

**VICTIMISATION IN THE DEVELOPING WORLD: AN OVERVIEW  
PRELIMINARY KEY FINDINGS FROM  
THE 1992 INTERNATIONAL VICTIM SURVEY**

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### History of the project

To a great extent the historical development of victimisation surveys is confined to developed countries. Since their initiation in the USA in the 60s, victimisation surveys have extended to Europe and other parts of the developed world. They were initially used as an alternative way of "looking at", measuring and analysing crime in view of the well recognised limited reliability and utility of administratively-produced official statistics. Experiences with national and local surveys in developed countries, the growing concern with victim issues at national and international levels, and a growing need for the creation of international crime and criminal justice database, all contributed to the launching of the First International Survey in 1989. The survey comprised fourteen developed countries and two city surveys: one in Surabaya (Indonesia) and the other in Warsaw (Poland). The results of the survey were published in 1990<sup>2</sup>, widely discussed and reviewed, and the experience gained underscored the importance of a continued effort to collect and analyse comparable data. Throughout 1991 preparations continued for a second round of the International Survey in view of involving more countries, bettering the data collection instrument and improving on analysis.

It appears that developing countries were only slightly affected by the growth of victimisation surveys in the developed world. A few victimisation surveys had been carried out in some developing countries; the first International Survey, as already mentioned, included only one city in one developing country (Surabaya, Indonesia).

Parallel to the preparations for the second round of the International Survey, UNICRI organised an expert meeting to discuss further development of the United Nations criminal justice information activities<sup>3</sup>, and the Statement adopted by the meeting called *inter alia* for the inclusion of victim surveys among the main sources and strategies for obtaining crime and criminal justice information both at national and international levels. Particular emphasis was placed on technical assistance to developing countries in improving their information-gathering and research/analytical capacities.

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<sup>2</sup> van Dijk, J.J.M., P. Mayhew and M. Killias (1990) Experiences of crime across the world: key findings of the 1989 International Crime Survey (second edition 1991), Kluwer, Deventer.

<sup>3</sup> The meeting was organised in pursuance of the recommendations of the Eighth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (Havana, Cuba, 27 August - 7 September 1990) related in particular to Resolution 10 on development of United Nations criminal justice statistical surveys. The meeting was held in Rome, 3-4 June 1991.

A few months earlier consultations between UNICRI and the Ministry of Justice of the Netherlands initiated and resulted in an agreement whereby the two parties agreed to work together to promote the use of victimisation surveys in developing countries in the belief that such surveys could give impetus to continuous efforts to improve national and international crime and criminal justice data bases, and to stimulate the utilisation of targeted and tailored research and policy tools. The Ministry also agreed to provide financial support for this endeavour.

It is within the above-mentioned terms that in 1991 UNICRI and the Ministry of Justice of the Netherlands co-ordinated the pilot projects in seven developing countries (Brazil, Costa Rica, Egypt, India, the Philippines, Tanzania and Uganda). A meeting with national co-ordinators was held at UNICRI (March 1991) to adapt the questionnaire for application in the selected developing countries for face-to-face interviewing, and to discuss other research issues. The modified instrument was translated into the relevant languages for a preliminary testing of its cultural applicability and pilots were conducted in Bombay, Manila, Cairo, Dar Es Salaam, Kampala, San Jose and Rio de Janeiro. The experience of the pilots in developing countries was discussed at the second meeting of national co-ordinators, and at the International Working Group, held at UNICRI in November 1991. Suggestions emerging from the three pilots in developed countries (Belgium, Italy and the USA) and the seven pilots in developing countries, as well as those coming from individual experts, were evaluated and processed into the new structure of the questionnaire. Two versions of the questionnaire were designed for the computer-assisted telephone interviewing and the face-to-face interviewing, and sampling criteria were adopted for city surveys in developing countries.

Following an evaluation of the pilot studies in developing countries, The Ministry of Justice of the Netherlands and UNICRI agreed to co-finance the implementation of the full-fledged victim surveys in the seven selected developing countries. During 1992 five other countries joined the survey, namely: Argentina, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea, Tunisia and South Africa (in Tunisia and South Africa only pilot studies were carried out). Therefore, the 1992 International Victimisation Survey was carried out in the following developing countries/cities: Argentina (Buenos Aires), Brazil (Rio de Janeiro), Costa Rica, Egypt (Cairo), India (Bombay), Indonesia (Jakarta, Surabaya, Medan, Palembang, Pontianak, Ujung Pandang, Manado and Ambon), the Philippines (Manila), Papua New Guinea, Tunisia (Tunis), Tanzania (Dar Es Salaam), Uganda (Kampala) and South Africa (The Greater Pretoria).

## **Objectives**

The original title of the UNICRI/Ministry of Justice of the Netherlands project document was: Promotion of Victimisation Surveys in Developing Countries. Therefore, the primary aim of the project was promotional and technical assistance-oriented, that is to say, to assist a number of developing countries to develop and implement victimisation surveys as an important research and policy tool. It was intended to introduce this tool and to highlight its research and policy potentials in developing countries with the expected result that it would develop from the "one-shot experience" into a more regular and accepted research and policy endeavour. An important aspect of the project consisted in sensitising both the researchers and

policy makers/administrators to the significance, potentials and limits of the survey. Needless to say, the survey shared other well-known objectives of national level victimisation surveys in terms of information gathering on experiences with crime and its level, victimisation risk, propensity to report to the police, attitudes about police and punishment, crime prevention, and policy evaluation based on the results of the survey. It was also expected that the experience with the International Survey would stimulate the development and implementation of national and local-level surveys.

Victim surveys in developing countries are also an integral part of the 1992 International Survey. In this respect it aims at broadening internationally comparable crime and criminal justice data base. Therefore, for the first time this data base includes comparable information from 12 developing countries/cities. The mere fact that the Second International Survey includes from among developing countries only two less than the total number of countries participating in the First International Survey (and those were exclusively developed countries) clearly highlights its value in terms of the development of international comparative crime and criminal justice data base. Taking into account the difficulties in international comparisons based on official statistics provided by INTERPOL and the United Nations Survey of Crime and the Operations of the Criminal Justice Systems<sup>4</sup>, with a noted lack of complete and reliable information from a number of developing countries, the creation of this new international data base is a noteworthy endeavour.

The International Victim Survey provides a wealth of empirical data for testing a number of theories in a cross-cultural comparative perspective. In this perspective it is possible to assess differences in national and local crime and victim profiles, and relate them to social, economic and cultural circumstances. It can assist in the search for regional patterns and confront them with those identified on the basis of administratively-produced measures of crime and operations of the criminal justice system. Thus, a significant base is created for comparative secondary analysis into patterns of victimisation and management of crime. This empirical base created through the International Victim Survey needs to be enriched by information regarding the socio-economic developmental and criminal justice profile and context of each unit of analysis.

UNICRI intends to prepare a publication on the experience and results of the Victimization Survey in developing countries<sup>5</sup> and to continue with the promotion of victim surveys in developing countries.

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<sup>4</sup> The United Nations carried out three such surveys: 1970-1975; 1975-1980; 1980-1985. The Fourth United Nations Survey is presently underway and covers the period between 1986 and 1990. Data from the three surveys are available through the United Nations Criminal Justice Information Network (UNCJIN).

Requests for information should be addressed to: Graeme Newman, UNCJIN Co-ordinator, School of Criminal Justice, State University of New York at Albany, 135 Western Avenue, Albany, New York, 12222, USA. Telephone: 518-4425223. Fax: 518-4425603. Bitnet: GRN92@ALBANY1VX.UNCJIN: 141:TCN4017. Reports of the United Nations Survey are available from: Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch, Center for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, United Nations Office at New York.

<sup>5</sup> UNICRI (forthcoming) Criminal victimization in the developing world: main findings of the 1992 International Victim Survey. The volume will contain a comparative overview and country reports.

## Methodology: issues and problems

### *Organisation of the survey*

The organisation and implementation of the Victim Survey in developing countries consisted in a number of steps which were deemed important, taking into account the pioneering character of the endeavour.

The International Working Group (J.J.M van Dijk, P. Mayhew and UNICRI) first selected the participating countries, taking into account mainly two criteria: geographical representation and available expertise on a country level. In terms of the geographical representation it was initially decided to include three countries from each of the developing regions of the world: India, the Philippines and Indonesia from Asia; Argentina, Brazil and Costa Rica from Latin America, and Egypt, Uganda and Tanzania from Africa. However, due to funding problems, the 1991 pilot studies (on average 100 respondents) were carried out in seven countries (India, the Philippines, Brazil, Costa Rica, Egypt, Tanzania and Uganda). It should be noted that a local survey (600 respondents) was carried out in Indonesia (Surabaya) in 1989. At a later stage of the full-fledged study additional funds were found and Argentina and Indonesia joined the group of participating developing countries. In addition to these, Papua New Guinea joined in a full-fledged study and South Africa and Tunisia in a pilot study through self-financing<sup>6</sup>. National co-ordinators were appointed by UNICRI on the basis of their expertise and involvement in previous UNICRI projects and consultations with the regional institutes affiliated with the United Nations<sup>7</sup>. As already mentioned, two meetings were held at UNICRI (in March and November 1991) with the national co-ordinators to prepare and then evaluate the results of the pilot study, as well as to develop the methodology for the implementation of the full-fledged survey. The experience gained through the pilot study was of paramount importance in redesigning the data collection instrument, planning, organisation and implementation of the full-fledged survey. The International Working Group prepared data entry format and instructions, as well as the data analysis plan and the outline of the structure of the final report. Throughout both the pilot study and, later, the implementation of the full-fledged survey the International Working Group was constantly in contact with the national co-ordinators, assisting them in solving some unexpected problems and providing technical assistance in data analysis. This was not always an easy task due to a number of difficulties in communicating with some of the participating countries.

In most of the participating developing countries the national co-ordinator created a research team to develop the sample and to train the interviewers. The national co-ordinator was also entrusted with the administrative management of the project at the local level, the co-ordination of the research team, data analysis and preparation of the final report. Particular importance was given to the selection,

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<sup>6</sup> It is expected that full-fledged victim surveys will be carried out in South Africa and Tunisia in 1993.

<sup>7</sup> National co-ordinators for Uganda and Tanzania were appointed upon the recommendation of the African Institute for Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders, affiliated with the United Nations (UNAFRI), while the Institute for Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders for Latin America and the Caribbean, affiliated with the United Nations (ILANUD) carried out a study in Costa Rica.

training and monitoring of the interviewers. In some countries it was deemed necessary to pay special attention to the age and gender of the interviewers depending on the corresponding characteristics of the respondents. The above-mentioned organisational, selection, training and monitoring activities proved of utmost importance for the successful completion of the survey.

### *Data collection*

The International Victim Survey in developing countries utilised the standard questionnaire administered by the interviewers in a face-to-face interviewing of a sample of respondents. As already mentioned, this questionnaire is a revised version of the one utilised for the first International Survey. It was based on the experience gained from the first survey and a number of pilot studies in seven developing and three developed countries. Needless to say, there are a number of limits inherent to the standard international instrument. Standardisation offers notable advantages for comparison; yet, at the same time it sets serious limits to the peculiarities of each social reality under observation. Another complication stems from the process of translation into languages in which the questionnaire was administered. As a result there were certain slight variations in the questionnaires for developing countries but it was felt that these would not impair the coherence and comparability of the instrument and the results.

The questionnaire was prepared in English and translated and administered as follows: India (English and Hindi); the Philippines (English and Filipino); Egypt and Tunisia (Arabic); Brazil (Portuguese); Costa Rica and Argentina (Spanish); Indonesia (Bahasa Indonesia); South Africa (English and Afrikaans), Uganda (English and Luganda), and Tanzania (Swahili).

Certain difficulties with data collection were reported due to a particular sensitivity to some issues in certain cultural settings (sexual incidents; gun ownership; crime prevention devices, etc.). Problems were also encountered with respect to income, either because the respondents did not want to disclose this information or because they were not able to provide it. In some countries it was difficult to contact the respondents in the high income/residence bracket because of rigid security measures surrounding their dwellings; in others, in order to facilitate the access to slums (in which residents developed a system of tight control against potential penetration by the police or hostile gangs) prior contacts were established with local leaders, the neighbourhood associations, church, etc. National co-ordinators reported that in two countries refusal to respond was related to the fact that the survey was carried out on behalf of the United Nations, which in the opinion of some respondents was biased towards their own or neighbouring country<sup>8</sup>.

In all participating developing countries face-to-face interviewing was used to collect data. Field work in most countries was carried out in the period between April and June 1992, with the exception of Indonesia, South Africa and Tunisia where it was carried out during the summer/autumn of 1992. Special teams of interviewers were created and trained for this purpose; only in Costa Rica were the services of a specialised opinion-poll company used.

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<sup>8</sup> It is reported that in one country up to 40% of the contacted respondents refused to co-operate because of their negative attitude towards the United Nations' sanctions applied to a neighbouring country.

## Sampling

One of the most serious problems faced in carrying out the survey in developing countries was related to sampling. First of all, it should be pointed out that it was decided to carry out surveys on a city level. A host of factors influenced this decision. In particular it was felt that a lack of systematic information needed for drawing a national sample was somewhat easier to overcome on a city level. It was also assumed that cities in the developing world share certain structural characteristics to a larger extent than countries to which they belong<sup>9</sup>. Restricted financial means also played an important role in making this decision, particularly with respect to the transportation costs involved in a field survey. City surveys were carried out in Bombay, Buenos Aires, Cairo, Dar Es Salaam, Kampala, Manila, Rio de Janeiro and Tunis. In Indonesia the survey covered the main cities of major islands; in Costa Rica, the central region of the country comprising the main urban area (Metropolitan) and a mixed urban/rural area; the Greater Pretoria region in the Transvaal was covered by the pilot study in South Africa.

Full-fledged city surveys and the survey in Costa Rica were carried out on an average sample of 1,000 respondents, while in Indonesia the total sample was 3,750 respondents. The sample size was mainly determined on the basis of preliminary costing and the available budget. The probability of sampling error is quite high due to the sample size. The main parameters for sampling consisted in: residential area status, gender and age. While in some countries the sample was drawn on the basis of available census data, in others they were "corrected" on the basis of information drawn from sociological studies and the experience of the research team<sup>10</sup>. It should be noted that in some developing countries a random stratified sample was drawn through a random walk procedure.

**Table 1: Sample size**

	<b>City Sample</b>	<b>National Sample</b>	<b>Pilot</b>
<b>Argentina</b>	Buenos Aires 1,000		
<b>Brazil</b>	Rio de Janeiro 1,017		
<b>Costa Rica</b>		963	
<b>Egypt</b>	Cairo 1,000		

<sup>9</sup> Developing countries participating in the survey, in terms of their population size, range from Costa Rica and Papua New Guinea (3,190,000 and 4,056,000 respectively) to Brazil and India which, with populations of 154 and 880 million respectively, rank as the fifth and second largest countries in the world. Cities participating in the survey also differ along a number of indicators, such as size, rate of growth, etc. Although the participating countries belong to the developing world they also differ substantially on a number of developmental indicators of economic performance, urbanisation, human development index, etc. Differences between the participating countries are illustrated in Annex II using two measures of development: Human Development Index and GNP per capita.

<sup>10</sup> For details see the Summary of the Results for each participating country/city.

<b>India</b>	Bombay 1,040		
<b>Indonesia</b>	3750 *		
<b>Papua New Guinea</b>	n.a.		
<b>The Philippines</b>	Manila 1,503		
<b>South Africa</b>			200
<b>Tanzania</b>	Dar Es Salaam 1,004		
<b>Tunisia</b>			150
<b>Uganda</b>	Kampala 1,023		

\* Jakarta 1,000, Surabaya 750, Medan 500, Palembang 400, Pontianak 300, Ujung Pandang 300, Manado 300, Ambon 200.

## Main findings

This report presents an overview of the selected main findings of the 1992 International Survey in developing countries. It is of a preliminary character and based on non-validated data; it should be used with great caution. It is purely descriptive and limited to a selected portion of information<sup>11</sup>. No attempt at a secondary and/or truly comparative analysis was made; nor was there an attempt to confront victim survey data with police data<sup>12</sup>. As already mentioned, a full-fledged report will be presented in the forthcoming UNICRI publication.

The report presents data which were made available to UNICRI by the beginning of November; therefore, only data from the following countries/cities are reported:

Buenos Aires (Argentina)  
Rio de Janeiro (Brazil)  
Cairo (Egypt)  
Bombay (India)  
Manila (The Philippines)  
Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania)  
Jakarta (Indonesia)  
Kampala (Uganda)  
Costa Rica

### *Pilots*

<sup>11</sup> We are grateful to Professor Angelo Saporiti, UNICRI consultant, for the assistance he provided in data elaboration and presentation.

<sup>12</sup> Comparison with police data is fraught with difficulties. However, it should be noted that some comparison can be made on the basis of incidence rates (the number of single crimes experienced by the sample), which are a better comparative measure than prevalence rates since they enable the calculation of the total number of crimes committed in a unit of observation. Yet, with the sample size and the applied sampling procedure this might be highly questionable.

The Greater Pretoria (South Africa)  
Tunis (Tunisia)

*Victimisation rates*

Information presented below refer to prevalence rates: the percentage of the respondents aged 16 or more who reported they were victims of crime once or more, either individually or as members of a household. The time span covers the calendar year preceding the survey (1991) and the last five years.

- *Corruption and consumer fraud*

Criminal victimisation in developing countries appears to be highly pronounced in the public and tertiary sectors. Citizens are markedly running the risk of being victimised either by government officials and/or in the services sector. Both victimisations indicate much more than the sheer sphere of conventional crime; they speak about development itself, of the citizens' position vis-a-vis government and commercial/service activities, the lack of consumer/client and citizen protection, and the ways in which people go about, or are made to go about, in satisfying their needs and rights. It is evident that special surveys and studies are needed with respect to these forms of citizens' victimisation.

**Table 2: Percentage of population victimised by any crime in developing countries - 1991**

	Egypt Cairo	Uganda Kampala	Tanzania Dar Es Salaam	South Africa	Tunisia Tunis
Theft of car	1.2	2.6	3.5	5.5	0.5
Theft from car	4.8	7.0	14.4	10.5	6.0
Car vandalism	2.4	1.6	9.0	5.5	5.5
Theft of motorcycle	0.5	1.0	1.8	0.0	3.5
Theft of bicycle	1.0	3.3	4.2	7.5	3.5
Owners:					
Theft of car	3.4	6.6	7.0	7.3	3.5
Theft from car	13.5	17.7	28.9	13.9	30.0
Car vandalism	6.8	3.9	18.0	7.3	26.5
Theft of motorcycle	5.0	7.2	11.5	0.0	27.5
Theft of bicycle	3.7	7.5	12.3	13.9	22.5
Burglary with entry	3.0	14.1	21.2	9.0	3.5
Attempted burglary	3.8	12.9	14.7	7.0	7.5
Robbery	2.2	6.8	8.3	5.0	3.5
Personal theft	9.6	23.2	18.6	9.0	8.5
Sexual incident	7.8	7.2	10.8	7.5	12.0
Assault/threat	2.6	7.0	6.6	4.5	4.0
Consumer fraud	48.3	70.1	29.9	23.5	71.5
Corruption	31.9	40.8	n.a.	n.a.	6.5

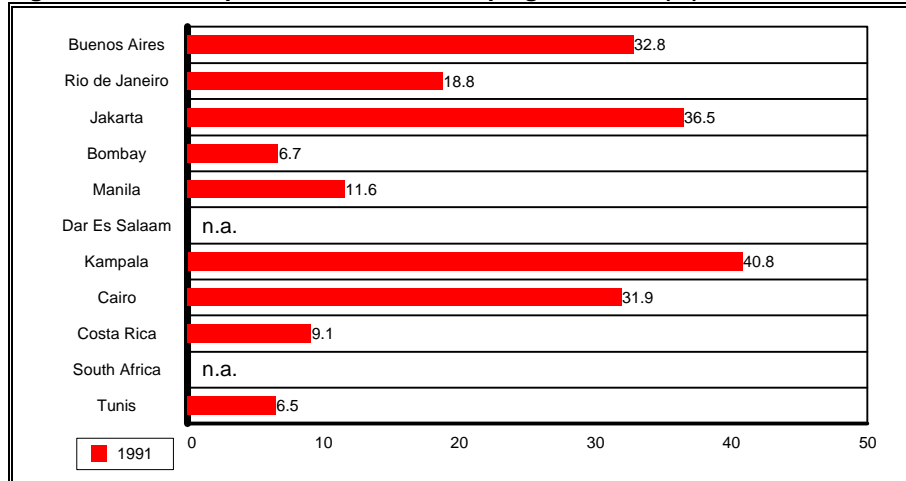
	Costa Rica	Brazil Rio de Janeiro	Argentina Buenos Aires	Philippines Manila	India Bombay	Indonesia Jakarta
Theft of car	0.4	1.4	5.0	0.3	0.7	0.6
Theft from car	5.5	4.4	10.4	1.8	2.3	5.0
Car vandalism	3.3	4.0	3.6	0.9	0.7	2.8
Theft of motorcycle	0.3	0.6	2.1	0.1	1.9	0.6
Theft of bicycle	4.6	2.7	3.6	2.4	0.6	1.0
Owners:						
Theft of car	1.1	3.4	6.6	2.0	4.0	1.3
Theft from car	14.7	11.0	14.1	10.5	13.7	10.7
Car vandalism	8.7	10.0	4.6	5.1	4.0	6.0
Theft of motorcycle	2.4	5.5	7.0	1.5	3.3	1.9
Theft of bicycle	6.9	5.0	5.0	9.5	1.4	1.9
Burglary with entry	4.4	1.5	2.9	2.9	1.3	3.0
Attempted burglary	6.1	2.5	3.8	2.1	1.5	1.4
Robbery	1.1	9.0	4.6	2.7	0.6	1.4
Personal theft	6.4	7.5	7.8	9.1	3.9	7.5
Sexual incident	5.2	2.9	4.6	1.6	0.6	4.5
Assault/threat	2.5	4.6	4.5	1.6	1.6	1.6
Consumer fraud	17.4	27.0	34.4	23.6	38.7	25.6
Corruption	9.1	18.8	32.8	11.6	6.7	36.5

Victimisation data highlight the well recognised existence of corruption in developing countries, and its consequences in terms of the functioning of the economy, government, and citizens' confidence in the political and control systems<sup>13</sup>. One might even speak about a plight of corruption in the developing

<sup>13</sup> The survey on perceived crime and criminal justice issues in developing countries revealed that corruption presents the main concern of the criminal justice system and people in the majority of developing countries. See Zvekcic, U. and A. Mattei (1987) Research and international co-operation in

world. On average, in all developing sites, it is the second most frequently reported victimisation experience in 1991<sup>14</sup>. As a matter of fact, it ranks first in Jakarta; second in Kampala (41%), Buenos Aires (33%), Cairo (32%), Manila (12%) and Rio de Janeiro (19%); and third in Costa Rica (9%).

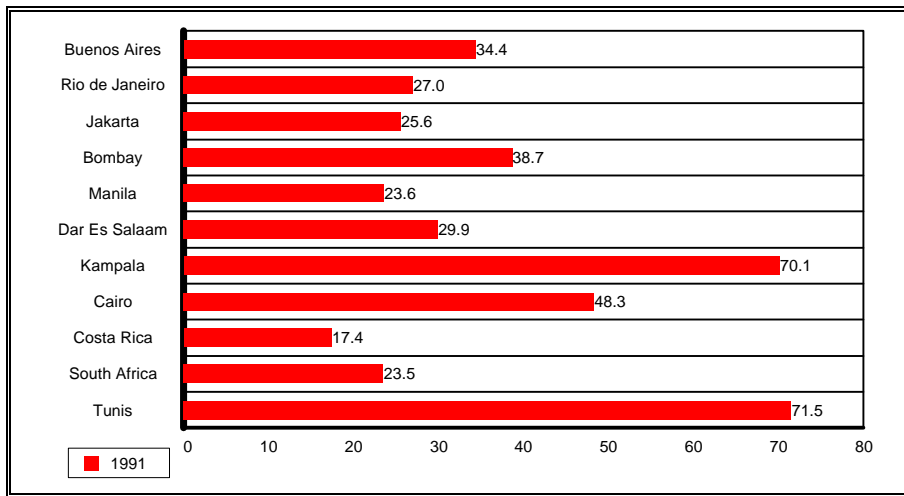
**Figure 1: Corruption - selected developing countries (%)**



**Figure 2: Victims of consumer fraud - selected developing countries (%)**

criminal justice: survey on needs and priorities of developing countries, UNSDRI. For Latin America: de Castro, L.A. (ed.) (1990) *Criminologia en America Latina*, UNICRI. For Africa: Mushanga T.M. (ed.) (1992) *Criminology in Africa*, UNICRI.

<sup>14</sup> Respondents were asked the following question: "In some areas there is a problem of corruption among government officials. During 1991, has any government official, for instance a customs officer, police officer or inspector in your own country, asked you to pay a bribe for his service?"

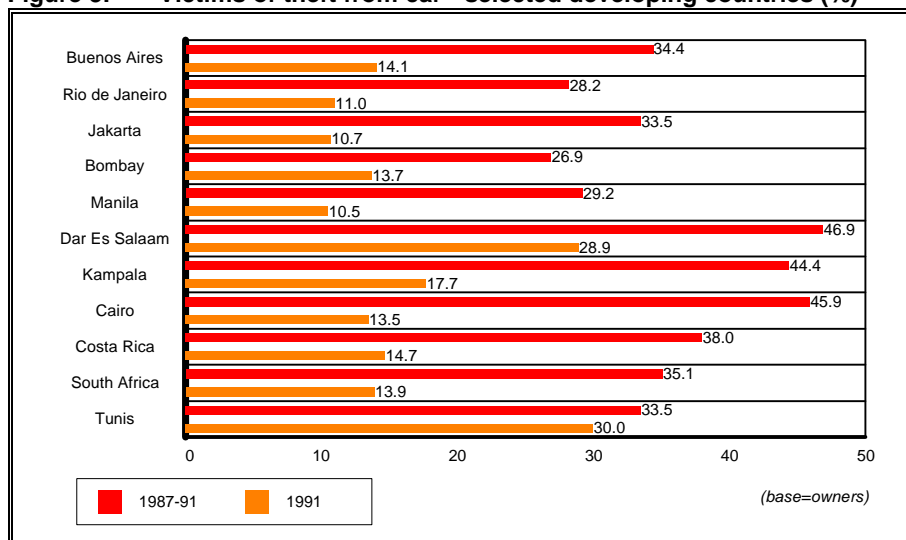


The malfunctioning of the public government sector is accompanied by the malfunctioning of the tertiary sector: consumer fraud is highly diffused in developing countries<sup>15</sup>. With the exception of Jakarta, consumer fraud shows the highest rates in all sites. In two African cities (Tunis and Kampala) more than 70% of the respondents reported being subjected to fraud. Very high rates were also registered in Cairo (48%), Bombay (39%), Buenos Aires (34%) and Dar Es Salaam (30%). With the exception of Costa Rica (17%), in other countries fraud affected about one-quarter of the sample in 1991.

- *Property-related crimes*

Contrary to the prevailing image based on official criminal justice data, according to which developing countries show higher rates of violence and inversely lower rates of property-related crimes, results of the Victim Survey clearly reveal the higher risk of victimisation for some form of property. This is well represented for theft from car, burglary/attempted burglary and personal theft.

**Figure 3: Victims of theft from car - selected developing countries (%)**

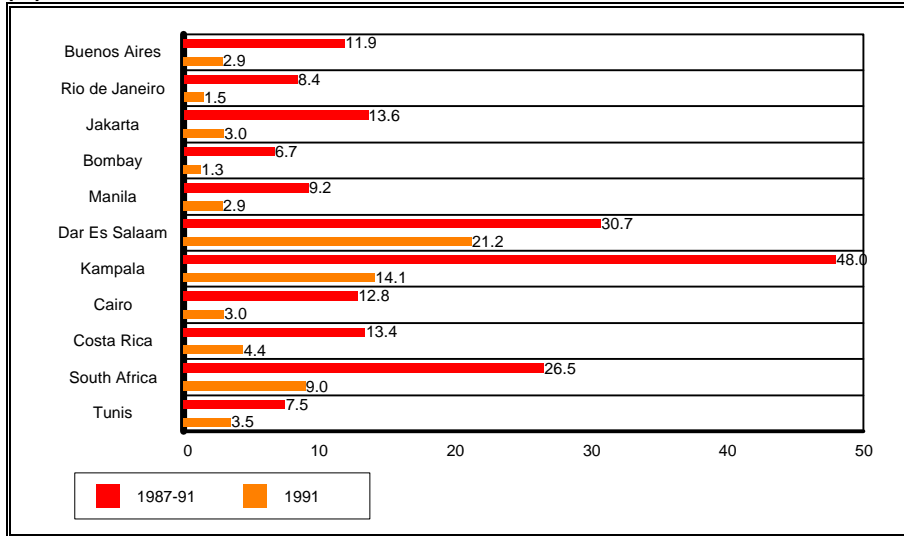


The highest five-year rates for theft from a car were registered in Dar Es Salaam, Cairo and Kampala. Very high rates were also found in Costa Rica,

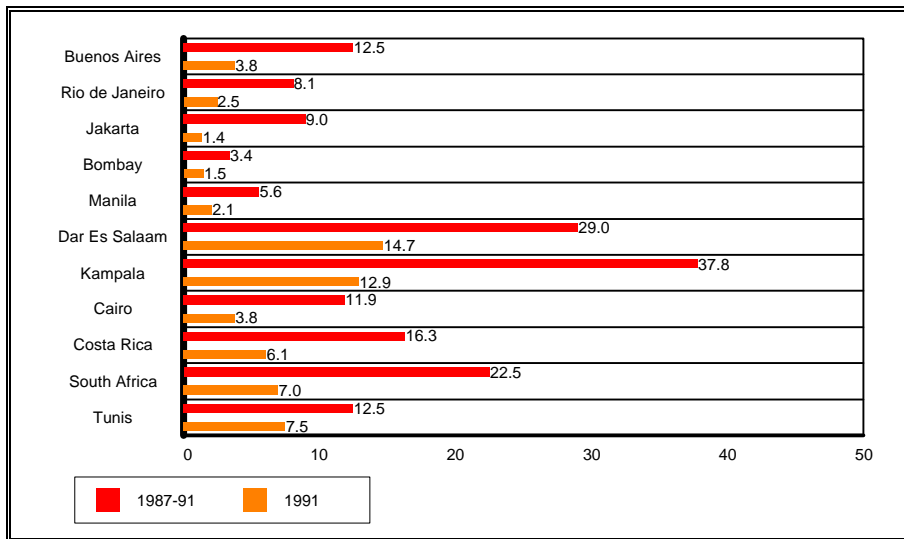
<sup>15</sup> The respondents were asked the following question: "Last year (1991), were you the victim of a consumer fraud? I mean, has someone when selling something to you or delivering a service cheated on you in terms of the quantity or quality of the goods/services?". The places in which fraud might have taken place were listed as follows: construction or repair work; work done by garage; a hotel, restaurant or pub, some other.

Buenos Aires and the two pilots. In Kampala and the pilot in Tunis, almost one-third of the respondents had something stolen from their car in 1991. Looking at one-year rates, it is also evident that car owners in African cities are at the highest risk, but so are those from Costa Rica, Bombay and Buenos Aires.

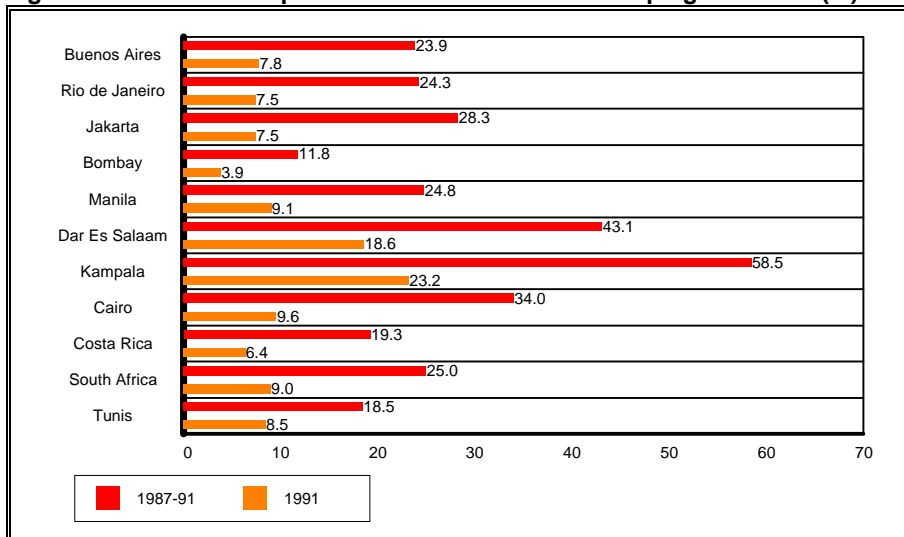
**Figure 4: Victims of burglary with entry - selected developing countries (%)**



**Figure 5: Victims of attempted burglary - selected developing countries (%)**

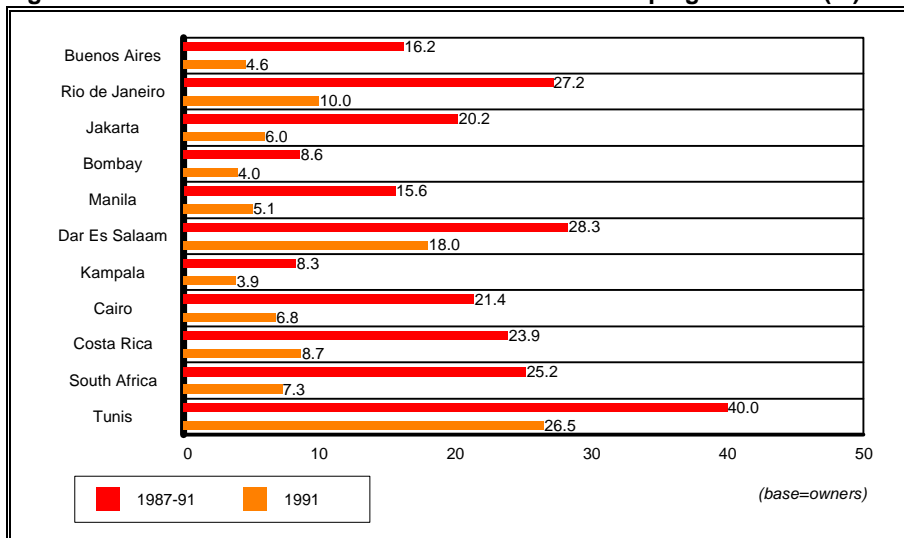


**Figure 6: Victims of personal theft - selected developing countries (%)**



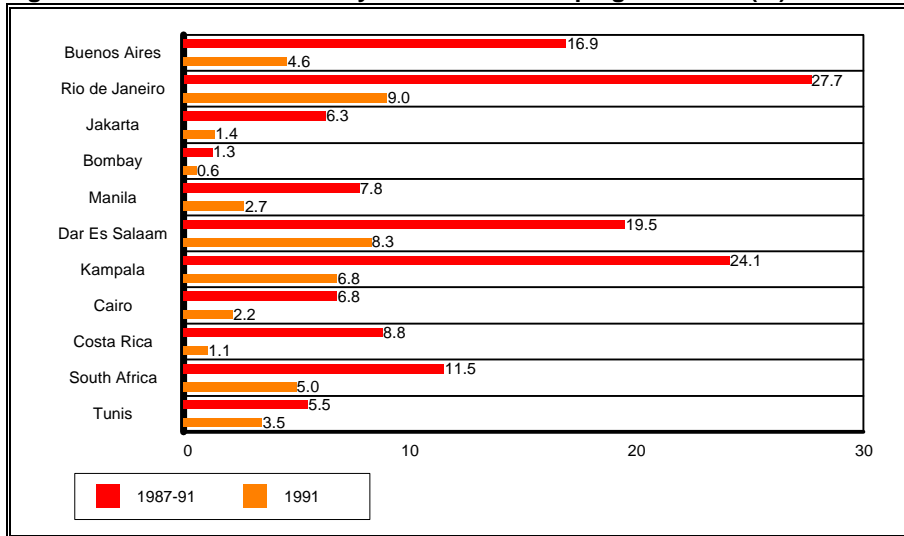
From among these three representatives of the property-related crimes the highest rates are revealed for personal theft. Dar Es Salaam, Cairo and Kampala have the highest five-year victimisation rates and correspondingly high one-year victimisation rates.

**Figure 7: Victims of car vandalism - selected developing countries (%)**

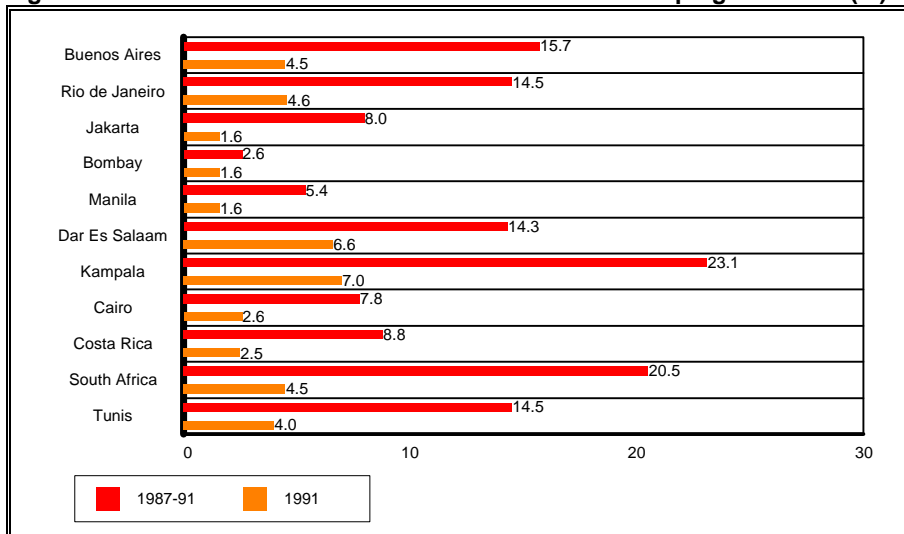


Citizens in Dar Es Salaam and Kampala run a high risk of being burglarised or exposed to attempted burglary. As a matter of fact the difference between these two cities and all others, both for the five and one year periods, is quite substantial. The same applies to personal theft. The safest city appears to be Bombay for all three types of property-related crimes.

**Figure 8: Victims of robbery - selected developing countries (%)**



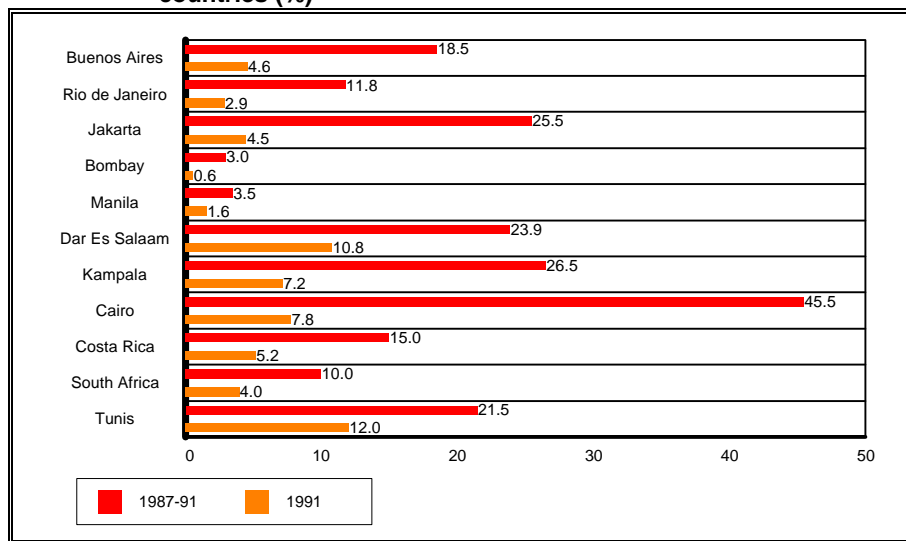
**Figure 9: Victims of assault or threat - selected developing countries (%)**



A different pattern is found with car vandalism. Car owners in Dar Es Salaam and Rio de Janeiro (also Tunis and The Greater Pretoria) were more exposed to their car being damaged. It can be noted that Manila, Cairo, Bombay and Jakarta display a similar pattern with respect to car vandalism as with other property and violence-related crimes. An exception to the established general pattern regards Costa Rica (with high rates), on the one hand, and Kampala (with low rates), on the other.

Among the cities in developing countries the victimisation experience with robbery and assault/threat is high in Rio de Janeiro, Dar Es Salaam, Kampala and Buenos Aires. Again, for both crimes and in both reference periods, Bombay shows the lowest rate. Citizens of Manila were to a larger extent victims of robbery than of assault, while the Costa Ricans experienced the inverse pattern of violence-related victimisation. In general it appears that cities of Latin America and Africa are at a higher risk for violent crimes than is the case with the Asian urban settings.

**Figure 10: Women victims of sexual incidents - selected developing countries (%)**



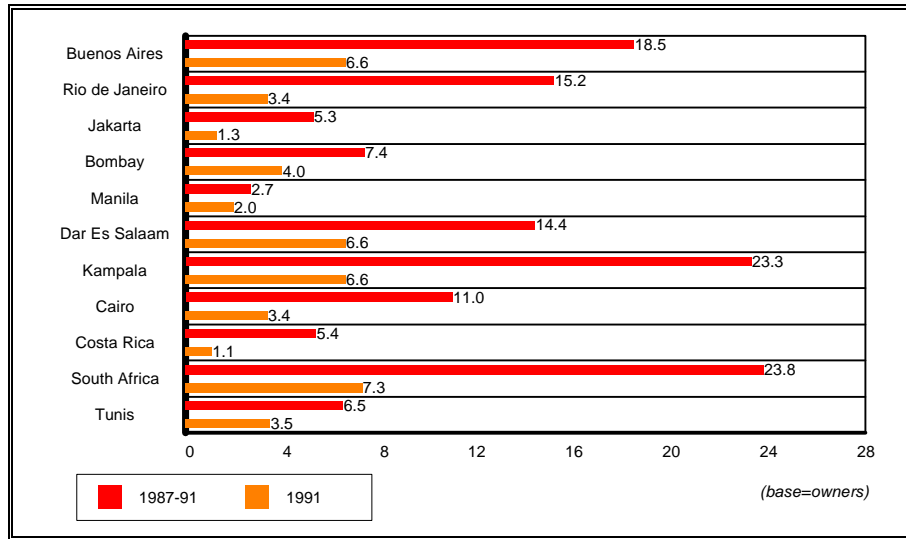
It was noted by some national co-ordinators that the issue of female sexual victimisation was considered highly sensitive in certain cultural settings. An additional complication in comparative terms results from different cultural perceptions regarding sexually offensive behaviour. Data presented here refer to various incidents that the female respondents considered as acts committed "for sexual reasons in a really offensive way". The highest five-year rate is for Cairo, followed by Kampala, Jakarta and Dar Es Salaam, a pattern confirmed (though in a somewhat different order) for a one-year experience. Women in Bombay and Manila were exposed to sexually offensive acts to a substantially lesser extent, while 3 to

5% of female respondents in Latin American cities/countries (and The Greater Pretoria-pilot) reported being grabbed, touched or sexually assaulted in the most recent referred-to period.

- *Vehicle theft*

Three categories of vehicle were listed as targets of theft: car, motorcycle and bicycle. In some countries targets included local types of vehicle, e.g. tricycle, pedicab.

**Figure 11: Victims of theft of car - selected developing countries (%)**

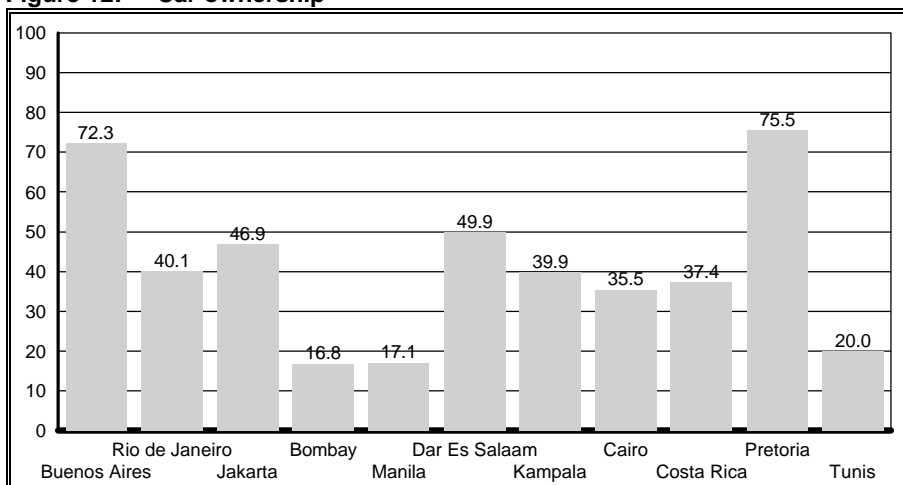


In 1991 victimisation rates for car theft ranged from 1% in Costa Rica to 7% in Buenos Aires, Dar Es Salaam and Kampala (and The Greater Pretoria-pilot). The five-year rates were similarly ranked with the exception of a high rank for Rio de Janeiro (a one year rate is of a middle value). It is assumed, and to a certain extent verified, that there is a relationship between the car ownership rate and car theft, at least in developed countries. The target-availability aspect of the opportunity theory appears to sit well with empirical data based on victimisation surveys carried out in developed countries. In general, it seems that in developing countries a similar pattern exists: the higher the ownership rate, the higher the risk of owners having their car stolen.

There are, however, certain variations and exceptions to this. This linear explanation appears to hold well for Buenos Aires, Dar Es Salaam and Kampala (and The Greater Pretoria-pilot); yet it should be noted that a substantially higher ownership rate in Buenos Aires (and The Greater Pretoria) - 72% and 75%

respectively - result in almost the same level of car theft rate as that of Dar Es Salaam and Kampala. In addition, in Jakarta, Rio de Janeiro, Cairo, Costa Rica and Kampala with similar car ownership rates, owners are at a much higher risk in Kampala and at a much lower risk in others, and in particular in Jakarta and Costa Rica (the lowest car theft rate)<sup>16</sup>. On the other hand, Manila, Bombay and Tunis have similar ownership rates but they differ in terms of the car theft rates: Manila being next to Costa Rica and Jakarta, while Bombay and Tunis have higher rates than those of Rio de Janeiro and Cairo, which have more than twice higher ownership rates. This pattern, with some variations, is also found for five-year rates. In general, it is repeated for the whole sample (owners and non-owners) for a one-year period as reported in Table 2 above.

**Figure 12: Car ownership**

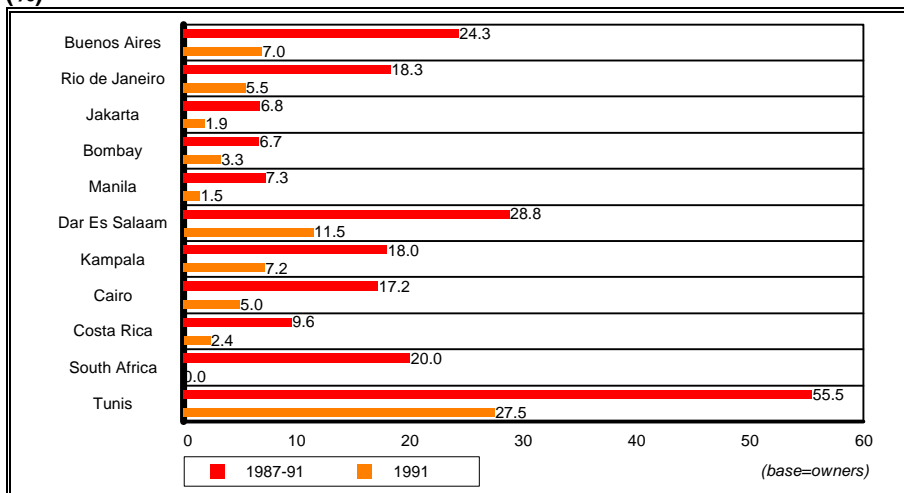


Rates for the theft of bicycles are somewhat higher than those related to the theft of motorcycles for the five and one-year periods. As regards the theft of bicycles, higher rates are found in Dar Es Salaam, Manila, Kampala, Costa Rica and the two urban areas in which the pilots were carried out (Tunis and The Greater Pretoria). It was reported that in all these sites the use of two-wheel vehicles is quite widespread. Bombay has the lowest victimisation rate and, it appears, scarcely diffused man-peddled two-wheelers. Dar Es Salaam, Kampala, and Buenos Aires (as well as Tunis) exhibit motorcycle theft rates between 7 and 11% (for the pilot: 27%). While in most developing sites the 1991 rates of theft of bicycles and motorcycles almost level, in four sites the difference between the two rates is marked. Theft of motorcycles is less diffused than bicycle theft in Manila (1.5% : 9.5%) and Costa Rica (2.4% : 6.9%); the inverse is the case with Cairo and

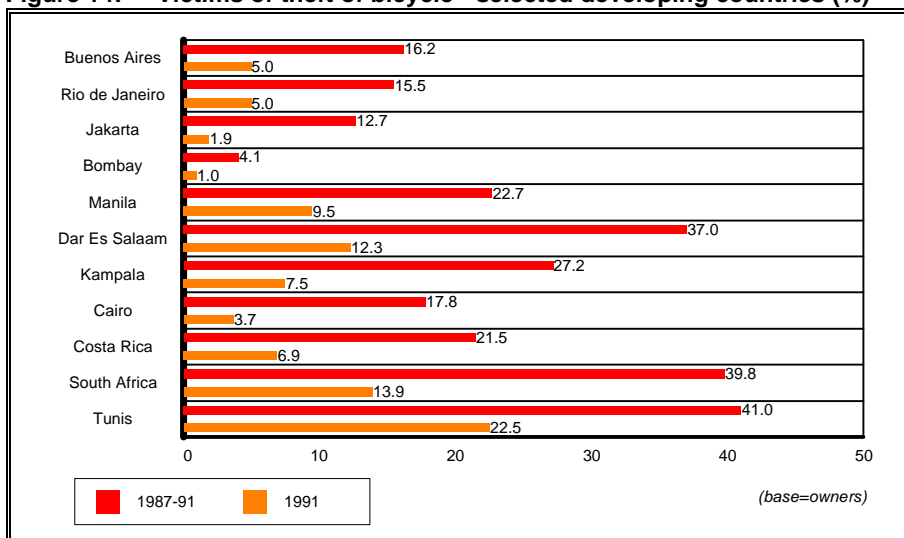
<sup>16</sup> It should be noted that the sample in Costa Rica covered a metropolitan area and mixed urban/rural area. Yet, three-quarters of the Costa Rican sample resides in urban areas.

Bombay. It seems that the relationship between ownership and victimisation risk holds well for the "two-wheelers" as well.

**Figure 13: Victims of theft of motorcycle - selected developing countries (%)**



**Figure 14: Victims of theft of bicycle - selected developing countries (%)**



*Police activities, citizens' experience and attitudes*

- *Reporting to the police*

To a large extent it is expected that the higher the value attached to the target of criminal activity (whether tangible or intangible), the higher the propensity to report to the police. However, this expected propensity to report is influenced by a number of factors, including those pertaining to the domain of past personal and/or otherwise acquired experience with the police, through those pertaining to the sphere of expectations, to those more closely related to some special properties of the victimisation experience. Some are related to the relationship between the police and the citizens (personal or stereotypical esteem and confidence); others to the existence of alternative ways and means to deal with crime and victimisation; still others with the nature and perceived seriousness of the victimisation, the relationship with the offender, or the "privacy" of the issue at hand.

Figures 15 to 24 (Annex I) present reporting rates by selected types of victimisation (crimes). As expected, the highest number of reported cases is related to car theft and the lowest to personal theft. In eight participating sites more than 85% of car theft victims reported to the police the last time their car was stolen; this was the case with 70% of victims in Cairo and Costa Rica; Bombay, with 54% of reported car thefts confirmed its position of a city with an average lowest reporting rate for any type of victimisation. Reporting rates for theft of motorcycles and bicycles are much lower; it is however interesting to note that owners of motorcycles in Manila reported all cases of stolen motorcycles, a somewhat surprising finding taking into account a low-reporting practice for other vehicle and vehicle-related thefts.

Two urban areas covered by the pilots (Tunis and The Greater Pretoria) show the same reporting pattern for burglary and personal theft: the highest among the participating developing sites. Victims of burglary in Dar Es Salaam, Buenos Aires, Cairo and Costa Rica report in the range between 50 and 74%. For personal theft, within the countries/cities in which the full-fledged survey was carried out, Jakarta ranks first (38.5%), followed by Dar Es Salaam (28.4%).

Victims of some form of criminal violence on average report 20 to 30% of the cases (last incident), with Dar Es Salaam exceptionally high (66%), accompanied by The Greater Pretoria with respect to robbery but not assaults, and Tunis with respect to assaults (70%) but average on robbery reporting (30%).

Both types of reporting of sexual incidents (in the victim surveys and to the police) seem to reflect certain particularities of a cultural nature related to the women's position, awareness, freedom, the concept of privacy, and the gender-oriented police culture as well as its real ability to act properly. From a comparison of the two reporting practices two discernible patterns are found. On the one hand, there are sites in which both victimisation and reporting are high (Dar Es Salaam and The Greater Pretoria) and, on the other, those in which both are low (Bombay and Manila). In Buenos Aires a middle-level rate of sexual victimisation is contrasted with a high reporting rate to the police, while in Jakarta to a similar level of victimisation corresponds a much lower level of reporting. Women in Cairo, according to self-reported sexual victimisation, are at the highest risk (7.8% in 1991), and yet they are the least willing to report to the police (or perhaps they are most "dissuaded" from reporting).

- *Citizen's experience and satisfaction with police*

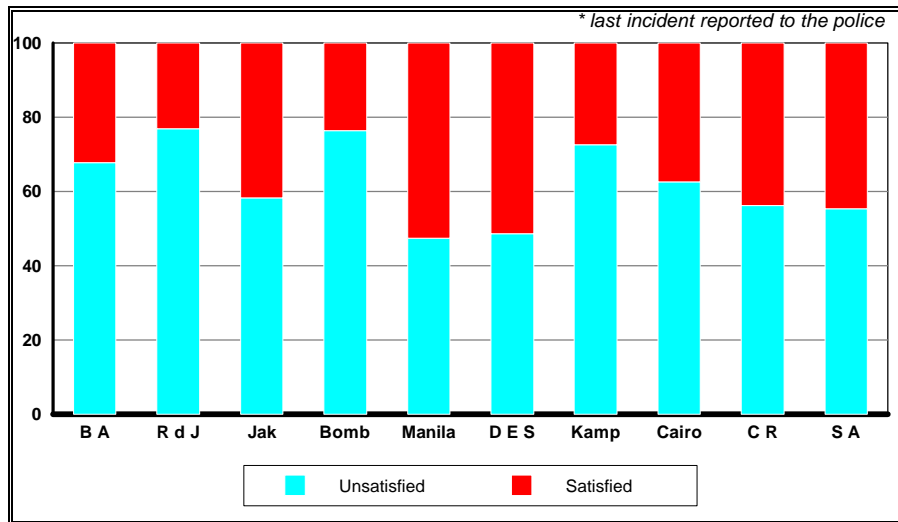
Within the ambit of multiple factors influencing the reporting of victimisation to law enforcement bodies, particular attention is given to reasons for not reporting. Within these reasons, in turn, attention is given to the citizens' satisfaction with the way the police handles their reports and consequently acts (or does not act). While reasons for not reporting differ from crime to crime it is still possible to decode the existence of certain clusters. The reasons for not reporting can be broadly differentiated in those related to the "weight" of the event itself (seriousness of crime, lack of evidence and inappropriateness of police activity), access to solutions away from law enforcement (solved myself, family support), and negative attitudes (experience/belief) towards police (could do nothing, would do nothing, fear/dislike)<sup>17</sup>. In general, the most common reason for not reporting regards the event itself, and most often its relatively low level of seriousness. This category is followed by an experienced or assumed attitude expressing the lack of effectiveness on the part of law enforcement. Self-help and/or that of the family, friends or other institutions ranks third in this general picture of factors influencing non-reporting.

There are also two distinct regional patterns. "Lack of effectiveness" on the part of the police prevails over the other two categories in Latin America; in Cairo, Bombay and Manila it is second to that connected with the "weight" of the event. Only in Kampala, solutions not requiring police activity (solved myself, family, etc.) stand next to the "weight" of the event itself, followed by "fear/dislike of police". These patterns are partly substantiated in Figure 26 which presents data on satisfaction with the ways in which the police dealt with a "particular (reported) offense".

**Figure 26: Satisfaction with police treatment of crime reporting\* - selected developing countries (%)**

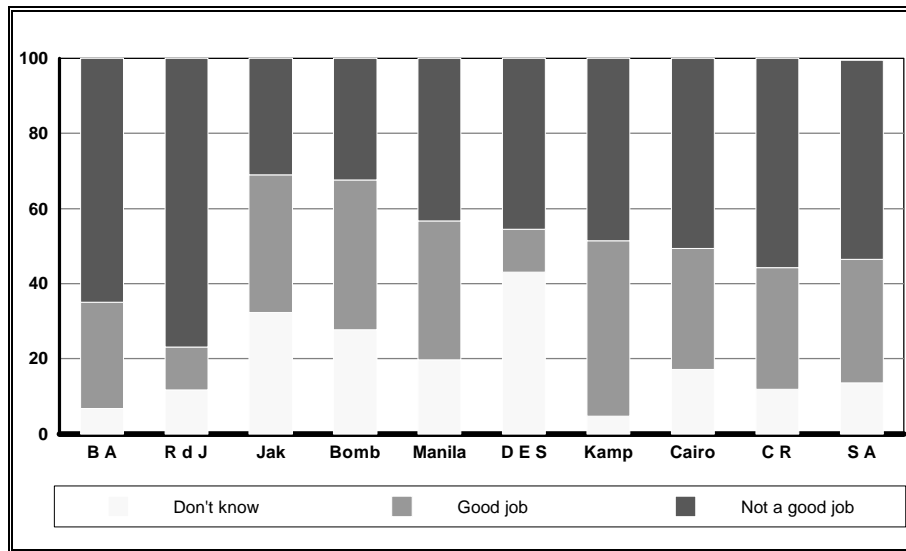
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<sup>17</sup> Possible answers included "other reasons". It was noted that often these reasons were related to past experience with the police or belief that the police are not willing to, not interested in, or not capable of satisfying the needs and/or expectations of the victim.



Out of ten developing sites, only the citizens of Manila and Dar Es Salaam are more satisfied than dissatisfied with police treatment of crime reporting (the last reported incident); although the difference between "favourables" and "unfavourables" is about 3%. In all the other sites there are more victims who are dissatisfied than those who are satisfied (with a substantial difference between the two groups in Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro, Bombay and Kampala, and less so in The Greater Pretoria, Jakarta and Cairo). Generally speaking, citizens in developing countries are dissatisfied with the ways in which the police handle reported cases of victimisation, at least in comparison with the developed world.

**Figure 27: Satisfaction with police performance; tackling crime -selected developing countries (%)**



Not are the citizens satisfied with the way the police are controlling crime in their area of residence. There are more "dissatisfied" than "satisfied" particularly in Latin America (Buenos Aires, Rio de Janeiro and Costa Rica), followed by The Greater Pretoria, Kampala, Cairo and Dar Es Salaam (Africa)<sup>18</sup>; only in Bombay and Jakarta are there more citizens who consider that the police are doing "a good job" (40% : 32% and 37% : 31%). In Manila the amount of difference is the same as in Bombay but inverse (37% : 43%)<sup>19</sup>. Similarly to (dis)satisfaction with the way the police handle reported cases, the citizens in the developing world are less satisfied than the citizens in industrialised countries with police performance in controlling crime<sup>20</sup>.

<sup>18</sup> It should be noted that among the African sites there is an extremely high percentage of the "don't knows" in Dar Es Salaam (43%) and Cairo (17%). No explanation was provided for this at the writing of the report.

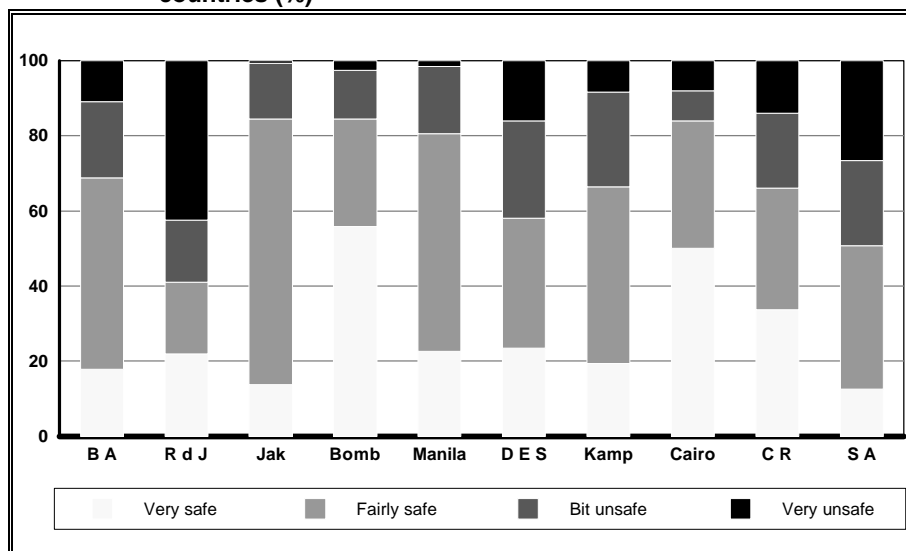
<sup>19</sup> As in the case of Dar Es Salaam and Cairo, the "don't knows" are also high in Bombay and Manila (28% and 20% respectively).

<sup>20</sup> van Dijk, Experiences..., op. cit., pp. 271-72.

*Citizens' responses to crime: fear, crime prevention measures and attitudes to punishment*

In this report the ways citizens react to crime, aside of reporting it (or doing nothing about it), are presented with two sets of information: attitudinal and factual. The attitudinal set refers to the two measures of fear of crime<sup>21</sup>, and to the attitudes towards punishment. The factual relates to a variety of crime prevention measures (devices) installed or employed in a household.

**Figure 28: Going out after dark; fear for safety - selected developing countries (%)**



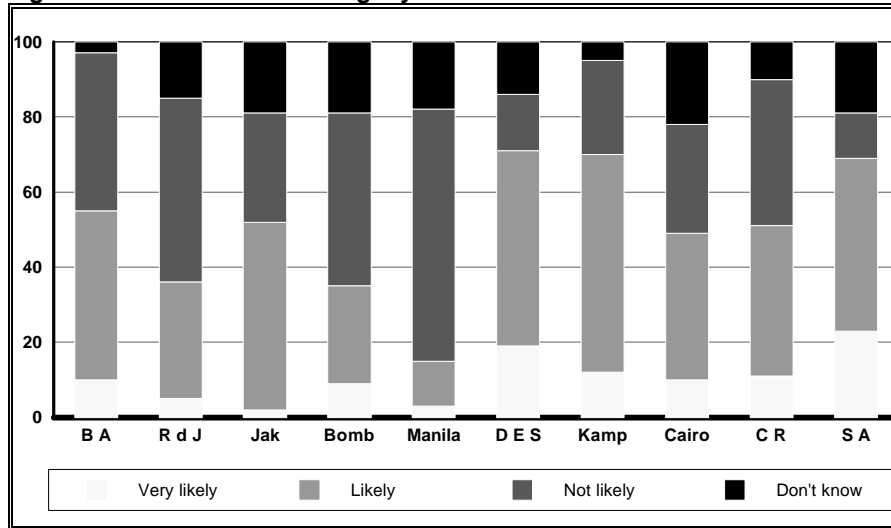
As regards fear for safety, Rio de Janeiro appears to be the least safe for walking about after dark, followed by three African sites: The Greater Pretoria, Dar Es Salaam and Kampala, and Costa Rica<sup>22</sup>. When confronted with victimisation rates for violent crimes (robbery and assaults, see Figures 8 and 9) it appears that there are at least two clear configurations and a mixed one (these configurations are more evident for victimisation through robbery than that related to assaults/threats). The first includes sites with low violent victimisation rates and low fear for safety (Costa Rica, Manila, Cairo, Jakarta and Bombay). The second configuration reflects

<sup>21</sup> The first measure is the fear for safety when walking alone in the area of residence after dark. The second is of a predictive nature and refers to the likelihood of having the premises broken into over the next twelve months.

<sup>22</sup> Costa Rica is somewhat safer than Kampala since 34% of the respondents reported they feel "very safe" while in Kampala this was the case with 19%.

high violent victimisation rates and high fear for safety (Rio de Janeiro and The Greater Pretoria). Finally, the mixed configuration comprises three cities: Buenos Aires (middle-high victimisation rate and more than 50% of citizens with low fear for safety, with the predominance of feeling "fairly safe"); Dar Es Salaam and Kampala, both with high levels of victimisation and a middle-level of fear for safety.

**Figure 29: Likelihood of burglary**



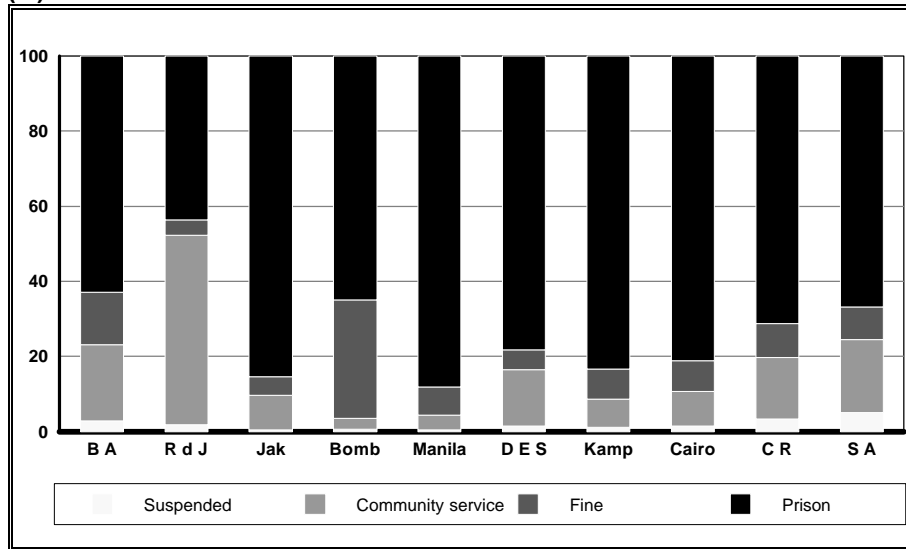
When confronted with the victimisation rates for burglary and attempted burglary (Figures 4 and 5) it appears that there are two distinct configurations. On the one hand there are sites, such as Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Manila, Bombay, Jakarta and Costa Rica (Latin America and Asia) in which there is a certain correspondence between lower victimisation rates and a lesser likelihood of having one's premises broken into over the next twelve months. An inverse correspondence is found for Kampala, Dar Es Salaam and the Greater Pretoria, where the prediction concerning burglary goes hand in hand with past victimisation experience (both being high).

In order to relate the prediction concerning burglary in the future (an attitudinal measure of the fear of crime) with factually implemented crime prevention devices, an aggregate index of crime prevention measures has been created based on data reported in Figure 25 (Annex I)<sup>23</sup>. Taking into account the victimisation rates, the following descriptive clusters appeared:

<sup>23</sup> The aggregate index of household crime prevention measures was constructed on the basis of the mean of the presence of each singular crime prevention measures in each unit of observation. It ranges from 12.4 to 39.8. The index is used purely for descriptive purposes. Further analysis utilising secondary information is needed for interpretative purposes, in addition to a further refinement of the index itself.

- Low victimisation, less likelihood, low score on the crime prevention index: Bombay and Cairo
  - Low victimisation, less likelihood, high score on the crime prevention index: Manila and Costa Rica
  - High victimisation, high likelihood, high score on the crime prevention index: Dar Es Salaam and The Greater Pretoria
  - High victimisation, middle-high likelihood, low score on the crime prevention index: Kampala.
- *Attitudes to punishment*

**Figure 30: Attitudes towards punishment - selected developing countries (%)**

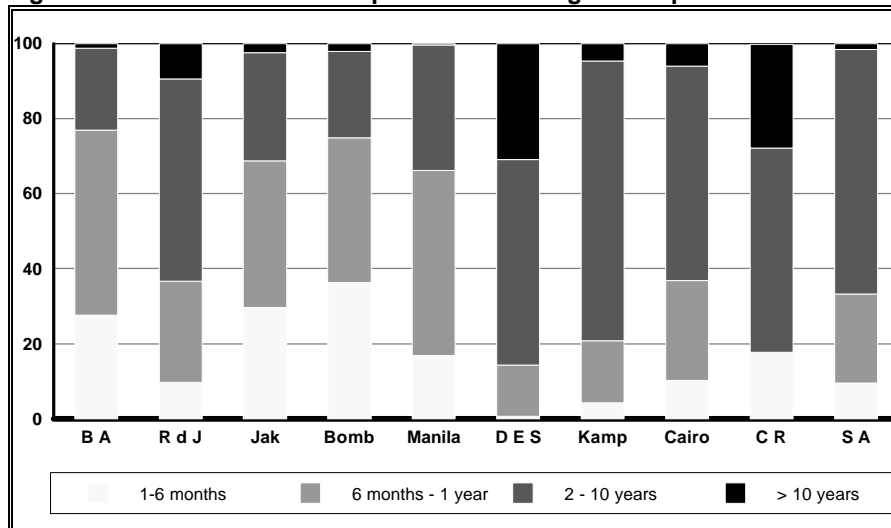


Opinions on sentencing also present an important measure of citizens' reactions to crime which might be related to victimisation experience, although only further analysis can show whether it holds true and for which types of crimes and sentences in developing countries<sup>24</sup>. The question referred to five types of sentences considered most appropriate for a recidivist burglar (a man of 21 years of age who has stolen a colour TV) followed by a specification of the length of imprisonment should this sentence be chosen by the respondent. Imprisonment is

<sup>24</sup> Data from the 1989 International Survey for developed countries show that preferences for imprisonment were slightly stronger among victims of burglary and the countries with the highest burglary risks were more likely to recommend imprisonment for the burglar. van Dijk, Experiences..., op. cit., pp. 81-84.

the most frequently chosen sentence, ranging from 44% in Rio de Janeiro to 88% in Manila. The punitive orientation (more than 10 years of imprisonment) was markedly expressed among the respondents from Dar Es Salaam (31%) and Costa Rica (28%), followed by 75% in Kampala, 65% in The Greater Pretoria, and between 50 and 60% in Rio de Janeiro, Cairo, Dar Es Salaam and Costa Rica, with a preference for 2 to 10 years imprisonment. The most punitive orientation is held by citizens of Dar Es Salaam, Costa Rica, The Greater Pretoria, Rio de Janeiro and Cairo. In some countries corporal punishment, the life sentence and even the death penalty were suggested, though less frequently than imprisonment to term.

**Figure 31: Attitudes towards punishment - length of imprisonment**



Fining was more often selected as the most appropriate sentence in Bombay (31%) and Buenos Aires (14%). It appears that the community service has greater support in Latin America, particularly in Rio de Janeiro (50%), Buenos Aires (20%) and Costa Rica (16%), as well as in The Greater Pretoria (19%). Excluding imprisonment, non-custodial sanctions have more support in Latin America in general, and in Bombay and the Greater Pretoria.

### **Concluding remarks: summary comparative notes**

This report presented some key preliminary findings of the 1992 International Victim Survey carried out in developing countries. The report is descriptive and selective and should be used with caution due to its preliminary character and the non-validated information on which it was based. While twelve developing sites participated in the survey, this report describes, and to a lesser extent discusses, information provided by the eleven participating countries. UNICRI intends to

proceed with sample verification, data validation, data elaboration and analysis which will cover all sectors of information provided through the survey. Secondary data and secondary analysis will hopefully provide better foundations for interpretation and comparison. Therefore, what follows is just an attempt to summarise comparative notes regarding certain patterns within the developing regions covered by the survey. This attempt is thus highly limited and at great risk for unsubstantiated oversweeping generalisations (inferences). However, the survey provides for the first time unique comparative information about experiences with crime, law enforcement and crime prevention. It gives an important measure of victimisation and attitudes (fears, satisfaction, punishment) "away" from the administratively-produced criminal justice statistics and a few national/local surveys which were carried out in the developing world.

The report presented information from three world regions including eleven developing sites:

**Africa:**

Cairo (Egypt); Kampala (Uganda); Dar Es Salaam (Tanzania); Tunis (Tunisia); The Greater Pretoria (South Africa)

**Asia:**

Bombay (India); Manila (the Philippines); Jakarta (Indonesia)

**Latin America:**

Buenos Aires (Argentina); Rio de Janeiro (Brazil); Costa Rica

Needless to say, these sites differ greatly in many respects. Nor can they be taken as representative of the regional realities or, for that fact, of either national or urban realities. The comparative notes presented herewith are limited only to data provided through the survey. These notes regard victimisation and related experiences as reported by the selected sample of respondents in each site; they are thus inevitably subject to sampling error.

It appears that Dar Es Salaam, Kampala and The Greater Pretoria exhibit the highest victimisation rates for almost all types of crimes. These three African sites are followed by Latin America: Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires and Costa Rica. The citizens of two of the Asian urban areas - Bombay and Manila - are, relatively speaking, at lower victimisation risk. The victimisation experience of the citizens of Cairo and Jakarta is somewhere between the African and Latin American cities.

There are, of course, notable variations in the regional-level victimisation experience by different types of criminal activities. The only true exceptions to the above-mentioned variations regard corruption and consumer fraud: a sad and highly shared experience by almost all cities in the developing world irrespective of their regional location. The inhabitants of all cities are highly exposed to cheating when purchasing goods, bad quality service when repairing their property or "enjoying meals and drinks", and apparently low levels of consumer/client protection.

Similarly, there is no distinct regional differentiation with respect to theft from cars. It is the highest vehicle/property-related crime in almost all the participating sites, although on average somewhat higher in Africa (and Latin America).

A certain pattern of clustering by regions appears with respect to "victimisation" of personal and/or household property. For example, citizens in African cities are at a notably higher victimisation risk for their personal property than their counterparts in Latin America, Jakarta and Manila (only the citizens of Bombay are less exposed to personal theft). A similar regional differentiation exists for burglary, although the difference between the victimisation risks for the inhabitants of African cities and the rest is somewhat accentuated.

It is evident that owners of motor vehicles in Dar Es Salaam, Kampala, The Greater Pretoria (Africa) are, together with the owners from Buenos Aires, more subject to theft than in other cities. Thus, while there is no clear overall regional differentiation, it appears that proneness to steal a motor vehicle is more evident for African cities. A similar situation appears with respect to bicycle theft, although it appears that tricycles and pedicabs are attractive targets in Manila (but not so in the other Asian cities - Bombay and Jakarta).

It appears that the populations of African and Latin American cities live in a more violent environment (robberies and assaults/threats) than those in Asian cities. The difference in victimisation risks through violence between the African/Latin American group, on the one hand, and Jakarta, Manila and Bombay (Asia), on the other, is substantial. Analogously, this regional differentiation was expected for sexual incidents. Indeed, women are at a higher risk of being sexually victimised in African and Latin American cities, rather than in Bombay and Manila. On the other hand, Jakarta shows a risk which is similar to Latin America cities.

Reporting to police shows no clear regional differentiation. Yet there appears to be a somewhat higher propensity to report for property crimes in Africa and Latin America; and slightly so for violence in Africa. As regards sexual victimisation two patterns appeared: on the one hand there are cities in which both victimisation and reporting are high (e.g. Africa), and those in which both are low (Asia). There is also a third (non-regional) pattern (which merits interpretation in terms of the general and specific police culture): high sexual victimisation and low reporting to the police (Cairo), and lower victimisation and high reporting to the police (Buenos Aires).

Regional differences are also not very pronounced when it comes to citizens' satisfaction with the performance of law enforcement agencies: on average citizens' dissatisfaction prevails over satisfaction (particularly in Latin America and Africa). Furthermore, a belief that the police force "lacks in effectiveness" is more shared by the respondents in Latin America, but it is a second factor contributing to the non-reporting also in Asia and some African cities.

Fear for safety on the street is a common denominator for all cities irrespective of their regional location, although it is higher in Latin American and African cities. A certain correspondence exists between the risk of victimisation through some form of violence and fear for safety. In this respect Bombay, Manila, Jakarta and Cairo appear safer (and are perceived as being safer by their own inhabitants) than, for example, Rio de Janeiro and the Greater Pretoria. In terms of safety from property crimes, there appears a somewhat different regional configuration based on a correspondence between the past and expected victimisation of property: there are African cities whose inhabitants run a high risk of property victimisation (and feel unsafe), and, inversely, the population of Asian and Latin American cities.

It appears that the use of household crime prevention measures has much more to do with the income and residential status of the victim (past or potential) than

with the regional location of the city in which the respondent lives. Furthermore, it also appears that there is a weak association between the socio-economic status of the country and the household use of crime prevention measures. However, present data allowed for the decoding of several configurations linking the victimisation rates, fear for safety in the future, and the presence of various crime prevention measures. For example, in some African cities there appears to be a certain level of parallelism between high victimisation rates, markedly expressed fear for safety and the solid presence of crime prevention devices in the households. An opposite configuration is found in Cairo and Manila. There are also mixed configurations characterising cities belonging to different world regions.

A punitive orientation seems to prevail in the developing world as measured by sanctioning options for a recidivist burglar. The choice of sanctions is skewed towards imprisonment, and within that option towards lengthy stays in prison (more than two, and even more than ten years). A punitive orientation was also illustrated by choices of corporal punishment, life sentence and even the death penalty (although substantially less than imprisonment to term). There are no clear regional patterns as regards the most severe sanctioning option: imprisonment. Only citizens of Latin American sites give relatively more support to non-custodial sanctions, such as fines and community service.

The wealth of the material collected through the International Victim Surveys merit further analysis, including the testing of a number of criminological theories<sup>25</sup>. For developing countries it is of crucial importance to continue the work on data validation and collection of both secondary statistical material and culturally relevant information in order to move further in the analysis and interpretation. National, city and local level information is of paramount importance for comparative analysis, if it truly intends to aim at furthering comparative thinking and understanding. Only in this way will this rich empirical material serve its purpose as a solid base for further theorizing, promotion of national and comparative levels of understanding of the criminal question, improvement in the organised responses to crime, and promotion of international co-operation in crime prevention and criminal justice. Being of a preliminary nature, this report fell short in the exploration of many open avenues; we only hope it did not close any.

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<sup>25</sup> The UNICRI 1993 Work Programme envisages a project "International Victimization Data and Theory Testing".

## 1992 INTERNATIONAL VICTIM SURVEY

### DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

#### National co-ordinators

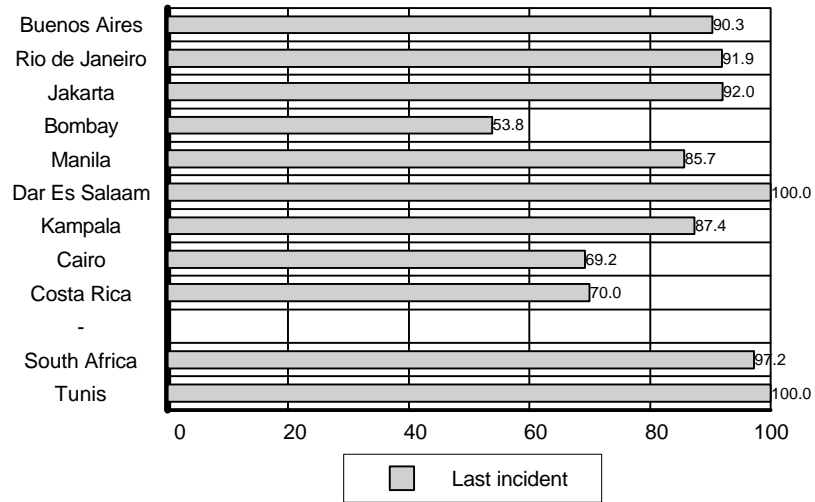
Carlos Corvo	Professor, Faculty of Law, Buenos Aires, Argentina
Jose Arthur Rios	Professor, Faculty of Law, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil
Luis Lachner	Senior Researcher, Institute of Crime Prevention and the Treatment of Offenders for Latin America and the Caribbean, affiliated with the United Nations (ILANUD), San Jose, Costa Rica
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D.R. Singh	Professor, Head, Department of Criminology and Correctional Administration, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, India
J.E. Sahetapy	Professor, Department of Criminology, University of Surabaya, Indonesia
Ken Egan	Director, Foundation for Law, Order and Justice, Boroko, Papua New Guinea
Celia Leones	Director, Crime Prevention and Co-ordination Branch, National Police Commission, Manila, The Philippines
C.M.B. Naude	Professor, Department of Criminology, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa
Joseph Safari	Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Arts and Social Science, University of Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania
Hatem Kotrane	Professor, Director, National Institute of Labour and Social Research, Tunis, Tunisia

Mathias Ssamula

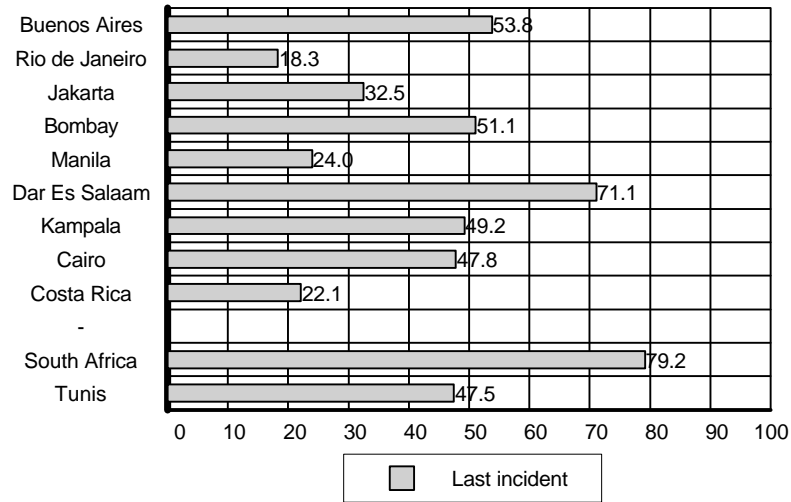
Lecturer, Department of Sociology, Makerere  
University, Kampala, Uganda

## ANNEX I

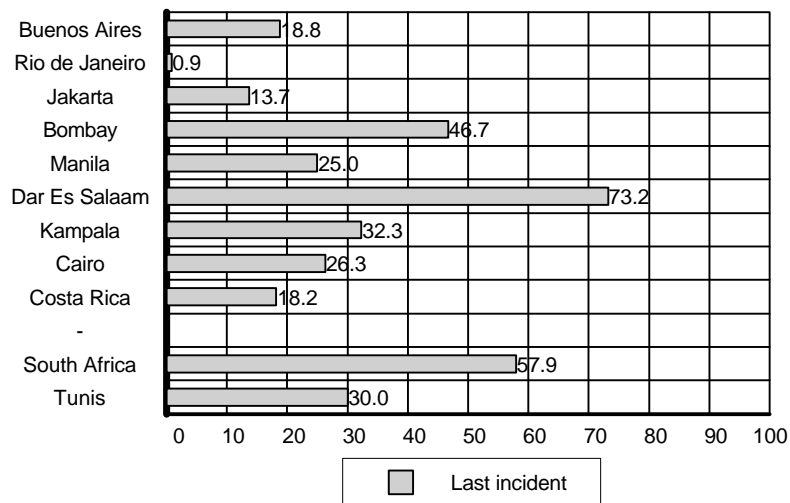
**Figure 15: Victims of theft of car who reported the incident to the police.  
Selected developing countries (%)**



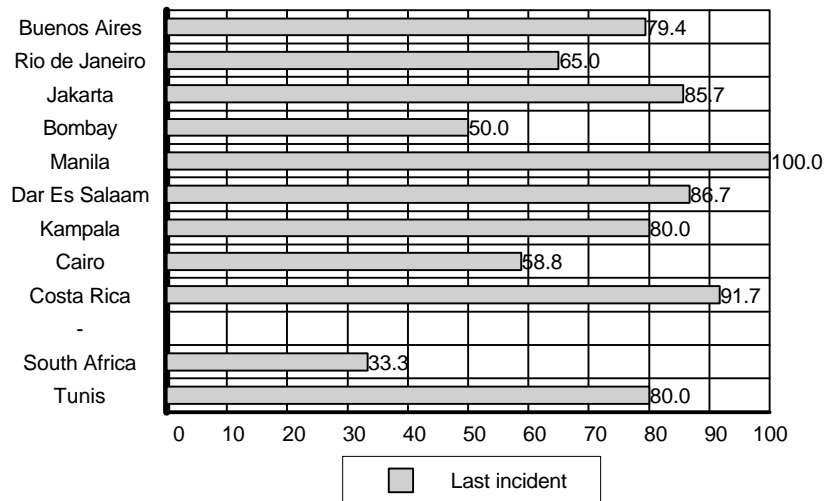
**Figure 16: Victims of theft from car who reported the incident to the police.  
Selected developing countries (%)**



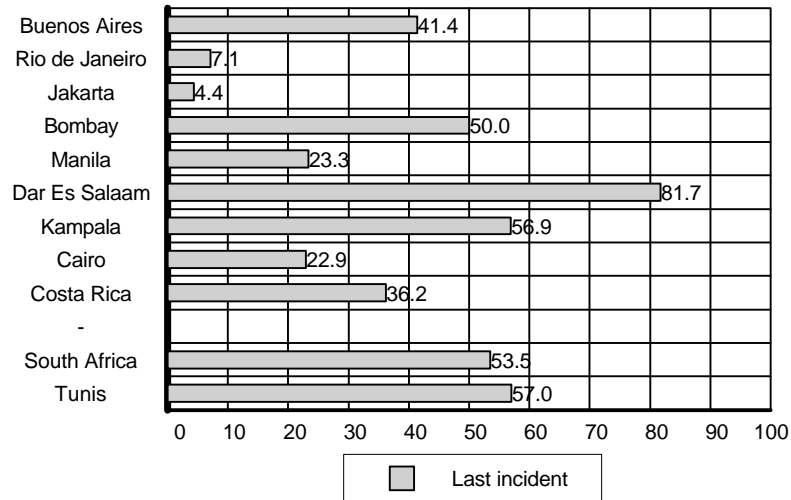
**Figure 17: Victims of car vandalism who reported the incident to the police. Selected developing countries (%)**



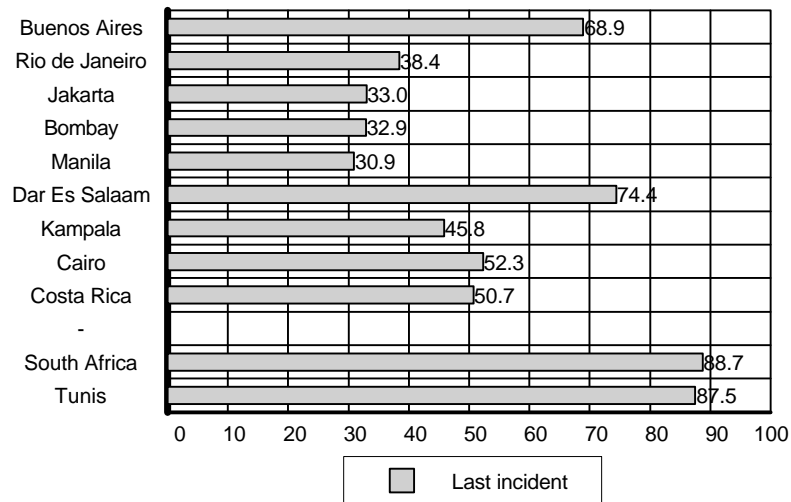
**Figure 18: Victims of theft of motorcycle who reported the incident to the police. Selected developing countries (%)**



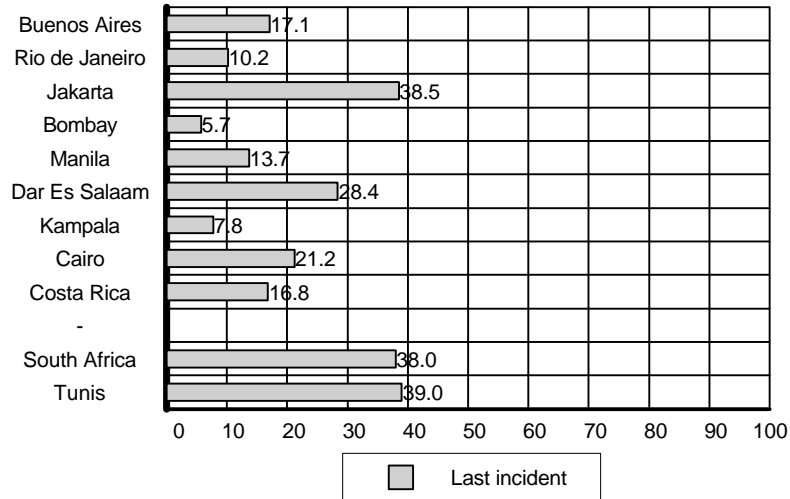
**Figure 19: Victims of theft of bicycle who reported the incident to the police. Selected developing countries (%)**



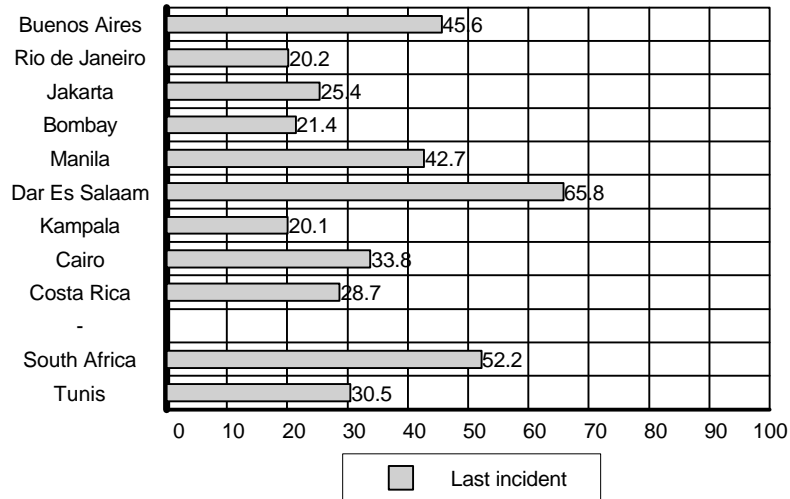
**Figure 20: Victims of burglary with entry who reported the incident to the police. Selected developing countries (%)**



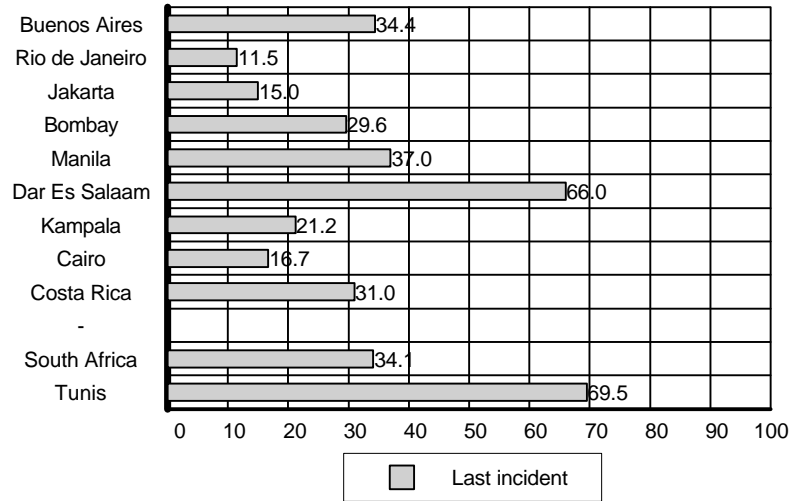
**Figure 21: Victims of personal theft who reported the incident to the police.  
Selected developing countries (%)**



**Figure 22: Victims of robbery who reported the incident to the police.  
Selected developing countries (%)**



**Figure 23: Victims of assault or threat who reported the incident to the police. Selected developing countries (%)**



**Figure 24: Women who reported sexual incidents to the police. Selected developing countries (%)**

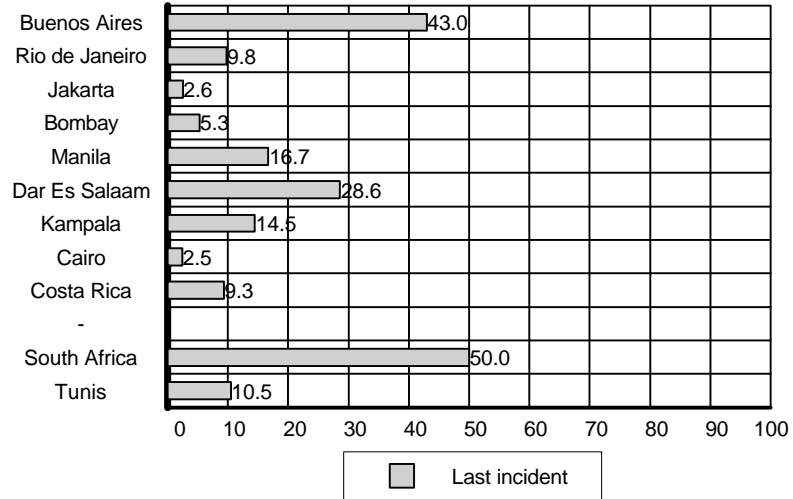
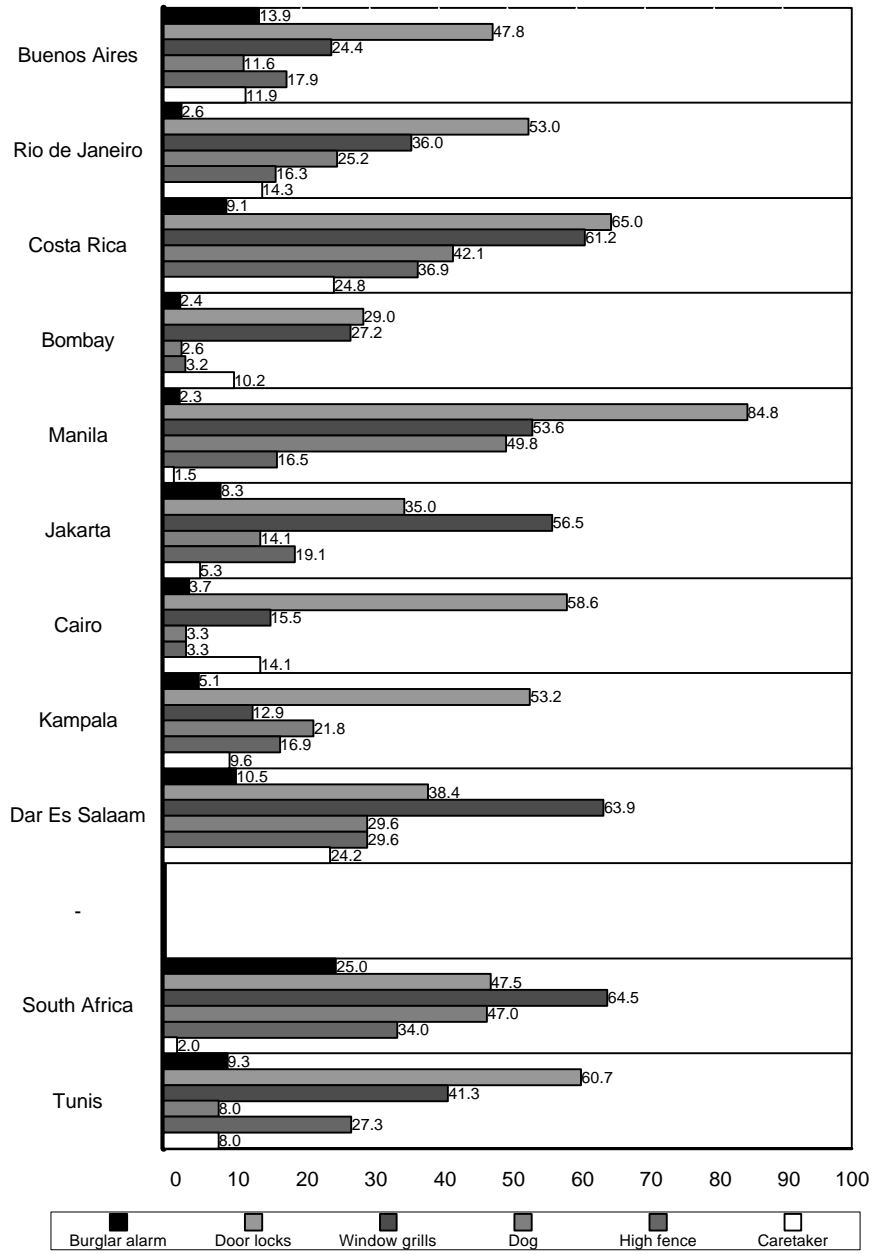


Figure 25: Crime prevention measures. Selected developing countries (%)



## ANNEX II

