Switzerland				Canada			
1989	12	9	57	1989	11	32	39
1996	10	9	61	1992	10	39	30
				1996	8	43	30
Belgium							
1989	13	26	38	USA			
1992	12	19	55	1989	8	53	30
				1996	8	56	23
France							
1989	10	13	53	Australia			
1996	9	11	68	1989	9	36	46
				1992	8	34	48
Finland							
1989	19	15	38	New Zealand			
1992	13	14	55	1992	10	26	51
1996	15	18	49				

* Other options were a suspended sentence (which attracted support from 8% on average in 1996), and 'some other sentence' (4%). Relatively few people said they could not judge the most appropriate sentence, though the figure was higher in Italy in 1992 (12%).

** The question on sentencing was not asked in the USA in 1992.

strongest support in France (where 68% favoured it), Austria (62%) and Switzerland (61%). The percentage opting for a community service order in Finland increased markedly after 1989, when they were introduced in Finland, suggesting that formal sentencing change can increase support for alternatives to imprisonment. Support for imprisonment in 1996 was greatest in the USA (56%), England and Wales Scotland, Northern Ireland (all levels near to 50%), and Canada (43%). It was somewhat lower in other 'anglophone' countries in 1992 – Australia (34%) and New Zealand (26%) – though still higher than in other European countries.

For the ten countries in the 1996 ICVS for which change in sentencing preferences can be examined over time, support for imprisonment has increased in eight – although in Switzerland the change was small and statistically insignificant. The most marked switch in opinion has been in England and Wales and Scotland. The trend was not evident in France and Sweden, where indeed community service orders now find more favour.

Popular support for imprisonment is generally stronger in countries where there are higher risks of burglary, although half or more of those in Belgium, New Zealand, Australia and France preferred community service orders despite comparatively high burglary levels.³⁴ Previous analysis has also suggested that actual per capita imprisonment rates tend to be higher where there is strong public endorsement of prison sentences (e.g., in the USA, the United Kingdom and the ex-communist countries (see Dijk *et al.*, 1990: 93). Whether sentencing policies follow public attitudes, or public attitudes follow sentencing practice is difficult to say. In any event, though, the marked increase in imprisonment rates in the UK, in the Netherlands and the USA has gone alongside increased public support.

Levels of support for imprisonment can also be examined at the individual level. In line with country level results, the factor most strongly associated with a preference for imprisonment was being English-speaking. Net of this, having been a victim of burglary increased support, as did having a lower level of education. Age and sex had little effect. Similar results were found in a previous analysis by Kuhn (1993), though he also found that punitiveness varied with age inconsistently across countries: in the majority, younger people were slightly more punitive, although the opposite was the case in the UK, Germany, Finland and Norway. Moreover, looking at age and sex together, young men are less punitive than older men, but young women, for their part, are more punitive than older women. This was a consistent pattern across country.

34 The correlation between the percentage of those supporting imprisonment and the incidence risk of burglaries (including attempts) was 0.489 ($p < 0.10$; $n = 15$).

Discussion

The main aim of the ICVS has been to develop indicators of victimisation risk and other crime-related issues for comparative purposes. The point estimates of victimisation risks in different countries should not be seen as the most important information the ICVS offers. They inevitably attract much attention from a wide range of audiences (national criminal justice policy makers, journalists, and tourist agencies), and we make no apology for presenting them. But they are not an end in itself. The level of crime in different countries calls for a criminologically-informed interpretation to improve understanding of the factors related to variations in risk. In this final chapter we will try to shed some light on these. The discussion is grounded in the ICVS results. No attempt is made to try and synthesise the considerable amount of writing on why crime rates vary across country.

One major theoretical perspective currently used to understand levels of crime holds that the extent of offending (which will reflect in victimisation risks) is broadly determined by factors which (i) increase the motivation to offend, and (ii) present criminal opportunities (e.g., Felson, 1994; Van Dijk, 1994a). Motivational pressures have been linked for one to the process of 'modernisation', which is seen to weaken informal community controls and impose modern norms of individualism and consumerism (e.g., Shelley, 1981; Neapolitan, 1995). Motivational pressures have also been interpreted from a socio-economic 'strain' perspective, which emphasise such things as levels of youth unemployment and socio-economic inequality (e.g., Hseih and Pugh, 1993; Eisner, 1995). The importance of criminal opportunities, on the other hand, stems from both the simple notion that greater affluence increases the stock of stealable wealth, but also from the premise that the specific accessibility and vulnerability of different opportunities can make a difference – for instance, not only how many cars there are, but where they are normally parked, and how well they are protected by security devices (e.g., Mayhew, 1990).

In any event, motivational factors can be seen as making up the 'demand side' of the crime market, with potential offenders seeking to profit through criminal activity, or expressing a propensity to offend through aggressive means. Criminal opportunities are the 'supply side' of the crime market, depending on the type and number of suitable targets, and the extent to which they are protected (by social guardianship and/or security measures). Potential victims can be seen as the reluctant suppliers of suitable targets, albeit trying to reduce their vulnerability by improving self-protection – e.g., by installing burglar alarms (Van Dijk, 1994a).

Both motivational (demand) factors and opportunity (supply) factors will be related in particular to levels of urbanisation and affluence. High levels of urbanisation will create additional criminal opportunities, not least because the daily routines and lifestyles of urban dwellers will leave targets less 'socially well-guarded', and bring

people into frequent contact with each other in relatively anonymous settings, increasing exposure to crime by strangers (Van Dijk and Van Kesteren, 1996). Urbanisation, too, may undermine community cohesiveness, breaking down curbs on offending. In more affluent societies, targets for crime will be more widely available (car ownership will be higher for instance), although economic strain may be less prevalent. Affluence, then, should act as both a brake on crime and a catalyst of it.

5.1 Analysing some main determinants of crime

National victimisation rates provide a good measure of the level of crime in different countries since they obviously are the outcome of offending behaviour. The ICVS also contains information about the social characteristics of those interviewed which can be aggregated to the country level. Aggregation in this way yields average national scores on items such as people's satisfaction with their income, lifestyle, urbanisation etc, which can then be examined in relation to national crime levels. In previous work, various statistical techniques have been used to explore regional and national victimisation rates in this way (e.g., Van Dijk, 1994a; 1994b). Some of the work has drawn on the full range of countries covered by the ICVS. It has shown, from a global perspective, that levels of crime are independently related to both demand and supply factors. Moreover, demand and supply appear to influence each other, such that when criminal demand increases, the supply of opportunities is restricted by potential victims taking more care, and when opportunities are presented, criminal demand increases by potential offenders taking them up. The eleven industrialised nations featured in this report do not provide sufficient diversity for similar statistical analysis to progress far. All are among the most affluent nations in the world, and rates of car ownership, for instance, are universally high. Indicators of economic 'strain' also show limited variation. In the analysis reported below, therefore, we have included data from previous ICVS sweeps in fifteen other countries, including seven which are socially and economically 'in transition'.³⁵ In all, results were used from 26 countries.

The first step

Preliminary work suggested that a parsimonious analysis of the results for these 26 countries could be achieved by focusing on three measures of crime. The first draws together the first three categories of victimisation singled out in Chapter 2: burglary, thefts of and from cars, and contact crime – to form a measure of what we call hereon '*more serious crime*'. The second measure takes up the residual 'other'

35 These are: West Germany (1988 ICVS sweep), Norway (1988), Spain (1988), Belgium (1992), Italy (1992), Australia (1992), New Zealand (1992), and Malta (1996). The seven countries in transition are Estonia (1994); Poland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Georgia, Slovenia and Latvia (1995).

crimes: bicycle and motorcycle theft, vandalism to cars, theft of personal property, threats and offensive sexual behaviour – for simplicity hereon labelled '*petty crime*'. The third useful measure was '*contact crime*' itself (robbery, sexual assault and assaults with force). A number of risk-related variables, identified largely through analysis of earlier ICVS results, were examined with conventional multivariate techniques to assess their relative importance.³⁶

For *more serious crime*, the strongest factor explaining risks across different countries was urbanisation – with crime increasing with the proportion living in larger cities. Next, *lower* affluence was significantly associated with *higher* risks. This provides a challenge to 'modernisation' theory, which holds that less developed countries are characterised by lower levels of property crime – an argument that may simply be explained by lower reporting rates, as evidenced in the ICVS, and the fact that the crime recording systems of the police are less well-developed (cf. Zvekic, 1996). Urbanisation and lower affluence alone explained half the variance in victimisation rates in the 26 countries.³⁷

More serious crime was higher in more urbanised countries and/or those which were less affluent. In this analysis there was no strong relationship with car ownership. This may be because of the selection of countries taken. Car crime levels have become high in countries in transition despite still comparatively low levels of car ownership, while in North America and Europe theft rates have generally fallen – perhaps the result of better security. In more global perspective, there is a strong positive relationship between ownership and car crime levels (Van Dijk and Van Kesteren, 1996).

With regard to *petty crime*, urbanisation was again the strongest fact explaining risks. Levels of affluence were statistically unrelated to risks however. A second factor of importance was levels of bicycle ownership – a not surprising result perhaps since one component of the petty crime category is bicycle theft itself, which as shown in Chapter 2, is more common in countries with higher bicycle ownership.³⁸ Again, car ownership levels did not emerge as important even though one component of petty crime is car vandalism. An explanation in this case is that

36 The variables were:

- *Urbanisation*, a score from the ICVS based on the proportion of people living in each of six categories of size of place of residence. Low scores were for those in the smaller places.
- *Affluence*, measured by World Bank (1993) data on gross domestic product per capita.
- *Level of education*, measured at respondent level from the ICVS.
- *Lifestyle*, measured by ICVS questions on the frequency of evening activities outside the home.
- *Car ownership*, using ICVS results.
- *Bicycle ownership*, again using ICVS results.
- '*Economic strain*', a measure from the survey of the proportion of young males aged 16-29 who said they were dissatisfied with their household income, a variable which has proved powerful in previous ICVS analyses.

37 The multiple regression coefficient was 0.71 ($p < 0.001$; $n = 26$).

38 $r = 0.39$; $p < 0.05$; $n = 26$. Bicycle ownership – like car ownership – is positively related to affluence ($r = 0.32$; ns).

countries with high bicycle ownership also have high car ownership, so that effect of the later is considerably weakened.

For *contact crime*, higher urbanisation and, in this case, lower affluence both helped explain the pattern of risks across country. But also important was our measure of 'economic strain' – the proportion of young males who were dissatisfied with their household income.³⁹ This result merits comment. First, it may reflect the inclusion of robbery within the 'contact crime' measure, thereby tapping a relationship between economic necessity and the propensity to commit 'high risk' crime (cf. Stangeland, 1995). Secondly, while economic strain may simply be related to violent behaviour in general, it cannot be ruled out as a factor in relation to property crime also (which forms a large part of our more serious crime category). In this analysis, there was not strong evidence of this, though it has emerged when ICVS data from a larger range of countries were examined by Van Dijk (1994b).

Taken together, these results support the idea that in more affluent countries there is a reduction in economic strain, which both reduces the 'demand' for profit through crime, and the propensity to aggressive violence. At the same time, though, it may increase the supply of opportunities for minor crimes such as bicycle theft.

As said, previous analyses have also shown, from a more global perspective, that thefts involving cars are more prevalent in more affluent developed countries where ownership levels are higher than in Africa and South America for instance.

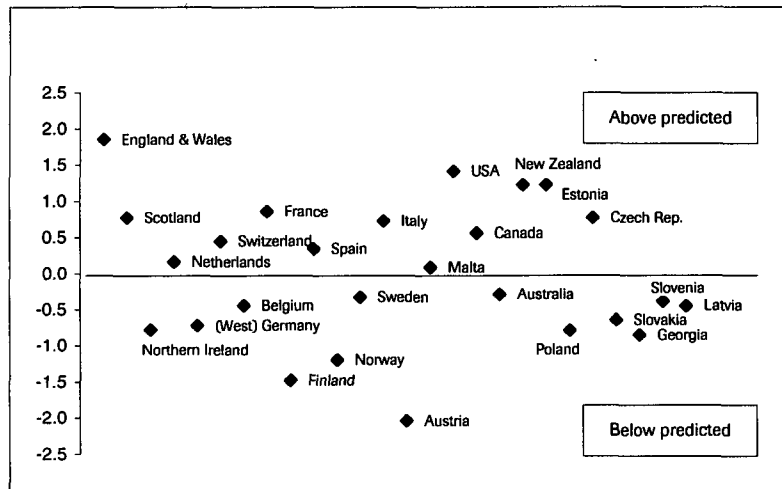
Table 19 in Appendix 4 provides an overview for each country of the most relevant statistics we have used here: the national and mean victimisation rates for more serious crimes, contact crimes and petty crimes respectively, and the national and mean rates for urbanisation, affluence, economic strain, and bicycle ownership.

The second step

We then concentrated on victimisation levels for more serious crimes in each country on the basis of the two most important coefficients from the regression analysis. In other words, we calculated the level of 'expected' crime in each country, given its level of urbanisation and affluence. Figure 15 shows the extent to which crime rates in individual countries conformed to or diverged from 'expected' rates. Countries above the horizontal line had higher rates than would be predicted; those below it had lower rates.

National risks are fairly accurately predicted, well within a margin of three points in either direction. In most countries, deviations from the mean rate for all 26 countries of 11.8% victimised once or more by more serious crimes are fully or largely explained by levels of urbanisation, and/or affluence. For instance, although Australia has a relatively high crime rate (a mean rate of 15.3%), this seems due to the fact that most Australian citizens live in large cities. The high rates in Spain and some countries in transition are also accounted for by urbanisation and/or relatively low

39 As expected, dissatisfaction with income was negatively related to level of affluence ($r = -0.80$; $p < 0.0001$).

Figure 15: Difference between actual and predicted risks of more serious crime¹

¹ The graph plots standardised residuals from a regression analysis in which the dependent variable was more serious crime (burglary, thefts involving cars, and contact crime). The independent variables were affluence and urbanisation, as defined.

level of affluence. In contrast, risks of more serious crimes of England and Wales, the USA, New Zealand and Estonia are higher than would be predicted. In Austria, Finland, and Norway, rates of these more serious forms of crime are lower than expected.

The third step

Finally, we conducted factor analysis to help characterise the crime situations in different eleven countries. We singled out as the measures of crime: burglary, contact crime, petty crime, and thefts involving cars – the latter having proved important in a similar analysis of a wider range of countries (Van Dijk, 1994b). We also used the four more important independent variables that explained (albeit somewhat differently) the patterns of risk across country. Results were included for all 26 countries. Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique which reduces data by looking for underlying 'factors' which represent communality in the original variables. In this case, it allows us to see how victimisation rates and their correlates cluster together in 'factors'. To see what these factors describe, ones looks for the variables with the highest scores (or 'loadings' as they are termed). Three factors emerged which together explain 80% of the variance in the measures (Table 11). The first factor seems to represent *property crime in an urban setting* insofar as it is defined by high scores for car-related thefts, burglary, urbanisation and, negatively, bicycle ownership. (The negative relationship with bicycle ownership is best explained by the fact that countries with high levels of car crime have

Table 11: Results of factor analysis on victimisation rates and correlates in 26 countries (after varimax rotation).

	Factor 1 Property crime in an urban setting	Factor 2 Strain-related contact crime	Factor 3 Opportunistic petty crime
Thefts involving cars	.83	.08	.04
Burglary	.73	.37	.38
Contact crime	.49	.64	.31
Petty crime	.14	-.09	.93
Urbanisation	.76	.16	.02
Affluence	-.26	-.87	.10
Economic strain	.01	.96	-.14
Bicycle ownership	-.71	-.10	.67

1 For a description of the measures of urbanisation, affluence, economic strain and bicycle ownership see footnote 36. The crime measures are described on pages 56-57.

low bicycle ownership levels, as Chapter 2 showed.) The second factor has highest scores on contact crime, income dissatisfaction among young males, and lower affluence. It seems to represent *strain-related contact crimes*. The third factor has high scores for petty crimes and bicycle ownership, and can be characterised as *opportunistic petty crime*.

The results above also allow us to assess for each country the dominant features of their crime profile, by looking at their scores on the three factors found (in z-scores). Table 12 gives the results. Countries with the highest scores in terms of the first factor are Australia, Spain, Latvia, England and Wales, Georgia, New Zealand, and the USA. High scores on the second factor are found in all countries in transition. For the third factor, the score was much higher in the Netherlands than elsewhere, with the next highest scores in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Switzerland, and Sweden. Fairly high scores are also evident in England and Wales, New Zealand and Australia.

5.2 Country profiles

Using the results above, and some from Chapter 2, a few broad conclusions are drawn about the eleven countries which are the focus of this report.

England and Wales

Since 1988, crime has increased according to the ICVS more in England and Wales than elsewhere. It now stands out with relatively high rates of most forms of crime. The crime problem is made up of both property crimes in urban settings, and opportunistic petty crime, of which car vandalism is a feature. The high level of risk is only partly explained by a high level of urbanisation. Nor do other criminogenic

Table 12: National scores on three victimisation risk dimensions from a factor analysis

	Factor 1 Mean	Factor 2 Mean	Factor 3 Mean
Australia			
Austria	-1.39	-0.77	-0.12
Belgium	-0.40	-1.07	-0.84
Canada	0.42	-0.35	0.14
Czech Republic	0.23	0.76	1.18
England & Wales	1.23	-0.50	0.76
Estonia	0.55	1.74	1.05
Finland	-1.44	0.32	-0.15
France	0.12	-0.34	-0.15
Georgia	1.13	1.98	-1.93
(West) Germany	-0.48	-0.54	-0.07
Italy	0.46	-0.77	-0.52
Latvia	1.34	1.17	0.48
Malta	0.33	-0.73	-1.67
Netherlands	-0.32	-0.80	2.24
New Zealand	0.91	-0.15	0.71
Norway	-1.12	-0.92	-1.16
Northern Ireland	-0.76	-0.11	-1.81
Poland	0.67	1.33	-0.17
Scotland	0.34	-0.41	-0.38
Slovakia	-1.60	2.10	0.44
Slovenia	-1.23	1.27	0.17
Spain	1.45	-0.11	-0.99
Sweden	-0.71	-0.37	1.00
Switzerland	-1.04	-1.35	1.05
USA	0.74	-0.67	0.56

1 Factor 1 denotes property crime in an urban setting. Factor 2 denotes strain-related contact crimes. Factor 3 denotes opportunistic petty crime. For variables used see Table 11.

factors we examined provide a full explanation either (e.g., dissatisfaction with income and affluence).

Scotland

In 1988, the ICVS measured similar levels of risks to those in England and Wales. The less steep increase in crime in Scotland now makes both more and less serious crimes less prevalent than in England and Wales, a finding confirmed by recent national victimisation surveys. In comparison with England and Wales, Scotland is less urbanised, but the extent of 'strain' among the young males is slightly higher.

The moderately high level of crime in Scotland resembles that of other West European nations. It is slightly higher than predicted.

Northern Ireland

Crime in Northern Ireland has been very stable since 1988 according to both the ICVS and police figures. Risks are relatively low, even taking account of its low level of urbanisation. The fact that income dissatisfaction among young men is higher than elsewhere, and levels of nighttime social activity high – which on balance should increase exposure to crime – makes the Northern Ireland position even more notable. Clearly, special factors act as a brake on crime.

The Netherlands

Crime in the Netherlands according to the ICVS has increased since 1988, but much less than in England and Wales. Starting from a higher level of overall risk in 1989 than England and Wales, current levels are now on a par. Much crime is of the less serious variety (bicycle theft and car vandalism). The Dutch situation is not satisfactorily explained by a high degree of urbanisation, since while population density is very high, many people live in smaller provincial towns or villages. Exceptionally high rates of bicycle ownership – a special opportunity structure for the theft – appears to be an important factor dictating the high overall level of crime.

Switzerland

Switzerland is one of the most rural countries in Europe, with almost half the population living in small villages. Low levels of risk, therefore, can be expected, and indeed this was the case at the time of the first ICVS sweep in 1989. One special factor in the recent steep increase in crime in Switzerland, second only to that in England and Wales, may be the prevalence of drug-related crime. The number of addicts is now estimated to be 5.4 per million, considerably higher than anywhere else in the European Union (Van Dijk, 1996).

France

Since 1988, the level of crime in France has increased somewhat according to the ICVS. Urbanisation in France is rather below average, whereas the level of economic 'strain' is fairly high. For more serious crimes, risks in France are slightly higher than predicted by our statistical model.

Sweden

The fairly low risks of more serious crimes in Sweden are closely in line with what would be predicted. The crime problem is largely made up of opportunistic petty crimes, reflecting high rates of bicycle theft. Since 1991, the ICVS has shown an increase in crime in Sweden in the region of 25%.

Finland

Since Finland is moderately urbanised and affluent, a fairly average level of risk of more serious crimes would be expected. In the event, risks are lower than predicted. Nor is the level of petty crime high, relatively speaking, in spite of high bicycle ownership rates. However, the Finnish record is less good with respect to more possibly strain-induced contact crime. In this respect, it differs from other West European countries. The generally low levels of property crime might be related to an absence of a pronounced drug addiction problem (Van Dijk, 1996). Crime in Finland has risen somewhat since 1988, at the same level as in the Netherlands.

Austria

Austria, in the ICVS for the first time in 1996, has comparatively low rates of crime across the offences measured in the ICVS. Its record is generally good even for petty crime, in spite of high bicycle ownership rates and average risks for car vandalism. The absence of any pronounced drug problem may again be a contributory factor.

The USA

The level of crime in the USA has declined since 1988 according to both the ICVS and police figures. The current moderately high crime rates are more in line with rather average levels of urbanisation and economic strain than the much higher rates measured in 1988. Results from Chapter 2 showed that levels of contact crime were high, and that the USA was unusual in the extent to which guns were mentioned in assaults and robberies.

Canada

Crime in Canada has declined since 1988 according to the ICVS, and police levels are as they were in 1988. Again, the only moderately high crime rates registered in the 1996 survey are closer to what would be predicted.

5.3 General conclusions

The main focus of this report has been on eleven industrialised countries in which the ICVS was carried out in 1996 under the supervision of InterView. Some limited use has also been made of results from earlier sweeps in 1989 and 1992 for these eleven countries if they took part before. Five aspects of the results are drawn out here:

- The results indicate that crimes against households members and their property have stabilised or gone down since 1991 in the five participating countries with measures from all three ICVS sweeps. The same picture is evident from figures of offences recorded by the police, providing credibility to both sets of figures. Several explanations for this shift in crime trends were considered in Chapter 2: increased police or sentencing effectiveness, reduced 'strain' due to improved economic conditions, improved security against property crime, and possibly

demographic and cultural change. The ICVS itself cannot provide evidence for or against these explanations, although the results, as regards burglary at least, lend some credence to the possibility that improved security has had a beneficial effect. Thus, for instance, the ICVS has attested to the effectiveness of burglar alarms in preventing entry, and has shown alarms ownership levels to have increased; the use of other security precautions has generally been upward too. It seems plausible, then, that improved protection against burglary has played a role in bringing down overall levels of burglary. The decline of car theft might also be the result of more and better anti-theft devices on cars (although car security was not measured directly in the ICVS). Fewer people in less affluent countries have cars with the most modern anti-theft devices, and rates of car theft may well increase with rising ownership levels. The trend towards better security in more affluent countries, moreover, might widen the gap in risks further.

- Public perceptions of burglary risks have also fallen in many countries, suggesting that perceptions have some grounding in a fairly realistic assessment of actual risks. Feelings of safety on the streets, however, are less clearly related to actual risks. Disquiet about 'street trouble' seems in part to be driven by factors other than crime.
- The fairly favourable picture from crime trends and perceptions of burglary risks has not, however, been accompanied by any improvement in opinions about police effectiveness: general satisfaction with the police has declined in several countries. The ICVS cannot say why, but it is conceivably related to state agencies losing credibility with the public. Or it may be that in these advanced modern countries, public expectations of what the police should achieve rise faster than what the police can achieve.
- In many countries, public support for imprisonment as the most appropriate sentence for a recidivist burglar has increased. Governments and the judiciary, though, should take heed of the still broad-based level of support for non-custodial sanctions: a community service order remains the most popular sentencing option in all continental European countries.
- Finally, the 1996 ICVS results shed new light on the needs of crime victims. Many victims who draw crimes of violence to the attention of the police, including sexual crimes, are concerned to stop what happened to them, and many also want help. Yet over a third are dissatisfied with the police response. Nearly as many victims of property crime are also critical of how the police dealt with their report of a crime.

When asked whether they would have appreciated help from specialised victim agencies in the form of information, and practical and emotional support, about a third of reporting victims said they would. The proportion who *did* receive agency help is still generally low in most countries, suggesting the need for wider agency support. To the extent that referrals come from the police, this may improve general appreciation of them.

Forthcoming publications of the Working Group comprise a report on the results from the ICVS surveys in twelve countries in transition, and a comprehensive publication on the results of all surveys carried out to date (including those in developing nations). In the meantime the ICVS is being repeated in several new cities, notably in the People's Republic of China and South Africa. It is hoped that a fourth sweep of the ICVS may take place in 1999 or 2000.

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Table 1: Response rates 1989, 1992 and 1996 ICVS sweeps: all industrialised countries

	1989 eligibles ¹	completed	response ³	1992 eligibles ¹	completed	response ³	1996 eligibles ¹	completed	response ³
Austria							1983	1507	76%
Australia	4425	2012	45%	3489	2006	57%			
Belgium	5535	2060	37%	3366	1485	44%			
Canada	4793	2074	43%	3321	2152	65%	2873	2134	74%
England & Wales	4717	2006	43%	5208	2001	38%	3697	2171	59%
Finland	1474	1025	70%	1879	1620	86%	4509	3899	86%
France	2918	1502	51%				1651	1003	61%
Germany (West)	17479	5274	30%						
Italy				3321	2024	61%			
Netherlands	3067	2000	65%	3012	2000	66%	3206	2008	63%
New Zealand				3154	2048	65%			
Northern Ireland ³							1247	1042	84%
Norway	1425	1009	71%						
Scotland	4856	2007	41%				3496	2194	63%
Spain	2616	862	33%						
Sweden				2227	1707	77%	1328	1000	75%
Switzerland	1464	1000	68%				1794	1000	56%
USA	5429	1996	37%	2973	1501	50%	2506	1003	40%
Japan ⁴	3014	2411	80%	3015	2382	79%			
Poland ⁵				2118	2033	96%			
Total	63212	27238	43%	34965	20926	60%	28290	18961	67%

1 'Eligible contacts' are the gross sample less 'non-relevant' contacts (ie, number busy, no answer, disconnected business number).

2 Response rates are based on completed interviews divided by eligible contacts. Those not interviewed include refusals, those with language or hearing difficulties, respondent not available, no eligible respondent, and invalid interviews.

3 As the Northern Ireland sample in 1989 was a quota sample of respondents interviewed face-to-face, response rates are not available.

4 The number of eligible interviews in Japan is estimated from the given response rates and the number interviewed.

5 The number of eligible interviews in Poland is also from a given response rates of +95% and the number interviewed.

Table 2: Response rates of industrialised countries in the 1996 ICVS

	% interviewed of eligible contacts ¹		
	1989	1992	1996
Austria	-	-	76
Canada	43	65	74
England & Wales	43	38	59
Finland	70	86	86
France	51	-	61
Netherlands	65	66	63
Northern Ireland ²	n.a.	-	84
Scotland	41	-	63
Sweden	-	77	75
Switzerland	68	-	56
USA	37	50	40
total ³	47	59	67

- 1 'Eligible' contacts are the gross sample less 'non-relevant' contacts (ie, number busy, no answer, disconnected business number).
- 2 As the Northern Ireland sample in 1989 was a quota sample of respondents interviewed face-to-face, response rates are not available.
- 3 Total figures are based on completed interviews over the full number of eligible households selected for interview. There is no weighting for sample size or country size.

Appendix 2

Statistical significance

Nomogram level of confidence: 95%

N=	percentage observed										
	2 98	5 95	10 90	15 85	20 80	25 75	30 70	35 65	40 60	45 55	50 50
25	5.5	8.5	11.8	14.0	15.7	17.0	18.0	18.7	19.2	19.5	19.6
50	3.9	6.0	8.3	9.9	11.1	12.0	12.7	13.2	13.6	13.8	13.9
100	2.7	4.3	5.9	7.0	7.8	8.5	9.0	9.3	9.6	9.8	9.8
200	1.9	3.0	4.2	4.9	5.5	6.0	6.4	6.6	6.8	6.9	6.9
300	1.6	2.5	3.4	4.0	4.5	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7
400	1.4	2.1	2.9	3.5	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.9
500	1.2	1.9	2.6	3.1	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.4
600	1.1	1.7	2.4	2.9	3.2	3.5	3.7	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.0
700	1.0	1.6	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.7
800	1.0	1.5	2.1	2.5	2.8	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.5
900	0.9	1.4	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.3
1,000	0.9	1.4	1.9	2.2	2.5	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.1
1,200	0.8	1.2	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.8
1,400	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.6
1,600	0.7	1.1	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5
1,800	0.6	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3
2,000	0.6	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2
3,000	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8
4,000	0.4	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
6,000	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3
8,000	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0
10,000	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
20,000	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
30,000	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
40,000	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5

A sample-based estimate is more or less close to the 'unknown' population value being measured. The size of the deviation δ depends on:

- sample size
- percentage observed in the sample (p)
- level of confidence chosen (z)

The general, the level of confidence used is 95%.

For instance, say in a survey of 1,000 respondents, 20% said 'yes' to a certain question. The entry in the table above, at row $n = 1,000$ and with column percentage of 20, shows δ to be 2.5%. This implies that there is a one in twenty chance that the true population value lies between 17.5% and 22.5% (20 ± 2.5 , at a confidence level of 95%). In another example, say 2% of the sample of 2,000 people had been a victim of a particular crime in the last year. There would be a 95% chance that the true level of victimisation lies between 2.6% and 1.4% (2 ± 0.6).

When there is an average victimisation rate for all countries of 5%, for instance, then a value from an individual survey with a sample of 2,000 of more than 1% higher or lower than the average will be statistically significant at the 95% level. Where the overall victimization rate is 2% say, deviations of 0.6% would be significant. (Thus, in absolute size, the standard error is smaller the less frequently a crime occurs, but *proportionately* it is much larger.) When the sample is 1,000 (of women only for example), deviations from an overall average of 5% of more than 1.4% will be significant, and with an average of 2%, deviations of 0.9% will be.

The formula which is used for calculating δ at a confidence level of 95% is:

$$\sigma = 1.96x\sqrt{p\frac{(100-p)}{n}}$$

When a research population is finite, the deviation δ is smaller because the formula is multiplied by:

$$\frac{N-n}{N-1}$$

in which N is the population size.

Appendix 3

Overview of 1996 ICVS questionnaire

The 1996 ICVS questionnaire was very largely based on 1989 and 1992 versions, although more information was sought (see below). The translation of the questionnaire into French and German was done by Professor Martin Killias, University of Lausanne. The translation of the questionnaire into other national languages was authorised by national sponsors before fieldwork. The final English version of the questionnaire was the basis for all translations into other languages. InterView checked the final results and was responsible for the comparability of all translations in liaison with country coordinators.

The main change to the 1996 ICVS questionnaire was that, for five types of incidents, there were more detailed questions asked about (i) why the offence was reported to the police (if it was); (ii) whether victims were satisfied with the police response (and if dissatisfied, why); (iii) why the offence was not reported, (if it was not); and (iv) whether it was reported to any other authority. The five types of offences covered by these questions were: thefts from cars, completed burglary, robbery, sexual incidents, and assaults/threats. In previous sweeps, these questions were also asked (with the exception of (iv) above), but they were asked about the 'last incident' of any type that the respondent had experienced over the previous five years. Since the type of offence involved in the last incident could be identified, it was possible to relate answers to offence types. However, the 1996 format produces more incidents of any one type for analysis. At the same time, it precludes analysis in terms of (i), (ii) and (iii) above for the offence types for which the questions were not asked.

There were also some other changes, again mainly to maximise cases for analysis. First, for completed burglary, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats, there were slightly different questions on whether there had been contact with a specialised support agency, and (if not) whether such support would have been helpful. Second, those who had experienced some kind of sexual incident over the past five years about which they provided details on the last incident, were asked whether they had experienced some other incident which they considered more serious than the last incident. If they had, they were asked to describe it. Thirdly, those who mentioned sexual incidents and assaults/threats were asked whether they regarded the last incident that happened to be a crime or not. Fourthly, questions on burglar alarm ownership was expanded to try and assess the effectiveness of alarms in preventing burglary.

There follows a short description of each of the 1996 ICVS questions.

		<i>Remarks</i>
SCREENER QUESTIONS		
20	Cars owned last five years	Question text changed, compared to 1992
21	No. of cars most of the time	
25	Motorcycles etc. owned last five years	
26	No. of motorcycles etc. most of the time	
30	Bicycles owned last five years	
31	No. of bicycles most of the time	
	Garage owned	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Parking	Omitted, compared to 1992
32	Introduction to household crimes	Question text changed, compared to 1992
35	Theft of cars last 5 years	Interviewer instruction changed, compared to 1992
40	Theft from cars last 5 years	
45	Vandalism to cars last 5 years	
50	Theft of motorcycles etc. last 5 years	
55	Theft of bicycle last 5 year	
60	Burglary last 5 years	
65	Attempted burglary last 5 years	
	Theft from garages/sheds	Omitted, compared to 1992
66	Introduction to personal crimes	
70	Property stolen using force last 5 years	Different structure, compared to 1992
75	Theft without force last 5 years	
76	Introduction to violent crimes	
80	Sexual incidents last 5 years	
85	Assault/threats last 5 years	Interviewer instruction changed, compared to 1992
<i>Detailed offence questions</i>		
86	Introduction to details on household crimes	
THEFTS OF CARS		
100	When	
101	How often if last year	
102	Where	
103	Recovered or not	
	When recovered	Omitted, compared to 1992
104	Reported to police	
	Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992
105	How serious	
THEFTS FROM CARS		
110	When	
111	How often if last year	
112	Where	

	<i>Remarks</i>	
113	Reported to Police	
114	Why reported	New question
115	Satisfied with way police dealt	
116	Why dissatisfied	
117	Why not reported	
118	Reported other authorities	New question
119	How serious	
CAR VANDALISM		
130	When	
131	How often if last year	
132	Where	
133	Reported to the Police	
	Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992
134	How serious	
THEFT OF MOTORCYCLE		
140	When	
141	How often if last year	
142	Where	
143	Reported to the Police	
	Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992
144	How serious	
THEFT OF BICYCLE		
150	When	
151	How often if last year	
152	Where	
153	Reported to the Police	
	Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992
154	How serious	
BURGLARY		
160	When	
161	How often if last year	
162	Anything stolen	
163	Value of stolen property	Interviewer instruction changed, compared to 1992
164	Any damage done	
165	Value of damaged property	Interviewer instruction changed, compared to 1992
166	Reported to the police	
167	Why reported	New question
168	Satisfied with way police dealt	
169	Why dissatisfied	
170	Why not reported	

	<i>Remarks</i>
171 Reported other authorities	New question
172 How serious	
173 Contact with specialised agency	New question
174 Specialised agency useful	New question
ATTEMPTED BURGLARY	
180 When	
181 How often if last year	
182 Reported to the police	
Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992
183 How serious	
THEFT FROM GARAGE	
When	Omitted, compared to 1992
How often	Omitted, compared to 1992
Reported to police	Omitted, compared to 1992
Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992
How serious	Omitted, compared to 1992
ROBBERY	
190 When	
191 How often if last year	
192 Where	
193 No. of offenders	
194 Whether offender(s) known	Question text changed, compared to 1992
195 Offender having weapon	
196 Type of weapon	
197 Use of weapon	New question
198 Anything stolen	
199 Reported to the police	
200 Why reported	New question
201 Satisfied with way police dealt	
202 Why dissatisfied	
203 Why not reported	
204 Reported other authorities	New question
205 How serious	
206 Contact with specialised agency	New question
207 Specialised agency useful	New question
THEFT OF PERSONAL PROPERTY	
210 When	
211 How often if last year	
212 Where	Different structure, compared to 1992 version
213 Pickpocketing	
214 Reported to the police	
Why not reported	Omitted, compared to 1992

	<i>Remarks</i>	
215	How serious	
SEXUAL INCIDENTS		
220	When	
221	How often if last year	
222	Where	Different structure, compared to 1992
223	No. of offenders	
224	Whether offender(s) known	Question text changed, compared to 1992
225	Relationship with offender	Different structure, compared to 1992
226	Offender having weapon	New question
227	Type of weapon	New question
228	Use of weapon	New question
229	How incident described	
230	How serious	
231	Regard as crime	
232	Reported to the police	
233	Why reported	New question
234	Satisfied with way police dealt	
235	Why dissatisfied	
236	Why not reported	Answer code changed, compared to 1992
237	Reported other authorities	New question
238	Contact with specialised agency	New question
239	Specialised agency useful	New question
240	More serious offence last 5 years	New question
241	How this described	New question
ASSAULTS AND THREATS		
250	When	
251	How often if last year	
252	Where	Different structure, compared to 1992
253	No. of offenders	
254	Whether offender(s) known	Question text changed, compared to 1992
255	Relationship with offence	Different structure, compared to 1992
256	Force involved	
257	Offender having weapon	
258	Type of weapon	New question
259	Use of weapon	New question
260	Injury suffered	
261	See doctor	
262	Reported to the police	
263	Why reported	New question
264	Satisfied with way police dealt	
265	Why dissatisfied	
266	Why not reported	
267	Reported other authorities	New question
268	How serious	

		<i>Remarks</i>
269	Regarded as crime	New question
270	Contact with specialised agency	New question
271	Specialised agency useful	New question
<i>Victim of any crime within 5 years</i>		
	Explanation	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Last crime 5 years	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Relatives/friends	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Police	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Social welfare agencies	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Religious organizations	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Voluntary organizations	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Victim support	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Any other person/agency	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Agencies useful	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Report to police	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Satisfied with police	Omitted, compared to 1992
	Why dissatisfied	Omitted, compared to 1992
CONSUMER FRAUD		
280	Victim last year	
281	Type of fraud	
282	Reported to the police	
283	Reported other authorities	New question
283a	Where reported	New optional question
CORRUPTION		
290	Victim last year	New question
291	Type of corruption	New question
292	Reported to the police	New question
293	Reported other authorities	New question
293a	Where reported	New optional question (not industrialised countries)
ATTITUDES TO CRIME		
299	People help each other	Optional, compared to 1992
300	Feel safe after dark	
301	Avoid places after dark	Answer code changed, compared to 1992
302	Likelihood of burglary	
POLICING		
310	Police do good job	
311	Frequency of police passing by Whether sufficient	Omitted, compared to 1992
312	No. of inhabitants where you live	Moved, compared to 1992

		<i>Remarks</i>
SENTENCES		
320	Recommended sentence for burglar	
321	How long in prison	
PERSONAL AND HOUSEHOLD INFORMATION		
330	Year of birth	
331	Accommodation	Answer codes changed, compared to 1992
331a	House owned/rented	Optional, compared to 1992 (not industrialised countries)
331b	Private landlord	Optional, compared to 1992 (not industrialised countries)
332	Protection measures in the home	Different structure, compared to 1992
333	Burglary more than once	New question
334	Alarm installed -burglary	New question
335	Attempted burglary more than once	New question
336	Alarm installed - attempted burglary	New question
340	Community crime prevention	New question
341	Gun ownership	Different structure, compared to 1992
342	Type of gun owned	Different structure, compared to 1992
343	Why gun owned	Different structure, compared to 1992
344	Going out in the evening	
344a	No. of visits during last week	New optional question (not industrialised countries)
	Family gatherings	Omitted, compared to 1992
350	Occupational position	Answer code omitted, compared to 1992
	Full-time job	Omitted, compared to 1992
351	No. of years of formal school	Different structure
352	Income above average	, compared to 1992
353	Income lower than bottom 25%	
354	Income higher than upper 25%	
355	Satisfaction with income	
356	Marital status	
	Type of area	Omitted, compared to 1992
400	Sex of interviewer	

Table 1: Victimization over the last year (percentage victim once or more)

		11 crimes ¹	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Att. burglary	Theft from garages	Robbery	Personal theft ²	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	1989	19.5	1.9	5.6	6.8	0.1	1.0	2.1	1.7		0.7	3.1	1.1	1.9
	1992	30.2	3.7	8.6	10.6	0.4	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.5	1.1	4.2	2.1	3.8
	1996	30.9	2.5	8.1	10.4	0.2	3.5	3.0	3.4		1.4	5.0	2.0	5.9
Scotland	1989	18.6	0.8	5.4	6.5	0.3	1.0	2.0	2.1		0.5	2.6	1.2	1.8
	1996	25.6	1.7	6.6	9.8	0.1	1.9	1.5	2.5		0.8	4.5	1.3	4.2
Northern Ireland	1989	14.9	1.6	4.0	4.4	0.1	1.6	1.1	0.9		0.5	2.2	1.9	1.8
	1996	16.8	1.6	3.1	6.7		1.2	1.5	1.1		0.5	2.5	1.2	1.7
Netherlands	1989	26.8	0.3	5.2	8.2	0.4	7.5	2.4	2.6		0.8	4.4	2.6	3.3
	1992	31.3	0.5	6.8	9.6	1.0	10.0	2.0	3.0	2.1	1.0	4.6	2.2	4.0
	1996	31.5	0.4	5.4	10.0	0.7	9.5	2.6	3.3		0.6	6.8	3.6	4.0
(West) Germany	1989	21.9	0.4	4.7	8.7	0.2	3.3	1.3	1.8		0.8	4.0	2.8	3.1
Switzerland	1989	15.6	0.0	1.9	4.1	1.2	3.2	1.0	0.2		0.5	4.5	1.7	1.2
	1996	26.7	0.1	3.0	7.1	1.4	7.0	1.3	1.1		0.9	5.7	4.6	3.1
Belgium	1989	17.7	0.9	2.7	6.6	0.4	2.7	2.3	2.3		1.0	4.0	1.3	2.1
	1992	19.3	1.1	3.9	6.2	1.2	2.8	2.1	1.6	0.9	1.0	3.1	1.4	1.8
France	1989	19.4	2.4	6.0	6.4	0.6	1.4	2.4	2.3		0.4	3.6	1.1	2.0
	1996	25.3	1.6	7.2	8.3	0.8	2.8	2.4	2.2		1.0	4.0	0.9	3.9
Finland	1989	15.9	0.4	2.7	4.0		3.1	0.6	0.4		0.7	4.3	0.5	2.9
	1992	21.2	0.7	2.9	5.6	0.3	5.0	0.6	0.6	2.6	1.0	3.4	3.7	4.4
	1996	18.9	0.4	2.9	4.3	0.2	5.1	0.6	0.7		0.5	3.2	2.6	4.1
Spain	1989	24.8	1.4	9.6	6.6	0.8	1.1	1.7	2.2		3.1	5.2	2.3	3.1
Norway	1989	16.4	1.1	2.8	4.6	0.3	2.8	0.8	0.4		0.5	3.2	2.2	3.0

Table 1 continued

		11 crimes ¹	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor- cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Att. burglary	Theft from garages	Robbery	Personal theft ²	Sexual incidents & threats	Assaults
Sweden	1992	21.5	1.7	3.9	4.5	0.6	7.0	1.4	0.8	2.0	0.3	4.2	0.9	2.7
	1996	24.0	1.2	4.9	4.6	0.5	8.8	1.3	1.1		0.5	4.6	2.9	4.5
Italy	1992	24.7	2.7	7.0	7.6	1.6	2.4	2.4	1.7	1.5	1.3	3.6	1.7	0.8
Austria	1996	18.9	0.2	1.6	6.7		3.3	0.9	0.5		0.2	5.1	3.8	2.1
USA	1989	28.9	2.1	9.3	8.9	0.1	3.0	3.8	5.4		1.9	4.5	4.5	5.4
	1992	26.1	2.6	7.0	8.0	0.4	2.9	3.1	3.9	4.0	1.5	5.3	2.4	4.7
	1996	24.2	1.9	7.5	6.7	0.2	3.3	2.6	3.0		1.3	3.9	2.5	5.7
Canada	1989	28.1	0.8	7.2	9.8	0.4	3.4	3.0	2.7		1.1	5.5	4.0	4.0
	1992	28.4	1.3	7.3	8.5	0.2	3.7	3.4	2.7	3.5	1.2	5.5	3.8	4.8
	1996	25.2	1.5	6.2	6.2	0.1	3.3	3.4	2.8		1.2	5.7	2.7	4.0
Australia	1989	26.1	2.3	6.9	8.8	0.3	1.9	4.4	3.8		0.9	0.5	7.3	5.2
	1992	28.6	3.1	6.6	9.5	0.3	2.1	3.7	3.8	4.2	1.3	6.5	3.5	4.7
New Zealand	1992	29.4	2.7	6.9	8.0	0.3	4.4	4.3	3.6	4.8	0.7	5.3	2.8	5.7
Japan ⁴	1989	8.5	0.3	0.7	2.7	0.4	3.7	0.7	0.2		0.0	0.2	1.5	0.8
	1992	na	1.1	2.3	na	3.2	9.6	1.1	na	na	na	1.3	1.8	0.5
All countries ³	1989	20.2	1.1	5.0	6.5	0.4	2.7	2.0	1.9		0.9	3.5	2.4	2.8
	1992	26.1	2.0	6.1	7.8	0.6	4.3	2.6	2.5	2.9	1.0	4.6	2.5	3.7
	1996	24.4	1.2	5.1	7.3	0.4	4.5	1.9	2.0		0.8	4.6	2.5	3.9

1 Based on eleven crimes standard across sweeps, omitting thefts from garages.A59

2 Thefts of personal property.

3 The averages are based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

4 Some results for Japan for 1992 are not available (na).

Table 2: Incidence victimisation rates, by offence type. Number of offences per 100 population

		10 crimes ¹	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor- cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Att. burglary	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents ²	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	1989	28.7	2.0	6.5	8.8	0.1	1.3	2.2		0.8	4.1	1.2	2.4
	1992	51.9	3.9	11.4	15.7	0.4	3.9	3.2	3.6	0.4	5.0	2.9	5.5
	1996	56.5	2.8	11.3	16.1	0.2	4.2	3.4	4.4	0.7	5.5	3.1	9.8
Scotland	1989	29.3	0.8	7.8	8.8	0.4	1.3	2.3		0.6	2.8	2.3	3.1
	1996		2.0	8.9	13.6	0.1	2.2	1.6	2.9	1.0	5.5	1.5	7.3
Northern Ireland	1989	24.2	2.0	4.7	6.2	0.1	1.8	1.3		0.5	2.9	3.8	2.7
	1996		1.6	3.5	8.6	0.0	1.3	1.8	1.4	0.7	3.0	3.8	3.8
Netherlands	1989	46.8	0.3	6.9	10.9	0.4	10.4	2.6		1.2	5.2	5.0	6.3
	1992	55.2	0.6	9.4	13.5	1.1	14.1	2.4	3.6	0.1	4.9	4.1	6.1
	1996	58.5	0.4	7.1	13.5	1.1	13.0	3.3	4.1	0.8	9.0	6.0	7.3
(West) Germany	1989	37.6	0.5	5.5	12.4	0.2	3.8	1.4		1.1	5.0	5.5	4.7
Switzerland	1989	23.0	0.0	2.2	5.0	1.6	3.9	1.1		0.5	5.7	3.0	1.6
	1996	42.6	0.1	3.3	9.3	1.9	9.9	1.6	1.3	0.9	6.8	9.6	4.1
Belgium	1989	30.0	1.1	3.4	8.8	0.4	3.6	2.8		1.3	4.3	2.3	3.0
	1992	29.8	1.1	4.9	7.8	1.5	3.6	2.6	2.2	0.1	4.0	1.4	2.5
France	1989	31.6	2.4	7.5	7.7	0.8	1.4	3.3		0.6	4.2	1.8	2.9
	1996	42.9	1.9	9.3	11.4	1.0	3.7	2.9	2.2	0.3	4.8	1.7	5.7
Finland	1989	22.2	0.4	3.3	4.6	0.0	3.8	0.6		0.7	5.1	0.5	3.4
	1992	34.1	0.9	3.6	6.8	0.3	5.8	0.6	0.6	0.4	3.9	8.7	6.4
	1996	30.5	0.5	3.5	4.9	0.2	6.4	0.8	0.8	0.8	3.6	4.7	7.4
Spain	1989	48.8	1.9	14.0	9.6	0.9	1.2	2.1		4.4	6.5	3.5	6.2
Norway	1989	27.6	1.1	4.1	6.3	0.6	2.8	0.9		0.9	3.2	3.7	5.9

Table 2 continued

		10 crimes ¹	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor- cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Att. burglary	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents ²	Assaults & threats
Sweden	1992	34.7	1.8	4.4	5.6	0.8	8.5	1.5	0.9	0.7	5.4	2.0	5.0
	1996	44.2	1.5	6.0	6.3	0.6	11.4	1.5	1.2	0.5	5.8	6.0	7.6
Italy	1992	37.8	3.0	8.3	10.9	1.7	2.6	2.6	1.8	0.6	4.2	3.8	1.1
Austria	1996	31.4	0.2	1.9	9.5	0.0	4.3	1.0	0.5	0.2	5.7	9.5	3.7
USA	1989	61.4	2.9	12.4	12.2	0.1	3.8	5.6		2.8	6.1	10.4	10.1
	1992	37.9	2.6	7.0	8.0	0.4	2.9	3.1	3.9	1.5	5.3	2.4	4.7
	1996	46.8	2.0	9.5	8.8	0.2	3.8	3.9	4.4	0.6	4.6	4.9	10.0
Canada	1989	47.9	0.9	9.1	11.5	0.4	4.0	3.6		1.5	6.9	6.9	6.5
	1992	51.3	1.4	9.9	10.9	0.3	5.3	4.2	3.7	0.6	6.9	7.1	7.3
	1996	44.1	1.6	7.9	7.8	0.1	4.0	4.0	3.6	0.8	7.3	4.8	7.1
Australia	1989	59.2	3.0	9.1	11.9	0.4	2.3	5.9		1.1	6.3	18.9	9.7
	1992	56.2	3.5	8.5	13.9	0.3	2.3	5.3	4.8	0.4	9.0	7.7	8.1
New Zealand	1992	59.2	3.2	9.3	10.2	0.3	5.1	5.5	4.5	0.2	7.4	5.0	9.7
Japan ⁴	1989	13.9	0.4	0.8	3.5	0.3	4.3	0.9	na	0.0	1.7	2.3	0.9
All countries ³	1989	35.5	1.3	6.5	8.6	0.4	3.3	2.4		1.2	4.7	4.7	4.6
	1992	44.3	2.2	7.7	10.6	0.7	5.7	3.1	2.8	1.3	5.6	4.7	5.8
	1996	42.4	1.3	6.6	10.0	0.5	5.8	2.3	2.4	1.0	5.6	5.1	6.7

1 Based on ten crimes standard across sweeps, omitting attempted burglary and thefts from garages.

2 Based on women only.

3 The averages are based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

4 Some incidence rates for Japan are not available for 1992 (na).

Table 3: Victimization rates for vehicle owners

		Percentage victim once or more					Number of offences per 100 owners				
		Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft
England & Wales	1989	2.4	7.3	8.8	0.9	2.8	2.53	8.5	11.3	0.9	3.6
	1992	4.3	10.1	12.4	3.2	5.7	4.6	13.3	18.4	3.2	7.3
	1996	3.0	9.7	12.5	2.3	6.0	3.3	13.7	19.4	2.3	7.2
Scotland	1989	1.2	7.7	9.3	7.2	3.3	1.2	11.2	12.8	9.3	4.3
	1996	2.2	8.5	12.5	1.3	3.5	2.6	11.4	17.4	1.3	3.9
Northern Ireland	1989	2.2	5.5	6.1	3.3	3.5	2.71	6.4	8.6	3.3	4.0
	1996	1.9	3.8	8.3	0.0	2.2	1.9	4.3	10.6	0.0	2.3
Netherlands	1989	0.4	6.8	10.6	3.3	8.3	0.4	8.9	14.1	3.3	11.5
	1992	0.7	8.4	11.8	5.0	10.8	0.7	11.7	16.7	5.5	15.3
	1996	0.4	6.6	12.0	3.2	10.2	0.4	8.5	16.4	5.0	14.0
(West) Germany	1989	0.5	5.8	10.8	1.8	4.4	0.6	6.9	15.4	2.1	4.9
Switzerland	1989	0.0	2.4	5.2	4.7	4.7	0.0	2.8	6.4	6.6	5.7
	1996	0.1	3.7	8.7	4.3	9.0	0.1	4.0	11.3	5.8	12.7
Belgium	1989	1.0	3.4	8.0	3.0	4.6	1.4	4.2	10.8	3.7	6.10
	1992	1.2	4.4	7.0	6.8	4.0	1.2	5.6	8.9	9.1	5.2
France	1989	2.8	7.1	7.6	3.7	2.5	2.8	8.9	9.1	4.6	2.6
	1996	1.8	8.3	9.5	4.2	4.4	2.1	10.8	13.1	5.2	5.7
Finland	1989	0.5	3.5	5.2	0.0	3.5	0.5	4.3	6.0	0.0	4.3
	1992	0.8	3.6	6.8	1.4	5.5	1.1	4.3	8.2	1.4	6.4
	1996	0.6	3.7	5.3	1.3	5.6	0.6	4.4	6.1	1.3	7.0
Spain	1989	2.1	14.4	9.9	3.9	2.9	2.8	21.2	14.6	4.4	3.3
Norway	1989	1.3	3.5	5.7	3.5	3.8	1.3	5.2	7.8	5.8	3.8

Table 3 continued

		Percentage victim once or more					Number of offences per 100 owners				
		Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft
Sweden	1992	2.0	4.7	5.4	3.5	7.7	2.2	5.3	6.7	5.0	9.4
	1996	1.5	6.0	5.7	2.3	9.7	1.8	7.4	7.6	3.1	12.5
Italy	1992	3.0	7.9	8.6	4.2	3.4	3.3	9.4	12.3	4.6	3.8
Austria	1996	0.2	1.9	7.9	0.0	3.8	0.2	2.3	11.2	0.0	5.0
USA (2)	1989	2.2	9.7	9.3	0.9	4.6	3.0	13.0	12.8	0.9	5.8
	1992	2.6	7.0	8.0	0.4	2.9	na	na	na	na	na
	1996	2.1	8.2	7.3	1.0	5.1	2.2	10.5	9.6	1.0	5.9
Canada	1989	0.9	8.1	11.0	3.6	5.4	1.0	10.2	12.9	3.6	6.3
	1992	1.4	8.3	9.6	1.7	5.3	1.6	11.1	12.3	2.0	7.6
	1996	1.7	6.9	7.0	0.8	4.7	1.8	8.9	8.7	0.8	5.6
Australia	1989	2.6	7.8	9.9	2.7	4.0	3.3	10.2	13.5	3.6	4.9
	1992	3.4	7.0	10.2	2.1	3.3	3.8	9.1	14.9	2.1	3.6
New Zealand	1992	2.8	7.3	8.4	1.2	6.4	3.3	9.7	10.8	1.2	7.6
Japan ²	1989	0.3	0.8	3.1	0.7	4.9	0.5	1.0	4.3	0.7	6.1
	1992	0.8	2.1	na	3.2	9.6	na	na	na	na	na
All countries ¹	1989	1.4	6.3	8.0	2.9	4.2	2.0	10.1	11.0	2.7	4.9
	1992	2.2	6.9	8.8	3.0	5.5	2.4	8.8	12.1	3.8	7.4
	1996	1.4	6.1	8.0	1.9	5.8	1.6	7.8	12.0	2.3	7.4

1 The averages are based on countries taking part in each sweep. As countries included vary across sweeps, comparisons should be made cautiously.

2 Incidence rates are not available for the USA and Japan for 1992 (na).

Table 4: Percentage experiencing corruption in 1995 (1996 ICVS)

	% yes	(N)	Government Official	Customs Officer	Police Officer	Inspector	Other	Don't know	Reported to police (N)
England & Wales	0.3%	(7)	1		3	1	2		0
Scotland	0.3%	(6)	2		2	1	1		2
Northern Ireland	0.0%	(0)							
Netherlands	0.5%	(11)	9	1			1		1
Switzerland	0.2%	(2)		1	1				0
France	0.7%	(7)	4		1		1	1	1
Finland	0.1%	(5)				1	4		0
Sweden	0.2%	(2)			1		1		0
Austria	0.7%	(11)		2	4		5		1
USA	0.3%	(3)			3				0
Canada	0.4%	(8)		3	4		1		1

1 The question was 'In some countries, there is a problem of corruption among government or public officials. During 1995, has any government official, for instance a customs officer, a police officer or inspector in your country, asked you, or expected you to pay a bribe for his service?'

Table 5: Percentage experiencing consumer fraud last year

		%	N	of which (%)					Reported to police	(If not reported) Reported to other authority
				Con- struction/ Repair	Garage	Hotel, pub, restaurant	Shop	Other		
England & Wales	1992	7%	134	18	4	3	26	47	7	21
	1996	5%	118	15	6		14	66	12	36
Scotland	1996	6%	140	21	7	3	22	47	10	46
Northern Ireland	1996	4%	46	18	4	4	22	52	5	59
Netherlands	1992	5%	97	19	3	5	27	45	10	9
	1996	6%	118	16	4	2	22	56	7	25
Switzerland	1996	10%	99	6	19	11	30	33	3	8
Belgium	1992	9%	128	13	2	5	40	39	7	5
France	1996	10%	98	13	13	5	38	29	7	14
Finland	1996	15%	554	6	8	4	72	11	1	7
Sweden	1992	4%	63	18	5	1	55	21	2	10
	1996	8%	77	5	7	2	61	26	0	15
Italy	1992	11%	214	5	4	4	61	24	2	2
Austria	1996	11%	158	15	3	2	59	20	5	17
USA (2)	1996	10%	97	10	12	2	7	69	13	35
Canada	1992	8%	175	10	3	4	24	60	5	17
	1996	7%	148	16	7		19	58	7	28
Australia	1992	8%	168	15	5	2	38	39	2	19
New Zealand	1992	7%	152	18	17	1	27	38	4	18

1 The question was '(...) in the last year, in 1995, were you the victim of a consumer fraud. In other words, has someone - when selling something to you, or delivering a service - cheated you in terms of quantity or quality of the goods or services?'

2 Results not available for the USA for 1992.

Table 6: Percentage victim once or more: Sexual assaults and offensive sexual behaviour; Assaults with force and threats

		Sexual assaults	Offensive sexual behaviour	Assaults with force	Threats
England & Wales	1989	0.3	0.8	1.0	1.1
	1992	0.8	1.5	1.9	2.5
	1996	0.5	1.7	3.0	4.1
Scotland	1989	0.7	0.8	1.1	1.1
	1996	0.3	1.0	2.4	2.7
Nothern Ireland	1989	0.6	1.7	1.0	1.1
	1996	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1
Netherlands	1989	0.9	2.2	1.9	2.4
	1992	1.0	1.8	1.6	3.0
	1996	1.1	3.0	1.6	3.3
(West) Germany	1989	1.6	2.1	1.6	2.0
Switzerland	1989	0.8	1.2	0.6	0.7
	1992	1.9	3.9	1.2	2.2
Belgium	1989	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.5
	1992	0.9	0.5	0.5	1.4
France	1989	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.3
	1996	0.5	0.6	1.6	2.7
Finland	1989	0.3	0.3	1.8	1.3
	1992	2.2	2.8	2.8	2.4
	1996	1.4	1.8	2.6	2.5
Spain	1989	0.8	1.9	1.5	2.4
Norway	1989	0.5	2.0	1.6	2.3
Sweden	1992	0.7	0.6	1.4	2.0
	1996	2.0	2.0	2.1	3.2
Italy	1992	0.9	1.3	0.2	0.6
Austria	1996	2.1	3.3	1.1	1.5
USA (2)	1989	2.3	3.7	2.5	4.2
	1992	na	na	na	na
	1996	1.6	1.7	2.9	4.3
Canada	1989	1.7	3.1	2.1	2.6
	1992	2.1	2.7	2.3	3.4
	1996	1.3	2.1	2.0	3.0
Australia	1989	2.8	6.6	3.0	3.5
	1992	1.9	2.8	2.8	3.0
New Zealand	1992	1.6	1.7	3.1	3.9

1 See footnote x on page x for an explanation of how these subdivisions were derived.

2 Results for the USA for 1992 are not available (na).

Table 7: The profile of offences in different countries (1996 ICVS): Percentage of all incidents

	Car theft	Theft from car	Car Vandalism	Bicycle and motorcycle theft	Burglary and attempts	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual Incidents	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	5	19	26	7	13	3	9	3	16
Scotland	4	20	30	5	10	2	12	2	16
Northern Ireland	6	13	31	5	12	3	11	7	14
Netherlands	1	11	22	22	12	1	14	5	12
Switzerland	0	7	21	27	7	2	16	11	9
France	4	21	25	10	11	3	11	2	13
Finland	1	11	16	21	5	3	12	8	24
Sweden	3	13	14	27	6	1	13	7	17
Austria	0	6	30	13	5	1	18	15	12
USA	4	19	17	8	16	3	9	5	20
Canada	3	17	16	9	16	4	15	5	15
Average	3	15	22	14	11	2	12	6	15

1 Based on number of incidents of each type of crime experienced. The total number of incidents equals 100%.

Table 8: Average crime seriousness scores (1): 1992 and 1996 ICVS, industrialised countries

		Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Att. burglary	Theft from garages	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	1992	2.2	1.6	1.5	2.2	1.8	2.6	1.9	1.7	2.2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	1996	2.5	1.6	1.4	2.5	1.8	2.4	1.8		2.4	1.9	2.1	2.1
Scotland	1996	2.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7	2.3	1.8		2.1	1.7	2.1	2.1
Northern Ireland	1996	2.7	1.6	1.6	2.0	1.8	2.5	1.9		2.7	2.0	2.4	2.3
Netherlands	1992	2.3	1.5	1.4	2.2	1.7	2.3	1.7	1.6	2.2	1.8	1.9	2.1
	1996	2.2	1.5	1.4	2.2	1.7	2.2	1.6		2.3	1.9	2.0	2.0
Switzerland	1996	2.3	1.6	1.5	1.9	1.6	1.8	1.5		1.9	1.6	1.9	1.9
Belgium	1992	2.2	1.8	1.7	2.1	1.8	2.3	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0
France	1996	2.2	1.5	1.5	2.1	1.7	2.0	1.7		2.0	1.8	2.1	2.0
Finland	1992	2.5	1.7	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.3	2.2	1.8	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.1
	1996	2.2	1.5	1.4	2.2	1.6	2.1	1.7		1.9	1.7	1.7	1.8
Sweden	1992	2.1	1.5	1.4	2.1	1.6	1.9	1.6	1.4	2.3	1.7	2.1	2.0
	1996	2.1	1.6	1.6	2.2	1.7	2.1	1.9		2.6	1.8	1.9	1.9
Italy	1992	2.5	1.9	1.9	2.3	1.8	2.4	2.1	1.9	2.7	2.1	2.4	2.4
Austria	1996	2.1	1.6	1.5	1.8	1.8	2.2	1.5		2.2	1.7	1.8	1.9
USA (2)	1996	2.5	1.7	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.3	2.1		2.4	2.0	2.1	2.3
Canada	1992	2.3	1.6	1.6	2.3	1.8	2.3	1.9	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.1
	1996	2.4	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.9	2.4	2.1		2.3	1.8	2.1	2.2
Australia	1992	2.4	1.7	1.6	2.3	1.9	2.5	1.9	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.3
New Zealand	1992	2.4	1.8	1.6	2.1	2.0	2.3	1.9	1.8	2.3	1.9	2.2	2.3
Average score		2.3	1.6	1.5	2.1	1.8	2.3	1.8	1.7	2.3	1.9	2.1	2.1
Rank		1	11	12	4	9	2	8	10	3	7	6	5

1 The figures shown are average seriousness scores based on incidents being scored as 3 for 'very serious', 2 for 'serious', and 1 for 'not very serious'. Based on judgements about the 'last incident' over the past five years.

2 Data for the USA and Japan for 1992 are not available.

Table 9: Percentage of crimes reported to the police

		All crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Theft from garages	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	1989	59	96	70	32	86	76	90			68	59	11	43
	1992	59	94	73	37	94	75	96	54	61	50	51	16	41
	1996	54	85	67	39	97	79	93	52		55	49	20	38
Scotland	1989	62	92	78	50	81	77	93			49	51	29	44
	1996	54	97	73	41	77	76	96	59		38	48	25	44
Northern Ireland	1989	46	96	55	36	89	57	85			59	26	8	51
	1996	56	94	60	40	100	69	86	50		93	40	43	58
Netherlands	1989	53	92	72	36	95	73	94			54	48	13	39
	1992	57	90	75	39	94	67	90	52	59	59	53	12	43
	1996	53	90	72	43	88	64	85	49		70	57	14	42
(West) Germany	1989	48	89	82	44	93	72	79			50	38	11	21
Switzerland	1989	59	89	72	47	88	84	80			39	42	21	26
	1996	52	98	85	31	87	75	88	43		24	37	16	32
Belgium	1989	49	85	65	37	94	70	78			41	50	15	36
	1992	68	91	77	45	90	77	88	57	64	55	60	20	45
France	1989	61	96	68	47	82	55	84			49	53	15	37
	1996	49	96	61	47	81	47	78	44		57	40	30	30
Finland	1989	42	65	61	42	100	63	62			30	38	7	18
	1992	41	100	55	36	85	55	74	22	42	28	37	12	25
	1996	42		71	47	88	52	71	34		39	43	8	27
Spain	1989	33	82	32	22	546	24	44			29	43	5	27
Norway	1989	43	75	58	37	83	45	78			36	31	5	29

Table 9 continued

		All crimes (1)	Car theft	Theft from car	Car vandalism	Motor-cycle theft	Bicycle theft	Burglary	Attempted burglary	Theft from garages	Robbery	Personal theft	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
Sweden	1992	59	97	70	51	85	67	66	31	48	81	50	20	29
	1996	54	90	75	63	88	59	71	43		81	56	12	28
Italy	1992	40	95	40	15	77	29	65	21	36	42	43	5	24
Austria	1996	46	100	79	33	100	70	79	30		61	52	7	22
USA (2)	1989	52	97	60	56	87	63	80			58	41	18	42
	1996	59	90	66	51	88	47	68	52		66	36	28	45
Canada	1989	49	89	64	48	100	70	83			57	38	11	38
	1992	51	92	60	50	72	65	82	44	54	48	36	13	36
	1996	50	88	62	47	85	56	85	47		50	32	17	40
Australia	1989	47	91	55	25	92	70	84			52	45	8	36
	1992	46	93	54	27	94	76	88	47	52	53	39	12	39
New Zealand	1992	60	97	64	36	89	87	89	48	60	49	50	12	42
All countries	1989	50	93	67	44	88	70	86			52	44	15	37
	1992	53	94	68	42	89	65	86	46	53	50	45	14	35
	1996	52	94	69	43	87	63	83	48		56	44	17	38

1 Based on 10 crimes in all three years; reporting for attempted burglary was not asked in 1988. Based on 'last incident' for victims in the last year. Based on all countries in relevant sweep. All other figures in the tables (eg, for theft of cars) relate to the last incident over the previous five years.

2 Information on reporting rates not available for the USA for 1992.

Table 10: Reasons for not reporting crimes to the police (percentages): 1996 ICVS

Five crimes (1)	England & Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	Netherlands	Switzerland	France	Finland	Sweden	Austria	USA	Canada	Average
Not serious enough	39	36	51	44	40	45	51	46	52	38	38	44
Solved it myself	6	10	15	11	20	10	16	17	18	19	14	14
Inappropriate for the police	12	21	4	8	8	8	3	10	9	15	11	10
Other authorities	3	3	4	1	<1	1	2	<1	1	7	3	2
My family solved it	1	1	3	2	8	1	4	4	5	6	1	3
No insurance	1	<1	-	3	1	3	1	3	1	<1	1	1
Police could do nothing	18	14	26	12	12	10	13	8	17	11	6	13
Police wouldn't do anything	12	8	6	11	7	15	7	5	5	9	5	8
Fear/dislike of police	3	5	6	1	-	2	<1	3	-	4	4	2
Fear of reprisals	1	<1	<1	1	<1	1	4	-	<1	1	1	1
Other reasons	23	29	3	19	14	14	8	13	5	21	25	16
Don't know	4	3	-	3	<1	2	-	2	1	4	6	3

Table 10 continued

Property crimes	England & Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	Netherlands	Switzerland	France	Finland	Sweden	Austria	USA	Canada	Average
Not serious enough	47	51	63	47	48	48	56	54	66	49	52	53
Solved it myself	2	2	9	6	2	-	6	6	10	19	4	6
Inappropriate for the police	17	18	3	9	29	5	1	6	7	15	6	10
Other authorities	1	1	2	-	-	2	1	-	2	4	1	1
My family solved it	-	-	-	-	-	2	3	2	5	5	1	2
No insurance	2	1	0	4	4	4	5	9	6	1	2	3
Police could do nothing	20	20	23	18	-	15	21	11	11	15	8	15
Police wouldn't do anything	16	14	6	15	16	18	8	4	-	10	5	10
Fear/dislike of police	1	-	6	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	<1	1
Fear of reprisals	0	<1	-	-	-	<1	1	-	-	<1	-	<1
Other reasons	17	21	1	15	19	13	7	14	-	14	24	13
Don't know	5	3	-	4	-	3	-	3	-	4	7	3

Table 10 continued

Contact crimes	England & Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	Netherlands	Switzerland	France	Finland	Sweden	Austria	USA	Canada	Average
Not serious enough	33	29	36	42	38	42	50	42	50	28	29	38
Solved it myself	9	14	23	14	24	20	18	22	19	18	21	18
Inappropriate for the police	9	22	5	7	4	12	4	11	9	15	14	10
Other authorities	5	4	7	2	<1	<1	3	1	1	10	5	3
My family solved it	2	1	6	2	10	<1	4	5	5	6	1	4
No insurance	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	<1
Police could do nothing	17	11	30	9	14	6	11	6	18	8	4	12
Police wouldn't do anything	8	5	7	9	6	11	7	5	5	8	5	7
Fear/dislike of police	4	7	6	1	-	5	<1	4	-	6	6	4
Fear of reprisals	8	5	4	7	3	6	4	-	3	10	7	5
Other reasons	27	33	5	21	13	14	8	13	6	27	26	18
Don't know	3	3	-	3	1	<1	-	2	2	4	5	2

1 The five crimes are thefts from cars, burglaries with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats. The first two are 'property crimes'; the last three 'contact crimes'. Based on last incident that happened over the previous five years.

Appendix 4

Table 11: Percentage of incidents reported to other authorities: 1996 ICVS

	Theft from car	Burglary	Robbery	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	5	[8]	6	25	17
Scotland	7	[0]	8	21	17
Northern Ireland	13	[0]	[0]	[16]	26
Netherlands	6	4	[20]	13	10
Switzerland	[0]	[5]	14	4	12
France	11	7	[7]	[9]	8
Finland	6	[0]	8	6	12
Sweden	8	[31]	[0]	10	16
Austria	[17]	[0]	[0]	3	5
USA	11	1	[4]	27	13
Canada	9	16	14	30	22

- 1 Based on 'last incident' that happened over the previous five years. The question was: 'Did you report it to someone else in authority who would deal with it?'
- 2 Figures in square brackets are based on less than 20 offences.

Table 13: Percentage satisfied with police response on reporting: 1996 ICVS

	Theft from car	Burglary with entry	Robbery	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
England & Wales	73	75	69	[74]	67
Scotland	77	74	76	[68]	70
Northern Ireland	61	64	[47]	[75]	56
Netherlands	72	79	72	[42]	58
Switzerland	72	61	[48]	[66]	49
France	56	62	44	[18]	59
Finland	79	74	63	[64]	82
Sweden	74	75	[71]	[100]	72
Austria	59	46	[49]	[41]	[49]
USA	65	69	49	[84]	73
Canada	72	77	62	[68]	70
All countries	69	69	62	64	66

- 1 Based on last incident that happened over the previous five years. 'Don't knows' included in the base.
- 2 Figures in square brackets based on less than 20 offences.

Table 12: Reasons for reporting to the police (percentages): 1996 ICVS

Five crimes (1)	To recover property	Insurance reasons	Should be/serious	Retribution	To stop it	To get help	Compensation		Don't know
								Other	
England & Wales	23	30	52	24	15	8	2	15	<1
Scotland	24	23	53	21	14	8	1	16	<1
N. Ireland	30	24	28	43	31	17	3	9	-
Netherlands	18	41	35	27	14	7	3	14	-
Switzerland	21	56	18	15	14	7	3	6	-
France	35	49	30	23	20	6	5	6	-
Finland	30	41	13	29	14	9	-	16	5
Sweden	27	49	26	22	12	9	3	13	-
Austria	35	26	33	29	18	20	9	6	-
USA	34	27	45	40	39	23	11	11	-
Canada	20	25	35	22	17	8	1	21	-
Average	27	36	34	27	19	11	4	12	<1
Property crimes	To recover property	Insurance reasons	Should be/serious	Retribution	To stop it	To get help	Compensation		Don't know
								Other	
England & Wales	29	37	53	22	11	6	2	12	<1
Scotland	30	30	54	19	9	4	<1	14	1
N. Ireland	41	32	32	40	27	13	2	6	-
Netherlands	21	52	37	24	9	4	3	11	-
Switzerland	26	69	16	13	8	3	2	5	-
France	38	60	31	19	18	5	6	5	-
Finland	40	57	8	27	8	2	.	16	5
Sweden	33	62	25	21	6	7	3	7	-
Austria	39	34	36	32	20	16	13	6	-
USA	44	36	47	36	33	20	11	9	-
Canada	26	34	35	18	10	5	1	19	-
Average	33	46	34	24	15	8	4	10	<1

Table 12 continued

Contact crimes	To recover property	Insurance reasons	Should be/serious	Retribution	To stop it	To get help	Compensation		Don't know
								Other	
England & Wales	3	4	48	32	30	17	<1	23	1
Scotland	8	1	50	28	30	21	2	23	-
N. Ireland	9	10	22	50	37	25	3	16	-
Netherlands	9	4	28	37	34	16	2	25	-
Switzerland	4	8	26	23	38	22	8	10	-
France	25	11	28	39	27	10	3	11	-
Finland	9	8	25	35	26	22	-	15	-
Sweden	11	9	27	28	31	12	4	31	-
Austria	22	5	25	20	13	31	-	8	-
USA	13	9	40	47	50	28	10	16	-
Canada	3	1	36	34	34	18	4	27	-
Average	10	6,4	33	34	32	20	4	19	<1

1 The five crimes are thefts from cars, burglary with entry, robbery, sexual incidents and assaults/threats. The first two are 'property crimes'; the last three are 'contact crimes'. Based on last incident that happened over the previous five years.

Table 14: Percentage of victims who received, or would have appreciated receiving help from a specialised agency: 1996 ICVS

	Burglary with entry	Robbery	Sexual incidents	Assaults & threats
<i>Received help:</i>				
England & Wales	21	19	[36]	15
Scotland	11	16	[28]	5
Northern Ireland	11	[8]	[-]	14
Netherlands	6	7	[48]	13
Switzerland	5	[47]	[7]	-
France	-	-	[21]	12
Finland	4	8	[6]	6
Sweden	1	[24]	[19]	21
Austria	6	[-]	[-]	16
USA	-	27	[20]	14
Canada	3	16	[31]	11
<i>Help would have been useful:</i>				
England & Wales	55	60	[68]	48
Scotland	61	54	[69]	60
Northern Ireland	52	[53]	[-]	45
Netherlands	74	72	[-]	66
Switzerland	60	[81]	[45]	54
France	57	[69]	[100]	65
Finland	55	62	[64]	61
Sweden	55	[74]	[68]	46
Austria	57	[63]	[57]	[42]
USA	51	63	[37]	65
Canada	72	45	[23]	49

- 1 Based on those who reported to the police. Based on last incident that happened over the previous five years. Those who had not received help were asked if it would have been helpful.
- 2 Figures in square brackets based on less than 20 offences.

Table 15: Percentage thinking the police do a good job in controlling crime in their area

		Yes	No	Don't know
England & Wales	1989	70	16	14
	1992	66	21	13
	1996	68	20	12
Scotland	1989	71	16	13
	1996	69	21	9
Northern Ireland	1989	63	21	16
	1996	63	20	17
Netherlands	1989	58	20	22
	1992	50	24	27
	1996	45	26	29
(West) Germany	1989	67	24	9
Switzerland	1989	50	11	39
	1996	55	21	24
Belgium	1989	53	22	24
	1992	48	25	27
France	1989	62	21	18
	1996	56	18	27
Finland	1989	64	18	18
	1992	53	23	24
	1996	55	24	22
Spain	1989	53	29	18
Norway	1989	70	13	17
Sweden	1992	58	20	22
	1996	62	14	25
Italy	1992	50	40	10
Austria	1996	55	20	25
USA*	1989	81	17	2
	1996	77	18	6
Canada	1989	89	11	0
	1992	82	12	6
	1996	80	10	10
Australia	1989	73	13	14
	1992	72	13	14
New Zealand	1992	79	10	11
Japan*	1989	59	36	6

* Results not available for the USA and Japan for 1992.

Table 16: Perceptions of the likelihood of burglary (percentages)

		Very likely	Likely	Not very likely	Don't know
England & Wales	1989	7	28	55	9
	1992	10	35	48	8
	1996	10	32	52	7
Scotland	1989	5	25	59	11
	1996	5	23	67	6
Northern Ireland	1989	3	20	66	12
	1996	5	24	65	6
Netherlands	1989	5	23	58	13
	1992	5	23	55	16
	1996	5	22	57	17
(West) Germany	1989	5	50	45	<1
Switzerland	1989	2	45	49	5
	1996	3	26	66	5
Belgium	1989	5	23	56	15
	1992	2	30	44	25
France	1989	5	30	54	10
	1996	6	47	38	9
Finland	1989	<1	8	85	7
	1992	1	13	79	7
	1996	1	10	86	3
Spain	1989	6	36	41	18
Norway	1989	2	19	68	11
Sweden	1992	3	31	61	5
	1996	1	14	78	7
Italy	1992	4	34	47	15
Austria	1996	1	12	82	5
USA*	1989	7	25	67	2
	1996	4	19	71	6
Canada	1989	5	28	67	0
	1992	6	28	63	4
	1996	5	25	64	6
Australia	1989	11	32	50	6
	1992	13	34	47	7
New Zealand	1992	13	41	42	5
Japan*	1989	2	23	74	1

* Results not available for the USA and Japan for 1992.

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Table 17: Feelings of safety after dark (1992 and 1996 ICVS) (percentages)

		Very unsafe	Bit unsafe	Fairly safe	Very safe	Don't know	Bit and very unsafe
England & Wales	1992	13	20	42	25	-	33
	1996	11	22	46	20	2	32
Scotland	1996	8	18	48	24	2	26
Northern Ireland	1996	7	15	39	39	-	22
Netherlands	1992	7	14	40	38	-	22
	1996	8	13	39	40	-	20
Switzerland	1996	4	14	36	45	2	17
Belgium	1992	5	14	42	38	-	20
France	1996	7	14	43	37	-	20
Finland	1992	4	14	35	48	-	17
	1996	3	14	38	44	1	17
Sweden	1992	4	9	39	48	-	14
	1996	2	9	34	53	2	11
Italy	1992	14	22	37	28	-	35
Austria	1996	4	16	33	45	2	20
USA*	1996	10	15	36	40	-	25
Canada	1992	7	13	37	41	2	20
	1996	8	17	39	34	1	26
Australia	1992	14	17	41	28	-	31
New Zealand	1992	17	22	38	24	-	38

* Results not available for the USA for 1992.

Appendix 4

Table 18: Measures taken against burglary (percentages)

		Burglar alarm	Special door locks	Special grilles	Watch dog	High fence	Caretaker(s) security system	Refused to say
England & Wales	1989	24						1
	1992	22	68	27	31	38	2	2
	1996	27	68	27	28	43	3	3
Scotland	1989	20	0					2
	1996	25	63	21	25	31	2	2
Northern Ireland	1989	8						1
	1996	11	35	12	25	16	0	1
Netherlands	1989	9						1
	1992	8	59	15	15	9	4	1
	1996	10	68	11	17	13	8	2
(West) Germany	1989	10						3
Switzerland	1989	6						1
	1996	5	29	11	16	1	5	2
Belgium	1989	15						2
	1992	12	25	4	16	5	2	8
France	1989	14						1
	1996	15	34	14	24	15	11	4
Finland	1989	2						<1
	1992	1	20	1	12	3	11	1
	1996	2	na	na	5	14	4	na
Spain	1989	4						<1
Norway	1989	7						1
Sweden	1992	5	44	5	4	1	4	1
	1996	7	38	8	13	2	1	1
Italy	1992	13	36	11	12	4	5	2
Austria	1996	6	37	12	15	7	1	4
USA*	1989	16						1
	1996	21	58	21	39	15	7	5
Canada	1989	16						5
	1992	13	42	25	25	14	9	8
	1996	20	52	21	30	20	10	8
Australia	1989	16						2
	1992	14	60	33	40	25	3	2
New Zealand	1992	10	43	13	32	23	1	1
Japan*	1989	3	25	na	na	na	na	10

* Results not available for the USA and Japan for 1992.

Table 19: National victimisation rates for (A) more serious property crimes, (B) contact crimes, (C) 'petty' crime; and national scores on relevant social indicators: (D) urbanisation, (E) affluence, (F) dissatisfaction with income among young males, and (G) bicycle ownership.

		A	B	C	D	E	F	G
		All more serious crime	Contact crime	'Petty' crime	Urbanisation	Affluence	Income dissatisfaction	Bicycle ownership
Australia	1992	15.3	3.4	18.9	4.4	20.2	2.9	64.3
Austria	1995	4.6	1.7	15.8	2.4	27.5	1.9	86.5
Belgium	1992	8.6	1.6	13.3	2.2	26.4	1.2	68.9
Canada	1995	12.9	2.7	16.2	2.7	24.7	3.0	71.1
Czech Rep.	1995	15.9	3.3	22.0	2.5	3.2	5.6	77.2
England/Wales	1995	16.7	3.6	20.1	2.6	19.8	2.4	58.3
Estonia	1994	17.2	5.1	18.3	2.6	4.0	7.5	70.0
Finland	1995	7.0	2.9	14.0	2.3	20.6	4.5	90.7
France	1995	12.7	2.2	17.3	2.2	21.9	4.7	64.6
Georgia	1995	15.1	3.8	11.0	3.8	6.4	11.4	30.3
Germany. W.	1988	8.8	2.4	16.2	2.5	25.3	2.9	76.0
Italy	1992	13.7	2.0	14.8	2.6	19.0	2.3	68.6
Latvia	1995	16.5	3.5	20.0	4.0	2.1	7.6	49.4
Malta	1996	12.0	1.6	14.3	2.0	9.5	2.2	44.2
Netherlands	1995	11.2	2.0	25.5	2.5	24.4	2.0	93.0
New Zealand	1992	15.9	3.0	18.5	2.7	15.0	3.1	68.0
Norway	1988	5.1	1.6	12.3	2.0	33.3	2.8	72.6
N. Ireland	1995	8.1	1.5	11.0	2.0	19.4	5.1	56.6
Poland	1995	11.5	3.1	15.6	2.4	2.2	7.2	75.5
Scotland	1995	12.8	2.7	16.9	2.2	19.5	3.3	54.8
Slovakia	1992	9.9	3.2	17.0	1.5	1.4	9.5	85.3
Slovenia	1992	10.5	3.1	16.2	1.7	6.3	6.9	83.5
Spain	1988	14.7	4.0	15.1	3.0	12.6	3.4	37.1
Sweden	1995	9.3	3.1	19.3	2.4	27.1	3.0	91.3
Switzerland	1993	7.1	2.3	21.7	1.6	43.6	1.7	77.9
USA	1995	14.0	3.5	15.9	2.5	28.6	2.5	64.3
Mean		11.8	2.8	16.8	2.5	17.3	4.3	68.4

1 'More serious property crime' comprises burglary (including attempts), and thefts of and from cars. 'Contact crime' comprises robbery, sexual assaults and assaults with force. 'Petty crime' comprises bicycle and motorcycle thefts, vandalism to cars, thefts of personal property, threats and offensive sexual behaviour. For definitions of urbanisation, see footnote x on page x. GDP per capita figures ('Affluence') are divided by 100.

2 The correlations between the variables are shown below:

	Urbanisation	Affluence	Income dissatisfaction	Bicycle ownership
More serious crime (A)	+0.57 *	-0.56 *	+0.29	-0.52 *
Contact crime (B)	+0.44 *	-0.53 *	+0.53 *	-0.22
Petty crime (C)	+0.07	-0.08	+0.19	+0.39 *
Urbanisation (D)		-0.27	+0.19	-0.46 *
Affluence (E)			-0.80 *	+0.32

Asterisked numbers are statistically significant at the 0.05 level of more.

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