



Background Note

Crime and Victimization

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“Crime and Victimization”

Background note for the World Development Report 2014: Risk and Opportunity

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Background

Historically, higher crime rates have been associated with higher inequality and poverty. Nevertheless, there remains an ambiguity over the most prominent socioeconomic factors that increase crime rates, and consequently individual victimization. Among the numerous shocks households face in developing countries, crime and violence continue to be an economic and social challenge for many communities. Crime imposes high economic costs to the public and private sectors. It lowers public and foreign investment (high incidence of theft and corruption), it reduces economic activity (safety of commuting from one location to the other), and it harbors black markets (weapon trade, drug consumption, etc). Moreover, exposure to violent crime costs lives, and increases permanent health problems. For example, domestic violence against women during pregnancy is shown to have adverse risk effects on children's health (Walsh 2008).

Victimization surveys in developing countries have not attracted researchers and policy makers until very recently. Apart from the International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS), there exists no structured international victimization survey that is representative across all regions. The UNODC, on the other hand, has funded an ongoing project in order to undertake a consistent victimization survey worldwide, but data has only been collected for a number of African countries. More recently, the World Value Surveys (WVS), known for its extended regional coverage, has included victimization-related questions in the new wave survey of 2010-2012, but data is not fully and readily available for public use. Therefore, for the purpose of our presentation, we collect and compile data on victimization and crime rates from various sources, including the ones mentioned above, and combine questions, where applicable, from different surveys in order to increase our country representation and be able to present victimization rates and perceptions worldwide (see Table A. in Appendix for more details on data sources). Nevertheless, the main source of victimization data will be the ICVS.

In this chapter, our aim is twofold: First, we conduct an assessment on perceptions of public and private insecurity, as well as on fear of victimization. Second, we provide a robust cross-regional comparison, where possible, on incidence of crime and evaluate the variability of exposure to victimization across gender and areas of residence (urban/rural). Moreover, we undertake a supplementary regional assessment for Latin America and the Caribbean to match perceptions with actual experience of crime. This assists us in evaluating the magnitude of the gap in perceived risk of victimization among individuals.

Perceptions of crime and insecurity: a cross-country investigation

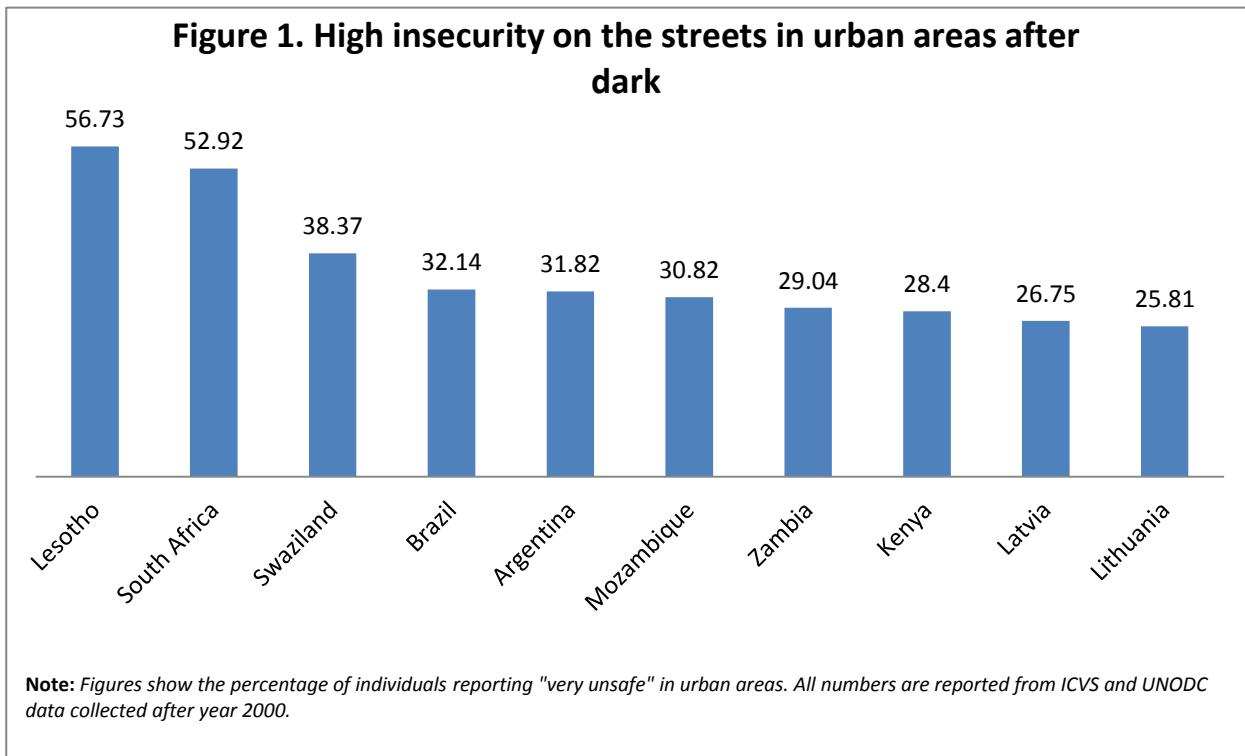
Public safety is a major concern for households, especially in countries with weak security institutions and ineffective law and order enforcement. In this section we report the fear of crime exposure at the public and private level by presenting international figures on safety of movement after dark and safety at home respectively.

Perception of public insecurity:

The most prevalent estimate of perceptions of public insecurity is measured by the fear of mobility at night. Although this indicator does not directly measure perception, yet it offers a

valuable approximation. Using both variables from the ICVS and the UNODC victimization surveys, we tabulate data on individuals' perception of safety after dark. Out of 4 possible answer choices varying between very safe to very unsafe, only percentages of responding "very unsafe" are reported¹. Given that most of the surveys that are conducted in Sub-Saharan Africa with ICVS are in urban areas, we disaggregate our data to account for this limitation. Figure 1 shows the breakdown of the results for the urban population, where we report only countries with the 10 highest percentages of individuals who answered that they feel very unsafe on the streets after dark. Lesotho ranks first with highest percentage of individuals feeling publicly unsafe at night (56.73%), followed by South Africa (43.64%), Swaziland (38.37%), Argentina (33.97%), and Brazil (32.14%).

6 out 10 of these countries are in Sub-Saharan Africa, along Brazil and Argentina from Latin America, and Latvia and Lithuania from Eastern Europe. The high insecurity levels in both Argentina and Brazil are not surprising. In major cities in Brazil, crime and violence has been described as an epidemic. In Sao Paulo for example, organized crimes still occur on a regular basis, despite the effort of internal security forces to disrupt and reduce criminal activity. Nevertheless, 1 out 3 persons reporting high insecurity concerns at the streets of urban Brazil remains a very critical matter. Same applies to Argentina.

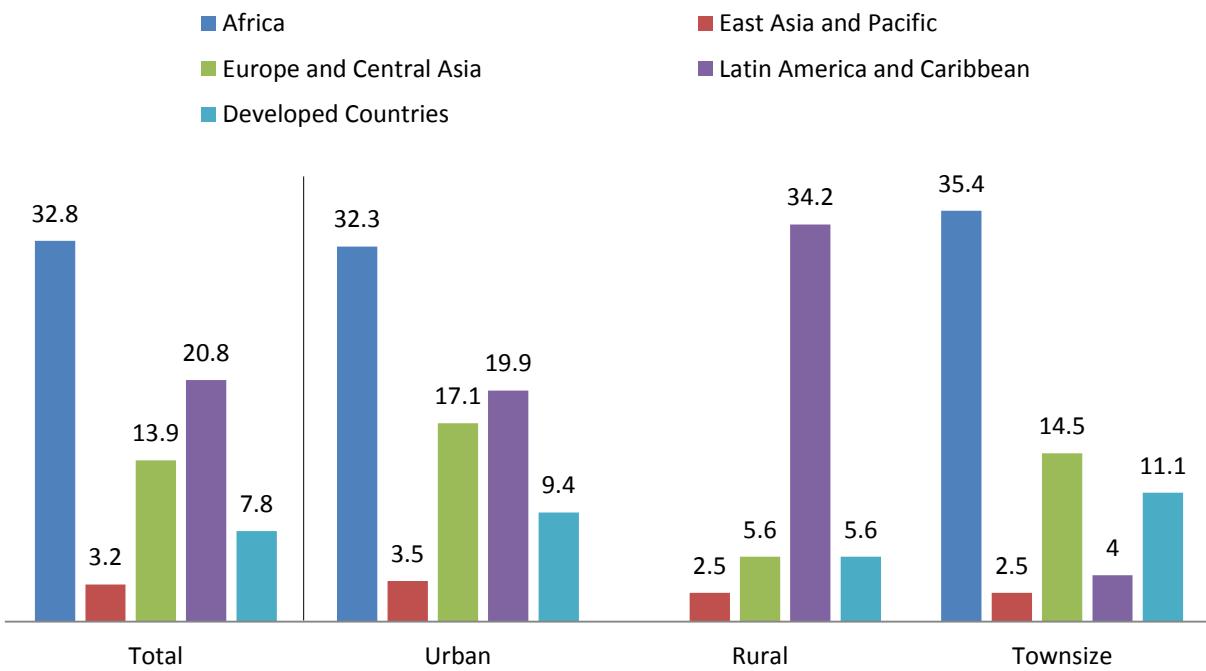


On the other hand, the high reported figures of public insecurity in sub-Saharan Africa reflect the vast lack of security enforcement and institutional outreach in region, and shows that insecurity remains a big challenge for the governments and the African Society in general.

¹ The full distribution of the answer choices can be provided by request

Figure 2 shows the regional averages at the country level and the urban/rural level, where applicable. African countries retain the highest figures with 32.8% at the country level. Overall we do observe a substantial variation between rural and urban figures, where more insecurity is experienced in urban areas. Urban areas remain worldwide the hubs for criminal activity and insecurity given the high condensed population rates and variation between income groups. This is reflected by the high rates on perception of public insecurity for both urban and large towns in figure 2. The only exception to this trend is Latin America and the Caribbean, which reconfirms the outcomes observed in earlier crime literature and reports from the region. Conflict over land issues and the unchallenged growth of organized militias in rural areas are crucial causes to the increased insecurity and public insecurity in the region.

Figure 2. Regional differences of feeling very unsafe at street after dark by Area of Residence



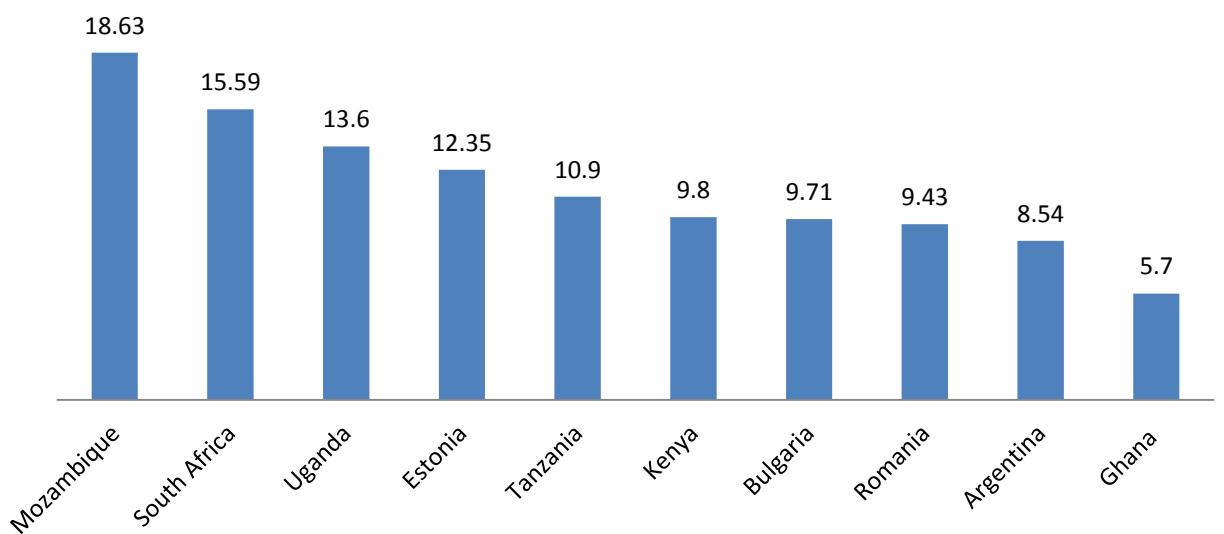
Note: Figures report the regional average of individuals answering "very unsafe" clustered by area of residence. Numbers are adapted from the ICVS dataset from year 2000 and onwards. No information is available for rural Africa, as well as for MENA and South Asia regions. Data from the UNODC reports are excluded for sampling errors during merger.

Safety at home:

Perceptions of safety on public mobility at night capture part of the security levels in certain countries, but they do not enable us to form a complete picture on the overall state of insecurity. For example, petty crimes and assaults are more likely to occur within the public sphere, while domestic violence and burglary are more probably to take place within the private sphere; that is

at home. Hence, investigating the private space too may capture different signals of insecurity. Figure 3 shows the highest 10 countries where individuals report feeling “very unsafe” at home at the urban level. Unsurprisingly, the global figures are lower in comparison to public insecurity. This may reflect the low incidence of associated crimes befalling at the private level. Again, 6 out of the 10 countries with highest reported rates are from Sub-Saharan Africa, with Mozambique (18.63%) ranking first, followed by South Africa (15.59%), Uganda (13.6%), Estonia (12.35%), and Tanzania (10.9%).

Figure 3. Feeling Safety at Home



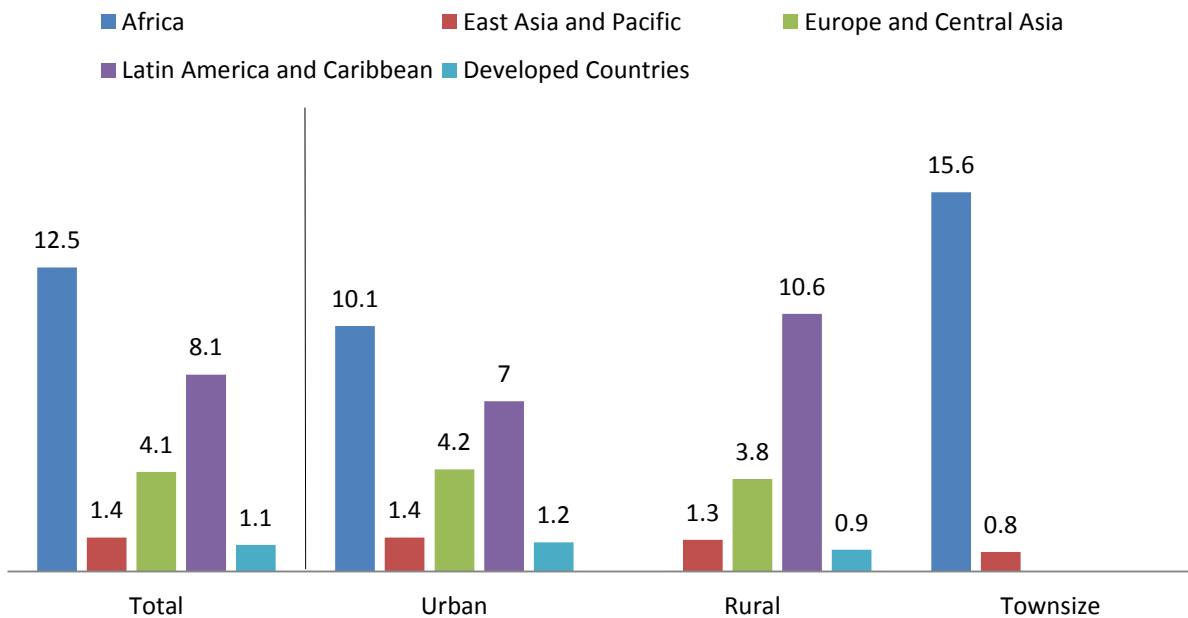
Note: Figures report the percentage of individuals reporting "very unsafe" in urban areas. All numbers are reported from ICVS and UNODC data collected after year 2000.

The high rates of insecurity at the private level in Africa are depicted clearly when examining the regional differences by the area of residence (Figure 4). 12.5% of respondents on average in Sub-Saharan Africa answered that they feel very unsafe at home. This rate is distributed between 15.6% and 10.1% in large towns and urban areas respectively. Latin America and the Caribbean ranks second with 8.1% of respondents choosing “very unsafe”. As observed in regards to public insecurity, the high average rate of insecurity in Latin countries is mainly driven by respondents residing in rural areas (10.6%). Developed and East Asian countries retain the lowest averages worldwide in both rural and urban areas, with only less than 1.5% of respondents reporting high concern over insecurity at home. On the other hand, there are no substantial differences in perceptions of insecurity between urban and rural areas for East European and Central Asian countries.

Although the general rates of private insecurity are lower in most of the world regions in comparison to public insecurity, the principal trends remain unvarying:

1. There is more perceived insecurity in urban areas versus rural areas worldwide, except for Latin American countries.
2. African countries record the highest rates of insecurity, which may be driven mainly to the low enforcement of law and order, as well as to weak institutions.
3. Perceptions of insecurity in East Asian and developed countries remains very low.

Figure 4. Regional differences of feeling very unsafe at home by area of residence



Note: Figures report the regional average of individuals answering "very unsafe" clustered by area of residence. Numbers are adapted from the ICVS dataset from year 2000 and onwards. No information is available for rural Africa, as well as for MENA and South Asia regions. Data from the UNODC reports are excluded for sampling errors during merger.

Moreover, countries that have reported the highest rates of insecurity (as shown in figure 1 and 3), such as Mozambique, Lesotho, South Africa, and Uganda have all witnessed either violent conflicts, wars, or political instability just before the new millennium. Thus, there exists a potent correlation between post-conflict countries and high insecurity indicators. This is also confirmed by literature in conflict studies, where criminal and violent acts are even extended to the immediate aftermaths of wars due to high circulation of arms and ineffective security enforcement. For example, that a looting and arson spree has infected the capital city of Lesotho in 1998 amidst the invasion of the South African troops.

Rates of Victimization

In the first section of this chapter we report the perceptions and opinions on insecurity at the public and private levels. These statistics present a raw overview over the crime incidence and victimization levels, but do not offer a detailed description. Hence, we move forward with the analysis in this section, and provide the actual rates of victimization as reported by the households. We aim to present these rates not just across regions, but also across gender and areas of residence.

ICVS worldwide victimization data

The first independent victimization survey conducted worldwide is the International Crime Victim Survey (ICVS). The database is compiled of the EU crime victim Survey, and independent surveys conducted in each country by a designated institute. The survey has been collected since 1989, and the last wave was in the period 2005-2008. Also, the survey focuses on major cities and capitals in most of the cases. Therefore a national representative sample of the population is not fully available. The survey tackles all crime and violence faced by households and individuals. For the purpose of the analysis, we use data collected from year 2000 and onwards for all available countries and focus only on the victimization at the individual level. These include: robbery, personal theft, assault, and sexual offence. Robbery is defined as the act of taking someone else's property by use of force, while personal property theft includes pickpocketing and petty crimes. Also data on domestic assault is included in the questionnaire, but only as a complimentary sub-category to assault, and thus will be analyzed seldom in the statistical report.² One should keep in mind that most surveys do not follow a default classification of type of crime into individual and household categories, thus one should be careful in breaking down the range of crimes and in categorizing them when the data is merged from various sources.

Type of crime

Table 1 shows the average crime rate on the regional level by type of crime. The first column shows the rate of victimization for a one year recall period from the survey date, while second column shows the rate for a 5 year period. The average rates of individual victimization in Africa during the past 5 years are 30% for personal theft, 20% for assault, 15% for robbery, and 15% for sexual offence. Theft and physical assault in Africa occur twice as often as in developed countries, while robbery is 5 times as higher. East Asian and Pacific countries retain the lowest average crime rates worldwide.³ On the other hand, robbery seems to be a major crime in Latin American, with more than 22% of respondents reporting incidences of robbery during the past 5 years, and 8% during the previous year.

² There is no detailed description of the act of domestic assault in the ICVS codebook and report, and hence misinterpretation of the number may arise and will be treated with caution. The DHS report on domestic violence has more detailed information in that regard (see appendix).

³ Low rates of crime incidence in East Asia and Pacific can be driven due to the low sample of countries and the inclusion of both Japan and South Korea in the regional sample.

Table 1. Regional victimization rates by type of individual crime.

| | # of countries | Robbery | | Personal Theft | | Assault | | Domestic Assault | | Sexual Offence | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|---------|-------|----------------|-------|---------|-------|------------------|-------|----------------|-------|
| Africa | 8 | 4.3 | 15.15 | 9.35 | 30.68 | 5.15 | 19.84 | - | - | 3.5 | 14.45 |
| East Asia and Pacific | 5 | 0.75 | 2.59 | 4.72 | 13.39 | 2.14 | 5.62 | 2.84 | 7.56 | 0.83 | 2.63 |
| Latin American and Caribbean | 6 | 8.13 | 22.17 | 8.04 | 22.65 | 3.12 | 8.41 | 2.36 | 6.67 | 2.22 | 5.10 |
| Europe and central Asia | 17 | 1.61 | 5.54 | 6.13 | 19.64 | 2.73 | 8.42 | 3.04 | 9.49 | 1.26 | 4.56 |
| Developed Countries | 18 | 0.91 | 3.48 | 4.17 | 15.12 | 3.12 | 10.05 | 4.09 | 12.39 | 1.33 | 4.89 |

Note: Data for MENA and South Asia Regions are not available. First column in each category represents percentages of crime exposure within the last year, and the second column represents percentages for the last 5 years.

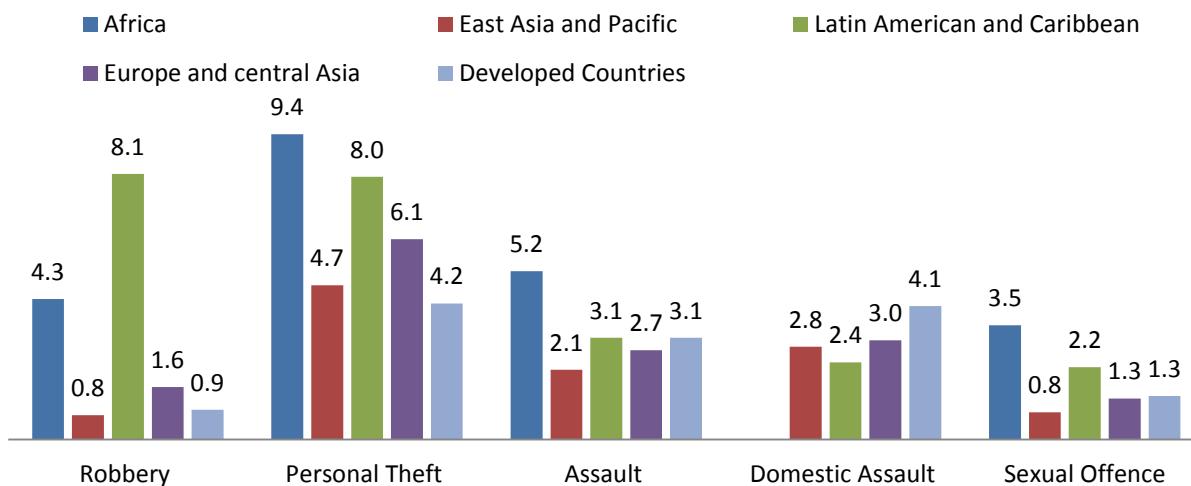
African countries have the highest percentages of incidence in regards to personal theft in the previous year. 10% of interviewees have reported being mugged in Africa, and 8% in Latin America, out of which 66% and 90% were pickpocketing respectively. The categorization of personal theft might vary across different surveys, and thus requires cautious interpretation of the results. On the other hand, domestic assault rates are highest in developed countries with 4% prevalence, slightly greater than the rest of the regional averages which are between 2 and 3 percentage points. These numbers need to be carefully examined before positing any generalization, since domestic violence definitions vary widely across countries and regions worldwide. The classification of an act of domestic assault or violence is not limited to physical abuse, but extends to include harassment, scolding, and endangerment, among others. Also government laws differ broadly across countries, and hence the perceptions of individuals regarding domestic violence may diverge as well. The UNICEF reported in 2011 that in a number of African countries women think that, under some circumstances, husbands are justified in physically abusing their wives. For example, in Ethiopia these numbers are as high as 80%. Therefore individuals in Africa may not report certain acts of domestic violence, which are definitely accounted for in Western Europe.

Sexual offence incidences are highest in Africa for both reported periods. 3.5% of respondents have faced an act of sexual assault in Sub-Saharan Africa during the past year. 40% of the sexual offences took place at home or in a location near home, 11% at work, and the rest of the offences occurred in a remote area and/or in other parts of the city/town. Moreover, 15% were incidents of rape, 22% were attempted rape, and around 60% were indecent assaults and offensive behaviors. The incidence of rape in Africa is remarkably high relative to the other regions, which does not exceed 4-5%⁴. Unfortunately, the breakdown of this figure into more detailed categories is not

⁴ Tables are available upon request.

possible given the available data. Therefore a differentiation between acts of sexual assault, such as marital sexual violence, child abuse, or public harassment is not plausible.

Figure 5. Regional victimization rates by type of crime - yearly averages



Note: Figures represent the exposure to crime in the last year. ICVS data used after year 2000. All percentages are rounded to the first decimal. Data on domestic assault for Africa is not available through the ICVS.

Gender

The breakdown of the results by the gender of the respondents reveals a notable variation between males and females. Although varying in magnitude, the victimization ratios exhibit a consistent trend across regions. Men are more likely to face robbery and assault, while women are more likely to face sexual offence and personal theft⁵. The results are in line with the crime literature, as men are more prone to engage into street quarrels, while women are easier targets for pickpocketing. Notably, 25% of men in Latin American report an incidence of robbery in the past 5 years. This figure is shockingly high, and posits a serious concern regarding safety of property and business in Latin American countries. 18% of men in African countries report robbery compared to 13% for women. Moreover, there is no gender variation in regards to personal theft in Africa, with both figures slightly surpassing 30%. On the other hand, Latin American females are more exposed to personal theft relative to men, with 26% and 18% respectively.

As expected, sexual offences and assaults rates are mainly driven by female respondents. One should keep in mind that men were not asked about sexual crimes in most of the surveys, which can also increase the bias of the presented rates. Nevertheless, the figures are highest among African societies, with 15% of women reporting sexual offences in the last 5 years. Another outstanding observation is the low deviation on crime average between males and females in developed countries. Albeit these minor differences, the general trend remains solid: **Women are**

⁵ Sexual offence related questions were asked for men in some countries during the last wave of the survey.

more likely to be targets for personal theft and sexual offences, while men for robbery and assault.

Surprisingly, men report that they are more exposed to domestic assault than women. This trend is similar across all regions, where the highest number is reported in developed countries. Around 10% of men report that they have been domestically assaulted. These figures raise a set of questions regarding the accuracy of the questionnaire and its clarity. Also, since domestic assault is a gender-specific type of crime, and since there is no clear-cut explanation in the survey on the respondents' individual or household experience, we exclude the results from the report. However, we report in the appendix data adapted from the WHO on domestic violence against women, which provides a clearer picture on the prevalence of sexual and physical violence by an intimate partner (Table C).

Area of Residence

Most of the population worldwide lives nowadays in urban areas. Crime and violence are highly associated with increases in population size, thus transforming urban areas into hubs of increased criminal activities. In the previous section, we show that individuals are more terrified to roam the streets of urban areas and cities at night vis-à-vis rural areas. In order to better understand the underlying causes of such fears across the globe, we disaggregate the crime and victimization data between areas of residence of the respondents. Table 4 presents universal 1-year and 5-year victimization rates by type of individual crime. As expected, public crimes have much higher incidence in urban areas. More than 3% of respondents residing in urban areas have encountered robbery in the last year, double the figure in rural areas. These figures are similar for personal theft and assault with 7.03% and 3.56% respectively, versus the rural rates of 3.43% and 2.96%. On the other hand, private crimes rates, such as domestic assault and sexual offences (to some extent) barely indicate any significant differences. There is only 4 percentage point increase in domestic assault between rural and urban areas, while this increment is more than 100 percentage point increase for personal theft (Table 3). Therefore, globally there is a clear trend of concentrated crime in urban areas and this remains a major challenge for policymakers to tackle the issue of rising crime with increasing population size. Prevention policies and intervention mechanisms remain minimal for combating crime in cities. The causes of urban crimes go deeper than the institutional and social roots, to include economic factors, such as unemployment and income inequality. As laid down in a previous report from the World Bank, youth unemployment remains a major challenge for facilitating the reduction of crime in urban African communities⁶.

⁶ “Violence in the City: Understanding and Supporting Community Responses to Urban Violence.” ©2010 The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development /The World Bank

Table 3. Global victimization rates by type of individual crime and area of residence

| | Robbery | | Personal Theft | | Assault | | Domestic Assault | | Sexual Offence | |
|--------------|---------|------|----------------|-------|---------|-------|------------------|-------|----------------|------|
| Urban | 3.04 | 9.56 | 7.03 | 22.38 | 3.56 | 11.31 | 3.51 | 11.96 | 1.92 | 6.29 |
| Rural | 1.49 | 4.63 | 3.43 | 11.86 | 2.96 | 8.78 | 3.55 | 10.64 | 1.15 | 3.94 |

Note: First column in each category represents percentages of crime exposure within the last year, and the second column represents percentages for the last 5 years.

The variation between urban and rural crime fluctuates vastly across countries and regions. Figures 6a-e show the victimization incidence rates by region. As captured by the figures of perceived victimization and fear of crime in the first section, the highest urban victimization rates are in Sub-Saharan Africa, except for robbery in Latin America. Only higher records of rural crime incidence are observed in Latin America, which are mainly driven by the high prevalence of robbery. There is no noteworthy variation between rural and urban crime in East Asia and Pacific, as well as in the developed countries. Unfortunately, comparison rates in Africa are not possible, due to the lack of representation of the sample in rural area. Nevertheless, data from town size areas – which lie between urban cities and rural villages – shows that personal theft, and physical and sexual assaults are more likely to take place in more urbanized areas, while the contrary is true for robbery. Moreover, domestic violence does not show any significant variation between rural and urban areas in all presented regions, since domestic assault is invariant across areas of residence.

Figure 6a. East Asia and Pacific

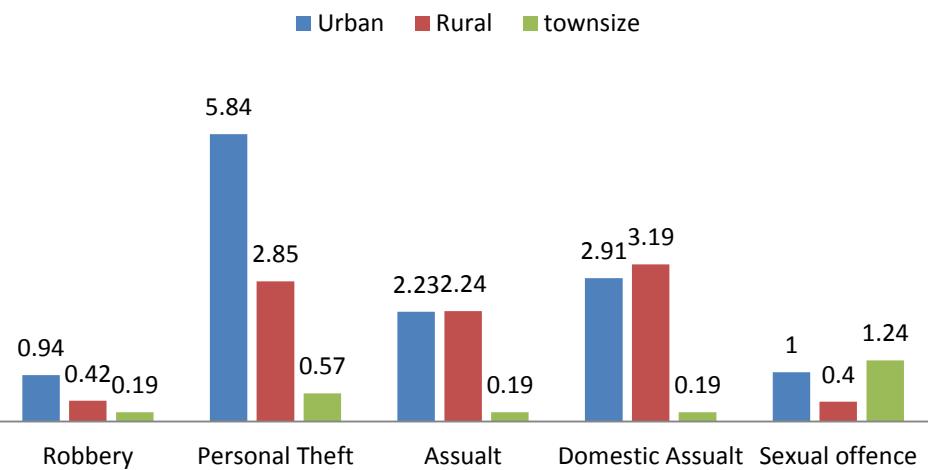


Figure 6b. Latin America and Caribbean

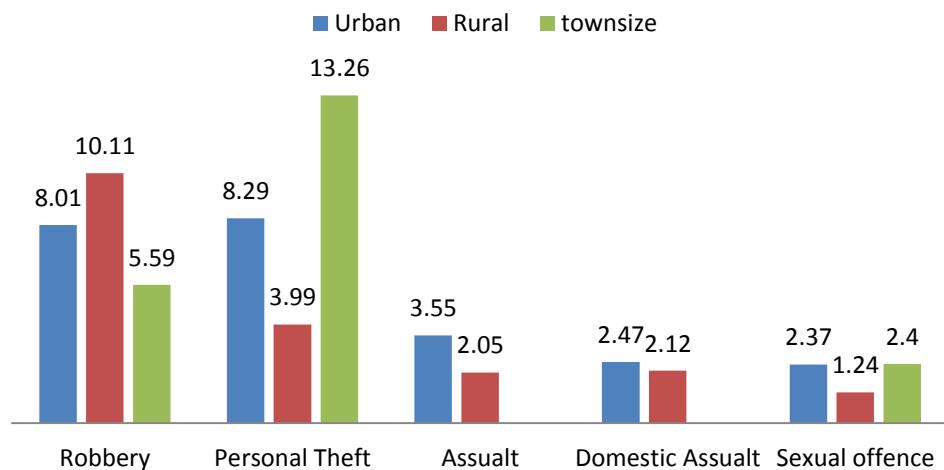


Figure 6c. Europe and Central Asia

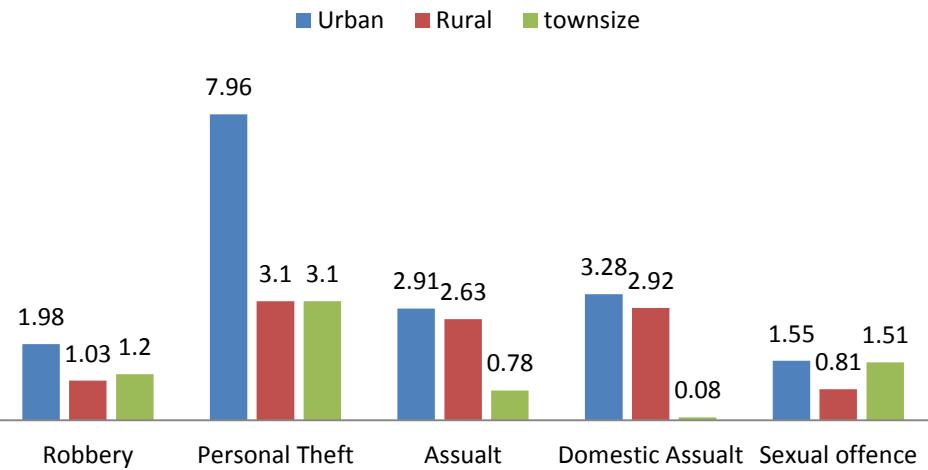


Figure 6d. Developed Countries

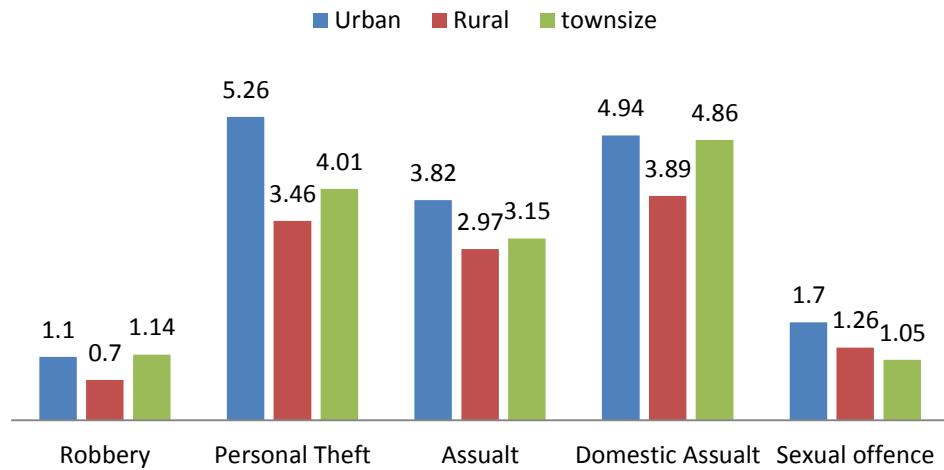
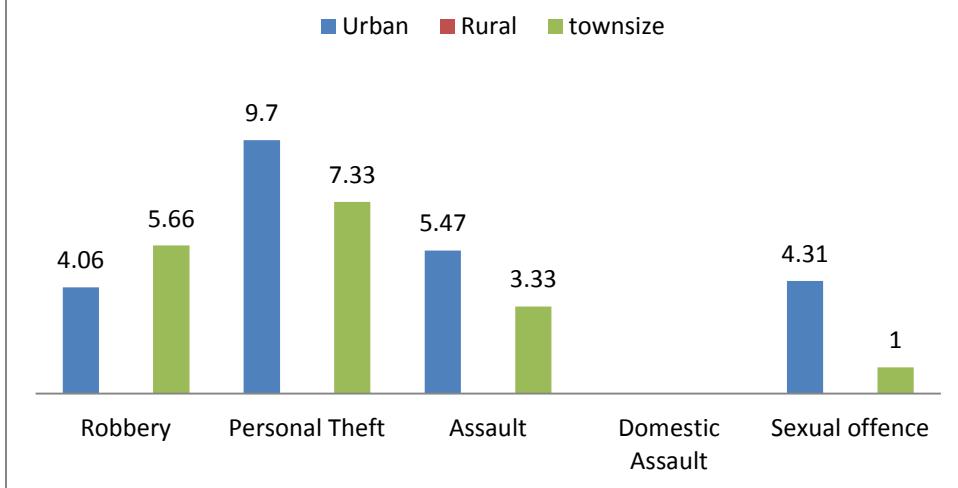


Figure 6e. Africa



In order to compensate for the lack of data available on rural Africa in the ICVS, we make use of the Afro-Barometer IV survey questions addressed on fear of crime at home, house robbery, and physical assault. The advantages of the Afro-Barometer data are the inclusion of around 20 African Sub-Saharan countries⁷ and the representation of sample at both rural and urban levels, while one important disadvantage is the lack of a detailed description of the type of crimes, which in turn hampers any significant comparative exercise. The results in table 4 are presented along the range of answer choices given to the respondents, which are ‘never, just once or twice, several, many, and always’⁸. In comparison to the data from the ICVS, the rates are higher with 32.29% of respondents having something stolen from their houses, and 13.14% being physically attacked at least once in the last 12 months. People living in urban areas report higher rates on both crimes, yet there is no substantial difference to rural crime. 15.24 % of respondents report being physically attacked in urban areas. This figure is only 5.47% using the ICVS data. This gap could be due to the inclusion of more countries in the analysis. Nevertheless, the outcome is evident that African societies still face high incidence of crime in comparison to the rest of the world.

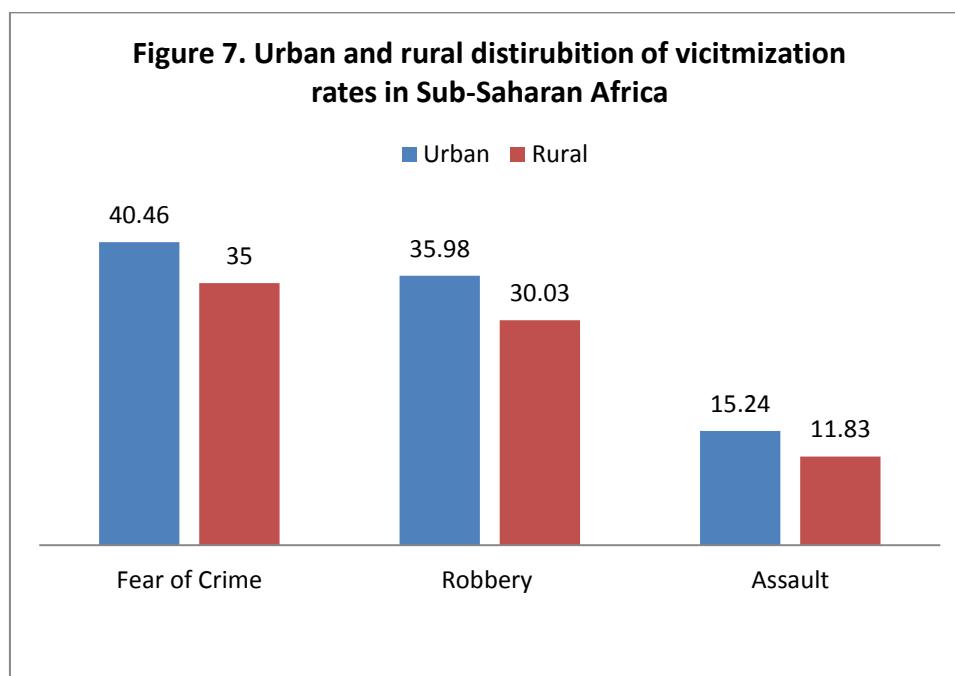
⁷ List of countries participating in the 4th wave of the Afro-Barometer survey can be found in the Appendix.

⁸ For ease of readability and comparison we report the cumulative rates of exposure; i.e., at least exposed once to a certain crime.

Table 4. Robbery and assault victimization rates for Sub-Saharan Africa by area of residence

| | | Never | Once or twice | Several times | Many times | Always | At least once |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|---------------|---------------|------------|--------|---------------|
| Fear of crime at home | Urban | 59.2 | 13.8 | 12.36 | 6.81 | 7.49 | 40.46 |
| | Rural | 64.7 | 12.72 | 11.09 | 6.24 | 4.95 | 35 |
| | Total | 62.61 | 13.13 | 11.57 | 6.46 | 5.91 | 37.07 |
| Robbery from home | Urban | 63.9 | 22.23 | 9.1 | 3.73 | 0.92 | 35.98 |
| | Rural | 69.75 | 17.52 | 8.13 | 3.59 | 0.79 | 30.03 |
| | Total | 67.53 | 19.31 | 8.5 | 3.64 | 0.84 | 32.29 |
| Physical attack | Urban | 84.52 | 10.6 | 2.61 | 1.49 | 0.54 | 15.24 |
| | Rural | 87.91 | 7.32 | 2.6 | 1.26 | 0.65 | 11.83 |
| | Total | 86.62 | 8.57 | 2.61 | 1.35 | 0.61 | 13.14 |

Note: last column presents the cumulative percentage of crime occurrence. Data is adapted from the Afro-Barometer IV survey which includes 20 sub-Saharan countries. Missing and unreported answer choices are excluded from the table report.



Special focus: Latin America

In this section, we turn the focus on Latin America and the Caribbean. The Latin-Barometer have collected yearly data in most of the Latin American countries, and in the latest available data

wave (2009) more questions on victimization have been added to the survey. The aim of this case study is to examine the difference between actual and perceived victimization. In other words, we assess the difference between fear of becoming a victim of violent crime, and actual incidence of crime in the last 12 months prior to the survey. The two main questions that are used for this purpose are: (i) Are you concerned about being a victim of crime with violence? And (ii) Have you or your family been a victim of crime in the last 12 months?

Table 5 shows the cross tabulation between those two variables. 8.8% of individuals never fear of becoming victims of crime, while 30.8% are fearful all or most of the time. These figures are not of surprise for Latin America, and are in line with previously reported figures on the region (Check safety figures in section 1). 26% of individuals who have not been a victim of assault or known anyone who has been a victim of violent crime in the past year are afraid of becoming victims all or most of time. Although this figure is lower in comparison to people who have been victims 41 % or known a victim 36.5%, still it reflects an exaggerated assessment of perceived crime incidence. Furthermore, 38 % of people who were victims of crime and 40% who were not are sometimes afraid of becoming victims of crime. Lastly, 3.9% of victims and 11% of non-victims are never afraid.

Table 5. Cross tabulation between perception and actual victimization for Latin America and the Caribbean 2009.

| | Yes | Yes, relative | No | Total |
|----------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| All/Most of the time | 41.01 | 36.49 | 26.04 | 30.79 |
| Sometime | 37.94 | 37.37 | 39.34 | 38.64 |
| Occasionally | 16.51 | 18.96 | 22.56 | 20.73 |
| Never | 3.88 | 6.49 | 10.96 | 8.8 |

Notes: 18 Latin American countries are included in the analysis (List in Appendix). Data was retrieved from the Latino-Barometer wave of 2009. Country weights as provided in the dataset were used to account for frequency discrepancy. Reported numbers are cross-tabulation of the variables as presented entered into the dataset. Missing answers and “do not know” answer choices are excluded from this table for ease of presentation.

At the country level, we observe that in most countries individuals who have been victims or have relatives that were victims of violent crime, express persistent and high concern over becoming victimized. The only exception is the Dominican Republic and Panama, but the differences are not that large (figure 8a). For example, over 40% of non-victims In Brazil express fear of crime all the time - a large rate given the population size. This figure is higher than the rate of fear of crime among the victimized population in Mexico, Panama, and Columbia, etc. This trend of heightened fear of crime is clearly depicted in figure 8b. By comparing “constant fear” and “no fear” of crime for non-victimized population in Latin America, a vast difference between those two rates is observed. In Nicaragua there are slightly few respondents that are not fearful of becoming victims of violence. This reflects the high insecurity perceptions among the Nicaraguan population. All in all, perception and fear of crime remain vastly higher than the

actual incidence, suggesting that there will always be people fearing crime even if the actual crime rates drop to zero.

This trend has been recurrent in conflict literature, where individuals are still not fully confident in the security situation after the end of the war or a political instability. Moreover, the data presented below does only report individuals (or relatives) who were exposed to violent crime, and not the knowledge of crime incidence in general, which disregards media reports. Media has been playing a major role in conveying news on crime, violence, and terrorism worldwide recently, thus a positive bias effect is expectable. Non-victims of crime who are constantly informed of the on-going crimes in their neighborhood and cities tend to exaggerate the actual levels and their intensity. Therefore, people remain in constant fear of crime despite the decreasing incidences. Anti-crime measures should just not combat actual crime, but also assist in decreasing the sense of fear of crime among the population. This remains a hard task, as security measures that aim in reducing the perception of fear can be counter-intuitive. For example, the constant presence of police forces may provide a solution to regain feelings of safety, but also may have a counter-effect, and result in excessive fear due to its association of increased insecurity. Also adaptation and coping mechanisms to the presence of crime may reduce fear and perceptions of insecurity. In Columbia, 40% of victims and 20% of non-victims have constant fear of crime- which are below Latin American average (see Table 5), although Columbia has the highest rates of crime worldwide (Figures A1-A4 in Appendix)

Figure 8a. Constant concern of being victims of violent crime in Latin America

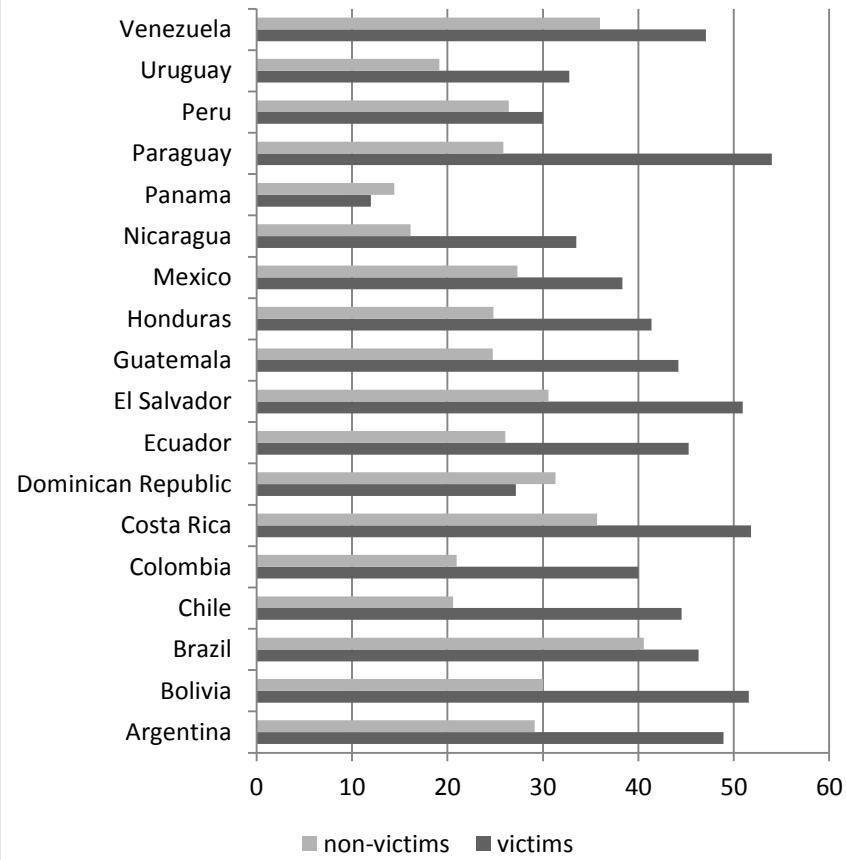
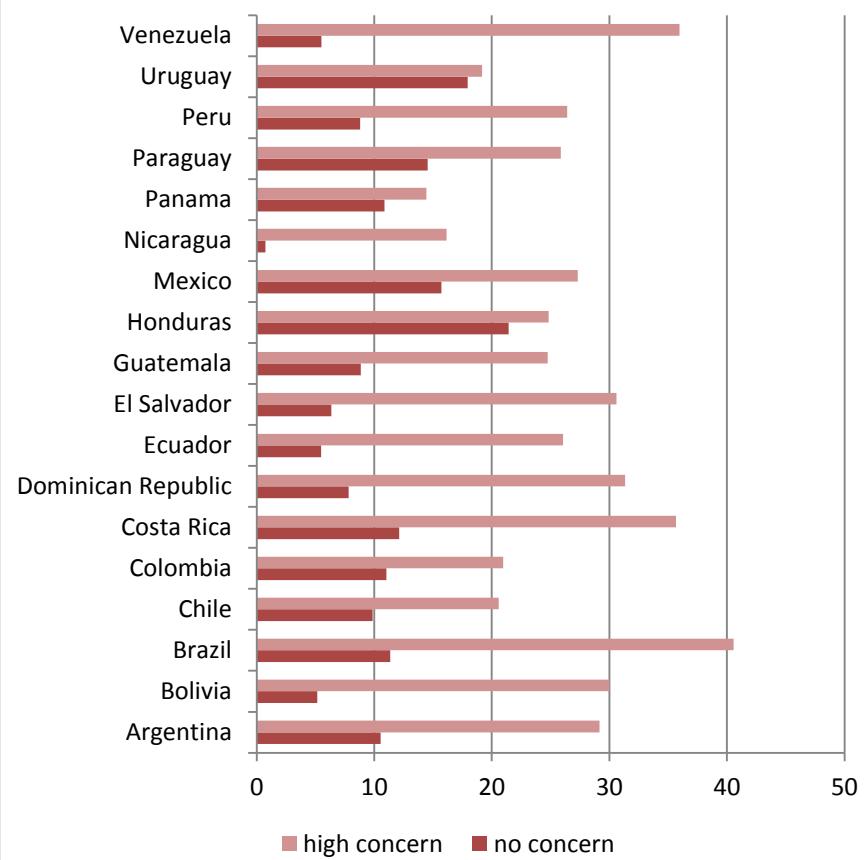


Figure 8b. Concern of being victims of crime for the non-victimized population in Latin America



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Appendix

Table A. Sources of Surveys on victimization and perceptions on insecurity, crime, and violence

| Survey | Period | Region | Number of countries | Perceptions on safety and crime | Incidence of crime | Exposure to Crime |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---|---------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| LatinoBarometre | 2009-2010 | Latin American and Caribbean | 18 | YES | YES | YES |
| AfroBarometer | 2005-2008 | Africa | 20 | YES | NO | YES |
| ArabBarometer | 2008 | MENA | 6 | YES | NO | NO |
| ICVS | 2000-2008 | Europe and Central Asia, Africa, Latin America, East Asia | 57 | YES | YES | YES |
| UNODC victimization surveys | 2007-2010 | Africa | 6 | YES | YES | YES |

Table B. List of countries included in the survey

| International Crime Victimization Survey – Merged dataset 2000 - current | | | Latino-Barometer 2009 | Afro-Barometer IV |
|---|-------------|----------------|--------------------------|-------------------|
| Albania | Iceland | South Africa | Argentina | Benin |
| Argentina | Ireland | Spain | Bolivia | Botswana |
| Australia | Italy | Swaziland | Brazil | Burkina Faso |
| Austria | Japan | Sweden | Chile | Cape Verde |
| Azerbaijan | Latvia | Switzerland | Colombia | Ghana |
| Belarus | Lesotho | Turkey | Costa Rica | Kenya |
| Belgium | Lithuania | Uganda | Dominican Republic | Lesotho |
| Botswana | Luxembourg | Ukraine | Ecuador | Liberia |
| Brazil | Mexico | United Kingdom | El Salvador | Madagascar |
| Bulgaria | Mongolia | USA | Guatemala | Malawi |
| Cambodia | Mozambique | Zambia | Honduras | Mali |
| Canada | Namibia | | Mexico | Mozambique |
| Colombia | Netherlands | | Nicaragua | Namibia |
| Croatia | New Zealand | | Panama | Nigeria |
| Czech Republic | Norway | | Paraguay | Senegal |
| Denmark | Panama | | Peru | South Africa |
| Estonia | Peru | | Uruguay | Tanzania |
| Finland | Philippine | | Venezuela | Uganda |
| France | Poland | | | Zambia |
| Georgia | Portugal | | | Zimbabwe |
| Germany | Romania | | | |
| Greece | Russia | | | |
| Hungary | Slovenia | | | |

Table C. Prevalence of physical and sexual violence against women by an intimate male partner 2000-2007

| Country | Source / Study | Year of study | Sample Size | PHYSICAL VIOLENCE (%) | | SEXUAL VIOLENCE (%) | |
|------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------|-----------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|
| | | | | Ever | Last 12 months | Ever | Last 12 months |
| Cameroon | DHS | 2004 | 2453 | 39 | | 14 | |
| Democratic Republic of Congo | DHS | 2007 | 2631 | 57 | | 35 | |
| Ethiopia | WHO | 2002 | 2261 | 49 | 29 | 59 | 44 |
| Kenya | DHS | 2003 | 3856 | 40 | 24 | 16 | 12 |
| Liberia | DHS | 2006-07 | 3678-3555 | 35 | 33 | 11 | 10 |
| Malawi | DHS | 2004-05 | 6299 | 20 | 13 | 13 | 12 |
| | | 2005 | 3546 | 30 | | 18 | |
| Namibia | WHO | 2002 | 1367 | 31 | 16 | 17 | 9 |
| Rwanda | DHS | 2005 | 2114 | 29 | 17 | 12 | 10 |
| Tanzania | WHO | 2002 | 1442 | 33 | 15 | 23 | 13 |
| | | | 1256 | 47 | 19 | 31 | 18 |
| Uganda | DHS | 2006 | 1598-1518 | 48 | 35 | 36 | 25 |
| Zambia | DHS | 2001-02 | 2955 | 45 | 25 | 6 | 5 |
| | | 2007 | 3910-3679 | 47 | 40 | 17 | 16 |
| Zimbabwe | DHS | 2005-06 | 3511 | 28 | 25 | 12 | 12 |
| Bolivia | DHS | 2003-04 | 8988 | 52 | | 14 | |
| Brazil | WHO | 2001 | 940 | 27 | 8 | 10 | 3 |
| | | | 1188 | 34 | 13 | 14 | 6 |
| Chile | INCLEN | 2004 ^p | 422 | 25 | 4 | | |
| Colombia | DHS | 2000 | 7602 | 44 | 3 | 11 | |
| | | 2004-05 | 25279 | | | 12 | |

| | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------|----------------------|-------|-----------|-----------|----|----|
| Dominican Republic | DHS | 2002 | 6807 | 22 | 11 - 9 u | 6 | 4 |
| | | 2007 | 7719 | 16 | 11 | 6 | 4 |
| El Salvador | CDC | 2002 | 10689 | 20 d | 6 | | |
| Guatemala | CDC | 2002 | 6595 | | 9 | | |
| Haiti | DHS | 2000 | 2347 | 29 - 18 u | 21 - 12 u | 17 | 15 |
| | | 2005-06 | 1944 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 11 |
| Honduras | CDC | 2001 | 6827 | 10 | 6 | | 5 |
| | DHS | 2005-06 | 15479 | | 6 | | 4 |
| Mexico | | 2003 | 34184 | | 9 | | |
| Paraguay | CDC | 2004 | 5070 | 19 | 7 | | |
| Peru | DHS | 2000 | 17369 | 42 | 2 | | |
| | WHO | 2001 | 1019 | 50 | 17 | 23 | 7 |
| | | | 1497 | 62 | 25 | 47 | 23 |
| | DHS | 2005-06 ¹ | 8846 | | | | |
| Cambodia | DHS | 2000 | 2403 | 18 - 16 u | 15 | 4 | 3 |
| | | 2005-06 | 2037 | 13 | | 3 | |
| Indonesia | | 2000 | 765 | 11 | 2 | | |
| Philippines | INCLEN | 2004 ^p | 1000 | 21 | 6 | | |
| Republic of Korea | | 2004 | 5916 | 21 | 13 | | |
| Samoa | WHO | 2000 | 1204 | 41 | 18 | 20 | 12 |
| Thailand | WHO | 2002 | 1048 | 23 | 8 | 30 | 17 |
| | | | 1090 | 34 | 13 | 29 | 16 |
| Vietnam | | 2004 | 1090 | 25 | 14 | | |
| India | INCLEN | 2004 ^p | 506 | 35 | 25 | | |
| | | | 700 | 43 | 20 | | |
| | | | 716 | 31 | 16 | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|--------|-------------------|-------------|----|----|----|---|
| | DHS | 2005-06 | 66658-63966 | 35 | 21 | 10 | 7 |
| Albania | CDC | 2002 | 4049 | 8 | 5 | | |
| Azerbaijan | CDC | 2001 | 5533 | 20 | 8 | | |
| | DHS | 2006 | 3847-3691 | 13 | 10 | 3 | 2 |
| Republic of Moldova | DHS | 2005 | 3222 | 20 | 13 | 3 | 2 |
| Romania | CDC | 1999 | 5322 | 29 | 10 | | |
| Russia | CDC | 2000 | 5482 | 22 | 7 | | |
| Serbia / Montenegro | WHO | 2003 | 1189 | 23 | 3 | 6 | 1 |
| Tajikistan | | 2005 | 400 | 36 | 19 | | |
| Ukraine | DHS | 2007 | 2355-2251 | 13 | 10 | 3 | 2 |
| Egypt | INCLEN | 2004 ^p | 631 | 11 | 11 | | |
| | DHS | 2005 | 5613 | 33 | 18 | 7 | 4 |
| Jordan | DHS | 2007 | 3444 | 21 | 12 | 8 | 6 |
| Note: This dataset is an adaptation from a dataset that was prepared by Benjamin Petrini, of the Social Development Department at The World Bank, and completed in January 2010. For more information, please contact socialdevelopment@worldbank.org | | | | | | | |

Figures A1-A4. List of top 10 countries in the world by type of crime – yearly rates.

Figure A1. Robbery

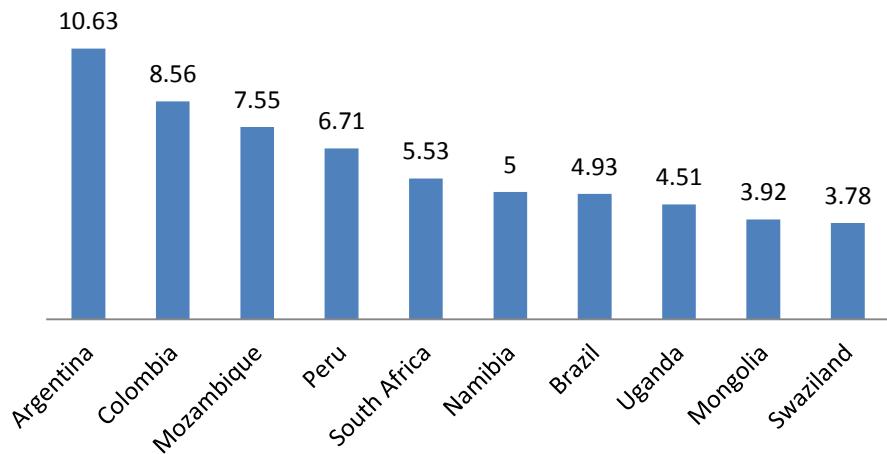


Figure A2. Personal Theft

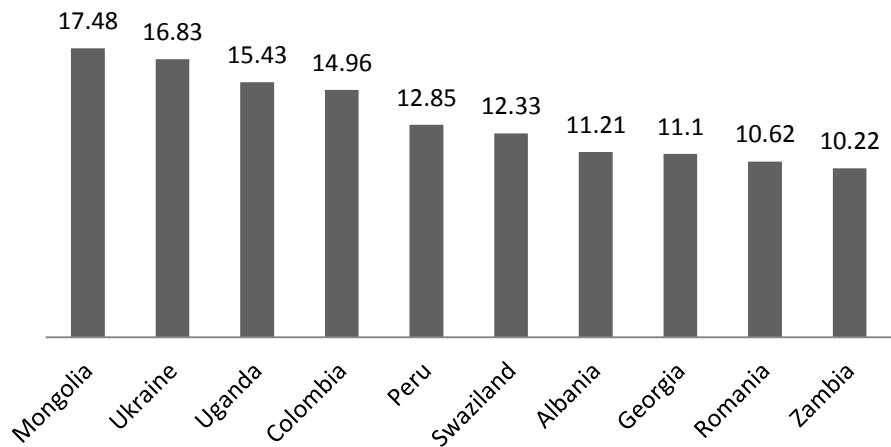


Figure A3. Assault

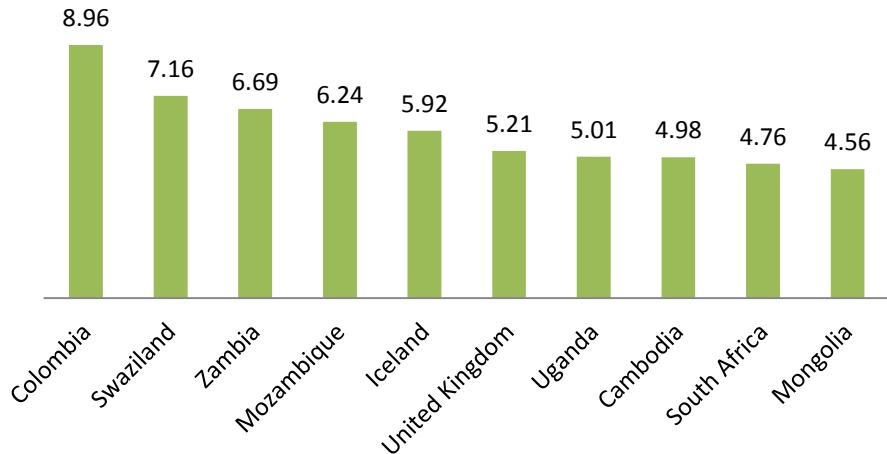


Figure A4. Sexual offence

